COGNITIVE TASK ANALYSIS IN TASK-BASED SYLLABUS DESIGN FOR THE TEACHING AND LEARNING OF KISWAHILI AS A SECOND LANGUAGE IN UGANDAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

BY

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Dissertation presented for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences at Stellenbosch University

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December 2018
DECLARATION

By submitting this dissertation electronically, I declare that the entirety of the work contained therein is my own, original work, that I am the sole author thereof (save to the extent explicitly otherwise stated), that reproduction and publication thereof by Stellenbosch University will not infringe any third-party rights and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it for obtaining any qualification.

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Caesar Jjingo                                Date
Abstract

The genesis of this theoretically informed dissertation is motivated by researcher’s need to explore both available and suitable conventional teaching and learning practices that are globally accepted with the aim of utilising them in Kiswahili L2 teacher-training at the School of Education, Makerere University, Uganda.

In search for such conventional methods and approaches, through research literature review with respect to instructed second language acquisition in general, and by critically observing the Kiswahili teaching syllabus for lower secondary schools in Uganda, it emerged that Kiswahili pedagogies are still realised using traditional conventions of L2 teaching and learning methods. These conventions have been disproved and replaced by contemporary approaches such as task-based theories and their associated pedagogical approaches that the current study has adopted and demonstrated their applications for lower secondary schools in Uganda.

The demonstration has largely been informed by Long’s (2005a) proposals that have also constituted the research design (methodology) of the current study. Using Long’s views, the study employed document analysis approach as well as researcher’s introspective and heuristic judgement techniques to generate its data i.e. the construction of (i) the overarching task theme, (ii) task description specifications (TDSs) and (iii) simulated task dialogues (STDs), as primary input in designing a task-based Kiswahili syllabus.

Relatedly, Breen’s (1987a, 2001) views on task-based syllabus design principles have provided a framework on which the constructed data (TDSs) has been organised for its analysis and ultimate grading and sequencing of the designed Kiswahili pedagogical tasks. In relation to procedures of analysis, five out of forty-one TDSs and their respective STDs have purposely been selected for analysis purposes. Thus, the data has been analysed in three facets of task complexity.

For example, the framework of Pica, Kanagy & Falodun (1993, 2009) has been employed to analyse the interactional complexity of the TDSs. Similarly, the views of Robinson (2001a, 2005, 2010) have provided useful insights into analysing the cognitive complexity of the TDSs. Lastly, Foster, Tonkyn & Wigglesworth’s (2000) framework, has been utilised to analyse the syntactic/linguistics complexity of the STDs. The omission and alteration techniques as advanced by Hasan’s (1985), Henry and Roseberry’s (1998), have been utilised in decomplexifying the Kiswahili cognitive complexity features occurring in the TDSs and the decomplexification of the syntactic/linguistic complex properties exhibited in the realised STDs of the TDSs. Relatedly, the
two principles from the Robinson’s (2010) SSARC model were used in grading and sequencing the various versions of cognitive and syntactic complexities occurring in the TDSs and STDs, respectively, to design Kiswahili learning tasks.

Therefore, on the one hand, on the interactional feature basis, the study predominantly argues that the analysed TDSs exhibited task communication configurations of the information gap tasks. On the other hand, with regard to cognitive and syntactic analysis, the study has concluded that while the resource-directing variables of the analysed TDSs and STDs demonstrated an [-] feature, the resource-dispersing dimensions presented deviations between the [+-] features. That is to say, as the [+- prior knowledge] and [+- single task] variables of TDSs and STDs of Task one, Task two and Task four exhibited the [+] feature, those of TDSs and STDs of Task three and Task five demonstrated the [-] feature, hence qualifying for their decomplexification/scaling down the complex features through the omission and alteration techniques to realised less and least cognitively and syntactically complex task version which were then sequenced from the least to the most complex task versions by using the principles of the SSARC model, as proposed by Robinson (2010).

Thus, the above findings indicate to L2 Kiswahili researchers and teachers that while designing task-based syllabuses, all the task features such as cognitive variables, interactional variables as well as syntactic properties, that pose cognitive demands to the L2 learners, need to be taken into account to design a suitable syllabus that addresses the Kiswahili L2 learners’ needs such as those in Ugandan lower secondary schools.

It is in this respect that the study recommends similar studies e.g. for primary schools in Uganda with the ultimate goal of gradually replacing the traditional syllabuses and their pedagogical practices with task-based syllabuses in the education system of Uganda and wider contexts for the teaching and learning of Kiswahili as an L2.
OPSOMMING

Die ontwikkeling van hierdie teoretiese gebaseerde proefskrif is gemotiveer deur die navorser se behoeftes om ‘n ondernemende te doen van soveel beskikbare en gepaste konvensionele onderrig en leerprakteke wat wêreldwyd erken word met die doel om die insigte aan te wend in die onderwyseropleiding van Kiswahili tweedetaal onderwysers in die skool vir Opvoedkunde, Makarere Universiteit, Uganda.

In die ondersoek na sodanige konvensionele benaderings en metodes deur navorsingsliteratuur oorsig met betrekking tot onderrig en tweedetaalverwerwing, in die algemeen, en deur kritiese waarneming van die Kiswahili syllabus vir laer sekondere skole in Uganda, het dit aan die lig gekom dat Kiswahili pedagogiete nog plaasvind deur die gebruik van tradisionele konvensies van tweedetaalonderrig en leermetodes, wat as ondoeltreffend bewys is en vervang is deur kontemporêre benaderings soos die Taakgebaseerde teorie en die geassosieerde benaderings daarvan, het die proefskrif hulle toepassing aanvaar en gedemonstreer vir laer sekondêre skole in Uganda.

Hierdie demonstrasie is grootliks gebaseer op die voorstelle van Long (2005a), wat ook die basis gevorm het vir die navorsingsontwerp van hierdie studie. Deur gebruik te maak van Lang se voorstelle het die studie ‘n document-analiese benadering gevolg geintegreer met die navorser se introspektiewe en heuristiese oordee tegniek, om data te genereer, in die besonder, (i) die konstruksie van die oorkoepelende tema (ii) taakbeskrywing spesifikasies, en (iii) gesimuleerde taakbeskrywings, as primêre input vir die ontwerp van ‘n taakgebaseerde Kiswahili syllabus.

Verbandhouend, het Breen (1987a, 2001) se beskouings oor taakgebaseerde ontwerpbeginsels ‘n raamwerk voorsien waarbinne die konstruksie van die data (taakbeskrywingsspesifikasies) georganiseer is vir analyse en gradering en ordening, met betrekking tot procedures vir analyse, is vyf uit een-en-veertig van die taakbeskrywing spesifikasies en die respektiewelike gesimuleerde taakbeskrywings, doelmatig geselekteer vir die doel voor ontlewing. Daarvolgens is die data ge-analiseerd in terme van die fasette van kompleksiteit. Byvoorbeeld, die raamwerk van Pica, Kanagy & Falodun (1993, 2009) is aangewend in die analyse van die interaksie kompleksiteit van die taakbeskrywingsspesifikasies. Soortgelyk, het die perspektiewe van Robinson (2001a, 2005, 2010) bruikbare insigte gebied vir die analise van die kognitiewe kompleksiteit van die taakbeskrywingsspesifikasies. Laastens is Foster, Tonkyn & Wigglesworth (2000) se raamwerk
aangewend in die analyse van die sintaktiese kompleksiteit van die taakbeskrywingspesifikasies. Die weglatting en alternasie tegnieke soos voorgestel deur Hasan (1985) se teorie e nook die van Henry & Rosenberg (1998) is aangewen in die dekompleksifisering van die Kiswahili kognitiewe kompleksiteit kenmerke van die taakbeskrywingspesifikasies, as ook vir die dekompleksifisering van die sintaktiese kompleksiteit kenmerke van die gestimuleerde taakbeskrywings en die taakbeskrywingspesifikasies. Verbandhoudend is die twee beginsels van Robinson (2010) se SSARC model aangewen in die gradering en ordening van verschillende weergawes van kognitiewe en sintaktiese kompleksiteit van die taakbeskrywingspesifikasies en die gesimuleerde taakbeskrywings om leertake vir die ontwerp van Kiswahili leertake.

Gevolglik, enersyds, op grond van die interaksiekenmerke basis argumenteer die studied at die taakbeskrywingspesifikasies konfigurasies vertoon van informasie-gaping take. Andersyds, met betrekking tot die kognitiewe en sintaktiese analyses, het die studie bevind dat terwyl die bron-gerigte veranderlikes van die ge-analiseerde taakbeskrywingspesifikasies en gesimuleerde taakbeskrywings die [-] kenmerke vertoon, die bronverspreidings dimensies wisselings vertoon tussen [+/-] kenmerke. Dit wil sê, die [+/- voorafkennis] en [+/- enkeltaakveranderlikes] word vertoon in die taakbeskrywingspesifikasies en gesimuleerde taakbeskrywings van Taak een terwyl Taak twee en Taak vier die [+] kenmerk vertoon, en Taak vier en Taak vyf die [-] kenmerk demonstreer in die taakbeskrywingspesifikasies en gesimuleerde taakbeskrywings, Aldus aanduiding gee vir die moontlikheid van dekompleksifisering/afskaling van die kompleksiteitkenmerke deur weglatting en alternasie tegniek vir die levering van minder en munuskomplekse kognitiewe en sintaktiese taakweergawes wat dan georden kan word. Vanaf die minste tot die mees komplek pedagogiese taak weergawes deur gebruik van die beginsels van die SSARC model voorgestel deur Robinson (2010)

Die bogenoemde bevindings dui vir Kiswahili tweedetaalnavorsers en onderwysers aan dat in die prosed van die ontwerp van taakgebaseerde sillabusse al die taakkenmerke insluitende kognitiewe, vernaderlikes, interaksie veranderlikes asook komplekse sintaktiese kenmerke wat kognitiewe eise stel vir tweedetaalleerders van Kiswahili in berekening gebring moet word in die ontwerp van ‘n gepaste syllabus wat die behoeftes van Kiswahili tweedetaalleersersaanspreek, soos die leerders in laer sekondêre skole in Uganda.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

It is desirable to state from the beginning that the whole process of my PhD studies has been characterised by the sour and sweet experiences of almost five years. Nonetheless, I should bring it out that throughout the process; there are volumes of individuals who have directly and indirectly contributed to the completion and the ultimate achievement of my PhD goals. Thus, I will have cheated myself in case I forget to recognise the contribution(s) of the following in particular.

The Graduate School of Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences, Stellenbosch University, South Africa, the under the hospice of the Partnership for Africa’s Next Generation of Academics (PANGea) for awarding me a full-time (2014-2016) PhD scholarship. Relatedly, I extend my gratitude to the Office of the Vice Chancellor of Makerere University, for granting me a study leave in pursuit of the PhD dream. In addition, a special thank you goes to School of Education of Makerere University in general and the Department of Humanities and Language Education in particular, for the patience you extended to me while I was away from the duty station.

The writing of the PhD project has been more or less an endless process. Thus, allow me to say asante sana to my officemate, David Kabugo (PhD) for always pestering me with questions on when I would start a PhD programme. In addition, I extend special thanks to Mr Tadeus Kitandwe, Mathias Bwanika Mulumba (PhD), William Wagaba (PhD), for reviewing the concept note through which I was awarded the PhD scholarship.

Special salutation goes to, my supervisor, Prof. Marianna Visser. The first meeting I had with you, Marianna, I asked you what you expected from me. Your response was “I want you to be honest with me.” To me, I think I have not expressed the honesty that you expected. You have otherwise exhibited it. This has been in form of being free in sharing with me all that you could to see that I excel in studies. You have made me a leader in different lines of thoughts that you led me through. In fact, I can’t forget the famous Monday morning consultation meetings at 06h45; deadlines and timely reminders on submission of weekly assignments; the provision of up-to-date and day-to-day reading materials mainly through the department secretaries, Surena du Plessis and Karin de Wet. Indeed, this has been a unique experience once in a lifetime.

In a similar manner, I convey my appreciation to the entire Department of African Languages of Stellenbosch University i.e. from the teaching staff, non-teaching staff as well as to the students. You provided me with timely support each time I needed it.
At the same time, allow me to recognise the input of David Yenjela (PhD), Felix Jerry Nwachukwu (PhD), Gibson Ncube (PhD), Marciana Nafula (PhD) and Michael Karani (PhD), for reading through and shaping my PhD proposal and/or part of the dissertation. In addition, I do appreciate the constructive ideas of Allen Asiimwe (PhD), David Kabugo (PhD), David Kyeu (PhD), Elizabeth Mahenge, Florence Tendo Bayiga (PhD), Ssentanda Medard (PhD) and the late Elizaus Katikiro, towards the understanding of several ambiguous aspects of language in general. Furthermore, a bottle of thanks goes to colleagues from different parts of the globe i.e. Edward Massembe, Caroline Kobusingye, Caterina Skiniotou, Jeff Streeby, John Ddembe, Maria Theodorou, Mayfredrick Kweba, Mellisa Baralt (PhD), Neema Eliphas (PhD), Robert Bergsvik, Rose Upor (PhD), Teddy Kyolaba, Teresa Mackinnon and Vincent Funi Dusabe, for providing me with reading materials that I could hardly access.

I thank the team at the Writing Lab of Stellenbosch University for nurturing my academic writing skills for the first two years of my PhD journey. Special thanks go to the two writing consultants, Philip Kemp and Jonathan Amid, *julle is ongelooflike mense*. Equally, many appreciations go to task participants who volunteered their surnames to be used in this study. Other than Hassan Bumbuli, who after editing the Kiswahili versions of the task description specifications (TDSs) and their respective simulated task dialogue (STDs), requested for the inclusion of his surname in this study, I derived the rest of surnames from two WhatsApp groups, shown as Appendix (C-iii), on page 544, and Appendix (C-iv), on page 545, respectively.

I also acknowledge the efforts of South African medical practitioners such as Dr Elmarie Joubert (PR: 1549995) and Dr Daniel Brink (PR: 0036749), who fought hard to see my health status improved so that I could continue with studies. To Darlene Tumushabe, David Musoke, Fred Jjunju (PhD), Kenneth Bakaira, René Robbertze and Zainab Kobuyonjo, thank you for your computer related assistance mainly on technological issues, i.e. computer applications, programmes, software and telephone conferencing. Bumbuli Hassan and Rajabu A. Chipila (PhD) your assistance in editorial and translation services, respectively, transformed the dissertation to its current form.

It is quite hard to forget acknowledging the old school friends including James Kanini, Abdallah Kakooza, Mr Ssekayiba, and childhood neighbours, the likes of Haji Tawete, Tinah Mirembe, Muhammadi Mutyaba and Romwald Assey that I reunited with while in South Africa. In most case, I stayed at your premises whenever I needed a break from studies. Some of you took me to several places that I could not have reached on my own. Definitely, I cannot forget moral, social and financial assistance that some of you advanced towards me. Relatedly, I say thank you to all those that I developed a friendship with while in South Africa. For instance, much appreciation goes to
the family of Mr Simosakhe Philip and Mrs Zoleka Mpemnyama of D145 Monde Crescent, Kayamandi, Stellenbosch 7600. You provided me with shelter and love whenever I needed it. *Anga akusikelele uThixo.*

Lastly, to my wife, Primitiva Rutambukage Mutungi, for accepting to leave you behind in a foreign land, Uganda. It was only a few months my PhD studies commenced after we had tied knots. I left you with our first born, Erica at a very tender age. Amidst the PhD journey, you endured and gave birth to Marianna and Gian, respectively. In all this, I was away in search of knowledge, as you lonely raised our children. My dear wife, how best can I thank you other than asking you for another child? In fact, allow me to dedicate your love to the Almighty whose name should be praised.
DEDICATION

To Erica Nakitto, Marianna Nakayiza and Gian Kalungi, this is my work. I will be appreciative if each one of you can borrow a leaf from this work so that you can advance your specific careers beyond mine.
TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION ........................................................................................................................................... i
ABSTRACT .................................................................................................................................................. ii
OPSOMMING ............................................................................................................................................... iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS ........................................................................................................................... vi
DEDICATION ............................................................................................................................................... ix
TABLE OF CONTENTS .............................................................................................................................. x
LIST OF TABLES ........................................................................................................................................... xix
LIST OF FIGURES ........................................................................................................................................ xxi
LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS ......................................................................................... xxii
LIST OF SYMBOLS AND TYPOGRAPHICAL CONVENTIONS ............................................................. xxv

CHAPTER ONE INTRODUCTION .............................................................................................................. 1

1.1. Background to the study ....................................................................................................................... 1

1.1.1. An overview of the origin and development/spread of Kiswahili language ................................. 6

1.1.2. The 1992 Government White Paper (GWP) of Uganda ............................................................. 8

1.2. Problem statement ............................................................................................................................... 10

1.3. Objective of the study .......................................................................................................................... 10

1.4. Research questions ............................................................................................................................. 11

1.5. The rationale of the study ................................................................................................................... 12

1.6. The significance of the study .............................................................................................................. 14

1.7. Theoretical framework ......................................................................................................................... 15

1.8. The methodology of the study ........................................................................................................... 16

1.8.1. Researcher as a graduate of Kiswahili programmes ....................................................................... 17

1.8.2. Review of (research) literature ........................................................................................................ 18

1.8.3. Consultations with subject-area language specialists ................................................................. 19

1.8.1.2. The application of sections 1.8.1, 1.8.2 & 1.8.3 to the current study ........................................ 19

1.8.1.2.1. The construction of the overarching task theme (i.e. Appendix (A)) ................................... 20

1.8.1.2.1.1. The designing of task-descriptions (i.e. Appendix (A-i)) .................................................... 21

1.8.1.2.1.2. The construction of simulated task dialogues (STDs) (i.e Appendix (A-ii)) ................. 22
1.8.1.2.2. Task participants ................................................................. 23
1.8.1.2.2.1. The selection of (the names and roles of) task participants ........................................ 24
1.8.1.2.3. The selection of TDSs and STDs for analysis ............................................................. 25
1.8.1.2.3.1. The analysis of task description specifications and simulated task dialogues .......... 27
1.9. The use of English and Kiswahili languages in this study............................................. 27
1.10. Limitation of the study ....................................................................................... 28
1.11. The organisation of the study ................................................................................ 29
1.12. Terminological considerations .................................................................................. 31

CHAPTER TWO ASPECTS IN APPLIED LINGUISTICS REGARDING CURRICULUM
AND SYLLABUS DESIGN CONSIDERATIONS FOR SECOND LANGUAGE
TEACHING AND LEARNING.......................................................................... 33
2.1. Introduction........................................................................................................... 33
2.2. Perspectives regarding applied linguistics, second language acquisition, and pedagogy .............................................................. 33
2.3. Curriculum considerations in SLA and pedagogy ................................................. 39
2.3.1. General perspectives on language teaching and learning ...................................... 47
2.3.2.1. Language syllabus designers ............................................................................ 51
2.3.2.2. The language teaching syllabus .......................................................................... 54
2.3.2.3. Syllabus components ....................................................................................... 59
2.3.2. Perspectives regarding the notion of syllabus design ............................................ 61
2.3.3. General principles of syllabus design .................................................................. 63
2.4. Typologies of syllabus design paradigms ............................................................... 65
2.4.1. Traditional paradigm and its syllabus design decisions ............................................. 66
2.4.2. Traditional grammar-oriented teaching methodologies ........................................ 69
2.4.2.1. Unit of analysis for structural syllabuses ............................................................ 72
2.4.2.2. Selection of learning content in structural syllabuses ........................................ 74
2.4.2.3. Grading of learning content for structural syllabuses ........................................ 75
2.4.2.4. Sequencing of the learning content for structural syllabuses ................................ 78
2.4.3. The process paradigm and its syllabus design decisions ....................................... 79
2.4.4. An overview of the process/communicative language teaching ................................. 80
2.4.5. Syllabus considerations in the process paradigm ................................................... 83
2.4.5.1. Process syllabus as a plan for major decisions ................................................... 84
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.4.5.2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4.5.3.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4.6.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4.6.1.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4.6.2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4.6.3.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4.6.4.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4.6.5.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4.6.6.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4.6.7.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4.7.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4.8.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4.9.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.3.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.3.1.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.3.2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4.1.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4.2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4.3.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4.4.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4.4.1.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4.4.2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4.4.3.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.5.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.5.1.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.5.2. Focused and unfocused tasks .............................................................. 144
3.5.2.1. Pedagogical classification of tasks .................................................. 145
3.5.2.2. Rhetorical classification of tasks ..................................................... 147
3.5.2.3. Cognitive classification of tasks ...................................................... 147
3.5.2.4. Psycholinguistic classification of tasks .......................................... 148
3.5.2.4.1. A framework of communication task types (Pica et al. 1993, 2009) .... 150
3.6. The basis for selection of content in task-based syllabuses .................... 155
3.6.1. Selection of communicative tasks ..................................................... 155
3.6.2. Selection of learning tasks .............................................................. 157
3.7. Subdivision of learning tasks .............................................................. 158
3.7.1. Skehan’s (2008) framework for grading tasks ................................... 161
3.8. The basis on the sequencing of task-based syllabuses ............................ 164
3.8.1. Task sequencing based on tasks themselves ...................................... 165
3.8.2. Task sequence on the basis of emerging learners’ problems ............... 170
3.8.3. Ellis’s (2003a) framework for task sequencing ................................... 170
3.8.3.1. Factors related to task complexity .................................................. 171
3.8.3.2. Factors related to task conditions .................................................. 173
3.8.3.3. Factors related to the process of performing a task ......................... 175
3.8.3.4. Factors related to task outcomes .................................................... 176
3.8.4. Linguistic/syntactic complexity ....................................................... 179
3.8.4.1. Pallotti’s (2009) study ................................................................. 180
3.8.4.1.1. The complexity, accuracy and fluency (CAF) triad ....................... 180
3.8.4.2. Bulté and Housen’s (2012) study ................................................... 181
3.8.4.3. Pallotti’s (2015) study ................................................................. 183
3.9. Perspectives on cognition in relation to SLA and language pedagogy ....... 185
3.9.1. The Cognition Hypothesis (CH) ....................................................... 189
3.9.2. The Triadic Componential Framework (TCF) .................................... 193
3.10. Summary ......................................................................................... 204

CHAPTER FOUR INTERACTIONAL, COGNITIVE AND SYNTACTIC COMPLEXITY
OF KISWAHILI COMMUNICATIVE TASKS .................................................. 206

4.1. Introduction ....................................................................................... 206
4.2. Interactional complexity ................................................................. 207
4.2.1. Task expectations versus task in action ........................................ 207
4.2.2. Generating a typology of communication task types ....................... 208
4.3. Cognitive complexity ...................................................................... 212
4.3.1. Obligatory and Optional move structures in a text ............................ 212
4.3.2. Robinson’s (2010) SSARC model of pedagogical and task sequencing 215
4.4. Syntactic complexity ...................................................................... 217
4.4.1. The analysis of speech unit (Foster et al. 2000) ............................. 217
4.5. Complexity analysis for Kiswahili pedagogical tasks ....................... 219
4.5.1. Task one ....................................................................................... 219
4.5.1.1. Interactional complexity for Task one ........................................ 221
4.5.1.2. Cognitive complexity for Task one ............................................ 222
4.5.1.2.1. Pedagogical task versions for Task one in terms of cognitive complexity 225
4.5.1.2.1.1. Pedagogical task version two of Task one ............................ 225
4.5.1.2.1.2. Pedagogical task version one of Task one ............................ 227
4.5.1.2.1.2.1. Sequencing of pedagogical tasks for Kiswahili learners ......... 229
4.5.1.3. Syntactic complexity for Task one ............................................ 232
4.5.1.3.1. Simulated task dialogue for Task one ..................................... 233
4.5.1.3.1.1. An analysis of syntactic complexity for Task one ................ 235
4.5.1.4. Pedagogical task versions of Task one in terms of syntactic complexity 236
4.5.1.4.1. Pedagogical task version two of Task one ............................... 237
4.5.1.4.2. Pedagogical task version one of Task one ................................ 237
4.5.2. Task two ...................................................................................... 238
4.5.2.1. Interactional complexity for Task two ....................................... 240
4.5.2.2. Cognitive complexity for Task two .......................................... 242
4.5.2.2.1. Pedagogical task versions of Task two in terms of cognitive complexity 245
4.5.2.2.1.1. Pedagogical task version two of Task two ............................ 245
4.5.2.2.1.2. Pedagogical task version one of Task two ............................ 247
4.5.2.2.1.2.1. Sequencing of pedagogical tasks for Kiswahili learners ......... 249
4.5.2.3. Syntactic complexity for Task two ............................................ 252
4.5.2.3.1. Simulated task dialogue for Task two ..................................... 252
4.5.5.1. Interactional complexity for Task five ................................................................. 307
4.5.5.2. Cognitive complexity for Task five ................................................................. 309
4.5.5.2.1. Pedagogical task versions of Task five in terms of cognitive complexity ....... 312
4.5.5.2.1.1. Pedagogical task version two of Task five .................................................. 312
4.5.5.2.1.2. Pedagogical version one of Task five ....................................................... 316
4.5.5.2.1.2.1. Sequencing of pedagogical tasks for Kiswahili learners ....................... 320
4.5.5.3. Syntactic complexity for Task five ................................................................. 323
4.5.5.3.1. Simulated task dialogue for Task five ......................................................... 323
4.5.5.3.2. An analysis of the syntactic complexity of Task five ................................... 329
4.5.5.4. Pedagogical task versions of Task five in terms of syntactic complexity ....... 330
4.5.5.4.1. Pedagogical task version two of Task five .................................................. 330
4.5.5.4.2. Pedagogical task version one of Task five .................................................. 333
4.5.6. The grading and sequencing of pedagogical tasks: Correlating cognitive complexity with sentential syntactic complexity ....................................................... 335
4.6. Summary ....................................................................................................................... 335

CHAPTER FIVE TASK-BASED METHODOLOGY AND FOCUS ON FORM IN TEACHING KISWAHILI AS A SECOND LANGUAGE FOR BEGINNER LEARNERS ........................................................................................................................................ 339

5.1. Introduction ......................................................................................................................... 339
5.2. The role of instruction in SLA ......................................................................................... 341
5.3. Keck and Kim’s (2014) perspectives on theory to practice in instructed L2 grammar acquisition ......................................................................................................................... 342
5.3.1. Explicit and implicit instruction .................................................................................. 342
5.3.2. Meaning-focused communication tasks .................................................................... 344
5.3.3. Variations of corrective feedback ............................................................................. 344
5.3.4. The role of L2 learners ............................................................................................. 345
5.3.5. Learners’ attentional resources .................................................................................. 346
5.4. Considerations in designing L2 grammar tasks ............................................................. 348
5.4.1. The use of information gap tasks in promoting learners’ interaction ....................... 348
5.4.2. Focus on form through task-essentialness design and corrective feedback .......... 349
5.4.3. The explicit-implicit continuum ................................................................................. 350
5.4.4. Collaboration enhancement and the co-construction of knowledge ....................... 351
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5.4.5.</td>
<td>Task modelling and task planning options</td>
<td>351</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4.6.</td>
<td>Considerations on cognitive dimensions of task difficulty/complexity</td>
<td>353</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5.</td>
<td>Willis and Willis’s (2007) perspectives on the parameters of adaptation and refining</td>
<td>354</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5.1.</td>
<td>of pedagogical tasks</td>
<td>354</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5.2.</td>
<td>Set of specific interim goals</td>
<td>354</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5.3.</td>
<td>The starting point of Tasks: input and timing at the priming stage</td>
<td>355</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5.4.</td>
<td>Pre-task preparation and planning</td>
<td>356</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5.5.</td>
<td>Control of ‘agenda’ and task structure</td>
<td>358</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5.6.</td>
<td>Interaction patterns and participation roles</td>
<td>359</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5.7.</td>
<td>Pressure on language production: “pushing” output to achieve accuracy</td>
<td>361</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.6.</td>
<td>Long’s (2015a) perspectives on pedagogical procedures and methodological</td>
<td>367</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.6.1.</td>
<td>principles</td>
<td>368</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.6.2.</td>
<td>Using task, not text, as the unit of analysis</td>
<td>369</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.6.3.</td>
<td>Promote learning by doing</td>
<td>369</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.6.4.</td>
<td>The role of the teacher in task-based language teaching</td>
<td>369</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.6.5.</td>
<td>Teachers as mediators in language learning</td>
<td>370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.6.6.</td>
<td>Pre-task phase</td>
<td>371</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.6.7.</td>
<td>During-task-phase</td>
<td>371</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.6.8.</td>
<td>Post-task phase</td>
<td>373</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.7.</td>
<td>Summary</td>
<td>374</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.8.</td>
<td>CHAPTER SIX THE IMPLEMENTATION OF TASK-BASED LANGUAGE TEACHING</td>
<td>375</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IN LOWER SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF UGANDA</td>
<td>375</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.1.</td>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>375</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.2.</td>
<td>Diffusion of innovation in language teaching</td>
<td>376</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.2.1.</td>
<td>In defining innovation: The notion “WHO”</td>
<td>377</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.2.1.1.</td>
<td>Teachers as change agents</td>
<td>378</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.2.1.2.</td>
<td>Teachers as researchers</td>
<td>380</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.2.2.</td>
<td>In defining innovation: The notion “ADOPTS”</td>
<td>382</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.2.3.</td>
<td>On defining innovation: The notion “WHAT”</td>
<td>383</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.2.4.</td>
<td>In defining innovation: The notion “WHERE”</td>
<td>384</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.2.5.</td>
<td>In defining innovation: The notion “WHEN”</td>
<td>385</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.2.6. In defining innovation: The notion “WHY” ..........................................................387
6.2.7. In defining innovation: The notion “HOW” ..........................................................387
6.3. Summary ..................................................................................................................389

CHAPTER SEVEN CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE STUDY ....391
7.1. Introduction ..............................................................................................................391
7.2. Summary of the study ............................................................................................391
7.3. The contribution of the study ................................................................................394
7.4. Recommendations for further research ...............................................................395

REFERENCES ..............................................................................................................396

APPENDIX (A) THE OVERARCHING TASK THEME .................................................419
APPENDIX (A-i) TASK DESCRIPTIONS ........................................................................420
APPENDIX (A-ii) SIMULATED TASK DIALOGUES .....................................................445
APPENDIX (B) LIST OF CONSULTED SUBJECT-SPECIALISTS ...............................541
APPENDIX (C) ETHICAL CLEARANCE APPROVAL FROM UGANDA NATIONAL
COUNCIL FOR SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY (UNCST) ........................................542
APPENDIX (C-i) THE KISWAHILI SMS TO THE WHATSAPP GROUP (X) REQUESTING
FOR MEMBERS’ SURNAMES .....................................................................................543
APPENDIX (C-ii) THE ENGLISH SMS TO THE WHATSAPP GROUP (Y) REQUESTING FOR
MEMBERS’ SURNAMES .............................................................................................544
APPENDIX (C-iii) NAMES OF TASK PARTICIPANTS FROM WHATSAPP GROUP X ....545
APPENDIX (C-iv) NAMES OF TASK PARTICIPANTS FROM WHATSAPP GROUP Y ....546
LIST OF TABLES

Table 2:1: Showing a summary of the basic features of structural syllabuses ..................................72
Table 2:2: Showing a summary of the basic features of the process syllabuses ......................... 83
Table 2:3: Example 1 from Martyn (2001) illustrating the four-stage procedure ......................... 95
Table 2:4: Example 2 from Martyn (2001) illustrating the four-stage procedure ......................... 95
Table 3:1: Shows a summary of different task guises .................................................................... 124
Table 3:2: Australian Language Level project task goal classification ............................................. 134
Table 3:3: An illustration of global/general scales of language users ............................................. 136
Table 3:4: Pattison's (1987) types of tasks and activities ................................................................. 143
Table 3:5: A reflection of Richards's (2001) typology of pedagogical tasks .................................... 144
Table 3:6: An example of a pedagogical task classification .............................................................. 146
Table 3:7: A psycholinguistic task typology as advanced by Pica et al. (1993) ............................... 150
Table 3:8: An illustration of theme and topic generator ................................................................. 157
Table 3:9: Showing criteria for grading of tasks ............................................................................. 160
Table 3:10: Showing Skehan's (2008) task dimensions and task difficulty ..................................... 162
Table 3:11: Indicating determiners of task difficulty ...................................................................... 168
Table 3:12: A construct for measuring levels of communicative and cognitive demands .................. 169
Table 3:13: An example of part of a task-based syllabus for general proficiency ......................... 178
Table 3:14: The Triadic Componential Framework for pedagogic L2 task classification-categories, criteria, analytic procedures and characteristics as adopted from Robinson (2007b) 195
Table 3:15: Showing resource-directing (developmental) and resource-dispersing (performative) dimensions of complexity and their implications for task sequencing ............................ 203
Table 4:1: Communication task types for L2 research and pedagogy analysis based on Interactant [X/Y] relationship and requirements in communicating information [INFn] to achieve task goals ........................................................................................................................................... 208
Table 4:2: Five versions of a task that increase in complexity following the sequencing principles of the SSARC model ............................................................................................................. 216
Table 4:3: Task description specifications (TDSs) for Task one ..................................................... 219
Table 4:4: Summary of TDSs for Task one ....................................................................................... 220
Table 4:5: Summary of TDSs of cognitively complex features for Task one ................................ 224
Table 4:6: Summary of pedagogical task version two of Task one ................................................. 227
Table 4:7: Summary of pedagogical task version one of Task one ................................................ 229
Table 4:8: Three task versions exemplifying progressively more cognitive complexity for Task one ............................................................................................................................................. 229
Table 4:9: Task description specifications (TDSs) for Task two .................................................... 239
Table 4:10: Summary of TDSs for Task two .................................................................................. 239
Table 4:11: Summary of TDSs of cognitively complex features for Task two ...............................244
Table 4:12: Summary of TDSs of cognitively complex features for task version two of Task two 246
Table 4:13: Summary of pedagogical version one of Task two ....................................................249
Table 4:14: Showing progressively more cognitive complexity of Task two in three task versions .................................................................................................................249
Table 4:15: Task description specification (TDSs) for Task three ..................................................260
Table 4:16: Summary of TDSs for Task three .................................................................................261
Table 4:17: Summary of TDSs of cognitively complex features for Task three ............................266
Table 4:18: Summary of pedagogical task version two of Task three ............................................271
Table 4:19: Summary of pedagogical version one of Task three ....................................................273
Table 4:20: Showing progressively more cognitive complexity of Task three in three task versions .................................................................................................................273
Table 4:21: Task description specifications (TDSs) for Task four ..................................................284
Table 4:22: Summary of TDSs for Task four .................................................................................284
Table 4:23: Summary of TDSs of cognitively complex features for Task four ............................289
Table 4:24: Summary of pedagogical task version two for Task four ............................................291
Table 4:25: Summary of pedagogical versions of Task four ...........................................................293
Table 4:26: Showing progressively more cognitive complexity of Task four in three task versions .................................................................................................................293
Table 4:27: Task description specifications (TDSs) for Task five ..................................................305
Table 4:28: Summary of TDSs for Task five ....................................................................................306
Table 4:29: Summary of TDSs of cognitively complex features of Task five ..............................312
Table 4:30: Summary of pedagogical version two of Task five .....................................................316
Table 4:31: Summary of pedagogical version one of Task five ......................................................319
Table 4:32: Showing progressively more cognitive complexity of Task five in three task versions .................................................................................................................319
Table 5:1: The 7 C's describing effective teacher behaviour as advanced by the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation (2010) .............................................................................370
LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1:1: Geographical distribution of languages in Uganda .............................................4
Figure 1:2: Diagrammatic illustration of the education system of Uganda ............................5
Figure 2:1: The genesis of an approach in applied linguistics .............................................38
Figure 2:2: Levels of planning for language teaching and learning ....................................42
Figure 2:3: Dimensions of curriculum .............................................................................46
Figure 2:4: The forward design approach ........................................................................46
Figure 2:5: Showing backward and central curriculum processes ....................................47
Figure 2:6: Syllabus design procedures ............................................................................65
Figure 2:7: The elements or levels of a process syllabus ................................................87
Figure 3:1: Key factors that relate task to second language learning .................................127
Figure 3:2: Schematic structure of task .........................................................................130
Figure 3:3: The task specification model .........................................................................132
Figure 3:4: Task classifications and sequencing procedures ............................................154
Figure 3:5: Steps and processes in task-based syllabus design .......................................158
Figure 3:6: A framework for designing and sequencing task-based courses ....................165
Figure 3:7: Second language acquisition model that moves from input processing to output processing ........................................................................................................187
Figure 3:8: Showing increasingly complexity pedagogical task versions of a target task ....199
Figure 6:1: Kennedy's (1988) hierarchy of interrelating subsystem in which an innovation has to operate ........................................................................................................385
Figure 6:2: An S-shaped diffusion curve .........................................................................386
## LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ALL</td>
<td>Australian Language Levels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ALs</td>
<td>Applied Linguistics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAF</td>
<td>Complexity Accuracy and Fluency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEF</td>
<td>Common European Framework</td>
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<tr>
<td>CF</td>
<td>Corrective Feedback</td>
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<tr>
<td>CLB</td>
<td>Canadian Language Benchmark</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT</td>
<td>Communicative Language Teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPCs</td>
<td>Current Processing Capacities</td>
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<tr>
<td>ELs</td>
<td>Educational Linguistics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E-M-P</td>
<td>Explanation, Mechanical Practice and Practical Phase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FFI</td>
<td>Form-Focused Instruction</td>
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<tr>
<td>FLL</td>
<td>Foreign Language Learning</td>
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<tr>
<td>FMC</td>
<td>Form-Meaning Connection</td>
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<tr>
<td>FoF</td>
<td>Focus on Form</td>
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<td>FoM</td>
<td>Focus on Meaning</td>
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<tr>
<td>FonF</td>
<td>Focus-on-Form</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FonFs</td>
<td>Focus on Forms</td>
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<tr>
<td>GWP</td>
<td>Government White Paper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IF</td>
<td>Incidental Feedback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IFC</td>
<td>Implicit Corrective Feedback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INF</td>
<td>Implicit Negative Feedback</td>
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<tr>
<td>INFn</td>
<td>Information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LoI</td>
<td>Language of Instruction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LoLT</td>
<td>Language of Learning and Teaching</td>
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<tr>
<td>LRE</td>
<td>Language Related Episode</td>
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<tr>
<td>LT</td>
<td>Language Teaching</td>
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<tr>
<td>LTM</td>
<td>Long Term Memory</td>
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<tr>
<td>LWC</td>
<td>Language of Wider Communication</td>
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<tr>
<td>Code</td>
<td>Description</td>
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<tr>
<td>L1</td>
<td>First Language/mother tongue</td>
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<td>L2</td>
<td>Second Language/ Target Language</td>
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<tr>
<td>L3</td>
<td>Third Language</td>
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<tr>
<td>L4</td>
<td>Fourth Language etc</td>
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<tr>
<td>MoES</td>
<td>Ministry of Education and Sports</td>
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<tr>
<td>MoI</td>
<td>Medium of Instruction</td>
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<td>MPs</td>
<td>Methodological Principles</td>
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<td>NCDC</td>
<td>National Curriculum Development Centre</td>
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<tr>
<td>NA</td>
<td>Needs Analysis</td>
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<tr>
<td>NE</td>
<td>Negative Evidence</td>
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<td>NF</td>
<td>Negative Feedback</td>
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<tr>
<td>NS</td>
<td>Native Speaker</td>
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<tr>
<td>NNS</td>
<td>Non-Native Speaker</td>
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<td>NPHC</td>
<td>National Population and Housing Census</td>
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<td>Positive Evidence</td>
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<tr>
<td>PIFoF</td>
<td>Planned Implicit Focus on Form</td>
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<td>Pedagogical Principles</td>
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<tr>
<td>PTs</td>
<td>Pedagogical Tasks</td>
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<tr>
<td>P-I-P</td>
<td>Presentation, Illustration and Production</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P-P-P</td>
<td>Presentation, Practice and Production</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RD&amp;D</td>
<td>Research, Development and Diffusion model</td>
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<tr>
<td>SLA</td>
<td>Second Language Acquisition</td>
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<tr>
<td>SSARC</td>
<td>Simple State, Automatic, Reconstruction and Maximum Complexity</td>
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<tr>
<td>STDs</td>
<td>Simulated Task Dialogues</td>
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<tr>
<td>TBSs</td>
<td>Task-Based Syllabuses</td>
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<tr>
<td>TBLL</td>
<td>Task-Based Language Learning</td>
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<tr>
<td>TBLT</td>
<td>Task-based Language Teaching</td>
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<tr>
<td>TBLT&amp;L</td>
<td>Task-based Language Teaching and Learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TCF</td>
<td>Triadic Componential Framework</td>
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<tr>
<td>Abbreviation</td>
<td>Description</td>
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<tr>
<td>TDS</td>
<td>Task Description Specification</td>
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<td>TDSs</td>
<td>Task Description Specifications</td>
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<tr>
<td>TRF</td>
<td>Teacher-Initiative-Student Respond-Teacher Feedback</td>
</tr>
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</tr>
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</tr>
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<td>UBoS</td>
<td>Uganda Bureau of Statistics</td>
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<td>UDSM</td>
<td>University of Dar-es-salaam.</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNCP</td>
<td>Uganda National Culture Policy</td>
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<tr>
<td>WM</td>
<td>Working Memory</td>
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</table>
LIST OF SYMBOLS AND TYPOGRAPHICAL CONVENTIONS

(a/a-a) Alphabetical letters in brackets indicate the task description specification (TDS) indicator(s) of task descriptions, as they occur mainly in the main texts and tables of Chapter Four.

[-] Absent/deduct

[+] Present/add

[ Mainly used in Chapter four to mark the beginning of the English translations of the preceding Kiswahili texts. It also marks the beginning/ opening boundary of English and Kiswahili simulated task dialogues (STDs).

] Mainly used in Chapter four to mark the end of the English translations of the preceding Kiswahili texts. It marks the end/ closing boundary of English and Kiswahili STDs.

[…] Illustrates the occurrence of ellipsis as a result of manipulation in a Kiswahili TDS

[…] Illustrates the occurrence of ellipsis as a result of manipulation in a translated TDS

]] Illustrates the occurrence of ellipsis at the end of a Kiswahili TDS

]] Illustrates the occurrence of ellipsis at the end of a translated TDS

/ Or

‘’ Indicates a modified text/word in task versions within a task description specification (TDS)

___ Indicates the main (lexical) verb form

== Represents an auxiliary verb form

….. Marks a boundary of a subordinate clause (SC) of the main clause

: Marks a boundary of a subordinate (embedded) clause of an SC when used in the syntactic complexity analysis section

* Marks the end of epigraphs as well as the beginning of introductory chapter sections

{} Stands for relative (REL) clause
??  Unknown
ADJP  Adverbial phrase
ADVP  Adjectival phrase
C  Complementiser
CP  Complementiser phrase
COP  Copulatives
COV  Covert verb
DES. COP  Descriptive copulative
FUT  Future tense
HAB  Habitual tense
IMP  Imperative mood
IND  Indicative mood
INF  Infinitive mood
Mod₁  Represents a TDS of task version one that has been modified from task version two
Mod₂  Represents a TDS of task version two that has been modified from task version three
NP  Noun phrase
PP  Preposition phrase
PPT  Present perfect tense
PRES  Present tense
PT  Past tense
SBJV  Subjunctive mood
Superscripts  Mark the beginning of the Kiswahili and its translated STDs, as they occur in Task description specifications’ tables in Chapter Four.
Superscript +  The combination of the two scripts marks specific sentences in both Kiswahili and it’s translated English STDs as they occur mainly in Chapter Four.
CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

…much has been argued against Swahili in Uganda which has chosen “to remain a chaotic island of English and ‘tribal’ languages surrounded by neighbours who opted for Swahili”. – Mukama (1982: 192) as cited in Pawliková-Vilhano (1996: 162).

***************

1.1. Background to the study

This is mainly a theoretically based study. It is situated within the broad field of applied linguistics (ALs), specifically, in its subfield of second language acquisitions (SLA). Particularly, the study is concerned with the task-based syllabus (henceforth, TBS) design decisions for the teaching and learning of Kiswahili as a second language (L2) in lower secondary schools in Uganda.¹ The study explores its views from the specific frameworks and contemporary perspectives in relation to SLA theories, L2 syllabus design as well as their associated pedagogical practices, as advanced by proponents of task-based language teaching and learning (TBLT&L) including: Willis (1996), Willis and Willis (2001, 2007), Robinson (2001a, 2005, 2007a, 2010, 2011a), Ellis (2003a,b, 2005a,b,c, 2017), Nunan (2004), Samuda and Bygate (2008), Long and Crookes (2009), Van den Branden (2015) and Long (2016). Breen (1987a, 2001), Campbell, MacPherson & Sawkins (2014) and East (2014), posit that TBLT&L is an extended version of communicative language teaching (CLT), from which contemporary SL teaching theories, approaches, methods, syllabus design decision as well as curriculum development considerations are premised.

¹ According to Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBoS 2016: 8), Uganda is multilingual nation with the total population of 34.6 million people (cf. Adimola 1963: 326). Simons and Fennig (2018) state that the multilingual nature of Uganda is composed of forty-three living languages as summarised in Figure 1:1, on page 3 (cf. The Republic of Uganda 1995: np; Uganda Bureau of Statistics [UBoS] 2016: 20). Out of forty-three languages, Simons and Fennig (2018) contend that two of them (i.e. English and Kiswahili) are non-indigenous. In addition, the two scholars state that while twenty-seven languages are still developing; seven are vigorous; two are in trouble; and two others are dying; its only five that are institutional/educational languages. For latest reviews on studies in relation to educational languages in Uganda see, for example, Ssentanda (2013) and Ssentanda, Huddlestone & Southwood (2016).

It should be known that English came in Uganda as a result of external engagement with European missionaries (see Meierkord 2016: 51), on the other hand, Kiswahili arrived in Uganda mainly through trading activities with the Arabs from the East African coastal societies (see Crabtree 1914: 154; Tiberondwa 2001: xii & 15).

Kiswahili, commonly known as Swahili, is a combination of a noun and its nominal class prefix (Ki) in which majority of names of the Bantu languages are classified, i.e. class 7. Thus, the word Kiswahili will be used throughout this dissertation as an emphasis to its full sense.
It is in this regard that, task-based theories such as the SSARC model (Robinson 2010) and their related approaches are recognised as recent innovations (Sánchez 2004: 64; Ellis 2005c: 3; Ogilvie & Dunn 2010: 162; cf. Byrnes 2015: 195) and contemporary frameworks that benchmark decisions on L2 syllabus designs and their related pedagogical practices (see Long 2016: 28). This is because, unlike traditional approaches to syllabus design and their pedagogical realisations (see Breen 1987b: 81-92), the research literature indicates that task-based (TB) approaches have a greater capacity of enabling L2 learners to ultimately acquire L2s that they are learning. Thus, to actualise the above contentions, since the advent of TBLT in the 1970s, most countries (see, for example, Van den Branden 2006a: 217-218, 2016: 172; Littlewood 2007: 243; Michel 2011; Kim 2012: 627; Yen 2016: 37; Pham & Nguyen 2018: 68) have continuously modified their L2 curriculums and syllabuses to exploit the benefits of TBLT theories and their related approaches with respect to the teaching and learning of L2s.

Nevertheless, in Uganda, concerns on curriculum reforms or reviews, syllabus design decisions as well as pedagogical practices, specifically with respect to Kiswahili language teaching have often been a contested issue. This is primarily because of the ideological differences among language advocates in the adoption of any of the foreign languages and indigenous languages in the curriculum considerations of the country. Such differences have created and widen the linguistic divisions with regard to which language(s) to employ as a medium of instruction (MoI)/language of instruction (LoI)/language of learning and teaching (LoLT), or as a teaching subject.

As a result, in such considerations at the curriculum level, often, three languages have mainly emerged to compete in fulfilling these educational functions. These include non-indigenous languages (L2s), i.e. English and Kiswahili, and an indigenous language, Luganda. Presently, on the one hand, English serves as MoI as well as a compulsory teaching subject from upper primary schools to higher institutions of learning (The Republic of Uganda 1992: 16). On the other hand, Luganda is the LoI is the lower primary schools mainly in the central region of Uganda and in its surroundings (cf. Ssentanda & Nakayiza 2017: 110-112). Additionally, Luganda is taught as a language subject in the same areas from primary schools to institutions of higher learning. Unlike English and Luganda, Kiswahili is predominantly an L2 teaching subject in a few secondary schools throughout the country (see Jjingo & Visser 2017: 10).

Thus, in light of the above comments, it is necessary to mention that, currently, it is indisputable that Kiswahili pedagogies as mainly L2s are increasingly being considered for adoption in several education systems (see Polomé 1967; Harries 1968; Whiteley 1969; Batibo 2003; The Republic of
Rwanda 2003; Khamisi 2008: 21; Wa’njogu 2008; Chebet-Choge 2012; Thompson 2013; Chipila 2016; cf. Moshi 2017), i.e. through curriculum modifications and syllabus designs.
Figure 1.1: Geographical distribution of languages in Uganda

Source: Modified from Simons and Fennig (2018)
Nonetheless, in Uganda, such practices on Kiswahili are unique and complex. This study contends that the genesis of this complexity dates back to 1917 when European missionaries formally introduced and adopted Kiswahili pedagogies in curriculums of the education system of Uganda (National Curriculum Development Centre (NCDC) 2011: 1), as summarised in the following Figure 1:2.

Figure 1:2: Diagrammatic illustration of the education system of Uganda

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tertiary (higher) Education</th>
<th>Technical (vocational colleges) Institutions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(3-5 years)</td>
<td>(2 years)</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Upper (senior) Secondary Education</th>
<th>Technical (vocational institutes) Schools</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(2 years)</td>
<td>(3 years)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lower (junior) Secondary Education</th>
<th>Primary Education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(4 years)</td>
<td>(7 years)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Over past decades, the inclusion or exclusion of Kiswahili pedagogies on the national curriculum was mainly contingent on the viewpoints of the directors of education, educational administrators and few language practitioners (see Ssekamwa 2000: 140-141). While the viewpoints of the administrators were often scientifically sound, in most cases the exclusion of Kiswahili in the education system was based on the personal interests of selected individuals (cf. Ssekamwa & Lugumba 2000: 38). Ssekamwa (2000: 141-142) argues that it is unfortunate that such interests often influenced and were considered as recommendations by several education commissions in the country.

Subsequently, these commissions largely ignored the inclusion of Kiswahili in the curriculum, or even the design of Kiswahili syllabuses, which ultimately affected Kiswahili classroom practices. Some of these commissions include the de La Warr’s commission (1937), the Binns’s Study Group (1951) and the East African Royal’s commission (1953). Consequently, as Pawliková-Vilhanová (1996: 168) states, in 1952, Kiswahili pedagogies were completely and officially omitted from the curriculum of the education system of Uganda.
Thus, in general, for approximately fifty years, issues of curriculum development, syllabus design and formal Kiswahili pedagogies were forgotten factors until the advent of the report of the Education Policy Review Commission commonly known as the Ssenteza Kajubi’s (1987) commission (see Evans & Ssenteza Kajubi 1994; Jjingo & Visser 2017). It is in the recommendations of this report that issues on curriculum for Kiswahili pedagogies in Uganda were officially once again raised since their ban in the 1950s. In fact, the language related recommendations of this report were drawn in the formation of a general language-in-education policy (The Republic of Uganda 1992: 17; Ssekamwa 2000: 145) that still exists within a broader framework, the Government White Paper (GWP) of 1992 (see The Republic of Uganda 1992).

For the purpose of maintaining a coherent flow of arguments, this study finds it necessary to briefly review the origin and development of Kiswahili in general before a discussion on the 1992 GWP is given.

1.1.1. An overview of the origin and development/spread of Kiswahili language

It should be noted from the onset that as Massamba (2007: 2) puts it “the origins, development and spread” of Kiswahili language have been contested issues among the East Africans since the 1970s. According to Massamba, the two wide-ranging debates have often been (i) the exact place Kiswahili originated from and, (ii) how it came into being (cf. Nurse 1997: 274 & 275)?

In this regard, according to Massamba (2007: 2), there were three main schools of thoughts that emerged to address the above two concerns. One of the schools contended that Kiswahili has an Arabic origin. The second school argued that the origin of Kiswahili is in Bantu languages (see Simons & Fennig 2018) with lexical borrowing from other foreign languages, Arabic inclusive (see also Whiteley 1969; Nurse 1997, on similar views). Lastly, the third school of thoughts maintained that Kiswahili is a hybrid between Arabic and Bantu languages.

While critically examining the views from each of the above schools of thought, Massamba (2007: 86) demonstrates how “Kiswahili, as a language, developed simultaneously at different points on the coast”. To aptly put it, Massamba argues that;

“the so-called Kiswahili dialects were, initially, different Bantu languages, which eventually became dialects of one language, to be known later as Kiswahili through the process of Divergence-Convergence. …from a purely linguistically point of view, … the so-called Kiswahili dialects are nothing more than “the mutual intelligibility of the Bantu languages, which developed gradually over centuries of trade contacts and intermarriages”. (Massamba 2007: 86)

Massamba (2007) posits, given that all Kiswahili dialects are mutually intelligible to each other and to other Bantu languages, like Mohammed (2001: viii) who maintains that Kiswahili dialects such as Kiamu (mainly spoken in Lamu), Kimvita (mainly spoken in Mombasa) and Kiunguja (mainly spoken in the Zanzibar archipelago and Tanzania mainland), are the most widely spread dialects (cf. Mkude 2010: 71). Scholars such as Polomé (1983), Mazrui and Zirimu (1990: 27), Mazrui and Mazrui (1993: 277), Massamba (2002), Khamisi (2008: 11) and Habwe (2009: 2) state that activities in commerce and trade, religion, and literacy development before, during and after colonialism in the region, are believed to have spread the three Kiswahili dialects across the East and Central African countries (cf. Tembe & Norton 2011: 17).

It is from the three-widely spoken Kiswahili dialects that the early Europeans missionaries who arrived in the region needed to choose a single dialect to be standardised (cf. Mazrui & Zirimu 1990: 25). This choice was aimed to sufficiently cultivate one dialect to serve mainly in education systems across the region. Thus, in the first quarter of the last century, the East African region experienced conflicting views mainly from the proponents of the three major Kiswahili dialects. As Mbaabu (2007: 16-7) aptly states that while both the Kimvita and Kiunguja dialects had been well researched by the missionaries, Nurse (1997: 274) and Mbaabu (2007: 16-17) contend that it was the Kiunguja dialect that was selected and accepted for standardisation purposes (cf. Deen 2005: 32; Nabea 2009: 132).

The Kiunguja dialect was composed of both Arabic and Roman scripts (Mazrui & Zirimu 1990: 26; Mbaabu 1991: 22). The choice of Kiunguja was mainly based on its functions which included serving as a dialect of commerce and trade at the coast and in the interior of East Africa (Mbaabu 1991: 18; Marten 2009: 1026). In addition, according to Mbaabu (2007: 13), unlike the other two dialects, the Kiunguja had a rich written literature. On one hand, this meant that Kiunguja was the most widely spread dialect and its usage was common and wider compared to the others two Kiswahili dialects (cf. Batibo 2002: 1-2). On the other hand, the choice of Kiunguja meant that
there were little efforts needed to promote it to the people given the fact that it was mostly spoken mainly as either an L1 or an L2.

Thus, Kiunguja dialect has been purposely standardised and developed to serve in formal settings such as in schools. In addition, it can be pointed out that after the initial standardised processes of the Kiunguja dialect (see Mbaabu 1991, 2007), its name changed to ‘Kiswahili Sanifu’, which literary means the ‘standard Kiswahili’. While there are some elements of several other ‘Kiswahili varieties’ being used in schools, mainly in Uganda, the use of Kiswahili Sanifu has been adopted throughout this study, as can be observed in the TDSs (see Table 4:3, Table 4:9, Table 4:15, Table 4:21 & Table 4:27, on pages, 219, 239, 260, 284 & 305, respectively), and in Appendix (A), Appendix (A-i), Appendix (A-ii) and Appendix (C-i), on pages 418, 419, 444 and 542, respectively.

This has purposely been done to strengthen the use of standard Kiswahili variety in schools, as proposed by Kaplan and Baldauf Jr. (1997: 123) that “there is an obvious reason why education sector is frequently selected as the site for language planning activity. Education sectors, of necessity, deal with ‘standard’ versions of a language – whether the official ‘national’ language or an official ‘foreign’ language.”

To conclude, presently, with over 100 million speakers across the world (see Massamba 2007: 1; cf. Simons & Fennig 2018), Kiswahili has widely and globally been acknowledged as a language with potentials in fostering global communication. In Africa, for example, Kiswahili is considered as a lingua franca (see Harries 1968: 146; Kiango 2005: 157; Visser 2013: 5), with elevated status as an official or a national language in a number of countries (see Jumuiya ya Afrika Mashariki n.d.: ix; Harries 1969: 275, 1976: 153; Wizara ya Elimu na Utamaduni 1997: 15; The Republic of Uganda 2005: np, 2006: 7, The Republic of Kenya 2009: 26, 2010: 14; Msanjila 2011: 3). Through this recognition, Kiswahili pedagogies have gradually been introduced and/or strengthened in learning institutions across the world, Uganda inclusive, as will be shown in the discussion on the GWP that follows below.

1.1.2. The 1992 Government White Paper (GWP) of Uganda

In brief, the GWP was realised to provide a framework through which the restructuring processes of the entire education system of Uganda would be done. This framework was introduced because by that time, as Evans and Ssenteza Kajubi (1994: 141) put it, the “social services including education and the physical infrastructure of the country, were in shambles”. Thus, some of the pertinent questions that the GWP intended to address were those that had previously been partially answered.

According to the GWP (The Republic of Uganda 1992: 17), these questions involve the issue of
national language and official language in the country. In the first and the only footnote of this study, I indicated that Uganda is a multi-ethnic nation. It is in accordance with this line of thought that the GWP (The Republic of Uganda 1992: 17-19) recognised the linguistic inequality and complexity, which is reflected, for example, in the development of some languages while disregarding others, a practice that has largely continued to widen the communication gap among Ugandans.

In an attempt to reduce these inequalities, the GWP (The Republic of Uganda 1992: 17) adopted Kiswahili, an East African language (National Curriculum Development Centre (NCDC) n.d.a.: 29; Kiango 2005: 159 & 163), as its national language. This is because, unlike most indigenous Ugandan languages, Kiswahili is widely spoken in the East Africa region and it is internationally recognised as a major *lingua franca* of Africa (The Republic of Uganda 1992: 17 & 19). In order to fulfill the aim of popularising Kiswahili in the education system of Uganda, through its language-in-education policy, the GWP (The Republic of Uganda 1992: 20), among other education phases/levels, provided for the compulsory teaching of Kiswahili in all secondary schools (cf. National Curriculum Development Centre (NCDC) n.d.c.: 11). Subsequently, the GWP (The Republic of Uganda 1992: 21) tasked the NCDC to prioritise the development of curriculum and its related instructional materials that would support the teaching of Kiswahili commencing in schools from 1992/1993 financial and academic year.

While the language-in-education policy was explicit in its purpose of adopting Kiswahili in the curriculum, it is unfortunate that the NCDC started to consider the issue of Kiswahili only after an extended period. In fact, NCDC produced the first-ever Kiswahili teaching syllabuses for lower secondary schools, in 2008 (hereafter, 2008 syllabus), and in 2014, a Kiswahili teaching syllabus for upper secondary schools (see The Republic of Uganda 2008: iv, 2014).

Jjingo and Visser (2017: 9) point out that the 2008 syllabus is increasingly being used across learning institutions in the country, studies, for example, the working papers (see Department of African Languages of Stellenbosch University n.da., n.db.), indicate that the 2008 syllabus largely depicts features of the traditional, grammatical syllabuses in the grading of its topics. Although, as studies (see Krahneke 1987: 15; Nunan 2006: 13; Wilbur 2007: 79; Baleghizadeh 2012: 112; Ellis & Shintani 2014: 52) indicate that traditional syllabuses are still widely used, there is an increase in the number of scholars that criticise the continuous use of traditional syllabuses in facilitating L2 teaching and learning (see, for example, Krahneke 1987: 25-26; Long 2000: 5-7 & 180-181). For instance, scholars such as Krahneke (1987: 17-18), Nunan (1991: 28) and Willis and Willis (2001: 173) argue that traditional syllabuses exhibit deficiencies that are demonstrated in the grading and
sequencing of their learning topics. Thus, it is in this regard that Ellis and Shintani (2014: 52) call for the review and updating of such syllabuses.

Discussions in various studies (see Besha 2003; Mbunda 2003; Mtesigwa 2009) largely suggest the need to evaluate and update Kiswahili instruction materials such as the 2008 syllabus. In cognisance of such a need, in an informal consultation, I conducted with Mr Ismail Magezi, an Assistant Curriculum Specialist for Kiswahili language at NCDC, he noted that NCDC initiated the reform process of the 2008 syllabus and shortly halted the process on financial grounds. However, in 2016, NCDC reprinted the new copies of the 2008 syllabus (see The Republic of Uganda 2016) without necessarily addressing the existing gaps.

In this regard, such a practice suggests that (i) it largely conforms to the earlier view that while traditional syllabuses are widely used, they exhibit several deficiencies that hardly lead L2 learners to fully acquire the L2s they are learning, and (ii) it predominantly contrasts with the organising principles of the syllabus such as language theories, theories of L2 learning and teaching and the existing philosophies of education, as advanced by Yalden (1987: 87). Consequently, it directly has negative effects on Kiswahili pedagogies across the learning institutions in which such syllabuses are used.

1.2. Problem statement

In light with mainly the above section, given that task-based syllabuses, unlike traditional syllabuses, are mainly classroom-based in that their design and modifications largely depend on the specific learners’ needs and interests, it is the aim of this study to explore the design procedures of these syllabuses. In general, this study aims to investigate how task-based theories and their related principles can inform decisions on the selection, grading, and sequencing of the Kiswahili pedagogical tasks in relation to other SLA principles. Specifically, it evokes Robinson’s (2010) SSARC model in (i) providing systematic procedures in grading and sequencing of Kiswahili learning tasks; (ii) offering an explicit contribution on guiding the sequencing of Kiswahili pedagogical practices in lower secondary schools with a subsequent goal(s) of enhancing Kiswahili language development among Kiswahili learners within and outside Uganda.

1.3. Objective of the study

The main goal of this study is to investigate how task-based theories and their related principles as advanced in Robinson’s (2010) SSARC model, can inform decisions in the design of Kiswahili pedagogical tasks for enhancing the teaching and learning of Kiswahili as an L2 in Ugandan lower
secondary schools. In order to attain this objective, the study is guided by the following specific objectives:

(i). To demonstrate how Breen’s (1987a,b; cf. 2001) syllabus design principles can be employed as a benchmark in the general organisation of Kiswahili learning tasks.

(ii). To determine the Kiswahili communication needs of Ugandan secondary school learners for the purpose of designing task descriptions and corresponding task dialogues for L2 learners of Kiswahili.

(iii). To explore the cognitive and linguistic complexity features of a range of real-world tasks for Kiswahili which are characteristic of the educational, sports, social and entertainment interests that Ugandan Kiswahili secondary schools’ learners may get exposed to inside and outside the Kiswahili language classroom.

(iv). To utilise Robinson’s (2010) SSARC model for incorporating the features of communication tasks into learning tasks features for Kiswahili through accountable, systematic manipulation of cognitive and linguistic task features in constructing the content of balanced task dialogues.

(v). To investigate the properties of Robinson’s (2010) SSARC model in relation to the grading and sequencing of Kiswahili learning tasks for achieving optimal interlanguage development by learners, taking into account their diverse range of proficiency levels in Kiswahili.

(vi). To examine the correlation of linguistic complexity to the cognitive complexity of learning tasks through the investigation of an identification of salient grammatical structures relating to focus on form methodology for the teaching and learning of Kiswahili in the classroom.

(vii). To contextualise the possible opportunities of diffusing task-based theories into the existing education systems of Uganda.

1.4. Research questions

In order to achieve the objectives as outlined in the previous section, this study aims to address the following questions:

(i). How informative can Breen’s (1987a,b; cf. 2001) syllabus design principles be in the designing of Kiswahili pedagogical tasks?
(ii). What is the range of target (i.e. real-world) communication tasks, which are characteristic of the educational and social interests, and experiences of Ugandan secondary school learners in which they can get exposure to communicative interaction in Kiswahili?

(iii). How can the communication needs of Kiswahili learners established in terms of the question (i) above, be captured in specific task descriptions and corresponding dialogue content representative of the target communication tasks?

(iv). What are the target (i.e. real world) tasks in terms of (i) above that are predominantly resource directing and predominantly resource dispersing, respectively in terms of cognitive complexity?

(v). To what extent do cognitive complexity features of target tasks correlate with linguistic complexity and how do the properties of linguistic complexity of target tasks relate to focus on form considerations in the practice of teaching and learning of Kiswahili?

(vi). How can learning (i.e. pedagogic) tasks be derived from the target tasks taking into account the SSARC model of Robinson 2010?

(vii). How can the learning tasks in (v) be graded and sequenced to be optimally suitable for teaching and learning of Kiswahili by Ugandan secondary school learners with a diverse range of proficiency levels in Kiswahili?

(viii). What mechanisms can be considered to suitably diffuse task-based theories and its related aspects in the Ugandan education systems?

(ix). In light of questions in (i) – (ix) above, how can a TBS for the teaching and learning of Kiswahili as an L2 by Ugandan secondary school learners be characterised?

1.5. The rationale of the study

This study is primarily motivated by two main considerations. In this regard, this section intends to explore the two main considerations utilised as justification for the motive of undertaking this PhD project.

The first motivation relates to the fact that, unlike in the previous period (almost five decades ago), the government of Uganda recently, reaffirmed its position in support of Kiswahili pedagogies in the country. This has been reflected in several documents that the government has issued after the publication of the 1992 Government White Paper (GWP [GWP 1992]). It is in the GWP that the
language-in-education policy of Uganda is contained. Specifically, in this policy, Kiswahili is identified to be a compulsory teaching subject in all primary and secondary schools (see The Republic of Uganda 1992: 19-20).

Other than the GWP, in 2005, the 1995 constitution of the Republic of Uganda (The Republic of Uganda 2005), was amended to reflect the ‘new status’ of Kiswahili in the country. To build on the statement from the constitution, in 2006, the Uganda National Culture Policy (UNCP), was issued (The Republic of Uganda 2006). In the later documents, i.e. the constitution and the UNCP, the official status of Kiswahili is recognised. Therefore, currently, in Uganda, all or/and any of these three documents, are considered as frameworks that partly benchmark the establishment of Kiswahili pedagogies in learning institutions.

Subsequently, in light of the above, the need to guide the professional actualisation of Kiswahili pedagogies in the classrooms, the government of Uganda issued two Kiswahili teaching syllabuses for, respectively, lower (The Republic of Uganda 2008, 2016) and upper (The Republic of Uganda 2014) secondary schools in the country. It should be noted that the two syllabuses are formal, the first-ever Kiswahili teaching syllabuses to be published by the government in the history of teaching and learning of Kiswahili in Uganda. Jjingo and Visser (2017: 9) point out that these authorised syllabuses are in use in private and public schools as well as in other several organisations.

The second motivation for this study is derived from my personal interest, as a teacher-trainer (see also section 1.8.1, on page 17, for a summary of my education background). I should explicitly state that during my bachelors’ degree studies (at the School of Education, Makerere University), I am of the view that the whole class received insufficient training in methods and approaches of teaching and learning of Kiswahili as an L2s. One of the possible reason for this was that the Kiswahili lecturers presented the learning content that engaged students more in analysing the morphological, phonological and syntactic structures and forms of Kiswahili language rather than in acquiring the knowledge and skills of teaching Kiswahili as an L2. In fact, such similar practices have been confirmed by Mukama (2009: 85) when she states that in Uganda, Kiswahili has been taught by pedagogically and linguistically insufficiently competent teachers (cf. Freeman 2016: 5-6).

In addition, during the annual teaching practicum (school/teaching practice, as it is known in Uganda) periods, in secondary schools, personally, I often employed what I have come to know, during the PhD studies, as the famous Presentation, Practice, and Production (P-P-P) approaches and techniques (see section 2.4.2, on page 69, for the discussion on P-P-P approaches). In brief, I employed the P-P-P techniques, by imitating my former teachers when I was learning the English
language. While this was somehow a positive gesture that assisted me during the teaching practicum, the P-P-P approaches I attempted to use lacked L2 theoretically informed perspectives, which resulted in non-optimal teaching to the learners. This is the reason why, when I started teaching at the university, I often chose to teach mainly Kiswahili content courses that focused more on the structures of the language rather than its acquisition skills.

Due to my need for personal professional development, I enrolled for Masters’ degree studies in linguistics. The nature of this programme was more or less a continuation of the bachelors’ studies in that it did not contain a component or course on L2 language teaching methods and approaches. As a consequence, even after the completion of M.A studies, I generally had insufficient knowledge and skills of teaching Kiswahili as an L2, which was contrary to the requirement of the job of professionally preparing Kiswahili teacher-trainees at Makerere University, Uganda. Hence, to acquire knowledge of L2 acquisition and learning which would equip me appropriately for fulfilling my professional responsibilities at the university, I decided to enrol for PhD studies that could offer me opportunities to generally explore courses in language teaching methods and approaches, specifically, courses on teaching Kiswahili as an L2.

Through the course of my PhD studies I have been engaged to enhance understanding of L2 learning and teaching theories (traditional and recent) also referred as subjective theories by Martin, Preston, Wilton & Finkbeiner (2018: 193), that inform relevant decisions about second language acquisition (SLA), pedagogical approaches and teaching methods. Moreover, in this PhD programme, I have been able to acquire knowledge, competence and skills that I can employ in the design of contemporary task-based syllabuses (cf. Department of African Languages of Stellenbosch University n.d.c., for an illustration of an example on a traditional approach to syllabus design), such as those that focus on learning tasks that are expected to be performed by L2 learners in the language classroom.

1.6. The significance of the study

There are numerous studies that have addressed issues on TBS design for various languages (see, for example, Nunan & Lockwood 1991; Chaudron, Doughty, Kim, Kong, Lee, Lee, Long & Ken. 2005; Duran & Ramaut 2006; Butler 2011; Tavakoli & Foster 2011). In the African context, while such studies are on the increase with respect to designing TBSs for teaching African languages, as L2s (see Smitsdorff 2008, Mntuyedwa 2009; Geldenhuys 2011), in general, there is hardly traceable evidence of studies that specifically address issues on TBS design for teaching Kiswahili as an L2 (cf. Msanjila 2005: 208-300; Kobia 2009: 312). The above situation suggests that this study can be
considered as the first one of this nature. Therefore, the current study can be of significance to the following stakeholders within and outside Uganda.

(i). Ministries in charge of education, e.g. the Ministry of Education and Sports (MoES) in Uganda can inform the government about the instructional benefits (i.e. pedagogically as well as cognitively) of using contemporary L2 teaching syllabuses vis-à-vis the use of traditional syllabuses, as is currently the case in Uganda (see The Republic of Uganda 2008) with regard to the teaching of Kiswahili as an L2 in lower secondary schools. This can also be reflected in the language-in-education policy that the country intends to introduce at a particular time.

(ii). The organisations in charge of curriculum development, for example, the NCDC in Uganda, can be mandated by the government to design the curriculum that attempts to popularise the use of TBSs in the country. This introduction of TBSs can subsequently be diffused in programmes of teacher training institutions and colleges across the country. In addition, developers of instructional materials such as published textbooks and reference books can commence with the design of books with task-themes that address the needs of learners from diverse linguistic backgrounds.

1.7. Theoretical framework

To fulfil the objectives of this study (as stated in section 1.3, on page 10) and address its subsequent questions (as outlined in section 1.4, on pages 11), the current study invokes Robinson’s (2010) SSARC model as its framework. This model is an extended version of Robinson’s (2001a, 2005, 2009a) cognition hypothesis (CH) and the triadic componential framework (TCF), respectively. The rationale for choosing the SSARC model is based on the view that, as Baralt, Gilabert and Robinson (2014: 25-26) point it out that the model is constituted by findings from previous research studies in relation to L2 acquisition and pedagogy, specifically in respect to TBLT. In particular, according to Robinson (2010: 247), the model is feasible in providing criteria regarding the features of cognitive complexity of target language (L2) communication tasks in relation to the grading, and sequencing of pedagogical tasks for L2 learners. In light with this view, there has been an increase on studies, for example, in African languages that have employed previous versions of the SSARC model (for the list of such studies, see the third paragraph of section 2.4.8, on page 108). This suggests that the SSARC model is be considered suitable for this study too which sets out to investigate mainly features of cognitive complexity for the purpose of grading and sequencing of Kiswahili learning tasks.
Earlier in this section, I pointed out that Robinson’s SSARC model has developed from research concluded in several previous studies. Therefore, in order to discuss this model in depth, different components of this model are discussed in the respective sections. For example, section 3.9.1, on page 189, provides a background of Robinson’s CH, which constitutes the earlier version of the SSARC model. Similarly, section 3.9.2, on page 193, explores the TCF which realises the principles of Robinson’s CH. Lastly, to consolidate and encapsulate the views on CH and TCF, section 4.3.2, on page 215, summarises the main facets of the SSARC model to set its application in the analysis of cognitive complexity of five selected task-description specifications (TDSs), and in the subsequent grading and sequencing of the learning tasks in each of the five TDSs, as they occur in Chapter Four.

1.8. The methodology of the study

This study predominantly invokes Long’s (2005a) perspectives on sources of L2 learners’ needs, to establish its methodology. It is acknowledged throughout this study that, in TBLT, L2 learners’ needs (specifically, needs analysis will be discussed in section 2.4.7 on page 104) are central in designing syllabuses and in their subsequent realisations in the L2 classrooms. Thus, in the design processes of TBSs, considerations of learners’ needs are taken into account right from the beginning (see, sections 2.4.7 & 3.3.1, on pages 104 & 118, respectively, for the in-depth discussion on L2 learners’ needs; cf. Breen 1987a: 159, 2001). In discussing methodological issues with respect to L2 learners needs analysis in general and sources of learners’ needs in particular, Long (2005a: 27) contends that, “… even when learners are indeed able to provide useful and valid insights about their present or future needs, better and more readily accessible sources may be available, including” (i) the graduates of the language programme(s), (ii) written sources, (iii) language employers, (iv) experienced language teachers, and (v) subject-area specialists.

Therefore, from the above list of sources of learners’ needs, this study purposely selected three sources in the design of its methodology. These included, the sources labelled as (i), (ii) and (v). While there is a general reason for the choice of three sources, there is also a specific reason(s) for the selection of a particular choice, which I will discuss respectively below.

The general reason for choosing the above sources relates to the fact that in Uganda, Kiswahili pedagogies are increasingly gaining momentum (as it has been noted in section 1.1.1, on page 6), and the human resources for Kiswahili language teaching, in general, seem to be growing gradually. This further suggests that, in Uganda, it is still possible for a particular practitioner of Kiswahili (e.g. a teacher) to serve in the capacity relating to all the above sources of learners’ needs (other
than the written sources), as proposed by Long (2005a: 27). In fact, the researcher of this study has often, directly or indirectly, assumed most of the above capacities in different time frames (Richards 2007). However, due to scope constraints of this study, the choice of the three specific sources was desirable, as justified below.

1.8.1. Researcher as a graduate of Kiswahili programmes

As the researcher of the current study is a Ugandan, I have a near-native proficiency in Kiswahili. This is because I received my early childhood education from Dar-es-Salaam, Tanzania. While in Dar-es-salaam, I was able to complete primary education in an environment where Kiswahili was: (i) the language of instruction (LoI), also known as, medium of instruction (MoI) or language of learning and teaching (LoLT); and (ii) the language of wider communication (LWC) in and outside schools, home settings and in public domains.

After primary school, I returned to Uganda, where the environment was unsupportive with regard to the teaching and learning of Kiswahili in schools (see also King’ei 2010: 156). In Uganda, my first encounter with Kiswahili pedagogies was at an upper secondary school (i.e. at the high school, in grade twelve). At this level, Kiswahili was a component of my subject combination. With an average performance after two years of instruction in high school, I joined Makerere University to be trained as a teacher trainee at the School of Education. While at Makerere University, I took Kiswahili further as a major subject and was able to graduate as a Kiswahili teacher for mainly secondary schools in Uganda. Having satisfied the Management of Makerere University with tremendous performance, I secured a teaching post at the School of Education, as a teaching assistant of Kiswahili teaching methods.

In general, due to my aim to specialise in the Kiswahili language, I enrolled for an M.A (linguistics) programme at the University of Dar-es-salaam (UDSM), Tanzania. While at UDSM, Kiswahili was the core course unit. In the course of this programme, I conducted small-scale projects, such as investigating the occurrences of ellipsis in genres (texts) from a selected Kiswahili newspaper, Mwananchi. Ellipsis is more or less similar to the omission technique (see also McDonough, Shaw & Masuhara 2013: 71-72) that has been used in the current study (as will be discussed in section 4.3.1, on page 212). Another small-scale project that I conducted while at UDSM, was the compilation of a monolingual mini-dictionary of Kiswahili slangs, as mainly used in Dar-es-salaam, Tanzania. The mini-dictionary project provided me with insights to understand more on varieties of Kiswahili, their variations and usages in given contexts within Dar-es-salaam (for example, see sentences in STDs \[c_{14} - c_{16}\], as they appear in section 4.5.4.3.1, on page 296).
In light of my personal background, my previous/current educational experience, in conjunction with theoretical perspectives that I will review, in section 1.8.2, on page 18, regarding syllabus design and task-based language teaching in general mainly using the introspective method, I constructed an overarching task within a broad thematic area (see Appendix (A), on page 418), task-descriptions (see Appendix (A-i), on page 419) and their associated STDs (see Appendix (A-ii), on page 444) that can be considered as authentic (cf. McDonough et al. 2013: 67) given that they reflect those of Kiswahili native speakers (cf. Campbell et al. 2014: 70), as will be analysed in Chapter Four.

The introspective method in this study is in line with Mackey and Gass’s (2005: 77) views that “…what takes place in consciousness can be observed in much the same way that one can observe events in the external world.”

1.8.2. Review of (research) literature

In light of the previously discussed section, it should be noted that the theoretical field employed was new to the researcher. Thus, I undertook a comprehensive literature review. This review can be characterised into three broad categories. First, general perspectives in second language acquisition, and pedagogies were explored (see e.g., Ellis 1992, 2005a; Kramsch 2000; Bartels 2005; Deen 2005; De Angelis 2007; Hult 2008; Schmitt & Celce-Murcia 2010; VanPatten & Benati 2010; Benati & Angelovska 2016). The aim of this review was to identify and relate views regarding the development of the field in terms of theories of L2 pedagogy and acquisition of additional languages (L2, L3, L4 etc.) in different educational contexts (as partly discussed in section 1.12, on page 31).

The second category of the literature review was mainly concerning with Task-based language teaching (TBLT) and its related theories and approaches (see, for example, Willis 1996; Willis & Willis 2007; Ellis, 2003a, 2003b; Nunan 2004; Branden, Bygate & Norris 2009; Bygate 2000). The primary aim of this review was to develop in-depth understanding of the theoretical frameworks and relevant concepts in the field through which the concerns of the current study could be positioned for addressing issues concerning L2 teaching and learning of Kiswahili in the Ugandan context (as will be explored mainly in Chapter Two and Chapter Three; cf. Chapter Six).

The final category of literature review concerned exploring syllabus design principles and their related components. These principles comprised of both traditional and contemporary theoretical views regarding syllabus design decisions and the related pedagogical aspects (Johnson 1982, 1983,
In general, the rationale behind the last category of literature review was to investigate different insights and aspects that not only bridge the gap between the traditional and contemporary views on syllabus designs, but also, as resources, to examine how TBSs utilise decisions from a variety of theories and approaches of SLA and reflect them in the L2 classroom settings (as will be explored in the next three chapters).

1.8.3. Consultations with subject-area language specialists

As noted in section 1.8.1, on page 17, that while the researcher conducted the study as a Kiswahili specialist, there was a need to informally consult with other language subject specialists, even those of other languages (see Appendix (B)), to ascertain the suitability of constructed Kiswahili simulated tasks dialogues (see also Willis & Willis 2007: 64 on similar views). Thus, a particular specialist was consulted on his/her expertise in all or any of the aspects of the learning themes, general learners’ needs, and in the structures of the sentences (mainly in the constructed clauses of the analysed STDs occurring as sections 4.5.1.3.1, 4.5.2.3.1, 4.5.3.3.1, 4.5.4.3.1 and 4.5.5.3.1, on pages 233, 252, 276, 296 and 323, as derived from some sections of Appendix (A-ii) on pages 444-539.

The consultations were conducted mainly during and after the construction of the initial tasks. As the initial consultations were on one-on-one (face-to-face) basis, mainly while the researcher was in Uganda, much of the consultation interactions were done online, primarily through emails and skypes, mainly while the researcher was at the Stellenbosch University in South Africa. These informal consultations assisted the researcher in collecting views on the suitability of the Kiswahili dialogues constructed in order to determine the extent to which Kiswahili teachers may find the learning tasks appropriate to the interest level, real-world experiences and opportunities of exposure and use of Kiswahili by the lower secondary school learners in Uganda.

1.8.1.2. The application of sections 1.8.1, 1.8.2 & 1.8.3 to the current study

In section 1.8.2, on page 18, I indicated that at the beginning of my PhD studies, I was unfamiliar with the field of task-based language teaching that I am today. It is in this regard that, my PhD supervisor asked me to write series of communication tasks to illustrate various scenarios of authentic Kiswahili communicative, real-world tasks, as could daily be performed by Kiswahili teenage native speakers in different contexts. These illustrational of task-writing were done before I had started writing the proposal for the current study. Thus, after writing these preliminary tasks, I
was able to demonstrate and continue with the following aspects that constituted the proposal and later the realisation of the current study.

1.8.1.2.1. The construction of the overarching task theme (i.e. Appendix (A))

The writing of the preliminary task illustrations, as discussed in the previous section, in tandem with my previous educational experiences as a graduate of Kiswahili programmes (as I discussed in section 1.8.1, on page 17), introspectively, I constructed an overarching task in a broad thematic area illustrated as Appendix (A) (cf. Nunan 2004: 25). This theme can be considered as suitable for Senior One and Two learners in Uganda (equivalent to the South African’s high school learners in Grade Eight and Nine, respectively), given that it generally reflects several educational and extra curriculum activities that learners in this educational phase often do.

For the purpose of considering learners’ interests in syllabus design as well as in the ultimate appropriateness of the syllabus to the same learners (as will be discussed in section 2.4.5.3, on page 87; cf. Rahimpour 2010: 1663), I developed the overarching task theme in a way that involves only four participants (as indicated in the last sentence of the first paragraph of Appendix (A), on page 491. For example, with regard to space constraint and representational reasons, this number (of four participants) is sufficient given that these learners can easily organise themselves into two pairs (see Breen 1987a: 167; Robinson 2001b: 32; Willis & Willis 2007: 167; cf. Van den Branden 2016: 173), that can foster negotiation of meaning as an attempt to agree and disagree on particular issues in the performance of a given task while the teacher and the rest of the class observe.

In light of the above and in relation to issues of gender considerations, the four participants were composed of two females (Ndunamiwe & Nnamusoke) and two males (Kirumira & Sajile) students (see section 1.8.1.2.2.1, on page 24, on the selection of other participants and their corresponding roles). In general, the overarching task theme requires the four participants to individually prepare proposals. In this study, these proposals are also referred to as real-world tasks or STDs, as they occur in sections 1.1.1, 2.1.1, 3.1.1 & 4.1.1, on pages 444, 445, 447 and 451, in Appendix (A-ii) suggesting to the class on visiting some tourist destinations, as shown in the last sentence of the first paragraph in Appendix (A). In summary, it can be noted that involving learners (participants), as part of the overarching task theme suggests that themes consider learners’ needs and interests as crucial in syllabus design decisions. As Willis and Willis (2007: 64) state that by giving the L2 learners chances to select their own topics, raise learners’ motivations in terms of decision making as a way of increasing their direct engagement in syllabus design decisions and material development.
1.8.1.2.1.1. The designing of task-descriptions (i.e. Appendix (A-i))

Recall that the above discussed overarching task theme (see Appendix A) requires four learners (participants) each to prepare a proposal (real-world task) suggesting to the class on visiting some tourist destinations. Before the real-world tasks (proposals) are developed, it is necessary to construct a task description for each proposal (these proposals occur as STDs in sections 1.1.1, 2.1.1, 3.1.1, 4.1.1, on pages 444, 445, 447 & 451, in Appendix (A-ii)). Therefore, to build on this requirement, I introspectively and purposely developed four main task-descriptions (they appear as sections 1.1, 2.1, 3.1 and 4.1, on pages 419, 420, 421, respectively, in Appendix (A-i)). Briefly, every task-description presents summarised narrations that each of the four identified learners is required to express in the real-world tasks (proposals). In other words, in this study, each task-description function, as (i) a framework from which syllabus designers can situate their ideas as they develop real-world tasks and pedagogical (learning) tasks (see section 3.4, on page 121, for the differences on these two types of tasks); (ii) as Shintani (2014: 286) puts it that task description provides instructions as guidelines that task participants (mainly learners) need to know and follow upon the performance of mainly pedagogical tasks.

Specifically, in this study, task descriptions have included topics that I obtained from Uganda’s secondary school curriculum subjects such as English language (Ogundipe & Tregidgo 1971, 1972; Barasa & Grant 1986; Grant & Wang’ombe 1997), Geography (Mwisaka & Nakabaale 2009), History (Kannamwangi 2011, 2012), Information and communication technology (Mburu & Chemwa 2004a,b), Kiswahili (King’ei 2009) and business related studies (Wood 1985; Butt 1995; Mutamba & Fatuma 2008a,b), as suggested by Willis & Willis (2007: 64). In addition, each task description entails participants to have information such as salutations and the educational and non-educational benefits of visiting particular destinations, specific activities that L2 task participants can do while in such destinations and the provisions of justifications for visiting a specific destination (see also Nunan 2004: 20). In order to reflect the authentic communication as experienced in natural settings, the constructed task descriptions are mainly transactional, formal (between learners and their teachers). This is intended to introduce L2 Kiswahili learners to communicate in the standard Kiswahili variety (i.e. Kiswahili Sanifu).

In addition, it should be noted that the design of the above four main task descriptions has been made in a way that part of the content of the last paragraphs in each of the first three task descriptions (cf. the first paragraph of section 4.1.1, on page 421, in Appendix (A-i)), provides for an alternative option that the rest of the class can decide on visiting in case the destination being presented is not favourable to the class. This provision is intended to also involve the rest of the
class (other than the four identified learners) into syllabus design decisions. As Ellis (2003b: 213-214) points out, the view that when L2 learners are given opportunities to make decisions on a particular aspect in syllabus design processes, such opportunities project a positive implication on learners’ ultimate pedagogical practices. Therefore, from the part of the content of the last paragraphs of the first three task descriptions, it can be concluded that while there are valid justifications to visit other tourist destinations, it is clear that the whole class will visit the Entebbe town, whose simulated task dialogues occur as section 4.1.1, on page 421, in Appendix (A-i).

Given that the first three task-descriptions provide for visiting Entebbe Town (see section 4.1.1, on page 421, in Appendix A-i) and not any other destination, thus, the task-description of Entebbe Town has been designed in a way that, it is longer than the rest of the task-descriptions. This is because, it is this task-description and its associated STDs (see Appendix A-ii) that constitute a broader real-world task from which this study will choose only five of its dialogue segments for analysis purposes in term of interactional complexity, cognitive complexity as well as linguistic complexity, respectively (see Chapter Four).

1.8.1.2.1.2. The construction of simulated task dialogues (STDs) (i.e Appendix (A-ii)

To transform the above four task descriptions into real-world tasks through simulated task dialogues (STDs, as they occur in sections 1.1.1, 2.1.1, 3.1.1 & 4.1.1, respectively, on pages 444, 445, 447 & 451, in Appendix (A-ii)), I used mainly the introspective method and the existing literature (both online and print materials). The use of existing literature was of significance given that there are situations where such literature complemented the introspective method. In general, the existing literature was used to ascertain its authenticity of the introspective method and where necessary to provide information which is up-to-date.

For example, introspectively, I had to remember several teaching subjects that I studied mainly at the lower secondary school level. Thereafter, I had to physically look for books in, e.g. Geography, English, Agriculture, History and Commerce. These books were of great relevance given that I was able to retrieve information related to topic selection and learning contents in general, as they can be observed in the STDs. Similarly, having travelled widely by road around the East African region, I used my expedition experiences to reflect the kind of communications needs that learners would have on their way to, around and from Entebbe Town.

Regarding the existing research literature, I accessed online resources such as newspapers, private and public websites mainly to retrieve information about different educational and non-educational
activities that are carried out in particular locations that have been included in the STDs. In addition, I also accessed printed literature such as the teaching books as those mentioned earlier in this section, the 2008 syllabus (The Republic of Uganda 2008). In tandem, I also reviewed literature that illustrated how some tasks had been written/design for different purposes and learners (see for example, RIE [1980] as cited in Johnson [1983: 137]; Nunan [2004: 29]; Willis & Willis [2007: 64-65 & 154]; Samuda & Bygate [2008: 9]; cf. Ellis’s [2003b: 219] themes and topic generator, as summarised in Table 3:8, on page 157).

In summary, it should be noted that in designing and constructing (writing) of the above-mentioned STDs, I took into consideration learners’ communication needs and their interests as suggested by Nunan (2004: 19-31). The needs were predominantly interactional between learners, and transactional between learners and their teachers (see, Loewen & Sato 2018: 295-296, for an in-depth analysis of characteristics interlocutors). In this way, learners are envisioned to be introduced to mainly standard Kiswahili variety, Kiunguja (see Mbaabu for the selection procedure of the Kiunguja variety).

1.8.1.2.2. Task participants

It can be observed that in the constructed simulated task dialogues (STDs), as they occur in Appendix (A-ii), between page 444 and page 539, there are italicized surnames, at the beginning of each dialogue. These are the surnames of task participants (learners) who are required to express/narrate the respective constructed STDs besides which the surnames appear.

I purposely obtained these surnames (including surnames of those four learners who were chosen to present proposals, see section 1.8.1.2.1, on page 20, on the construction of overarching task theme), from two WhatsApp groups in which I am an active member. One WhatsApp group (hereafter group X) is composed of members that I studied with in primary school in Dar es salaam, Tanzania, as mentioned in section 1.8.1, on page 17, the other group (henceforth group Y) is constituted by members from two neighbouring secondary schools (single boys’ school and single girls’ school) in Uganda. It is in the boy’s school that I attended lower secondary studies, a level to which the communication tasks demonstrated in this study is devoted.

Being a selective member of several WhatsApp groups, the choice of the two groups (i.e. X & Y), as used in this study is based on the following reason(s). From the commencement of my PhD studies, these are groups that I frequently socialize and engage in conversations of some topical discussions. In such conversations, as group members, we engage in correcting each other’s
deviations in grammar and written spelling mistakes either in English or in Kiswahili languages. In fact, it is through these experiences, that I conceived ideas that I later developed into two newspaper articles, one in English language and other in Kiswahili language.

The article in English was titled *How to learn to write Kiswahili in seconds* (Jingo 2016), was intended to encourage among other Ugandans, the members within group Y to employ available resources as a way of improving in writing newly acquired or existing Kiswahili words etc. These resources include personal inquiries from mainly L1 Kiswahili speakers such as those in the group. For example, this study employed this resource in ascertaining the usability and contextual aspects of several Kiswahili corresponding STDs that I constructed (cf. section 1.8.3, on page 19).

Similarly, the second article was written in Kiswahili. Its title can loosely be translated to ‘how WhatsApp groups can be the impetus to the development of Standard Kiswahili’ (see Jingo 2017a,b). Unlike the first article, the second article was intended to mainly members within group X to attempt using conventionally accepted forms of Kiswahili grammar as a way of promoting the use of standard Kiswahili in the group. Partly, this article informed the current study in a way I constructed the overarching task theme (see Appendix (A)) and all the task descriptions (see Appendix (A-i)). In other words, I developed the overarching task theme and all task descriptions using a standard Kiswahili variety only. However, very few sections of the corresponding STDs exhibit the use of some Kiswahili colloquial (see, for example, dialogue segments \[c_{15}\] and \[c_{16}\], occurring in section 4.5.4.3.1, on page 296), as a way of reflecting the natural use of Kiswahili language in the real-world situations.

1.8.1.2.2.1. **The selection of (the names and roles of) task participants**

The two WhatsApp groups (i.e. X and Y), as discussed in the previous section, provided this study with the names of the task participants. Thus, for the purpose of Ugandan Kiswahili L2 learners to associate with the intended syllabus to be designed (cf. section 2.4.5.3, on page 87, for similar views on this issue), I used some surnames from group Y. Similarly, for the syllabus to reflect the contexts in which Kiswahili is traditionally confined and spoken as mainly an L1, (see section 1.1.1, on page 6, for such contexts), I used some surnames of the members from group X.

In line with research ethics (see Appendix (C)), I requested to use the surnames of the respective persons consulted through the following procedures. First, by using my phone, I sent the information, in form of a short message service (SMS), to the administrator of each of the two groups (i.e. X and Y). In the SMS, I expressed to the administrators and the WhatsApp group, in
general, the need to have some volunteers, from each group to provide me with their surnames for using in my PhD project. In this SMS, I briefly provided highlights on what my PhD project entails and its intended goals (see Appendix (C-i)). Subsequently, the administrators posted the SMS to the groups’ platforms for serving this purpose. Thus, in response to my request, some members of the two groups (i.e. X and Y) willingly and overtly submitted their surnames on the general platform for use by me. Out of the thirty-six surnames I received, it is only one member, Msella, who sent his name privately.

Having compiled the list of the surnames from the two groups (i.e. X and Y), I assigned each name to a given corresponding simulated task dialogue(s). In most cases, the assigning exercise reflected some attributes of the character of the person whose name it is, either, as I observed from a given WhatsApp group or, from my memory, as s/he used to conduct her/himself during the old school days. In this regard, there are some participants with longer turns than others. Similarly, I point out that there are some surnames used as task participants that have been assigned the actual roles that person having these surnames do as careers in real-world situations. For Example, Teacher Peta is an academic while Dr Mutebi is a clinical officer. Furthermore, there are few members that submitted more than one surname. This is because there are situations where I needed more surnames, as a result of additional task participants’ roles and positions that were created in the simulated task as I was modifying the constructed STDs, for the purpose of maintaining cohesion in the flow of narration. Members with two surnames include Teacher Peta whose other name is Mhoma; Chipoli is also Majolo, and Aimbora is Nkya.

1.8.1.2.3. The selection of TDSs and STDs for analysis

In general, all forty-one constructed TDS (see Appendix (A-i)) predominantly conform to the task types and their classifications as will be discussed from section 3.5.2, on page 144, to section 3.5.2.4.1, on page 150. In addition, all the constructed TDS largely exhibit the characteristics (or features) that comply with the three facets of analysis (see sections 4.2, 4.3 & 4.4, on pages 207, 212 & 217, respectively) that this study will carry out in Chapter Four.

Thus, for the purpose of conducting the three facets of analysis, I only selected five TDS (see Table 4:3, Table 4:9, Table 4:15, Table 4:21 & Table 4:27, on pages, 219, 239, 260, 284 & 305, occurring as sections 4.3.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.4.3, 4.4.2 and 4.4.4.4, on pages, 426, 422, 425, 433 and 435, in Appendix (A-i)), with their corresponding STDs, in sections 4.5.1.3.1, on page 233; 4.5.2.3.1, on page 252; 4.5.3.3.1, on page 276; 4.5.4.3.1, on page 296 & 4.5.5.3.1, on page 323, respectively, appearing as sections 4.3.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.4.3, 4.4.2 and 4.4.4.4, on pages, 470, 456, 469, 495 and 503,
The selection of the five TDS was considered in order because of the scope restrictions of the study and the following justifications outlined.

The selection of the TDS for Task one (see Table 4:3, on page 219), has not been done for any reason compared to the remaining four TDS, as they appear in Table 4:9, Table 4:15, Table 4:21 and Table 4:27, on pages 239, 260, 284 and 305. This is because, I randomly selected and used the TDS of Task One, in preliminary task writing to demonstrate the three facets of analyses. Given that I presented sufficient results of the preliminary analysis of this written task which was considerately challenging and time-consuming, I decided that the analysed TDS for Task One should form part of the TDSs to be analysed in this study. Nevertheless, the remaining four TDS and their respective STDs were included in the current study for the following peculiar but also conventional reasons.

The TDS of Task two (see section 4.5.2, on page 238), was chosen because it involves an activity (having breakfast) that people generally do every day, hence the desirability of this practice often receives attention in the school curriculums and syllabuses. Health-wise, research findings have shown that among other meals, breakfast is essential for every human being. Graham, Russo and Defeyter (2015: 1) state, for example, that there are several advantages associated with consumption of breakfast. They include the improvement of the intake of nutrients and learners’ physical abilities are moderately increased. Thus, L2 Kiswahili learners can appropriately expect to be familiar with the conversations that take place while having breakfast as a way to develop their food-related language proficiency in Kiswahili.

The TDS of Task three (see section 4.5.3, on page 260), was selected for being the only task that involves one task participant. This task attempts to demonstrate that it is possible for a task to be performed by a single participant (i.e. monologic task) and its goals be successfully attained. As a whole, this task prepares a learner to conduct monologic discourse alone within an extended timeframe.

Given that the TDS of Task four (see section 4.5.4, on page 284), involves the considerable content of financial aspects, it was chosen as a way of contributing to a curriculum area of building a financial management culture, which is a challenge to learners (task participants) too. Thus, one way to build such a culture is by including adding aspects of finances to the learning tasks that learners need to perform while in classrooms.

Lastly, the TDS of Task five (see section 4.5.5, on page 304) was selected because it is predominantly concerned with contents on wild animals, that are not often part of learners’ real-
world situations. Thus, involving such a task as a learning task for Kiswahili learners provides them with opportunities of getting to know the natural world that surrounds them (i.e. zoology and botany).

In general, therefore, to this study, the five TDSs demonstrate a sufficient representation of all the simulated task dialogues of the study. Since the five TDSs exhibit peculiar particular characteristics, they also exhibit features (elements) that are also found in the other remaining thirty-six unanalysed TDSs and their associated STDs, as they appear in Appendix (A-i) and Appendix (A-ii), respectively.

1.8.1.2.3.1. The analysis of task description specifications and simulated task dialogues

It has been pointed out in the previous section that the five selected TDSs and their respective STDs are analysed in term of three facets of analysis, i.e. the facets of interactional complexity, cognitive complexity, and syntactic complexity.

Due to the scope constraints, the underpinnings as well as the rationale for choosing the perspectives, viewpoints and framework that the study employs in analysing each facet of complexity (interactional, cognitive and syntactic), will be discussed in section 4.2, on page 207, section 4.3, on page 212 and section 4.4, on page 217, respectively, before the actual procedures of analysis will be considered.

1.9. The use of English and Kiswahili languages in this study

Nassaji and Fotos (2011: 140) observe that for language teachers, for example, Kiswahili teachers in Uganda, their decisions inform educational language policies and regulations. Like most Kiswahili teachers in Uganda, curriculum and syllabus designers among other educational policymakers, generally communicate in English. Although English and Kiswahili are official languages of Uganda (The Republic of Uganda 2006: 5), all policies are written in English. In order to reach a wider readership, including a range of relevant stakeholders and institutions, within and outside Uganda, regarding the language of education policies, specifically, for Kiswahili, this study has been written in English.

The Kiswahili texts in this study are illustrations of authentic real-world situations, such as the overarching task theme (see Appendix (A)), task descriptions (see Appendix (A-i)) and STDs (see Appendix (A-ii)), have all been translated into English (L2). The translation has explicitly rendered the original meaning in corresponding to the sentence structure of the source text (Kiswahili). The
translated texts appear either below its original text (Kiswahili) or on the right side of the Kiswahili texts, as they occur in the TDSs tables in Chapter Four. In addition, the English translated texts are italicised, for example, in Chapter Four. It is necessary to note that there are some texts which have not been translated into English as a result of failure to identify their contextual equivalent form(s) in English (see, for example, the word Makubwaa occurring as sentence [15] in section 4.5.4.3.1, on page 296).

Furthermore, in relation to the Kiswahili texts, the study has used the standard Kiswahili variety (see Kihore, Massamba & Msanjila 2003: 17; Massamba, Kihore & Msanjila 2004: 7-44; Richards & Schmidt 2010: 22; Petzell 2012: 138, for reviews on its alphabet system), to write the overarching task theme, task descriptions, and STDs. According to The Republic of Uganda (2008: ix), standard variety is an authorised variety that is emphasised for teaching Kiswahili in lower secondary schools in Uganda (see section 1.1.1, on page 6, on views with regard to the development of standard Kiswahili variety). For discussions, in relation to geographical distribution of other Kiswahili varieties, dialects, sub-dialects, and clusters, see, for example, Guthrie (1948: 197 in Nurse 2009: 137), Whiteley (1969: 2-7), Mohammed (2001 vii-viii), Batibo (2002: 1-2), Deen (2005: 32), Massamba (2007), Marten (2009: 1026) and King’ei (2010: 137).

1.10. Limitation of the study

The first limitation of the study is that the various Kiswahili texts as illustrated in the simulated task dialogues Appendix (A-ii) of this study are intended as oral texts rendered in approximated written form (see section 4.4.1, on page 217, on a review of oral texts). Like most Bantu languages, the structures of Kiswahili oral texts are often more complex than those in written texts. For example, some of the sentences in the STDs are relatively long compared to others which also indirectly affects the clausal demarcations. This is because, while speaking, speakers focus more on the intended meaning that they want to express, for example, on the order of the words, that are required to bring out such meaning. Thus, in this study, the need to demarcate the clausal boundaries of Kiswahili oral texts in their approximated written form has been challenging.

This suggests that there are some cases, especially in the sections that deal with the analysis of syntactic complexity (see, for example, sections 4.5.1.3, 4.5.2.3, 4.5.3.3, 4.5.4.3 & 4.5.5.3, on pages 232, 252, 276, 296 & 323, respectively) where the conventions of demarcating clauses have somewhat been altered. Nevertheless, all the clauses as they appear in respective sentences have been analysed in terms of written texts, identified as clauses (main, dependant, embedded and relative clauses) of the respective sentences, taking into considerations the meaning a clause entails and the string of words or phrase that are connected to the identified clause(s).
Another factor that this study considers as a limitation relates to its scope. The scope of the current study excludes, for example, aspects on TBLT assessment procedures (see, for example, Colpin & Gysen 2006; Nunn 2006: 79; Schrooten 2006; Willis & Willis 2007: 181-182; Long & Norris 2009; Norris 2016) as well as teachers’ education development (Ellis 2010; Ogilvie & Dunn 2010; Kubanyiova & Crookes 2016; Shi 2017; Steenekamp, Van der Merwe & Mehmmedova 2018), which are assumed to be with a similar broad scope like the current study. These two fields can, however, be considered for further research (see section 7.4, on page 395), in regard to their interplay with task-based teaching studies.

1.11. The organisation of the study

Recall that one of the goals of the present study is to analyse facets of task complexity with the aim of realising an example of generic task-based Kiswahili syllabus for lower secondary schools in Uganda. To attain these goals, this study is organised in seven chapters, as summarised below.

Chapter One contextualises the position in which the current study is situated with the view of providing justification for the choice to conduct this study. In addition, the chapter also discusses the methodological aspects of the research design that inform the investigation of the current study. The data generation and analysis procedures are briefly outlined in this chapter. Lastly, the chapter explores some of the ambiguous concepts and notions such as FLL, SLA and L2 as synonymously employed in the field of applied linguistics with the aim of adopting an operational definition(s) and related concepts employed in the current study.

Chapter Two explores the theoretical connections from different subfields in applied linguists as a field of inquiry. The chapter identifies connections between (i) the genesis of SLA as a subfield to aspects of curriculum development, (ii) curriculum design, in general, to issues on syllabus design and, (iii) syllabus design principles to their subsequent pedagogical realisations/practices. In addition, it discusses the two syllabus design paradigms (traditional & process) and their theoretical underpinnings. Lastly, the chapter presents arguments for adopting a process paradigm (task-based syllabuses), on which the current study is premised, over the traditional one.

Chapter Three explores the theoretical connection between Chapter Two and Chapter Four. It begins expounding further issues in the process paradigm, specifically, aspects of task-based syllabus design considerations and related pedagogical realisations (explored in Chapter Two). In this regard, the chapter explores different views in task-based models, theories and frameworks from which the current study employs principles and procedures to generate, organise, analyse and
interpret its data (task descriptions [TDSs] and the simulated task dialogues [STDs]) in Chapter Four. Hence, with respect to the current study, these procedures are employed in actualising task-based syllabus design principles in determining (i) task as a unit of analysis, (ii) analysing L2 learners’ needs, and (iii) the selection, grading and sequencing of Kiswahili learning tasks. Lastly, the chapter discusses the rationale for choosing a specific framework, the cognition hypothesis and its associated extensions (see Robinson 2001b, 2005, 2007a, 2010) that is employed in Chapter Four in analysing complex features of the five selected TDSs and their associated STDs with the purpose of grading and sequencing of Kiswahili pedagogical tasks.

Chapter Four presents the analysis of the five selected TDSs for Kiswahili and their respective STDs. The analysis is conducted with respect to three facets of complexity i.e. interactional, cognitive as well as syntactic/linguistic complex features of Kiswahili learning tasks. Before these facets of analysis are conducted, the chapter explores views on different techniques and procedures that the study employs in analysis the interactional configurations (for interactional complexity), cognitive features (cognitive complexity), and syntactic variables (syntactic complexity) of Kiswahili pedagogical tasks as reflected in the five selected TDSs and their respective STDs. Lastly, in section 4.5.6, on page 335 examines the correlation of cognitive complexity and syntactic complexity features of Kiswahili learning tasks.

Chapter Five explores the methodological principles and pedagogical procedures as reflected in L2 Kiswahili task-based classrooms. It thus serves as a continuation of the previous chapter, Chapter Four, in terms of refining and adapting the Kiswahili learning tasks graded and sequenced in the same chapter (Chapter Four). In this regard, the chapter primarily presents arguments that demonstrate (i) the grammatical properties of the Kiswahili language, (ii) how such properties in (i) can suitably be extended in teaching L2 Kiswahili learners. In support of the above arguments, in sections 5.3.4 and 5.7, on pages 346 and 369, the chapter also examines different roles of L2 learners and teachers, respectively, that can be utilised in facilitating the ultimate acquisition of grammatical properties required by Kiswahili pedagogical tasks before, during and after task performance.

Given that Chapter Five explores how TBLT can be viewed from the L2 Kiswahili classrooms, Chapter Six is devoted to presenting various views regarding the procedures employed and the teachers responsible for implementing TBLT approaches in a broader perspective, i.e. a given country’s educational systems at large. Thus, this chapter addresses questions such as “who adopts what, where, when, why and how” (Cooper 1989, as cited in Markee 1993: 230), with respect to diffusing Kiswahili task-based language teaching in the Ugandan contexts.
In summary, the six chapters that constitute the core of the current study, in Chapter Seven, I present a critical recapitulation of all six chapters. In addition, I also discuss the contributions of the study and make suggestions and recommendations about the areas of further research aimed at advancing further the findings from the current study.

Chapter Seven is followed by a reference list occurring from page 396 to page 4197. This reference list is followed by a number of appendices. The appendices are divided into three categories. The first category includes; Appendix (A) on page 418. This offers the overarching theme on which current study is premised in relation to the development of task description specifications (TDSs) and their associated simulated task dialogues (STDs). Appendix (A-i), from page 419 to page 443, provides a list of TDSs developed from Appendix (A). Lastly, in this category is Appendix (A-ii), from page 444 to page 539. It entails a list of STDs developed from TDSs in Appendix (A-i).

The second category includes only Appendix (B), on page 540. It provides the names of subject specialists informally consulted by the researcher in determining the authenticity of the constructed STDs and in demarcating some of the complex Kiswahili clause boundaries (see Chapter Four).

The last category of appendices generally involves considerations of research ethics and procedures. Appendix (C) on page 541, is an approval letter permitting the current study to be done in Uganda. Appendix (C-i) on page 542 and Appendix (C-ii) on page 543, reflect the telephone SMS (written in Kiswahili and English languages, respectively), requesting for the surnames of the task participants from WhatsApp groups X and Y that the study employs in its STDs. Lastly, Appendix (C-iii) on page 544 and Appendix (C-iv) on page 545, respectively, provide surnames of task participants from WhatsApp groups X and Y, respectively, that the study employs in its STDs.

1.12. **Terminological considerations**

Wright (2010: 260) maintains that the meaning attached to the L2 as a notion is still debatable. In this regard, scholars, such as Roehr and Gáñem-Gutiérrez (2013: 1) advance the view that L2 is any language that is learnt other than the learner’s first language (L1) (cf. Leeman 2003: 39). Similarly, Benati and Angelovska (2016: 3) maintain that L2 is a language that is acquired after L1 had been established in L2 learner’s early childhood period. In this regard, this study adopts the above definitions on L2 as its working definition. This is appropriate given that the above views suggest that, for example, in Ugandan secondary schools where this study is contextualised, Kiswahili language can be considered as L2, L3, L4, since at the secondary school level, the majority of learners are expected to have acquired their mother tongues (L1s), mainly from their home settings;
and from lower primary school classes (see NCDC n.d.c: 1; Ssentanda 2013: 283, 2014a: 5, b: 5). In addition to mother tongues, English as language of instruction (Ssentanda 2013: 283; Muzoora, Terry & Asiimwe 2014: 42), is acquired in upper primary school classes (cf. Ssentanda 2014a: 5), thus, Kiswahili is used as an additional language to either English, especially to learners who attend urban schools and English is ‘their’ L1 or other learners who possess their mother tongues and English, as L1 and L2, respectively.

In regard to the above perspectives, De Angelis (2007: 5) refutes the second language acquisition (SLA) view that there is “no difference” with reference to the acquisition of other languages beyond L2, given that the underlying processes of learning these languages are the same despite the learning contexts, purposes, and circumstances. De Angelis (2007: 4) emphasises the view that the acquisition of L1 and L2 could be different from acquisitions of another language(s) beyond L2. In this regard, De Angelis (2007: 4-5) argues that the advocates of multilingualism maintain that there are differences (types) of acquisitions that exist and there is a need to account for them (see further, De Angelis 2007, for a detailed discussion on the above views).

VanPatten and Benati (2010: 1-2) contend that it is still debatable whether a distinction can be drawn between foreign language learning (FLL) and SLA. They argue that such debates are valid on sociological grounds rather than on psychology or linguistic perspectives. The distinction between the two notions involves the contexts under which these notions are applied. For example, according to VanPatten and Benati, FLL is learning a language with limited use outside the language classrooms (cf. Kaplan & Baldauf Jr. 1997: 22), such as learning Chinese or Japanese in England, where English predominantly serves as the language of wide communication.

Instructed second language acquisition (ISLA) relates to the aim of learning a language with the views of unlimited use outside the language classroom. VanPatten and Benati argue that the notions of FLL and SLA are often placed under one umbrella of SLA. In this study, given the linguistic and cultural diversities currently in Uganda, the learning of Kiswahili as an additional language can be considered as learning a foreign language (L2). Thus, to develop VanPatten and Benati’s (2010: 1-2) suggestions further, this study adopts SLA a term for both FLL and SLA with regard to the teaching and learning of Kiswahili in Uganda’s multilingual settings.
CHAPTER TWO
ASPECTS IN APPLIED LINGUISTICS REGARDING CURRICULUM AND
SYLLABUS DESIGN CONSIDERATIONS FOR SECOND LANGUAGE
TEACHING AND LEARNING

Although structural linguists \textit{sic} placed in the 1960s as a blueprint from which many Formal syllabuses were drawn, that pedagogical plans should be based on other representations than those provided by descriptive linguists was not questioned generally. […] it was not until the ’70s, however, that strongly explicit challenges were made to the pedagogical validity of Formal syllabuses […] – Breen (1987b: 87).

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2.1. Introduction

In general, this chapter is divided into four main sections. Section 2.2, on page 33, generally provides a review of theoretical rationale on applied linguistics as a field of research with regard to L2 learning and teaching. In addition, section 2.3, on page 39, explores the need for SLA and language pedagogical research in relation to L2 curriculum and syllabus design decisions from global education perspectives. Furthermore, section 2.4, on page 65, gives an in-depth review of theoretical perspectives on L2 syllabus paradigms/typologies with respect to their syllabus design principles, assumptions, and their subsequent classrooms considerations across L2 learning contexts. Lastly, section 2.4.9, on the page, 110, expounds on some of the advanced theoretical justifications for adopting the process paradigm over the traditional paradigm in relation to syllabus design decisions for teaching and learning of L2s.

2.2. Perspectives regarding applied linguistics, second language acquisition, and pedagogy

Kramsch (2000: 322) stresses that applied linguistics (ALs), specifically, SLA is an interdisciplinary field that focuses on language theories and practices on language studies (see also The Douglas Fir Group 2016 on similar views). In other words, Kramsch is of the view that SLA primarily emphasises on theories, practices, language acquisitions and usage in a range of instructional and unschooled contexts. Similarly, VanPatten and Benati (2010:1-2) define SLA (Larsen-Freeman 2015) as a field that focuses more on learning than on teaching of L2(s). With reference to VanPatten and Benati (2010: 1), Gass and Selinker (2008: 1) regard SLA as a process
of creating a new language system(s). The process involves what is learnt and what is not learnt in L2(s). Similarly, Benati and Angelovska (2016: 3) relate SLA as a study that focuses on how an L2 learner creates new language system(s) with limited exposure to the respective learning context (cf. The Douglas fir Group 2016: 19). Benati and Angelovska are of the view that SLA is concerned with addressing two fundamental issues, namely; (i) how an L2 learner internalises the linguistic systems of the additional language (L2), and (ii) how an L2 learner employs the internalised linguistic systems in comprehension and production of L2. (see, for example, Ellis 1992: 1-16; VanPatten & Benati 2010: 2-6, The Douglas Fir Group 2016: 19, on views regarding the origin and other developments related to SLA as a field of inquiry.

To develop further the above views, Bartels (2005: 1) advances the view that there is a need for classroom language teachers to learn more about what linguistics as a field offers. Advancing further his views, Bartels argues that in practice, language teachers often apply general conceptions and facts about language and language learning rather than issues regarding, for example, L2 learning. Bartels maintains that L2 learning is among the sub-fields of (ALs).

According to Hult (2008: 13-14), ALs inform decisions about many disciplines since in the 1950s. Hult is of the view that such disciplines include, literature, lexicography linguistics usage and so forth. While relating ALs to Educational Linguistics (ELs), Hult (2008: 11) maintains that whereas ALs is worldly acknowledged field with over thirty-four organisations from various countries affiliated to ALs, Hult (2008: 10) argues that it is difficult to separate ELs from ALs. In addition, Hult maintains that the relationship between the two linguistics components is a continuous one. Thus, in a similar way, with reference to Hult (2008: 15), Spolsky (1974: 554) stresses that ELs is a subset within the framework of ALs. In addition, Spolsky argues that ELs is a cohesion device that relates directly to education and language. Furthermore, in providing a background information on ELs, Spolsky (2008: 2) relates ELs to a general instrument that essentially attempts to directly address aspects, such as the designing of educational policies, implementations of such policies as well as management of language education across contexts.

In order to achieve its goals, according to Spolsky (2008: 5), ELs borrows its decisions from relevant disciplines, such as linguistic theory, politics, anthropology, sociology, neurobiology, psychology as well as in the educational systems under which ELs operates from. Such decisions are less similar to the decisions that inform ALs as advanced by scholars, for instance (see, Richards 1985: 8 & Ortega 2009: 7) and, as summarised, by Bell (1981: 29) on Figure 2:1, on page 38. With reference to Hult (2008: 16), Hornberger (2001) states that ELs is premised in the following three dimensions. These include,
[Represents] a reciprocal integration of linguistics and education, it provides in-depth analytical insight into a broad scope of issues related to language (and) learning, and it is problem-oriented in its focus on specific ways in which theory, research, policy, and practice inter-relate. (Hornberger 2001)

Accordingly, Hult (2008: 16) relates the last dimension as the governing principle of Educational Linguistics. Furthermore, Hult (2008: 20) maintains the view that the scope of ELs is two-way. That is to say, direct and indirect. On the one hand, ELs generates knowledge that is used as a framework in the process of designing feasible educational policy aimed to influence practice. On the other hand, the knowledge that ELs generates is used to implement the educational language policy in terms of practical decisions in relation to classroom teaching practices for both L1 and L2 pedagogy especially in the teaching of reading, spelling, writing, and speaking. Drawing from the above discussion, in a similar way, this study considers ALs and ELs as substitutes unless if a distinction is to be made, the study will treat the two linguistics components separately.

Similarly, Schmitt and Celce-Murcia (2010: 1) view ALs as a sub-field of linguistics that involves in the, (i) the application of language knowledge, (ii) how such knowledge is learnt and (iii) how to use (i) and (ii) above purposely. For instance, in the solving of real-world problems. In this context, for example, the above scholars, Bartels (2005: 1) in particular, advises language teachers to shift from general language conceptions of language knowledge to more complex views of language knowledge. That is to say, views on knowledge acquisition as well as views on knowledge use. According to Bartels (2005: 1), such a shift facilitates the production of ‘quality research’ in relation to L2 teachers’ learning courses and the subsequent applications of such courses in the language classrooms. He argues however that in order to realise the above agenda, specifically, on the quality of the research, a variety of research input is necessary. In relation to the input necessary for realising language quality research, Bell (1981: 22-28) reminds us that such input is a result of instrumental decisions from a range of parties that are involved and interested in one way or another in language learning and teaching across institutions (cf. Wright 2010: 260).

For instance, Bell lists some of such parties in relation to their input and output decisions towards language learning and teaching, such decisions according to Bell, include, (i) educational decisions, from mainly pedagogical teachers and professional educationalists, (ii) decisions from linguistics, such as sociolinguists, ALs and pure linguists, in additional, (iii) there are also psychological decisions from, psychologists as well as psycholinguists, lastly, (iv) other decisions are from politicians, mainly, governmental agencies, such as government ministries. In developing further Bell’s list above, Ortega (2009: 7) also adds to the list decisions from other sub-fields, for instance, anthropology, bilingualism, and sociology.
Similarly, Bell (1981: 25 & 29) clusters such parties in relation to their specific input/output decisions. For instance, according to Bell, linguists provide linguistic orientations to language learning (approach), and psychologists with psychological orientation input (methodology) and so on. Furthermore, Bell maintains that the input/output or goals of other parties, such as politicians and sociologists, is that of assessing and evaluating, for example, language courses. Bell, however, stresses that the input/output and goals and decisions of the above parties differ in one way or another. In stressing decisional differences of the above parties, for instance, Bell diagrammatically (see, Figure 2:1, on page 38), summarises on the input and output decisions of the above parties towards the teaching and learning of languages.

In light with the above, scholars, for instance, Ellis (2005a: 209) and VanPatten and Benati (2010: 2) are of the view that L2 learning ‘acquisition’ has been a sub-field of ALs since the 1960s. Ellis (2005a: 209) maintains that the advocates for such a sub-field are primarily interested in experimenting with research based on both theoretical and empirical underpinnings. According to Ellis (2005a: 209) and Ortega (2009: 82), the undertaking of such research is intended to lead researchers’ understanding of how L2s are acquired. Basing on such view, concerns in research on the teaching and learning of L2s, specifically in the educational sectors are on the increase. See, for example, (Hu 2002; Lightbown & Spada 2013; Mayo, Mangado & Adrian 2013; Littlewood 2007, 2014; Long 2015, for similar views on the L2 teaching and research).

In addition, The Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics (Richards & Schmidt 2010: 29), states that the above L2 researchers are particularly concerned with considering and investigating the existing L2 models, theories, and their underlying principles from which researchers can conclude their research output, findings and take relevant decisions in relation to language learning and teaching. According to Ortega (2009: 8), such research outputs intend to mainly inform decisions on practical aspects of SLA, such as syllabus design, teaching approaches, methodology and evaluation procedures across contexts (for example, see Ellis's (2009b: 221-222) views on TBLT as a composition of various theories and methodologies).

According to Tsui (2011: 21), decisions on the above aspects of L2 teaching and learning are aimed at bridging the communication gap between the diverse multilingual populations from both inside and outside classrooms. See, for example, Myburgh, Poggenpoel and Van Rensburg (2004: 582-583) for similar views. However, Samuda and Bygate (2008: 75) are of the view that for SLA theories and models of learning to have an impact on the SLA, there is a need to apply the above theories, models, and other aspects of the learning processes. For that matter, Samuda and Bygate propose Bruner’s general learning processes for effective SLA as discussed below.
According to Samuda and Bygate (2008: 75), Bruner’s (1973) framework of the learning process is underpinned by three different process types. These types include, (i) acquisition, (ii) transformation, lastly, (iii) evaluation. Note, Bruner’s learning framework is designed to cater, in general, the learning procedures that learners go through irrespective of the type and nature of subjects in which learning takes place. Subsequently, Samuda and Bygate discuss the three learning processes in relation to specifically SLA. For example, according to Samuda and Bygate (2008: 76), the acquisition is the process that is related to the internalization of new materials. In other words, the acquisition is the process through which language aspects are comprehended. Samuda and Bygate maintain that comprehension can be in form of, for example, oral or visual forms. Such forms are then processed and stored in the internal memory (brain). In relation to processing, Samuda and Bygate argue that the processing processes also take place in form of either assimilation or accommodation of the new materials.
Samuda and Bygate agree that the process may also refer to the language forms or discourse. In relation to language forms, Samuda and Bygate relate form to, for example, intonation as well as pronunciation, i.e. articulation of language forms, such as phoneme in a range of contexts. Such contexts may include, in co-occurring words or in grammatical – referral, where language user require referents to refer to, discourse aspects of tenses, such as mood, modality and so forth. On the other hand, Samuda and Bygate argue that in SLA, an aspect of discourse is related to various senses. One of the senses is the speech acts. According to Samuda and Bygate, speech acts include
discourse structure, dialogic as well as, monologic acts. These may generally include, narrations, explanations, debates, conversations or arguments and so forth.

In relation to Bruner’s transformation learning process, Samuda and Bygate (2008: 76) maintain the process to the personal learning strategies that learners employ during acquisition processes. In the contexts of SLA, Samuda and Bygate relate transformation processes to the personalization of the L2 by the learners. While referring to Vygotsky’s perspective on the notions of appropriation and generalization, Samuda and Bygate (2008: 76-77) argue that language personalization can either be related to the notions of appropriation or generalization of L2 in a range of new contexts. Finally, Samuda and Bygate (2008: 77) argue that the Bruner’s evaluation as a learning process is related to the assessment of comparisons between the way L2 learners use the language and the real target language usage.

In that matter, Samuda and Bygate, suggest that Bruner’s learning processes are crucial in SLA and pedagogy. Specifically, Samuda and Bygate stress that such learning processes apply to language learning tasks as a context for engagement in L2 classrooms. In support of their submission, Samuda and Bygate state that learning tasks are activities in and around which the three learning processes can take place in a range of holistic language contexts as discussed in-depth in section 3.4.2, on page 129, in relation to SLA, syllabus design, and other related decisions. However, Candlin (2009: 21) emphasises his position on the view that for the effective planning of language learning and teaching, planning is considered at two different levels. That is to say, at the curriculum level as well as at the syllabus level. Thus, the subsequent sections generally discuss the curricula, syllabus and syllabus design decisions, in relation to SLA and pedagogy.

2.3. Curriculum considerations in SLA and pedagogy

Medgyes and Nikolov (2002: 196) are of the view that interests in curriculum issues by educationalists and philosophers date back to the period of Plato. Medgyes and Nikolov, however, maintain that the formal studies in relation to curriculum issues are traced from the twentieth century. In addition, Medgyes and Nikolov stress that the formal definition of curriculum as a study has been mainly based on academic commitments as well as geographical positions of the attested educationalists and philosophers. In a similar way, scholars including, Davies (2007: 35) advance the view that in language education, the term curriculum is open to a range of definitions from different scholars. For example, with reference to Medgyes and Nikolov (2002: 196), White (1988: 4) relates curriculum to the entire education process that involves the learning, the aims, and objectives of an educational system, for instance, in a given school. In addition, van Lier (1996: 5)
argues that language teaching and learning processes are purposely guided by a curriculum. In developing further, the views as advanced by White (1988) and van Lier (1996) above, with reference to Medgyes and Nikolov (2002: 196), Stern (1983) provides other aspects that are related to curriculum processes. The aspects include teaching methods and approaches, evaluations and assessments, instructional materials, equipment as well as in teacher development.

Based on the above view, Medgyes and Nikolov (2002: 196) maintain that curriculum is a general phenomenon which is underpinned by both practical and theoretical issues. According to Medgyes and Nikolov as a result of curriculum variation in the underpinnings, even scholars differ in their choices under which to study about curriculum and its related components. Subsequently, Medgyes and Nikolov (2002: 197) introduce the notion of curriculum innovation. Medgyes and Nikolov are of the view that divergences and changing needs in educational institutions create a discrepancy between the preferred and actual state of the curriculum (see, van Lier [1996: 6], for similar views). Thus, Medgyes and Nikolov relate curriculum innovations to (i) changes that involve human intervention, and (ii) major aims that focus on enhancing curriculum developments and reforms. In relation to curriculum reforms, Medgyes and Nikolov contend that there is a range of participants that are allocated specific duties and roles.

According to Medgyes and Nikolov (2002: 197-198), the participants are clustered in five groups; such as (i) learners who are the recipients of curriculum services. (ii) Specialists, such as syllabus and curriculum designers, material developers and writers who supply resources in relation to curriculum, reforms, and development. (iii) Mediators including government and non-governmental agencies as well as other funding agencies. Their role is to liaise with all curriculum reform participants. (iv) Teachers whose main role is to deliver the curriculum services to the intended users (learners). Lastly, (iv) policymakers including, head of departments, deans, ministry officials as well as, politicians. Finally, Medgyes and Nikolov (2010: 266) argue that in theory, it is possible for the participants to initiate action which is hardly reflected in the real practices and processes of curriculum development. For instance, Medgyes and Nikolov maintain that learners or teachers’ voices may be overlooked by others, such as specialists and policymakers. As a result, there are experiences in slow reform processes or unsuccessful curriculum reforms.

In light of the above, Candlin (2009: 21) states that, traditionally, planning for language learning and teaching is done at the syllabus level. Candlin, however, emphasises the view that planning for language teaching and learning is done on two levels other than on the syllabus level as shown in Figure 2:2, on page 42. Candlin argues that the planning itself has two distinct interpretations. According to Candlin, planning at the level of curriculum, curriculum stipulates the guidelines in
terms of statements for both general learning and learning for a particular subject matter which reflect the purpose, experience, targets modes of evaluation, the relationships between learners and teachers and content of learning. According to Candlin (2009: 22), the above statements are arrived at by the efforts of both teachers and learners in order to address questions, such as ‘what’, ‘how’ and ‘why’ of learning. Candlin refers to this level of the ‘tactical exploitation of the strategic principle’. In other words, it is at this level that planning takes into account issues to address matters related to what to be done, there is a string of suggestions related to what questions, conducive environment for processing a given problem at hand, any other relevant information needed, and lastly, the kind of actions to be taken. According to Candlin, the outcome of such decision-making procedures produces three different types of syllabuses as summarized in Figure 2:2, on page 42 (Richards 2007). According to Candlin, the name of the syllabuses is based on the demands related to syllabus designs and operational language learning activities, such as tasks.
Figure 2:2: Levels of planning for language teaching and learning

Prospective

Strategic principle

Formative evaluation

Curriculum guidelines

Dialectic process

Syllabus accounts

Tactical action

Retrospective

Prospective

Planning level I

Planning level II

Source: Modified from Candlin (2009: 22)

Basing on Figure 2:2 above, Candlin argues that at both levels of planning, there is a dialectic process which is a reflection of classroom activities and curriculum guidelines. In this context, Candlin attempts to link the classroom work and curriculum statements. In other words, according to Candlin, classroom activities have a direct effect on the curriculum statements, changes, and vice versa. This is because according to Candlin, the dialectic process accounts for both classroom and curriculum evaluations. In this regard, information leading to learning goals, content, resources, and other related issues, is obtained. Candlin maintains that it is at this level that the significance of learning tasks is seen because it is at this level that syllabus is accounted for as will be discussed in-depth later. Finally, with reference to Rajaee Nia, Abbaspour & Zare (2013: 64), Nunan (1988) agrees with Candlin (2009: 22) on the view that curriculum and syllabuses differ in the level of postulations, directions and what the two account for regarding planning for language teaching and learning.

On the other hand, Johnson (1989: 1) defines the term language curriculum in a wider perspective. According to him, the curriculum means relevant decision-making processes from different stakeholders with tangible outcomes. He points out that the characteristics of the tangible output
from the relevant decisions have features, such as the ability to be in a concrete form, observable and the ability to be described. To emphasise his views, Johnson provides general outputs from the decision-making processes (curriculum considerations) which include, the teaching and learning practices, syllabuses, materials and resources for teaching, policy documents and teacher-training programs. Johnson (1989: 1) is of the view that the above decisions involve negotiations among stakeholders. He, however, discloses that in the decision-making process in light with curriculum, it is difficult for example to identify, examine and analyse the relevant decisions which may in one way or the other affect the outcomes. Thus, he suggests that there is a need to emphasise the importance of considering a systematic decision so that a desirable curriculum is realized.

Furthermore, with reference to Nunan (1991: 3), Candlin (1984) is of the view that language curricula provide general information/statements in relation to language learning and teaching. According to him, the curriculum specifies the learning experiences, aims of learning and the evaluation procedures of the language programmes. Candlin argues that curriculum specifies the roles and relationships between teachers and learners, teaching and learning items. In addition, Candlin suggests that curriculum may propose and provide clues on how the items may be used in the classrooms. In other words, according to him, the curriculum provides a general overview of language teaching programmes and pedagogical aspects based on specific learning contexts.

Drawing from the above views, Nunan (1991: 3) however, points out that there are generally few attempts that endeavour to systematically develop a language curriculum. He stresses that curriculum development principles, such as planning, implementation, and evaluation of language programmes are somehow overlooked in decision-making processes, and instead, the primary focus is directed to some specific aspects of the curriculum, such as methodology, assessment or evaluation of a language program(s). Based on that, Nunan (1991: 4) is of the view that curriculum decisions based on such isolated componential units make the curriculum field more complex. According to Nunan (1991: 5), such complexity as a result of componential units may fail to address curriculum decisions as well as pedagogical practices and decision in different language learning and teaching contexts. Therefore, Nunan (1991: 5) is of the view that there is a need of having an integrated approach that can accommodate all processes that range from curriculum planning, syllabus design, pedagogical practices to evaluation procedures.

In defining curriculum, Finney (2002: 70) draws a distinction between a narrow sense and a broader sense of curriculum. According to her, in a broader sense, the curriculum constitutes aspects that focus on the designing (planning), implementing and evaluation of educational language programmes. In other words, she relates the curriculum to an umbrella that provides relevant
decisions on language programme processes in terms of their designs, implementations, and their assessment procedures. In addition, she is of the view that, while focusing on the above aspects of the curriculum, language curriculum also attempts to answer the main questions of what, how and how well the language teaching and learning processes are performed in the educational contexts. Finney (2002: 70) states that the curriculum generally is specifically concerned with addressing the language learning processes. According to her, such processes include decisions with regard to the learning content, the classroom pedagogical activities as well as the monitoring of the assessment procedures.

On the other hand, in relation to the narrow sense of curriculum, Finney (2002: 70) is of the view that the curriculum is less similar to a syllabus. She states that, like a syllabus, curriculum specifies content (learning content) and how the learning content is presented to the language learners. As van Lier (1996: 5) puts it that syllabuses are practical realisations of the frameworks of curricula, in this regard, Finney (2002: 70) refers curriculum to the combination of both language learning materials and the methods of extending them/use in the language classrooms. It can also be inferred that the curriculum is also an overall language program that other language courses are developed from.

Furthermore, according to Van den Branden (2006b: 2), modern language courses focus on developing learners’ abilities to use L2 in real-world communication. In this context, Van den Branden relates a curriculum to an educational programme that involves content to be taught to and learnt by a given group of learners. While associating curriculum to syllabus, Van den Branden maintains that L2 syllabus is the collection of learning activities and tasks that language teachers use to organise language pedagogical practices. Thus, Van den Branden (2006: 2) argues that in order to develop the curriculum and the L2 syllabus, the following questions are taken into consideration. (i) What are the goals that L2 learners should focus on while learning the languages? (ii) How are pedagogical activities organised in order to facilitate L2 learners in achieving their goals in (i) above? Lastly, (iii) how are the learners’ learning processes, progress and outcome assessed and evaluated over time? In addition to the above questions, Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006: 17) are of the view that in L2 education, curriculum developers tend to address the following questions in attempting to fulfil their decisions. (i) What should L2 learners learn? (ii) How are learners stimulated to learn L2 language(s)? However, according to Van Avermaet and Gysen, another equally important is the ‘why’ question from learners’ side which is always overlooked especially in general language programmes. In other words, according to Van Avermaet and Gysen,
the ‘why’ question attempts to elicit reasons as to why learners are interested in learning a particular language at a given time.

Developing further the above views, Richards (2013: 6) relates curriculum as an illustration of an overall course design and how the course content is translated into classroom activities in relation to the teaching and learning of languages with an aim of achieving the set goals. Richards (2013: 5-6) argues that traditionally the teaching of languages has been focussing on three issues i.e. the (i) learning targets, (ii) the language syllabus as well as (iii) methodological issues. In expounding on his views, Richards argues that in language teaching input (syllabuses) is the linguistic content or forms of given language course. According to Richards, the conventional assumptions in relation to input is that relevant input is determined, selected as subsequently organised into appropriate stages that are later extended to language learners by their teachers. Thus, the above procedures from what Richards refers to as a language syllabus. Furthermore, whilst Richards maintains that the selection of the syllabus units in relation to conventional procedures are based on factors, such as simplicity, frequency, learnability, usefulness and the authenticity of the input, Tucker (2009: 241-242) is of the view that the above factors as observed by Richards (2013), need to be associated with a scale of their conventional, ritualistic as well as their formulaic behaviours of frequent social interaction.

On the other hand, Richards (2013: 6) relates methodology to the procedure or processes that address the issues in light with teaching methods, the establishment of classroom activities as well as the development of instructional materials. Richards argues that such processes involve issues regarding the real conduction of the teaching activities in the classrooms i.e. the methodology. Subsequently, Richards distinguishes three components of classroom methodologies. These include, (i) types of learning techniques, (ii) types of learning activities, as well as (iii) the procedures that language teachers use while considering the underlying teaching assumptions as prescribed in the language textbooks and other instructional resources. In additional, Richards, however, argues that such procedural assumptions that are also embedded to the theories and beliefs related to SLA and language pedagogy as well as language teachers and learners, instructional materials have over time been changing. For example, Richards argues that there has been a change from the mastery-oriented approaches to teaching to the use of more active-oriented approaches i.e. communicative or interactional classroom processes.

In relation to learning targets (output). Richards (2013: 7) contends that output is the realization of teaching. In other words, according to Richards, the output is what language learners can do after a given period of language instruction. For example, learners’ ability to read a text or take part in an effective communicative activity, such as holding conversations on telephone calls. Like the
methodological orientations above, Richards also argues that such kind of realising output which he refers to knowledge-based has also shifted to performance-based output. According to Richards, the performance-based output is the process where the desired language outcome is based on the description and analysis of language performances, skills or language competencies.

Thus. For Richards, the curriculum is related to the three components i.e. input (syllabus), process (methodology) and output (learning outcomes) of language learning and teaching and how the above language curriculum components relate to each other as diagrammatically illustrated in Figure 2:3 below. Richards thus argues that in curriculum development activities, designing can start at any point i.e. at the input, process, or at the output component. Richards, however, stresses a point that the choice of starting at any point depends on the how learning and output are realised. Richards contends that conventionally, assumptions in relation to curriculum design is that input, process and outcome pattern is the considered sequence based on what component processed which component. For example, if the first point (stage) focusses on input, in such a focus, the procedural decisions about the content of the syllabus are made, the methodology forms the second stage that reflects that syllabus input. Then the final stage is related to the consideration of the output i.e. how effective has the content been taught or learnt by the learners.

Figure 2:3: Dimensions of curriculum

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Input</th>
<th>Process</th>
<th>Output</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Syllabus</td>
<td>Methodology</td>
<td>Learning outcomes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Modified from Richards (2013: 7)

On the other hand, Richards (2013: 7-8) is of the view that contemporary debate on curriculum design focus on a number of starting points in relation to the implication and application of the attested point in language teaching and learning. In this regard, Richards distinguishes three approaches to curriculum development. These include backward, forward and central designs. According to Richards, the forward design is the conventional approach that the previous paragraph discussed as illustrated in Figure 2:4 below.

Figure 2:4: The forward design approach

Source: Modified from Richards (2013: 8)
Similarly, with backward design, the initial stage is the output, then issues ill light with process and input are considered. However, central design deals with the process at the initial stage. Richards stresses the view that the process stage derives its input and output from the classroom methodologies. Both approaches i.e. (i) backward and (ii) central illustrated in Figure 2:5 below. Refer to the subsequent sections of Richards (2013) to continue with discussions and illustrations on how the curriculum development processes inform language teaching and learning decisions. Otherwise, based on the above views, the subsequent sections discuss perspectives on language syllabuses as a supplement to curriculum considerations in SLA and pedagogy.

Figure 2:5: Showing backward and central curriculum processes

Source: Modified from Richards (2013: 8)

2.3.1. General perspectives on language teaching and learning

Rahimpour (2010: 1661) considers, in language teaching and learning, choosing a syllabus as an important decision. In this regard, Rahimpour (2010: 1663) recommends that there is a need for classroom teachers to be trained on how to design their own syllabuses for effective teaching (cf. Bell 1981: 28). Similarly, Whilst, Mine Tokatli and Keşli (2009: 1493) hold the view that supportive language learning settings, for reasonable L2 teaching and learning, is a prerequisite of efficient input in the preparations of effective language syllabus with necessary information. Scholars, such as Krahnke (1987: 1 & 4) points out that, in the field of SLA, definitions and the nature of language teaching syllabuses are infinite (see, for example, Rajaee Nia, Abbaspour & Zare 2013: 64). Similarly, Krahnke (1987: 1-2) is of the view that such syllabuses are implemented differently, based on specific languages and learning contexts. Similarly, Rajaee Nia, Abbaspour and Zare (2013: 80) maintain that each type of syllabus is relevant to the specific learning context given that it addresses learners’ needs and expectations. In light of the above views, some scholars provide among others, general suggestions to justify the above-expressed views in relation to the divergent nature of language syllabuses in the educational institutions.

For instance, although Ladefoged and Disner (2012: 2) estimate the world languages at 7000, on the other hand, Katzner (2002: ix) argues that it is clearly impossible to explicitly state the exact
number of spoken languages that are in the world (cf. Simon & Fennig 2018). According to Katzner, the above view is valid due to the fact that among other factors, it is quite difficult to draw a distinction between languages and dialects. However, Katzner also agrees with the view that a number of languages spoken in the world are in thousands. In relation to the world languages, scholars, include, Perrett (2000: 87) observes that languages of the world are taught in a range of learning institution across the world.

Perrett maintains that such languages are taught either as school subjects or as foreign as well as L2s. According to Perrett, language teaching is either formal or for leisure purposes. She argues that the teaching of theL2 targets mainly current and future migrants and travellers. Similarly, Jessner (2008: 32-33) is of the view that presently, learners learn even three languages as foreign languages. In addition, De Angelis (2007: 1-2) stresses that learners inclusive, human beings are capable of learning several languages throughout their lifetime. According to De Angelis (2007: 3), this is possible because “…the human mind is capable of handling an exceptionally large amount of linguistic information over long periods of time…” In this regard, Jessner (2008: 32-33) argues that among the languages that learners learn, some languages function as the medium of instructions in such learning contexts. Cenoz and Jessner (2009: 122) contend that the intention of teaching and learning such languages is to promoting multilingualism across the world (see, further, De Angelis 2007, on views regarding the acquisition of additional languages and multilingualism).

In relation to the above, scholars maintain that the teacher factor is also a contributing factor to divergence in defining language syllabus. For instance, Tsui (2011: 31) contends that studies in teaching expertise in language education date back to between the 1980s through 1990s. Tsui maintains that such studies are inspired by cognitive psychologists from other professions, such as doctors and physicians. She argues that the major focus of such studies is to address the need to understand the special form of language knowledge that is held by language teachers. The studies also intend to demonstrate that the teaching possesses skills and knowledge that experts have are complex and sophisticated ones. (see, for example, Cross 2010, for similar views based on sociocultural perspectives).

According to studies that examine the language teachers’ cognitive processes in relation to their pedagogical practices, for instance, with reference to Tsui, (2011: 31), Tsui (2005, 2009) indicates that among other factors, expert teachers are much more similar to their counterparts in other attested fields. In support of her views, Tsui, (2011: 31) argues that such experts in language demonstrate some of the following characteristics in common, i.e. (i) expert teachers have complex, integrated and coherent structural knowledge base, (ii) have a better understanding of the direct
ways of structuring the language curriculum. Lastly, (iii) they are well placed to present critical points effectively to their learners. Similarly, Perrett (2000: 87) is of the view that such teachers are grounded in the perceptions that different teaching methods are designed for different teaching and language learning contexts.

However, Tsui (2011: 23) advises that language teachers with the limited language knowledge base may have insufficient success in transforming the appropriate plans for teaching in their classrooms. As a result, she states that such teachers are likely to fail to transfer the pedagogical competence to their learners. In addition to the above views, scholars, such as Gor and Vatz (2009: 235) and Mukama (2009: 85) contend that an ideal language teaching presupposes the availability of pedagogically and linguistically language teachers (cf. Msanjila 2004: 43), because according to Young and Astarita (2013: 172), language is composed of complex components, such as physical, social, political, interactional, historical and institutional circumstances. However, contrary to the above submission, Msanjila (2005: 210) reveals that among other things, language teachers lack language teaching methods skills, techniques, and strategies. Msanjila’s revelations can be considered as possible because according to Kaplan and Baldauf Jr. (1997: 130), the introduction of a new language(s) in the curriculum is often characterised also by the presence of incompetent language teachers with limited training and qualification regarding language teaching as a way to maintain the stop-gap measures in particular situations.

In addition, Jessner (2008: 41) stresses that an ideal foreign language teacher is the one with experience in language learning and teaching and can share such knowledge and use it in the language classrooms. Furthermore, Jessner is of the view that such knowledge in language teaching and learning is complemented by studies in language acquisition, a unit in language teacher education. According to Jessner, language learners are bound to gain more from the skills and abilities of such teachers, based on both teachers’ experience and linguistic background (cf. Msanjila 2004: 43). In addition, Richards and Rodgers (2001: 28) argue that like in other educational subject systems, in the language instructional system, the role of the teacher is crucial regarding the facilitation of learning activities. The role of the teacher is crucial because it is linked directly to the teacher’s status and function in the classroom. In exemplifying the above views, Richards and Rodgers contend that some language instructional methods and approaches solely depend on the language teacher as a resource of knowledge and learning directions. Richards and Rodgers argue that language teachers are viewed as consultants, models as well as guides for language learning.
Similarly, Tomlinson (2012: 143) and Richards and Rodgers (2001: 29) advance the view that even instructional materials, e.g., syllabuses, that provide supportive functions in the language learning, may be designed based on the assumptions that language teachers initiate and monitor the learning and teaching processes. Therefore, according to the scholars, language teachers need to meet certain requirements to apply such material in the facilitation of language learning. Richards and Rodgers (2001:30) argue that some material requires specially trained teachers with a near-native competence in L2. See, for instance, Tomlinson (2012: 143) for a detailed discussion about the characteristics of language learning materials.

Furthermore, in relation to language teachers’ knowledge with regard to interpreting language syllabuses depending on their language classroom, Ellis (2012: 2) is of the view that languages are taught in specific contexts, in this regard, the language classrooms. According to Kaplan and Baldauf Jr. (1997: 123), the reasons behind the teaching languages in the classrooms other than other contexts is that in the formal classrooms, the teaching of standard language variety is emphasised notwithstanding the status of the attested language(s) in a particular country. That is to say, either, foreign, official or national language. Similarly, Ellis (2012: 2) maintains that there are different natures in language classrooms. For example, according to Ellis, a language classroom is composed of, for example, a teacher and language learners, a group of learners attempting to learn a language(s), a teacher advising on language-related matters to a single learner or a computer-mediated language learning class, which Larsen-Freeman (2011: 164) refers to as technologically driven classrooms (Reinders & Benson 2017).

Drawing from Ellis’s (2012: 2) view above, Pica (2005: 340) also emphasises the point that L2 classrooms are those that provide alternative contexts as and for research environments. She argues that in such classes, L2 learners, and their teachers inform research agendas of respective researchers. According to Pica, such researchers tend to ascertain theoretical questions regarding how L2s are learnt. She maintains that the research output from such classrooms support in providing solutions on, (i) how learners develop L2, (ii) how language teacher guides pedagogical practices. Lastly, (iii) how language researchers generalise such findings to other learning or research settings.

In light of the above, Breen (2001: 151) argues that syllabuses are dynamic due to, among other aspects, the issue of intended/target users of the syllabus. The above paragraph observes that syllabuses are sometimes imposed on both teachers and learners (cf. Hu 2002: 36; Van den Branden 2009: 265-266). According to Adamson (2004: 611), both teachers and learners are the intended or end users of the syllabus. As a result, according to Breen (2001: 151), language teachers view such
syllabuses as a teaching resource (cf. Ssekamwa 2000: 77-78; Ssekamwa & Lugumba 2000: 29), and on the other hand, L2 learners view the same syllabuses as a predetermining factor of the language lessons in the classrooms. In this regard, according to Robinson (2009a: 195), a syllabus provides guidelines on what to teach and the purpose of language teaching in the language classrooms.

Finally, as regards the varying definitions, the nature and the implementations of language syllabuses as advanced above by Krahnke (1987: 1-4), with reference to Nunan (1991: 3), Candlin (1984) maintains that all the views above, mainly depend on the language syllabus to realize the L2 teaching goals and the desired learning outcomes. In this regard, the use of language syllabuses, by language teachers to teach languages in various language classrooms conforms to Krahnke’s (1987) views as advanced above. Therefore, in order to provide a rationale on the above views, in the subsequent sections, some scholars advance justifications in relation to the different perspectives on language syllabuses.

For example, in relation to the above, Parkes and Harris (2002: 55) point out that the term language syllabus is defined in various ways depending on (i) the objectives and intentions of syllabus designers and (ii) the content that the syllabuses contain. The first paragraph of this section noted that language syllabuses are unlike for different languages. Therefore, in relation to the objectives and intentions of syllabus designers, it is indicative that there are different language syllabus designers, for different languages with different intentions, aims, and objectives. In order to understand the intentions of the syllabus designers, there is a need to categorise the designers as follows.

2.3.2.1. Language syllabus designers

Syllabus designers are broadly categorised into two groups i.e. public and private syllabus designers. According to Diamond (1998: 8), designers are sub-grouped further, i.e. from an individual, private companies to government agencies or ministries as discussed below.

According to Richards (2001: 1), language syllabuses are designed at the individual level. At this level, mainly, language instructors from a range of language teaching institutions take part in syllabus designing decisions. According to Richards, language instructors determine what constitutes a syllabus while taking into account the relationship of the syllabus components with the classroom practices. Similarly, Diamond (1988: 1-2) states that the major aim of the language instructor(s), while designing a syllabus is to bridge the gap between syllabus components and
classroom practices. In this way, according to Diamond, a language instructor(s) defines a syllabus in terms of the roles of the syllabus in facilitating their pedagogical practices. However, Bell (1981: 27) observes that many of the individual language instructors rarely develop their language-specific syllabuses for classroom activities. According to Diamond (1988: 1), such a situation as observed by Bell (1981: 27), is caused by the fact that very few language instructors get the opportunities to explore syllabus design processes. As a result, according to Bell, such language instructors continue to utilise syllabuses that are designed by others.

On the other hand, Bell (1981: 27) states that a syllabus may also be designed by a private company and other organisations from the public. These may include, publishers, material developers, and textbook sellers. According to Yalden (1983: 17), the main agendas of private designers, in terms of aims and purposes of the syllabus are based on the company’s position with regard to the preparation of language teaching and learning materials (cf. Besha 2003: 73; Kimani 2003: 81-82). Therefore, while designing the syllabus, the focus is directed more on the company’s interests rather than on pedagogical practices as previously discussed. In this regard, the designer defines a syllabus mainly based on the company’s point of view and perspectives of the designers. Thus, there are possibilities of producing syllabuses that fail to capture the importance of some pedagogical aspects. Accordingly, Ellis and Shintani (2014: 1) and Holguín and Morales (2014: 140), such aspects may include, for example, the contextualization of the learning content that is considered crucial by language teachers who design a syllabus for SLA and learning (cf. Benati 2013: 114).

As pointed out above, Bell (1981: 27) emphasises that government institutions, for example, the Ministries of Education, or government language agencies are responsible for designing language teaching syllabuses for a particular country. In support of Bells’ (1981: 27) views above, Willis and Willis(2007: 181) point out that government ministries can as well stipulate the possible topics, criterion or even situations under which syllabuses are designed. To support their views, Willis and Willis, provide examples, such as the Common European Framework (CEF) and the Canadian Language Benchmark (CLB) that are influential in providing initial steps in relation to syllabus design specifications. For example, according to Willis and Willis, while the interpretation of the CEF is somehow difficult, CEF specifies the learning content with regard to the teaching and learning of European languages (cf. Little 2006). Similarly, Willis and Willis (2007: 186) consider CEF as a starting point from which syllabus designers can make consultations or draw on (see section 3.4.4.1, on page 132, for a detailed discussion on CEF).

It is at this point that I turn to discuss the objectives and aims of the syllabus designers. For instance, the Council of Europe (Council of Europe 2001: 2-4) indicates that the CEF provides a
number of aims and objectives for its existence. One of the aims in relation to the teaching and learning of modern languages is that of promoting collaboration at both national and international levels between government and non-governmental institutions especially those that develop teaching methods, instructional materials, such as multi-media materials, and the institutions that design evaluation procedures for teaching and learning of such languages in a range of contexts.

In light of the above, The Republic of Uganda (2008: vi & ix) reveals that the objective of the designer of syllabus documents is purposely to promote and harmonise the teaching of a language(s) in specific countries. In this context, therefore, The Republic of Uganda defines the syllabus in relation to the need for fulfilling the mission and vision of the country. Therefore, the above-discussed views are in agreement with Parkes and Harris’ (2002: 55) previous statements that syllabus designers define a syllabus based on the objectives and intentions of the designer, in this case, government agencies or ministries (see further, Council of Europe 2001).

Parkes and Harris (2002: 55) note that designers define the syllabus based on the content of a particular syllabus. They maintain that the content of the syllabuses is a result of the input of an individual or a group of people. According to Parkes and Harris, such individuals can either be language instructors, language learners or even, non-linguists. Parkes and Harris stress the view that a syllabus with the content that is the input of more than an individual, is the participatory or negotiated syllabus, because the content is an output of the combined decisions from various individuals, which means the scope and content coverage of a negotiated syllabus is also wider, according to Diamond (1998: 34-36, 43), the coverage of such syllabuses provide strong academic base which represents the decisions of its designers.

In addition, Parkes and Harris (2002: 55) point out that there are language syllabuses with the input of an individual/company. According to Adamson (2004: 611), the content of such syllabuses is expected to have a limited scope of coverage compared to other syllabuses that are designed by government agencies. Adamson is of the view that government syllabuses ensure that the learning content is adequately covered and is suitable for its intended user (teachers and learners). Similarly, Kumaravadivelu (1993: 72) and Long (2005a: 24) are of the view that, in most cases, such syllabuses are imposed to both language teachers and learners, or imposed on learners by their teachers. In this instance, a negotiated syllabus has more opportunities for attempting to address a range of communication needs and differences between teachers and learners, and among learners themselves.
Brown (2009: 275) argues in relation to the above perspectives with regard to the concept of language syllabus, syllabus stakeholders, such as language administrators, language instructors, and L2 learners may nevertheless agree or disagree on some issues, such as the teaching approaches and the subsequent sequencing of the learning units in the language classrooms. In such a context, Nunan (1994: 56) suggests that all specific syllabuses integrate and develop syllabuses with aims and purposes that target to address general language goals and needs.

To conclude the discussion on this section, regarding the views on the perspectives of language teaching syllabuses, the study, similarly, infers that language syllabuses have varying perspectives in terms of definitions. Such perspectives are categorised into two categories. (i) Internal factors and (ii) the external factors. The former is related to factors that describe a syllabus. Such factors include but are not limited to, (i) the focus of the syllabus, either on a group of people or particular sections of the population, (ii) the content of the syllabus; this can either focus on the wider scope of coverage or intended for a group of particular learners among others.

On the other hand, the external factors are related to factors that are not directly essential to the language syllabuses but are influential in the syllabus either during the designing or the implementation processes. Factors that influence the syllabus at the design stage may include, designers’ intentions, such as individualistic or general intentions that account for the needs and interests of the learners. Similarly, factors that influence the syllabuses at the implementing processes include but are not limited to, the nature of language learning classrooms, learners’ learning styles, and preferences, availability of teaching materials and qualifications of language teachers et cetera.

2.3.2.2. The language teaching syllabus

The previous section revealed that the term syllabus is defined differently by a number of scholars. Furthermore, the section discussed different factors for such discrepancies in syllabus definitions, implementations and so forth. This section, however, presents scholars’ views with regard to a common definition in relation to the term language syllabus. Such views include,

Yalden (1983: 18-19) defines a syllabus as a plan used to implement the teaching of courses in the classrooms. She stresses that the courses are derived from the general language curriculum. Similarly, according to her, the educational curriculum is also developed from the list of existing models or theories that inform the teaching and learning practices in a given period of time. In addition, she is of the view that language syllabus is informed or constituted by a combination of
components, such as language learning theories and curriculum decisions. She maintains that the major role of syllabuses is to transform pedagogical practices into reality in the language classrooms. She, however, advises that in case the syllabus is somehow altered, it might inadequately facilitate its purposes—accomplishment of pedagogical practices. Thus, there is a need for target users of the language syllabuses, mainly language teachers to maintain a degree of similarity to the original constituents of the syllabuses.

Similarly, Yalden (1983: 19) draws a distinction between proto and pedagogical syllabuses. According to her, the former is the composition of learning content that L2 learners need to learn in order to develop their competence in the target language (L2). She states that the latter constitutes the plans of implementing the proto syllabuses in the language classrooms. However, she is of the view that a functional syllabus is the one that accommodates both proto and pedagogical syllabuses. Furthermore, she suggests that it is of importance to integrate a language testing component on such a syllabus, to make it more functional. According to Nunan (1993: 56), such a combination leads to the formation of an integrated syllabus that considers language teaching as both a process and product. He stresses the view that with the advent of alternative views on syllabus design, the separation of the content and methodology is diminishing (Nunan 1991: 7).

With reference to Finney (2002: 76), Yalden (1984: 13) defines a syllabus as “a public document, a record, a contract, an instrument which represents negotiation among all parties involved”. In light of the above quotation, Yalden (1984) outlines the general characteristics of a language syllabus. Such characteristics are discussed by other scholars as follows.

According to Breen (2001: 151), a syllabus as a record involves aspects with reference to documented processes of the syllabus since syllabuses are in a written format. In addition, Prabhu (1987: 86) is of the view that the aim of keeping syllabuses in such formats, is for reference purposes, especially in the future when the use of such a syllabus is needed. In support of Prabhu’s (1987) statement above, Habanek (2005: 62) and Robinson (2009a: 195) maintain that syllabus acts as a record of what the learning content was, the aims and objectives of teaching language in a given period of time.

Prabhu (1987: 86) points out that such older syllabuses are useful in terms of syllabus amendments or developments. He maintains the view that such syllabuses provide input to the reformed syllabus. Further, he is of the view that the content coverage, aims, and objectives of such syllabuses provide direction for the designers in the designing process of the other versions of the syllabuses.
Similarly, according to The Republic of Uganda (2008: x), the use of recorded syllabuses can provide a framework for evaluating exercises of other syllabuses and language programmes.

In addition, Bell (1981: 32) and Yalden (1984: 13) compare a syllabus to a contract. As a contract, they relate a syllabus to various decisions from stakeholders that contribute to its existence. Bell (1981: 27) notes that there are syllabus designers, such as government or private companies. Similarly, Adamson (2004: 611) notes that there are also syllabus implementers (target or end-users) of the syllabus, including, language teachers and learners. On the same note, Yalden (1983: 19) is of the view that the major role of syllabuses is to transform pedagogical practices into reality in the language classrooms. In other words, the syllabus acts as a contract when syllabus designers provide syllabuses to the teachers for them to use in the language classrooms. Similarly, teachers while following the language teaching directions as stipulated either in the general language curriculum or from the school authorities, accept to use the syllabus as a guideline to fulfil their pedagogical obligations (see, Prabhu 1987: 86-87).

According to Nunan (1989: 79) for the syllabus to act as a binding contract between designers and its users, or between the users themselves (teachers and learners), it is important to take into consideration aspects, such as the stipulation of the roles of each stakeholder, their relationship, such as social or interpersonal et cetera. According to Nunan (1989: 84), the consideration of, such aspects allows stakeholders to fulfil their roles without overlapping responsibilities in relation to language teaching and learning processes, which might sabotage the aims and objectives of the syllabus, hence lead to its failure in facilitating classrooms activities. Similarly, Ellis and Shintani (2014: 52) are of the view that if such roles are overlapping, it means the syllabus is due for evaluation in order to correct the inconsistencies within it.

Yalden (1984: 13) also relates a syllabus to a public document. This infers to the accessibility and usage of the syllabus for public consumption. According to Prabhu (1987: 91), the purpose of making a syllabus as the public document is, specifically, to extend the educational goals to the public/society. Similarly, with reference to Holguín and Morales (2014: 140), Tharp, Estrada, Dalton & Yamauchi (2000), are of the view that such intentions are intended to make a connection between the aims of language education and those of the society where the language is used. Thus, Prabhu (1987: 91) maintains that the public can influence the syllabus in terms of criticising or contributing positive ideas in relation to its well-being. Similarly, Willis and Willis (2007: 181) are of the view that extending the syllabus to the public is intended to examine the suitability of the learning content in relation to the L2 learners’ purpose of learning L2 as well as to create a link with the situations and contexts in which L2 learners want to operate in L2.
Finally, Yalden (1984: 13) relates a syllabus to a representational/instrument of ideologies from various stakeholders. In support of Yalden’s (1984) statement, Ortega (2009: 7) is of the view that syllabus ideologies and decisions are based mainly on disciplines, such as anthropology, education, linguistics, psychology, and sociology. According to Diamond (1998: 43), the inclusion of specialists with ideologies from a range of disciplines and fields is indicative that the input of the syllabus is systematically balanced based on designers’ specific disciplines and backgrounds. In addition, scholars including, Graves (2008: 148), is of the view that the integration and the use of theories and models from a range fields contribute not only to the syllabus design decisions, but they also inform the realization and formation of SLA theories and models that are influential in the L2 classrooms. In this regard, van Lier (1996: 2) advocates for the inclusion of a variety of theories of SLA, education or linguistics in teacher graduate programs and in-service courses. van Lier maintains that the relevance of such theoretical perspectives and knowledge can offer in-depth understanding and influence of language teaching as a profession.

In defining the term syllabus, Nunan (1991: 3) emphasises the point that “[t]here is some confusion over the term ‘syllabus and ‘curriculum’”. That said, in light of the established meaning of the term syllabus, Nunan (1991: 6) defines the terms syllabus as an account of language content that is applied in the designing of a range of language courses in various contexts. In other words, Nunan infers a syllabus as a sub-component of the general curriculum, where syllabus designers derive language programmes and courses in a systematically graded and sequenced order. According to Nunan, a syllabus is the graded and sequenced units that are presented to learners as learning content. He refers a syllabus to the representation of learning content, i.e. the ‘what’ and the procedures of presenting the learning content to the learner, the ‘how’.

However, Nunan (1991: 7) suggests that with the advent of communicative language teaching (henceforth, CLT) theory and its related issues, such as principles, approaches et cetera, it is difficult to distinguish between syllabus design, which deals with the ‘what’ of a language programme, and the ‘how’ which deals with the methodology. In light of Nunan’s (1991: 6) syllabus definition, NCDC (nda.: 44) relates a syllabus as a framework that guides its implementers (e.g. teachers) to utilise the available resources within the allocated time to cover the learning content with an aim of assisting learners to achieve required competencies and skills. In order to achieve the above goals, for example, the NCDC (nda.: 44) establishes that its implementers to be creative given that the syllabus is not fixed. This suggests that the implementers are, for example, required to employ a variety of pedagogical practices as envisioned in the CLT principles (see also Mangubhai, Marland, Dashwood & Son 2004; Keck & Kim 2014: 10).
Similarly, Kumaravadivelu (1993: 72) defines a syllabus as a universal inventory of pre-planned, pre-sequenced, and pre-ordered linguistic specifications, always imposed on language teachers and their learners for use in the language classrooms (see also Nunan 2004: 177; Long 2005a: 24 on similar views). According to Kumaravadivelu, a syllabus is an orderly combination of common language features, such as the grammatical categories including, for example, verbs, nouns, prepositions and so forth, that language teachers across the world use to teach a given language. Like Nunan (1991: 6), Kumaravadivelu (1993: 72) compares the popular notions of the “how” and “what” of language teaching to each other. According to Kumaravadivelu, the two notions still hold relevance in the field of SLA and pedagogy.

In support of his own statement, Kumaravadivelu maintains that the general assumption in relation to the two notions is that, the “how” of language teaching is related to the language teaching methodology, whereas the “what” is related to the teaching (learning) content. Therefore, according to him, the notion of “what” is what is taken as the syllabus, whereas the notion of the “how”, is the methodology that language teachers follow to realise the learning content in their respective classrooms. Therefore, Kumaravadivelu (1993: 72) suggests that that the learning content and the teaching methodology go hand in hand in order to implement the language syllabus in the language classes.

In addition, Breen (2001: 151) agrees with Nunan and Kumaravadivelu above when defining the term syllabus as “a plan of what is to be achieved through teaching and learning” In light of the above definition, Breen infers that a syllabus is related to a proposal that involves both the process and the output/outcome of learning. According to him, a syllabus expresses the language learning processes and the target goals that are bound to be realised after such processes. Breen (2001: 151) discusses the issue of the objectives of the syllabus as a contributing factor to the range of definitions in relation to language syllabuses. He maintains that a syllabus is bound to have general as well as specific objectives with regard to either its design or its implementations in the language classrooms (see, Diamond 1988: 49-50). According to The Republic of Uganda (2008: vi-ix), a syllabus with general objectives focuses on the general aims and objectives of languages teaching mainly at the national level. For example, a syllabus which focuses on attaining the general objectives takes into account factors, such as (i) diversity across learners and teachers, in terms of their needs and interests et cetera. (ii) wider content coverage and lastly (iii) the friendly usability of the syllabus to various stakeholders (see, Council of Europe 2001).

Similarly, Breen (2001: 151) is of the view that the aims of the syllabus are to target a specified group of learners, at the national, district or local institutional levels and so on. According to
Diamond (1988: 35), such a syllabus is designed to specifically address the language needs of that particular group of people. He stresses that relevant specification, such as age, and other needs of that group are contained and specified in the syllabus. Breen (2001: 151) is of the view that syllabuses that target various groups in a specified context are bound to be defined differently based on the aims and specifications of such groups.

Finally, in relation to language syllabus, Robinson (2010: 244) points out that the major purpose of the language syllabus is to coordinate practical decisions in terms of language learning, teaching, and assessments in the language classrooms. He maintains that the application of language syllabuses is at different levels and domains. Robinson provides a list of such contexts which include, institutions, both local and national sectors, agencies, countries, and cultures. Robinson stresses further that language syllabus is a representation of mainly two theoretical decisions, which are directly realized in the language classrooms. According to Robinson, the two decisions are, (i) decision in relation to the “units” for organising L2 instructional procedures and (ii) decisions concerning the “sequencing” of the above units and how they can be presented to L2 learners. In his views, Robinson maintains that the major aim of the two theoretical decisions above is to “optimally stimulate the internal cognitive processes that lead to L2 development”.

2.3.2.3. Syllabus components

Breen (2001: 151) is of the view that, as a course or general language curriculum, a syllabus consists of elements, such as aims, content, methodology and evaluation procedures. In support of Breen’s (2001) statement, Yalden (1983: 18) points out that the four elements are treated as one aspect in that the separation of one element from the others leads to the alteration of the syllabus. In relation to Breen’s (2001: 151) syllabus elements above, other than the evaluation element, the other three elements were discussed in section 2.3.2.2, on page 54. Therefore, the subsequent section subsequently discusses the elements of languages learning materials as well as evaluation procedures as syllabus components.

With reference to Brown (2009: 275), Brown (1995: 6-14) defines a syllabus as the ways through which language learning courses and support materials are organised. In this instance, Brown (1995) categorises a syllabus into two different aspects. These include, (i) a syllabus as an organisation of the learning content and (ii) a syllabus as an organisation of the language support materials. According to Kumaravadivelu (1993: 72), the former includes aspects that organise the learning content as a pre-arrangement of linguistic specifications. On the other hand, the later according to Richards and Rodgers (2001: 30) is related to all aspects that are used in the
implementation of the learning content in the classrooms. Thus, Richards and Rodgers (2001: 29-30) state that, such aspects include methods, learning contexts, learners’ attitudes, teachers’ abilities, such as competence in L2 language and degree of training and teaching experience, textbooks and so forth.

On the issues related to syllabus assessment and evaluation, Breen (2001: 151) distinguishes the evaluation elements into two categories. On one hand, he views evaluation as a process of assessing the learning outcomes. According to him, evaluators who are in most cases, language instructors, examine the degree of accomplishment of the set aims and objectives of teaching a language course. In support of Breen’s (2001) statement, The Republic of Uganda (2008: x) reveals that traditionally, evaluation is the form of either written exercises and tests or oral performances among L2 learners. According to The Republic of Uganda (2008: x), such evaluation processes are carried out either during the course of instruction or at the end of the language teaching and learning course. In addition, Yalden (1983: 96) is of the view that major aim of carrying out, such assessment is to ascertain whether L2 learners are succeeding in attaining the proficiency and skills aimed for by the syllabus in the target language.

On the other hand, Breen (2001: 151) states that evaluation is also used to assess and consider the appropriateness of other curriculum elements. Richards (2001: 1-2) is of the view that a syllabus is used as a tool to examine the functionality of other curriculum/syllabus components. According to him, such components may include, language instructors, course structures, and instructional materials among others. In brief, Richards is of the view that in case one of the above components is dysfunctional, or unsystematically corresponding to other components, he suggests that the syllabus should be evaluated and subsequently, proposals for adjustments of that particular component be provided (see, Yalden 1983: 96).

In light of the above, Davies (2007: 17) discusses the basic intentions of evaluating language programmes. Breen (2001: 151) maintains that language programmes are set to achieve aims and objectives for a particular period of time. Similarly, Davies (2007: 17) is of the view that the evaluation exercises are intended to determine the extent to which the original aims and objectives of the language programmes are attained in a prescribed time. In addition, Davies stresses that the success of a language programme is measured by changes that are brought by a specific language programme. On one hand, he maintains that in case the language program brings new changes, according to him, such a program can be generalised and applied in other related contexts. On the other hand, Davies (2007: 28) is of the view that in case the programme attains its goals and aims
with little success, he suggests that the evaluation exercises should propose a solution in order to rectify the problem at hand.

In summary, the literature above reveals that a language syllabus is an internationally used concept. Language syllabuses focus primarily on the broader educational aims of the teaching and learning of languages in educational institutions. Where language teachers and their respective language learners make use of it for language teaching and learning. Such usage allows the syllabus to be involved in both the learning process as well as language learning outcomes. The syllabus design is an output of professionals from a range of fields mainly in education and linguistics. Thus, making a language syllabus a nexus of other language-related matters, such as theories, learners learning styles and preferences, evaluation procedures et cetera. Lastly, the section also observes that a language syllabus can be resourceful in the designing or update other language syllabuses. Thus, the subsequent section discusses the notion of syllabus design as used in the SLA and pedagogy in order to ascertain the syllabus design decisions in relation to syllabus design paradigms.

2.3.2. Perspectives regarding the notion of syllabus design

Richards (2013: 9-10) maintains that the origin of syllabus design as a notion dates back to the 1920s through the latter period of the 20th century. According to Richards, the influence of syllabus design in language teaching and learning are motivated by the initial series of publications in relation to different approaches to syllabus designs. Richards points out some of such publications which include, for example, Wilkins (1976), Munby (1978) and Willis (1996). In addition, according to Richards (2013: 10), in the field of ALs, issues in relation to the procedures for syllabus choice (selection) and the criterion for the syllabus sequencing (grading) became a point of focus since the 20th century as a result of Mackey’s (1965) publication titled Language Teaching Analysis.

On one hand, Like the notion of the syllabus, Nunan (1991: 5-6) advances the view that a common definition of syllabus design as a concept is still a challenging phenomenon too. Nunan traces the origins of such challenges mainly on the variations in the language knowledge, language perceptions, and decisions amongst language specialists. In support of Nunan’s view, Pica (1985: 137) also argues that the range of syllabus designers is countless regardless of their experience. Pica maintains that such designers, make syllabus decisions, for example, syllabus classifications and so on, based on their fields of experience and their diverse background knowledge. Furthermore, The Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics (Richards & Schmidt 2010: 29) show that in ALs, also known as, the study of foreign and L2 learning and teaching, syllabus
designers originate from disciplines, such as anthropology, education, information theory, linguistics, psychology and sociology among others (cf. Benati & Nuzzo 2017: 1). According to Breen (1987b: 83), such designers present and describe language in different ways, and in that manner, they end up with diverging decisions in the realization of syllabus designs.

However, there are some scholars who suggest more or less divergent definitions with regard to syllabus design as a concept. Such definitions include; with reference to Nunan (1994: 56), Allen (1984: 61) defines syllabus design as a component/sub-system of curriculum that is primarily concerned with specifying mainly the language learning units that are presented to language learners rather than the means of presenting same units to the learners. Accordingly, Allen (1984: 61) and Rajaee Nia, Abbaspour & Zare (2013: 64) stress the view that syllabus design deals specifically with the identification of language content/learning content that language teachers use in the teaching of a language to their respective learners, regardless the means of presenting the same language content to the learners. In other words, Allen (1984: 61) is of the view that syllabus design isolates learning content from the learning and teaching methodology. He suggests that syllabus design put limited consideration on the methodology.

Contrary to Allen’s views on syllabus design, Nunan (1994: 56) is of the view that the separation of the two notions, i.e. learning content and methodology is a conservative and traditional view as regards to syllabus design decisions. Nunan once again emphasises a point that the conservative distinction between learning content and the methodology is mostly diminishing. In addition, Nunan elaborates that the fading away of such distinction is as the result of the advent of alternative decisions (approaches) to syllabus design. Nunan (1994: 56-7) maintains that the alternative approaches attempt to answer the key curriculum questions of ‘what’, ‘why’, ‘how’ and ‘how well’. According to Nunan, the answers to such questions make reference to, (i) language learners, (ii) the psycholinguistics processes of language acquisition, (iii) needs analysis, as well as, specifications of L2 performances.

In a similar way, Nunan (1994: 56-57) and Robinson (2009a: 194) advance the view that syllabus design evolves on the basic decisions on the learning content ‘units’ and the order of presenting the learning content to the language learners. According to Robinson (2009a: 194), syllabus design as a concept is related to the aspect that attempts to address the questions of ‘what’ and ‘how’ as described by Nunan (1994: 56) above, regarding language teaching and learning in the classrooms. Robinson (2009a: 194) contends that the answer to the ‘what’ question consists of decisions on the learning content, and on the other hand, the answer to the ‘how’ question corresponds directly to the
methodology or the means through which the learning content is extended to the learners in the classroom.

Additionally, Robinsons (2009a: 194) is of the view that the above notions of learning content and the methodology, directly influence the role of language learners in assimilating with the language content as presented by the teacher in the classrooms. In this contest, Robinson (2009a: 194) is stressing a point on the value of integrating language content with methodology at the level that is appropriate to learners’ cognitive abilities and developments. In this way, Robinson presumes that language learners are in a position to comprehend the learning content at every stage of their development.

In conclusion, therefore, the above discussion with regard to syllabus design implies that the consideration of the right decisions in relation to L2 learning and teaching intends to ensure systematic acquisition of second/foreign language(s) across the L2 learners in the L2 classrooms. It means that in order to maintain an informed decision in syllabus design with regard to the systematic acquisition of L2 across L2 learners, Breen (1987b, 2001) recommends syllabus designers to subscribe to the syllabus design principles as discussed in the subsequent section.

2.3.3. General principles of syllabus design

As noted above, Breen (1987b: 83, 2001: 152) generally proposes that in order to maintain informed syllabus design decisions, aims, and purposes of the learning content to its target users, syllabus designers ought to subscribe their syllabus design decisions mainly on four general principles, also known as organisational principles. Such principles include (i) unit of (focus) analysis, (ii) selection of the content, (iii) subdivision (grading) of the content and (iv) sequencing of the content (cf. Ellis 2005c). These principles will be discussed in section 2.4, on page 65, in relation to their specific syllabus design paradigms.

Furthermore, Breen (1987b: 83) suggests that the above organisational principles be treated as though they are interrelated with one another. He maintains that they are in fact interconnected in one way or another. In that way, Breen (2001: 152) is of the view that the principles define how syllabus components correspond, hence, they define what a syllabus is. On the same note, Breen acknowledges the view that the above principles to syllabus design depict traditional decisions on syllabus design with primary focus on the knowledge of the language (cf. Loewen 2015: 18). Similarly, Breen is of the view that syllabus designers treat such principles in an unconventional way. According to Breen, such designers base their views mainly on, for example, language
aspects, such as tasks, morphemes, functions, and meaning, as a unit of analysis. Breen is of the view that such considerations lead to the emergence of differences in syllabus design decisions hence differences in syllabus types and instructional orientations. In light of Breen’s views, Figure 2:6, on page 65, is an example of an illustrative summary of the basic syllabus design procedures and orientations.

Similarly, in relation to unconventional considerations to the above principles, Long and Crookes (1993: 17) also refer to such situations as a result of basing syllabus design decisions on pure reasoning, without considering scientific empirical evidence and/or detaching the syllabus design decisions from SLA theories, models, and so on. The issue of scientific evidence on language analysis mainly on the development of language methodologies is also expressed elsewhere by Sweet (1988), as cited in Richards and Rodgers (2001: 9-10). Sweet is of the view that effective principles should adhere to the scientific analysis of languages and the psychological disciplines. In support of his views, Sweet outlines principles that can inform the development of language teaching methods.

According to Sweet, such principles include, (i) careful selection of what is to be taught, (ii) imposing limits on what is to be taught, (iii) arranging what is to be taught in terms of the four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing, lastly, (iv) grading materials from simple to complex.
Nevertheless, in additional to Sweets’ views, Breen (1987b: 83) points out that, the unconventional treatment of the organisational principles in syllabus design decisions advent what he refers to as paradigms, also known as typologies of syllabus design. Therefore, the following sections discuss the two paradigms considering how the two paradigms treat the above-mentioned syllabus design.

2.4. Typologies of syllabus design paradigms

As mentioned above, Long (2000: 180-181) and Beglar and Hunt (2002: 96), are of the view that in the field of SLA and pedagogy, there are generally two types of syllabus design paradigms (cf.
Pienemann 1985). These include traditional and process paradigms (cf. Larsen-Freeman & Anderson 2011: 149). These paradigms will be discussed later in subsequent sections after the discussion on issues related to general language paradigms below.

In explaining Kuhn’s (1970) notion of paradigm, Breen (1987b: 83) relates a paradigm to a theoretical framework on which specialists can base their assumptions and beliefs about their decisions. Breen further stresses that syllabus designers ground their decisions about syllabus design on a paradigm within a common belief and its underlying assumptions about language theories, research, and classroom practices. Furthermore, as noted before, Breen (1987b: 83) fortifies the view that convergence in the syllabus design decisions in relation to the underlying assumptions of a given syllabus design paradigm constitutes the provision of more than one syllabus design paradigm.

Therefore, in relation to Breen’s (1987a: 83) views on a paradigm, and in relation to language teaching decisions, for example, on decisions in syllabus designs among others, Long and Crookes (1993: 9) propose the view that such decisions or paradigms need to be theoretically coherent, focusing on how L2s are learnt. According to Long and Crookes, such proposals intend to provide a systematic approach that facilitates L2 teaching and learning in the classrooms, as will be discussed below.

2.4.1. Traditional paradigm and its syllabus design decisions

Several scholars, including, Krahnke (1987: 15), Long & Crookes (1993: 13), Nunan (2004: 11), and Ellis and Shintani (2014: 53) are of the view that the traditional paradigm, as summarised in Table 2:1, on page 72, also known as, propositional or conventional, is the oldest paradigm in the history of L2 learning and teaching. In light of the above, Long and Crookes (1993: 13) argue that the traditional paradigm dates back to the 1960s. According to Long and Crookes, the traditional paradigm is mainly based on the primary studies of structural linguists. Furthermore, Breen (1987b: 81) and Richards (2001: 2 & 153) maintain that the traditional paradigm provides a basis and clues for the alternative (process) paradigm in syllabus design decisions. Both Breen (1987b: 81) and Richards (2001: 2 & 153) state that the traditional paradigm is the genesis of the contemporary syllabus design decisions for different languages.

Furthermore, Breen (1987b: 85) points out the view that the advocates of the traditional paradigm are largely informed by the views of traditional linguists. In light with Breen’s views above, Ellis and Shintani (2014: 53) stress the point that such advocates underpin their syllabus decisions on the
language theories rather than on the theories of language learning and teaching. Similarly, Richards and Rodgers (2001: 4) argue that such advocates are informed by the ideologies and language foundations for describing and analysing both classical and modern languages respectively. On one hand, according to Richards and Rodgers (2001: 4), classical languages include, Latin and Greek languages, and on the other hand, the modern are languages that have been prominent since the sixteen centuries, for instance, English, French, German and Italian.

In addition, Richards (2001: 2-3) and Richards and Rodgers (2001: 1) are of the view that traditional paradigm continues to influence in one way or another, syllabus design and subsequent decisions in the classroom practices. Similarly, Breen (1987a: 86) maintains that such views as put forth by Richards (2001: 2-3) and Richards and Rodgers (2001: 1), are substantive in a way that many syllabus designers, more so, the language teachers get taught through the use of the structural/grammatical syllabuses. Furthermore, with reference to Nunan (2004: 21-22), Krashen (1981, 1982) argues that L2 learners feel better when they do form-focused exercises which depict grammatical syllabuses. According to Krashen, for such learners, language learning is all about focusing on grammatical forms/ structures of a given language.

According to Breen (2001: 152), grammatical/structural syllabuses reflect the traditional paradigm to syllabus design decisions and teaching. In addition, in relation to the training of language teachers and instructors with regard to traditional paradigm, Richards (2013: 21) stresses the view that such teachers are prepared to plan language lessons and the aims of the lessons in terms of, for example, smaller linguistic or grammatical units of a given language. Richards suggests that language teachers present their pedagogical practices in a similar way, for example, observing learners’ behaviours during the production of linguistic forms. According to Long and Crookes (1992: 31) and Richards (2013: 21), once learners are able to master such linguistic forms, language teachers assume that the learners have acquired the target language(s). Thus, Richards is of the view that the above situation leads to the continued existence of the traditional paradigm in SLA and pedagogy. Therefore, to understand the traditional paradigm, the subsequent paragraphs discuss structural syllabuses and how such syllabuses are informed or organized in relation to the syllabus design principles as mentioned above.

Krahneke (1987: 15) observes that structural syllabuses are historically the most familiar in informing syllabus design and classroom decisions. Furthermore, as a concept in SLA and pedagogies, elsewhere, scholars coin several labels to structural syllabuses. For instance, such labels include, synthetic (Wilkins 1976), formal (Breen 1987b), type A (White 1988 as cited in Long & Crookes 1993: 12), language-based (Robinson 2010) or linguistic (Ellis & Shintani 2014)
syllabuses. In light with the above labels, Long and Crookes (1993: 10) maintain there are voluminous numbers of structural syllabuses in the field of L2 teaching-learning (see also, Keck & Kim 2014: 7). Long and Crookes point out that such syllabuses are more or less similar in terms of, for example, lexicon, content structure, and so forth. Considering the above references to structural syllabuses, it is also indicative that the structural syllabuses are defined differently based on scholars’ point of view on language, SLA theories, models, and L2 classroom pedagogies and so forth. Therefore, the subsequent paragraphs briefly illustrate discussions of some of these definitions.

In Nunan’s (1991: 27) views, while referring to Wilkins’s (1976: 2) definition of synthetic syllabuses, Nunan maintains that synthetic/structural are the kind of syllabuses that arrange various learning units of a language separately. According to Breen (1987b: 85), the learning content is categorized into their broader units of the language systems. Such systems, include, language aspects, such as phonology, morphology, pronunciations, grammar and so forth.

Similarly, Pica, Kanagy, and Falodun (1993: 9) express the view that the above aspects are further divided/broken up into smaller and isolated linguistic/grammatical units. In addition, Pica et al. (1993: 9) are of the view that the isolated units are arranged in an order that the units would be presented to the L2 learners. According to Nunan (1991: 29, 2004: 11), the isolated learning/grammatical units are presented to the L2 learners one-by-one (one after the other), until a segment or a whole structure of the language is built up. Nunan (2004: 11) is of the view that acquisition is determined, for instance, when L2 learners are able to comprehend, produce and/or the mastery of these isolated units (see also, Keck & Kim 2014: 7-8).

Additionally, Long and Crookes (1993: 12) refer to White’s (1988: 44-45) definition of structural syllabuses in relation to “type A” syllabuses. According to White (1988), the major characteristic of such syllabuses is that of mainly focusing on what L2 learners are to learn in the target language (L2). In addition, language instructors or teachers are the final decision makers in the application of such syllabuses, compared to “type B” syllabuses where both language teachers and learners negotiate on the learning content. In relation to “type A” syllabuses, Richards (2013: 21) is of the view that the learning objectives and language teaching aims are provided in advance to both the teacher and learners.

Furthermore, Kumaravadivelu (1993: 72) maintains that the learning content of such syllabuses is preselected for both teachers and learners, which according to Bell (1981: 27) makes language instructors and learners consumers of the syllabuses designed by other individuals or agencies.
Nevertheless, with the advent of alternative approaches to syllabus design, the input of, for example, the L2 learner is a principal aspect. In fact, according to Finney (2002: 75), learners’ needs analysis is the first principle in relation to the initial decisions of the alternative syllabus designs (see section, 2.4.7, on page 104, for discussion on learners’ needs). Similarly, Diamond (1998: 1) maintains that the input from language teachers and instructors is worthy to put into consideration in the development of language programs, such as language syllabuses, as has been discussed in section 1.8.3, on page 19.

In addition to the above definitions in relation to synthetic syllabuses, Long (2000: 181), also provides a list of synthetic syllabuses. According to Long, such syllabuses, include lexical and notional-function syllabuses. Long maintains that synthetic syllabuses are used in L2 classrooms alongside their corresponding synthetic methods and approaches to teaching. Nunan (1991: 27) and Long (2000: 181) advance the view that such synthetic approaches to teaching present the learning content to the learners one after the other until the mastery of a given language aspect (see also, Keck & Kim 2014: 7-8).

2.4.2. Traditional grammar-oriented teaching methodologies

In light of the previous paragraph, Long (2000: 181) argues that such teaching approaches and methods include, grammar translation, audio-lingual, audio-visual, and silent way (cf. Larsen-Freeman 1987, 2001). In support of the above list of teaching methods, Benati (2013: 33) discusses three of what he refers to as ‘traditional’ grammar-oriented language teaching methods. According to Benati, such methods include, (i) grammar-translation method, (ii) direct method. Lastly, (iii) audio-lingual method (cf. Ssebbunga-Masembe 2003: 152). The following paragraphs discuss the above methods in their respective order.

Benati (2013: 33) stresses that the grammar-translation approach involves the explicit teaching of grammar. According to Benati, this approach is premised on the assumptions that learners learn L2 through the “deduction of grammatical properties” of the target language. Benati is of the view that the deduction of such properties provide room for language learners to develop a representation of target language into learners’ internal system, either consciously or explicitly. Furthermore, Benati states that the deduction of such properties is in two ways. They include, (i) the study of form and structure of the target language by memorising them, or (ii) by translating the given input of the target language mainly in form of texts (see, for example, Ssebbunga-Masembe 2003: 148).
In addition, Benati argues that the introduction of the direct method of language teaching is somehow a change in the L2 teaching of grammar. Unlike in the grammar-translation approach, according to Benati, such a change is reflected in how the direct method advances a more inductive approach to grammar instruction. Benati argues that the use of the direct method provides for the learner to learn grammar through the interpretation of contextual settings and situational clues, instead of being recipients of the information from their teachers about the target language. Benati, however, insists that like the grammar-translation approach, direct method instruction also focuses on extending grammatical properties to the target language rather than the communication skills that are beneficial to L2 learners.

Finally, Benati discusses the audio-lingual method. Like other scholars, Benati also refers the audio-lingual method to the P-P-P approach. According to Benati, P-P-P stands for Presentation, Practice, and Production. Elsewhere, Bell (1981: 43) relates the same approach to Presentation, Illustrate, and Practice (P-I-P), similarly, VanPatten (2002: 109) generally refers the same approach in terms of phases. That is to say, Explanations, Mechanical practices, as well as Practical phases (E-M-P). In addition, Benati maintains that P-P-P as an approach is a three-stage model of language teaching. Benati maintains that the first stage (presentation), consists of the language teacher presenting the target language often in form of a text. In the presentation stage, the role of the learner is to internalise the new grammatical form. According to Benati, the second stage involves practising of the grammatical form that has been memorised in the previous stage (stage one, or presentation stage). Benati is of the view that the practice is done by systematically using the form. Lastly, stage three, such a stage involves the application of the attested grammatical form into a range of activities that are pre-organised and determined by a language teacher.

Benati (2013: 34) argues that unlike the above two discussed approaches, the P-P-P method provides room for the “learners to move from systematic and appropriate use of language in contexts” In addition, Benati also argues that once a learner masters a given form, the learner can use such forms in given contexts. According to Benati, it is at this stage that the message becomes more important than the medium itself. For reviews in reference to the history of synthetic approaches and methods of language learning and teaching, see, for example, Richards and Rodgers (2001) and Thornbury (2011).

In addition, Long (2000: 181) maintains that in relation to the above synthetic methods of teaching, also, grammatical rules, such as repetition of models, memorization, and transformational exercises as well as the explicit grammatical rules and so on, provide support to the synthetic methods of learning and teaching in L2 classrooms. In summary, Long (2000: 180-181) refers to
synthetic/grammatical lessons as focus on forms. The characteristics of such lessons according to Long (2000: 181) include being dry, consist of primarily working on linguistic units, that L2 learners master linguistics units one after the other to the level of native-speaker, with limited use of the target language.

In this regard, therefore, according to Benati (2013: 34), the teaching of grammar is least considered. The limited consideration of teaching grammar is primarily because of the advent of CLT and task-based language teaching (henceforth, TBLT) approaches (see, for example, Keck & Kim 2014: 13-14). Benati argues that among the assumptions of, for instance, CLT is that, grammar teaching has the least ability in facilitating learners’ development in communicative situations in the target language. In addition, Benati also advances the view that CLT assumes that L2 learning is less the same as learning L1.

In justifying the above view, Schleppegrell (2004: 153), Samuda (2009: 280-381) and Benati (2013: 34) stress the view that in both CLT and TBLT instructional approaches, L2 learners are required to perform a range of tasks (see also Van den Branden, Van Gorp & Verhelst 2007a: 1) that focus on meaning with input that has a range of grammatical forms. According to Benati, initially, the main focus of CLT was to provide opportunities to L2 learners to develop their abilities to comprehend, interpret and express meaning as it is in the real-world communication (cf. Révész 2011: 162). Presently, Benati is of the view that both CLT and TBLT approach (see sections 2.4.4 & 3.2, on pages 80 & 114, respectively), incorporate grammar teaching (as will also be discussed in Chapter Five) as a constituent to the overall teaching that focuses on communication.

In relation to the above, Long and Crookes (1993: 13) also expressed concern about the structural approaches to language teaching. They maintain that such approaches can easily be used by untrained language teachers or teachers with limited command of the specific target language. Subsequently, Richards and Rodgers (2001: 4) are of the view that L2 learners are expected to develop proficiency gaps in the target language(s). In support of their own views, Richards and Rodgers argue that the proficiency gaps are due to failures for learners to establish proficiency, for example, in several basic grammatical rules because of, for example, incompetent language teachers as expressed by Long and Crookes above. In another context, also, Mukama (2009: 85) holds similar views about linguistically and pedagogically incompetent language teacher across language classrooms.
Table 2:1: Showing a summary of the basic features of structural syllabuses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Propositional plans</th>
<th>Formal and functional syllabus types</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Represent</td>
<td>Criteria for design</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elements</td>
<td>Implied use</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discrete/analysed the rules and conventions of the language system and its use. Coherent intrinsic to the language system and categories of use.</td>
<td>Established plan to be followed through the transmission to learners. Content assumed separate from the methodology.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Modified from Breen (1987a: 171)

However, I noted above, see section 2.4.1, on page 66, that the structural syllabuses are the basis from which alternative decisions to syllabus designs are grounded and premised. Therefore, to exemplify such views, it is important to review how synthetic syllabuses employ the syllabus organizational principles, as earlier mentioned, to not only justify the existence of such syllabuses but also to provide a rationale for the co-existence of the alternative decisions in syllabus design in relation to SLA and pedagogies.

2.4.2.1. Unit of analysis for structural syllabuses

As Long and Crookes (1992: 30) relate unit of analysis to a central element in organising both lessons and instructional materials in the syllabus, Robinson (1988: 1) defines a unit of analysis as a syllabus design decision that involves the organisation of the syllabus and the subsequent performance of classroom activities. According to Robinson, the unit of analysis depends mainly on the target language that learners are yet to learn. Robinson argues that for structural syllabuses, the unit of analysis is based on the grammatical structures of the target language (cf. Lambert 2010: 100).

On the other hand, Long and Crookes (1993: 9) and Long (2015a: 206)suggest that in the history of syllabus design, decisions in relations to a unit of analysis (focus) are considered prior to any other decisions. In addition, Long and Crookes (2009: 57) suggest that the choice of the unit of analysis constitutes a primary basis for all other aspects in relation to language teaching and learning programs. According to Richards (2001: 2), such aspects, include, learning theories, models, strategies, instructional materials, such as textbooks that learners use in L2 classrooms et cetera. Similarly, Long and Crookes (1993: 9) are of the view that the unit of analysis is a starting point in syllabus design processes. According to Long and Crookes, the unit of analysis reflects the designer’s other intentions. For instance, Long and Crookes argue that the unit of analysis
determines relevant SLA theories and syllabus types that may inform designers’ decisions in other language aspects, such as pedagogical practices and methodologies et cetera. In support of the above view, Long and Crookes (2009: 59) advance the proposal that every syllabus designer need to identify a unit of analysis around which to organise their individual syllabuses and the subsequent teaching and learning materials.

Robinson (1988: 1) notes that synthetic/structural syllabuses employ and use aspects of target the language to organise the learning content. In addition, Long and Crookes (1993: 13) maintain that the unit of analysis in the structural syllabuses depends largely on the grammatical structures and language categories of the target language(s). According to Long and Crookes, language aspects mainly morpho-syntactic structures from the phonology, morphology, and series of linguistically isolated units (forms) of the target language(s), such as prepositions, no/yes, wh- questions, and so on, are identified and used as units of analysis by structural syllabus designers. Similarly, Long and Crookes (2009: 58) maintain the view that, the choice of the unit of analysis in the synthetic syllabuses presumes learners’ ability to learn a target language in isolated units. In this regard, while Lambert (2010: 100) names some of the commonest units of analysis in L2 syllabuses, including those listed below, Long and Crookes (1993: 16-24) provide a list and discuss the different examples of units of analyses that structural syllabuses designers apply to organise their syllabuses. Such units of analyses include but are not limited to, (i) modality, notional function and semantic-grammatical, for notional syllabuses, (ii) situational and topic, for situational and topic syllabuses and lastly, (iii) word, for lexical syllabuses (cf. Lambert 2010: 100).

Drawing from the above lists of units of analyses, Long and Crookes (1993: 23 & 26) stress that the units of analyses are generally problematic in terms of definitions, and the scopes. According to Long and Crookes, the problem is brought by the fact that syllabus designers for structural syllabuses ignore the role of SLA theories, models and their associated assumptions in developing such units of analyses. In this regard, according to Long (2000: 180), such syllabus designers develop units of analysis based on their intuitions regarding specific language knowledge.

In addition, Long and Crookes (1993: 15) argue that whereas a focus on form plays a vital role in SLA in one way or another, the two scholars consistently maintain that SLA involves psycholinguistics rather than linguistic processes of a specific language. In this regard, Long and Crookes are suggesting that linguistic items as units of analysis should be selected based on the L2 learners’ current developmental stages. According to Long and Crookes, such linguistic units are presumed to facilitate the development of L2 learners’ native-like proficiency.
2.4.2.2. Selection of learning content in structural syllabuses

With regard to the structural syllabuses, Breen (2001: 152) states that the decisions on selecting the content, also, the learning content, is the second principle/step after the decisions in relation to the unit of analysis. Similarly, Breen (1987b: 85) is of the view that the selection of the learning content for structural syllabuses assumes that the selected learning content is appropriate to the L2 learners for whom the syllabus is made. In developing Breen’s views on the selection of the learning content, Finney (2002: 71) relates the learning content for the structural syllabuses to the content model —classical humanist tradition—. According to Finney, the content of such a tradition is assumed as universal, unchanging and absolute content. Similarly, with reference to Finney (2007: 71), Kelly (1989: 45-6) is of the view that such content with regard to structural syllabuses disregards the role of SLA processes. In addition, Kelly maintains that the classical humanism tradition ignores the issues of learners’ learning differences, needs as well as age factors amongst L2 learners. Subsequently, Kelly stresses that such content is limited in terms of providing and facilitating education in a wider scope. This is because, according to Kelly, the classical humanist tradition of teaching is based on traditional educational philosophies that are unacceptable in the contemporary globalised and multicultural developing societies.

In addition, Krahnke (1987: 17) holds the view that the selection of the learning content with regard to structural syllabuses is well known, especially, for the commonly taught languages. In support of his view, Krahnke (1987: 15) suggests that the selection of the learning content is based on the familiar grammatical categories of a given language. According to Krahnke, such categories include nouns, verbs, pronouns, adjectives, singular, plural, present tense and past tense et cetera. Furthermore, Krahnke argues that special aspects of morphology for a specific language also offer their units for selection as the learning contents. According to Krahnke (1987: 16), such morphological aspects include suffixes, prefixes, postpositions, prepositions, articles, determiners, plural and singular markers, tense marking forms and so on.

Similarly, Krahnke (1987: 15-16) adds that the highest unit of discourse in the learning content of structural syllabuses is at the sentence level. According to Krahnke, such sentences include, for example, sentences, such as exclamations, complex, simple and compound sentences, declaratives and statements, questions and interrogative sentences. Nevertheless, Krahnke (1987: 17-18) is of the view that the main problem associated with the selection of the learning content with regard to synthetic syllabuses, is the “degree of detail the instruction should be concerned with” because, according to Krahnke, the grammatical forms are either presented generally or in a basic way, and with limited or without detailed exceptions. Krahnke is of the view that, in such a situation, L2
learners are presented with a mixture of uncoordinated linguistics units that may slow their learning abilities. In support of the above view, Long and Crookes (1993: 13-15) are of the view that studies reveal that, L2 learners neither acquire a linguistic unit at a time, but rather the units of complex mappings of forms-function coordination that are analysed based on L2 learners’ cognitive abilities and development.

2.4.2.3. Grading of learning content for structural syllabuses

Accordingly, Breen (1987b: 86) considers the grading principle of the learning content as the principle that follows the selection of the learning content principle. Similarly, Breen defines the grading of the learning content as an exercise of dividing the preselected learning content. Before I discuss the grading principle in-depth, it is of relevance to point out the view that studies with regard to the grading principle for structural syllabuses are limited to access compared to the studies on other syllabus design principles. Studies on the grading of the content, also known as, the subdivision of the learning content is limited possibly due to the fact that some scholars (see, for example, Yalden 1983: 23; Krahnke 1987: 18; Nunan 1993: 57; Long 2000: 180; Finney 2002: 71; Steenkamp & Visser 2011: 12; Richards 2013: 10; Ellis & Shintani 2014: 140) view the grading and sequencing principles as less similar to each other. The tendency of treating the two principles as though similar is primarily because according to Nunan (1991: 5-6) and Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics (Richards & Schmidt 2010: 29), divergent but focused perspectives and contextual backgrounds on SLA and pedagogy of such scholars. In this regard, the above scholars use both principles interchangeably based on their perspectives and contexts. Henceforth, in a similar way, the present study employs the perspective that considers the two principles to be used interchangeably. However, in case it necessitates their separation, the study will treat the two principles individually. Basing on the above, below are examples of the scholars’ views regarding the notion (principle) of grading.

In relation to the above, Nunan (2004: 113) relates grading and sequencing principles to the decisions regarding what learning content is to be taught, for instance, first, second, third or last and so on. According to Nunan, such decisions depend entirely on syllabus designers’ beliefs about sequencing and grading of the learning content. Nevertheless, in defining grading as a syllabus design principle, Richards, Platt and Weber (1986: 125) with reference to Nunan (2004: 113) state that grading is the exercise of organising learning content for a language course or a language textbook. Richards et al. (1986: 125) argue that the aim of grading the learning content is primary to present the learning content to the L2 learners in a helpful and facilitative way with in relation to the effective learning of the arranged content. According to Richards et al. (1986: 125), the grading
exercise is based on either degree of complexity of the content itself or the frequency of the content in both written and spoken discourses. Furthermore, Richards et al. (1986: 125) maintain that the grading may also be based on the importance of the learning content to the L2 learners in the L2 classrooms.

Similarly, Robinson (2009b: 295) expresses concern with regard to the importance of the grading principle in syllabus design. Robinson is of the view that the grading exercise in syllabus design processes is less similar to the pedagogical practices/activities that take place in the L2 classrooms. According to Robinson, grading is less similar to pedagogical practices, in a sense that underestimating an aspect of grading procedures and decisions of the learning content during the syllabus design processes, the underestimated aspect in one way or another affects directly the classroom practices in L2 classrooms. Subsequently, Robinson is of the view that based on the above situation, the graded content is likely to facilitate SLA with limited success. Therefore, in order to maintain effective pedagogical practices, Robinson suggests that the grading as an aspect should be treated with extreme care among other factors.

In addition, Breen (1987b: 86) noted above that grading is an exercise of dividing the content. According to Breen, the content is divided into smaller units from their superordinate units. In support of this view, Krahnke (1987: 16) states that smaller units of the learning units are derived from the components of the language systems. According to Krahnke, such components include, for example, the morphology (superordinate) of a specific language(s). Krahnke elaborates that from the morphological system, smaller units, such as suffixes or prefixes among others, are derived. Similarly, according to Breen (2001: 152), the main reason for subdividing the learning content into smaller constituents/units is to provide the easiness in teaching and learning of such constituents in the L2 classrooms across contexts. In this essence, the learners are provided with smaller and simple units, such as tense markers, nouns, verbs et cetera., for learners to comprehend and later produce as for example, a complete structure or grammatically correct sentence.

In light of the above, Nunan (1991: 28) provides a general criterion that is considered crucial in the grading of the learning content with regard to structural syllabuses. Nunan maintains that the commonest criterion for grading and subdividing of the learning content is one that is based on the grammatical notions of simplicity and complexity of the preselected learning content as discusses below (cf. Mbunda 2003: 4; Besha 2003: 69-70). According to Yalden (1983: 23-25), the former (simplicity) is related to the grading of learning units that a syllabus designer assumes are simple and precise for the L2 learners to synthesize in the L2 classrooms (see, for example, Robinson 2009: 296; Willis & Willis 2007: 177, in support of such a view). In other words, Yalden reveals
that the teaching units, such as, for example, the verb ‘to be’ is graded in the syllabus before other verbs, such as ‘to do’ or ‘to have’ verbs. In this context, according to Yalden, the verb ‘to be’ is assumed to be the simplest when compared to the other two verbs. Similarly, the verb ‘to do’ is also assumed to be simpler than the verb ‘to have’.

On the other hand, according to Yalden (1983: 23), the later i.e. the notion of complexity/difficulty is related to the grading of teaching and learning units depending on their degree of difficulty in learning them. In this case, according to Yalden, the least difficult teaching units are graded before grading the more or most difficult units to L2 learners. In addition, Yalden (1983: 24) provides other examples in relation to the grading of structural syllabuses. According to Yalden, the least difficult teaching unit, for example, in pronouns, is the ‘personal pronoun’, the more difficult is ‘demonstrative pronouns’ and ‘possessive pronouns’ are assumed to be the most difficult for L2 learners to synthesize in the classrooms. In this case, Yalden is of the view that the grading of the learning content in relation to pronouns with regard to the structural syllabus is organised/presented to the L2 learners starting with personal, then, demonstrative and later possessive pronouns.

Nevertheless, Willis and Willis (2001: 173) are of the view that such modes (simplicity and complexity) of grading the learning content remains somehow unsuccessful in bridging the facilitating gap of SLA and pedagogy in the L2 classrooms. In this regard, Pica et al.(2009: 172) agree with Willis and Willis (2007:1) on the suggestions that the grading of learning content that facilitates SLA and pedagogies is that of presenting the learning content to the L2 learners in its holistic (chunk) form rather than in linguistics and isolated units of the language systems as discussed above.

In support of the above views, Nunan (1991: 28) also contests the modes of simplicity and complexity above as grading criterion on grounds that the complexity of the grammatical units is not the same as the difficulty in learning such a grammatical unit, similarly, Nunan is of the view that the simplicity of a grammatical form does not necessarily imply simplicity in learning it. Similarly, Ellis (2003a: 76) maintains that most times, it is cognitively challenging for L2 learners to process the linguistic forms of the target language that their teachers present for acquisition.

In that matter, therefore, Nunan (1991: 30) recommends the following factors regarding the grading of the learning content for structural syllabuses. According to Nunan, first, there is a need to abandon the established procedures of structural grading as noted above. Secondly, Nunan is of the view that syllabus designers should make use of the list of graded structures/units that L2 learners
are bound to focus upon while in the classrooms. Lastly, Nunan suggests that attempts should be made to grade items that focus on what learners are expected to do with the target language.

2.4.2.4. Sequencing of the learning content for structural syllabuses

Section 2.4.2.3, on page 75, noted that the principles of grading and sequencing of the learning content with regard to structural syllabuses are treated less similar. Therefore, this section discusses the sequencing principle with a different perspective from the grading principle as discussed in the above section. In this regard, Ellis (1992: 9) refers to sequencing as an idea of acquiring grammatical properties of an L2. In other words, sequencing is related to the way linguistic units are arranged or presented to L2 learners in L2 classrooms. In addition, Krahnke (1987: 18) expresses the view that decisions in relations to the sequencing of the learning content as far as structural syllabuses are concerned are still challenging (cf. Besha 2003: 69). According to Krahnke, the challenge is primarily based on the fact that sequencing decisions lack common sequencing criterion. Nevertheless, Krahnke is of the view that there are common proposals that are advanced without scientific evidence and that such proposals are also strict. According to Krahnke, such proposals include generalizability, the degree of differences between, the structure and its equivalent in the L2 learners’ L1, the degree of facilitation or acquisition of grammatical structures among others.

In addition, Robinson (1998: 1) states that generally, in the syllabus design processes, the adoption of sequencing decisions depends mainly on the prior decisions stage, i.e. at the step of identifying the unit of analysis. However, with regard to structural syllabuses, Robinson (1988: 2) is of the view that the criterion for sequencing the learning content is characterised by a range of features. According to Robinson, such features include the easiest, most learnable, most frequent and most communicatively important forms of the target language (L2). In other words, Robinson is of the view that the sequencing of the learning content is primarily from simple units to progressively complex units.

Similarly, Robinson (2010: 244) is of the view that for a long period, both private and public learning institutions adopt language-based syllabuses. Robinson maintains that such syllabuses organize and sequence their learning units (content) in terms of language structures, such as patterns and propositional relations et cetera. According to Robinson, the above units are presented (sequenced) to the learners explicitly in a serial or cyclic formation and order. Robinson argues that such formation is based on the notions of complexity, frequency, usefulness, and coreness of the learning content to the L2 learners.
However, Krahnke (1987: 25-26) maintains that the use of the criterion in relation to sequencing, makes the sequencing of the learning content of the structural syllabuses fixed. According to Krahnke, such criterion is fixed in a way that, learners are bound to use only those units that are presented to them. In addition, Krahnke is of the view that L2 learners are prevented from using the units that are not extended or taught to them. In other words, according to Krahnke, the communicative purpose of the language is controlled by the sequencing criterion rather than facilitating its use in a range of contexts. In exemplifying Krahnke’s views on a fixed order of the learning content, Ellis (1992: 9, 2009b: 222) points out that in such classes, grammatical properties, such as X and Y are taught to learners before property Z. In addition, Ellis maintains that properties Y and Z are only taught to learners once property X has been mastered by the same learners.

To summarize the ongoing discussion on structural syllabuses in relation to the realization of the syllabus design principles, it is generally evident that the structural syllabuses are still and widely used in relation to the facilitation of the SLA and pedagogies (see also, Keck & Kim 2014: 8). The continuous use of such syllabuses can be attributed to Hadley’s (2001) views as cited in Wilbur (2007: 79) that, while there are various developments in relation to teaching methods and techniques for L2, most L2 teachers could have been trained through grammatical syllabus approaches (cf. Larsen-Freeman 2000: ix), such as audiolingual and grammar-translation, as discussed in section 2.4.2, on page 69. However, the above literature also reveals that the decisions regarding the design and classroom usage of structural syllabuses lack an empirical basis with regard to the theories and models that inform SLA decisions in respect of syllabus design and their classroom realization (for example, see, Keck & Kim 2014: 8).

Thus, according to Tickoo (1997: 269), Ellis and Shintani (2014: 52) and Keck and Kim (2014: 10-11), the unsuccessful facilitation in L2 pedagogy by the structural syllabuses propagate the advent of suggestions on proposals for alternative syllabus design decisions – process paradigm –, which is the contemporary syllabus design perspective and is presumed to systematically facilitate SLA and pedagogy compared to the structural syllabuses (see also, Keck & Kim 2014: 10). In addition, Breen (1987b: 81) is of the view that the traditional syllabuses provide clues, in one way or another, on the new perspectives of syllabus design decisions as well as L2 teaching and learning as will be discussed in the subsequent sections.

2.4.3. The process paradigm and its syllabus design decisions

Fortez (1997: 15) argues that the process paradigm is a refinement (alternative) of the traditional paradigm in relation to contemporary syllabus design decisions as well as L2 teaching and learning.
Similarly, VanPatten (2002: 106) and Ellis (2014: 111) hold similar views that the process or CLT is an accomplishment of the language curriculum as well as traditional forms of language teaching. In that regard, therefore, the subsequent paragraphs provide a review of the development of the process paradigm.

Long and Crookes (1993: 33) maintain that the early rationale for the process syllabus design decisions is based on the educational and philosophical views rather than on the psycholinguistics perspectives. While considering early (the 1980s) studies with regard to L2 teaching and learning, Long and Crookes (1993: 33) point out that the historical decisions on syllabus design and curriculum developments are based on the proposals from other subject areas. In that matter, Long and Crookes are of the view that such proposals are contributing factors towards the rejection of the structural syllabuses as well as the traditional paradigm decisions on syllabus design. Similarly, Breen (1987a: 157) suggests that the rejection of the traditional paradigm advanced the existence of the refined paradigm on syllabus design decisions. Therefore, in order to understand the establishment of the process paradigm, the subsequent section provides the main accounts from the studies of five leading scholars in the field of SLA and pedagogy. The scholars are, Bygate, Crookes, Long, Nunan, and Samuda. Furthermore, the section also uses the studies of other scholars as supplements to the arguments of the above-chosen scholars.

2.4.4. **An overview of the process/communicative language teaching**

According to Samuda and Bygate (2008: 51), CLT theory and its related issues came into existence in the mid-1970s, from the United Kingdom, through other European countries and extended its influence also to North America (cf. East 2014: 261 on New Zealand). Among other scholars, for example, Benson and Voller (1997: 10), Samuda and Bygate (2008: 51) hold similar views with Benati (2013: 18) that CLT presents a shift from the traditional approaches and principles in relation to second and foreign language teaching. Samuda and Bygate (2008: 51) remind us that the focus of traditional approaches is, for example, on grammatical properties, conversational structure, and grammar of the target language(s). In addition, Samuda and Bygate argue that the same traditional approaches to language teaching are based on the behaviour mode of learning that is emphasised as the fundamental processes of P-P-P. (see, for example, Ellis 1992: 4-5; Willis & Willis 2007: 177-179, for similar views).

On the other hand, Wesch and Skehan (2002: 207-208) argue that CLT has progressed for decades with an aim of facilitating continuous changing views of communitive language usage the assumptions under which CLT is underpinned. Thus, in a similar context, Samuda and Bygate
(2008: 52) maintain that CLT approaches are the renovations in the interconnectedness between the language classroom where language learning and teaching takes place, and the outside world (community/society), where L2 learning is extended and primarily used at the same time. According to Samuda and Bygate, CLT primarily emphasises on two issues. The issues include, (i) communicative activities in all main language learning processes. For instance, at the input, comprehension and language productions processes. (ii) that communication is a determinant of the learning content and the learning procedures. In this regard, Samuda and Bygate, are of the view that with the advent of CLT, pre-signed/ pre-determined syllabuses (traditional paradigm) are discredited (cf. Ellis 1992: 4). Such syllabuses are discredited because according to Samuda and Bygate, language learners differ in their learning levels, rates, and readiness to learn. Thus, the call for the process syllabuses as will be discussed in the following sections.

Section 2.4.3, on page 79, noted that the process syllabuses are the refinement of the traditional syllabuses in relation to SLA and language pedagogy. Similarly, on one hand, Long and Crookes (1993: 27-37) argue that the syllabuses that base their assumptions on the process paradigm focus mainly on the L2 learners and the language learning processes. Furthermore, Long and Crookes stress the point that the above assumptions are based on the CLT approaches. Similarly, Long and Crookes hold the view that all syllabuses under the process paradigm, are, also known as, analytical or Type B syllabuses. According to the Long and Crookes, the label analytical is as a result of the syllabuses that primarily focus on the analysis of language systems by L2 learners during language learning processes. In addition, in order to exemplify their views, Long and Crookes outline the list of analytical syllabuses. The list includes the (i) procedural, (ii) process, and (iii) TBSs. According to Long and Crookes, the analytical syllabuses differ in one way or another, e.g., in the perception of the learning content. However, Long and Crookes maintain that the pivot point of all the process syllabuses is the consideration of task(s) as the unit of analysis. Other than task as pivotal point (see also, Bygate 2015: xv), VanPatten (2002: 106) suggests that there are other major aspects that are common and crucial in all the CTL approaches. According to VanPatten (2002: 106-107), such aspects include, (i) language learners are considered as central in curriculum decisions, (ii) facilitation of communicative events is the language classrooms, (iii) emphasis on all communicative channels, such as gestural, oral and written. Other underpinnings of CLT are discussed in depth later.

On one hand, in discussing the background of the process syllabuses further, Long and Crookes maintain the view that language learning through the analysis of language systems have been in existence for more than 300 years (see, for example, Howatt 1984). Long and Crookes however,
stress the view that the recent analysis of language learning approach, is because of Newmark’s scholarly publications in the 1960s. Furthermore, Long and Crookes argue that early proposals with regard to the analytical syllabuses had limited institutional support. According to Long and Crookes, lack of instructional materials in schools somehow derailed the proper implementation of such syllabuses in the learning institutions.

On the other hand, in relation to the development of process paradigm, Nunan (1988: 24-5) suggests that in the 1960s, linguists and sociolinguists with support from the Council of Europe advanced new developments in the field of SLA and pedagogy. According to Nunan, among other innovations in SLA and language pedagogy, the major is the advent of learner-centred language teaching. Nunan is of the view that the learner-centred approaches to language teaching, are underpinned within the CLT theories, based on the learner-centred language teaching curricula. Nunan stresses the view that the primary principle assumed by the CLT theories and syllabus designs, is that of facilitating L2 learners to communicate in the target language(s).

Nunan (1988: 25) argues that the need to address the applicability of the above principle is the impetus that the above reformists use to examine a range of speech variables and aspects under which L2 learners would correctly use their grammatical constructs. The variables according to Nunan, include, (i) the situations under which languages are used, (ii) the topics that language users use in their conversations, (iii) the purpose of the conversations, and, (iv) is the crucial aspect above all, i.e. the relationship between the interlocutors in an interaction/conversation. In additional, Kaplan and Baldauf Jr. (1997: 123) contend that the standard language variety that is taught in learning contexts are acquired through L2 learners’ participation (interaction) in conventional language use as indicated in educational books and other printed media (see further, Savigon 1972, as cited, in Keck & Kim 2014: 15).

Similarly, Ellis and Shintani (2014: 52) suggest that the above situations as advanced by Long and Crookes and Nunan above, characterised the language debates, such as those of the 1970s which aimed to establish a suitable syllabus(es) with regard to the facilitation SLA and pedagogy across varying contexts. As a result, such debates advanced the proposals for the process paradigm for syllabus design and subsequent classroom pedagogies. In addition, Breen (1987a: 157) is of the view that, the process, is a refinement of the traditional paradigm in relation to contemporary syllabus designs decisions. Considering the above views, the subsequent section provides general perspectives with regard to process paradigm, specifically, the process syllabus designs decisions, as summarised in Table 2:2, below.
Table 2.2: Showing a summary of the basic features of the process syllabuses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Represent:</th>
<th>Criteria for design:</th>
<th>Purpose and focus:</th>
<th>Elements:</th>
<th>Implied use:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Procedures for communicating, learning and classroom work.</td>
<td>Learner capacity to develop established communicative competence. Learner capacity to impose order on new knowledge and required capabilities. Social potential of the classroom to provide opportunities for the above</td>
<td>Development of underlying competence in accuracy, appropriateness, and meaningfulness within activities and events</td>
<td>Integration of communicative knowledge systems and use of abilities. Coherence provided by communicative needs of learners and by teaching the process.</td>
<td>Implementation assumes content and methodology in continual relationship</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Modified from Breen (1987a: 171)

### 2.4.5. Syllabus considerations in the process paradigm

Breen (1987a: 170) observes that the process paradigm to syllabus design decisions is rooted in the norms of educational practices with the influence of the studies of many language teachers. As the title (process) depicts, Breen (1987a: 166) argues that process syllabuses are plans for classroom activities. Breen emphasises a point that the process paradigm is primarily focusing upon how language lessons are carried out in the language classrooms. In addition, Breen maintains that process syllabuses are concerned with the process of communicating, and how the learning of language systems, rules, and conventions are facilitated in the language classrooms using tasks. Furthermore, Breen is of the view that the process syllabuses provide a bridge between the methodology and the learning content. Therefore, to accommodate the above considerations, Breen maintains that process syllabuses are underpinned by three major assumptions. According to Breen, the assumptions are, (i) communication, learning and the purpose of social activity of teaching and learning in the language classrooms, (ii) process syllabuses emphasise the decisions to be made and procedures to be undertaken, lastly (iii) process syllabuses emphasise how learning is taking place in the language classroom contexts.

In light of the above, Breen is of the view that designers of process syllabuses are less concerned with organising the subject matter (learning content) as is the case with the designers following the traditional paradigm to syllabus design who make decisions on behalf of language learners and
teachers. In addition, Breen maintains that process syllabus designers prioritise the provision of a framework through which language teachers and their subsequent learners agree on the formulation, implementation, and evaluation of their own online syllabuses and the subsequent adoption of the syllabuses in the same way. According to Breen, the idea of allowing language learners and their teachers to negotiate the selection, subdivision, and sequencing of the most valuable learning content, makes the process syllabuses a joint venture between the target users (teacher and learners) of the syllabuses.

In this regard, according to Breen, the designers of process syllabuses tend to address the following two questions as their syllabus design principles. The questions include, (i) what does the process syllabuses provide and (ii) what is the relationship between process syllabuses and the content to be learnt? To attend to the above questions, Breen discusses the syllabus designers’ views in relation to both questions respectively. According to Breen, the syllabus designers for the process syllabuses provide the following two statements in relation to question (i) above. First, the designers argue that the process syllabuses provide a plan related to the major decisions that language teachers and L2 learners need to make during classroom learning and teaching. Secondary, according to the syllabus designers, the process syllabus is a bank of classroom activities that are mainly made up of learning tasks. Therefore, to understand well the two provisions, the subsequent sections discuss them respectively.

2.4.5.1. Process syllabus as a plan for major decisions

Breen (1987a: 166) argues that the process syllabus provides a plan relating to the major decisions that language teachers and L2 learners need to make during classroom learning and teaching, such a plan involves questions in relation to the classroom activities for language teaching. Breen maintains that such questions are jointly decided and agreed by both language teachers and learners. Furthermore, Breen maintains that such questions are based on three main aspects of classroom activities. According to Breen, the aspects include participation, procedures and subject matter (learning content). In addition, Breen (1987a: 167) suggests that in relation to the classroom participation aspect, there are other questions which are also addressed, for example, (i) who works with whom? According to Breen, such a question is decided and can be addressed as follows, (i) either a language teacher works with an individual learner, (ii) with all the learners in the language classrooms, or (iii) the teacher attends to a small group of learners. Similarly, Breen maintains that the same question can also be addressed in terms of, learners working individually, in a pair or in a small group. Similarly, Paulston and Britanik (1995: 79-81) emphasise the often cited benefits of group work among learners, such as learners’ use of a range of languages at their disposal.
In addition, Breen (1987a: 167) argues that decisions in relation to the classroom procedures are agreed on the basis of the following questions, (i) which particular activity or task is undertaken? (ii) How is task activity worked upon? (iii) What resources are used during the task activities? (iv) When and for how long is the task undertaken? Lastly, (v) how is the outcome of the task shared and evaluated? Similarly, Breen is of the view that decisions concerning subject matter (learning content) are derived from addressing and agreeing on the following questions, (i) what is the focus of the subject matter and (ii) what are the learning purposes? According to Breen, the above two questions in relation to the subject matter are the usual questions that most syllabus designers in the traditional paradigm tend to address on behalf of the language teachers and their learners.

Breen maintains that by jointly answering such questions by language learners and teachers explicitly gives the two parties the task of prioritising the selection, subdivision, and sequencing of the learning content. According to Breen, such a task is achievable in an on-going and negotiated manner. Breen concludes the discussion on the syllabus as a classroom plan by proposing that the above decisions in relation to participation, procedures, and the learning content are related to each other hence the provision/establishment of the process syllabuses for L2 learners across classrooms. The above conclusive remarks lead us to the second aspect that the process syllabuses provide.

2.4.5.2. Process syllabuses as a bank of activities/tasks

According to Breen (1987a: 167), process syllabus designers are in charge of providing a range of classroom activities/tasks. Breen maintains that such activities are indexed for L2 classroom usage with regard to the TBSs. Breen is of the view that, tasks as learning activities, tasks are arranged in a hierarchical order with sub-tasks that provide alternative means towards the completion of the main task(s). Furthermore, Breen argues that such tasks are either communicative or meta communicative in nature. In support of his statements above, Breen draws a distinction between the two types of tasks (Ellis 2017). According to Breen (1987a: 161), on one side, the communicative tasks are related to the negotiation of meaning among L2 learners through oral (Rahimpour 2010: 1662) or written discourse while giving the target language primary priority, on the other hand, Breen (1987a: 167) maintains the view that meta communicative tasks are the alternatives which are clearly conventional formal tasks. According to Breen, both types of tasks make the process syllabus an extension of the TBSs, therefore such tasks are crucial in L2 classrooms.

Furthermore, Breen (1987a: 167) advances the view that such tasks are not sequenced rather, such tasks are organised/arranged in terms of their objectives, content, suggested the procedures as well as the suggested ways of evaluating the outcomes. As regards evaluation, Breen maintains that tasks
successes and loopholes are identified and related back to the chosen procedures, the purposes, the content and chosen activities. Breen argues that evaluation is crucial in a way that both language teachers and their learners adopt alternatives to their prior decisions in light of the successes or loopholes in order to plan further. In this regard, Breen summarises that:

The process syllabus thereby involves teacher and learners in the cycle of decision-making through which their own preferred ways of working, their own on-going content syllabus, and their choices of appropriate activities and tasks are realized in classrooms. Breen (1987a: 167)

In addition, Breen is of the view that process syllabus designers assume that the question-based plans as well as the bank of activities serve as the initial starting point and frameworks for the language teaching and learning in the classrooms. This is because according to Breen, language teachers and learners are engaged in decision-making processes and in the on-going evaluation of the outcomes from such decisions.

In summarising sections 2.4.5.1 and 2.4.5.2, on pages 84 and 85, respectively, on what the process syllabuses provide respectively, Breen maintains that the process syllabuses can be characterised as follows, in relation to what it provides. According to Breen, the characteristics are in terms of levels. Level one [1] presents the major focus of the process syllabuses (the decisions are made by language teachers and learners in relation to classroom activities). Level two [2] involves two related outcomes from the decisions, such as the agreed working procedures of the class and the on-going contact syllabuses. Level three [3] is the bank of activities, such as alternative tasks, and level four [4] also known as, the level of tasks. It is at level [4], where the classroom work is undertaken. According to Breen, tasks represent the focal point of the decision-making processes. Breen also maintains that all levels and elements are related to each other. In addition, Breen argues that the higher levels entail the other levels below them. In his view, the evaluation (regular) takes place at all levels in a cyclic mode. In this content, Breen maintains that after the fourth level, the process continues/goes back to level [1] where the process starts from. See Figure 2:7, on page 87, for a summarised illustration of the above-discussed levels.
The relationship between the process syllabuses and the learning content

Breen (1987a: 168) argues that process syllabuses do not provide in advance the plan of what it achieves after the teaching and learning processes. According to Breen, the syllabus designers of the process syllabuses assume that language teachers and learners have particular and varying views as to what might constitute the most appropriate learning content. Similarly, Breen is of the view that process syllabuses assume that learners’ views and needs keep on changing as learning progress since learners uncover different aspects of new language. However, Breen maintains the view that learners’ learning problems can be pre-planned in advance but not their language learning content.

In light of the above, Breen (1987a: 168) reveals that the process syllabuses offer the means whereby the selection and organisation of the subject matter become part of the decision-making processes in the classrooms. According to Breen, process syllabus is the framework within which teachers and learners decide on how they should best work on their own subject matters. Therefore, Breen maintains that participation in the process syllabuses leads to the creation of particular syllabus of content in an on-going way. Breen stresses the view that the process syllabus can be
difficult to implement in case the language classroom adopts an externally required syllabus with predetermined objectives.

Breen however, maintains the view that the process syllabus can accommodate such a situation because according to Breen (1987a: 169) the process syllabuses are designed to address two major problems related to the implementation of the external syllabuses. According to Breen, process syllabuses provide solutions on how to relate external syllabuses to the internally generated syllabuses, and how to gradually formulate a syllabus as a synthesis of the above two syllabuses. In this regard, Breen is of the view that a process syllabus is a proposal of the means whereby external and internal syllabuses are negotiated and through such negotiations, according to Breen, the classroom can adopt and deduce the implementation of its own content syllabus. In this context, Breen summaries with the view that the process syllabus is a context within which any syllabus or subject matter is made workable. See Breen (1987a: 169-170), for more justifications and rationales for the adoption of the process syllabuses, specifically TBSs for the teaching and learning of L2 across contexts.

2.4.6. Assumptions and classrooms considerations for process syllabuses

In relation to section 2.4.5.3, on page 87, and with reference to Long and Crookes (1993: 34), Breen (1984: 52) argues that process syllabuses incorporate language negotiation processes, i.e. the incorporation of the learning processes into the syllabuses. According to Breen, negotiation processes provide a change of focus as far as syllabus design is concerned. Breen argues that traditionally the emphasis with regard to syllabus design is on the content of learning. Breen points out that in the alternative decisions to syllabus design, the focus is towards the process of learning a particular language. In support of Breen’s view above, Ellis (2012: 238) extends Lev Vygotsky’s (a Russian psychologist) assumptions that language learning is a process rather than a product, as Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory postulates.

In order to realise the language learning processes, Breen (1987a: 157) argues that, the advocates of the process paradigm advance changes in contemporary views on (i) language knowledge and acquisition, (ii) teaching methodologies, (iii) learners’ contributions and (iv) planning for language teaching and learning. In addition, Breen states that the advocates and syllabus designers of the process paradigm incorporate the above changes in the treatment of syllabus principles. See, for example, section 2.3.3, on page 63, for the list of general syllabus design principles that are significant in syllabus design decisions. In justifying Breen’s view above, Nunan (2004: 11) also advances the view that the integration of the organising principles as an entity in terms of syllabus
design and subsequently in the classroom interactions, is intended to provide room for L2 learners to use the language in its holistic form rather than in its linguistic forms, as the structural syllabuses depict. In relation to the above views, Schleppegrell (2004: 148) puts it that, currently, the language educational practices are constructed along the debates that focus on language (i) form and (ii) meaning. Thus, the subsequent sections discuss the aspects under which process paradigm consider as central in syllabus design decisions and in classroom practices.

2.4.6.1. Holistic activities

In relation to the holistic use of a language, Samuda and Bygate (2008: 7) are of the view that in SLA, holistic use of language involves a range of activities that focus on L2 learners’ knowledge of the language systems of specific language(s). In addition, Samuda and Bygate advance the view that the use of language holistic activities by L2 learners, such activities assist L2 learners to, for example, use language aspects, such as phonology, discourse, and grammar of the target language (see Long 2015a: 307-316 for similar views). According to Samuda and Bygate, the use of such aspects help L2 learner to interpret a range of meanings with regard to the comprehension and production of the target language (cf. Van den Branden et al. 2007a: 1-2).

Furthermore, Samuda and Bygate (2008: 7) draw a distinction between holistic and analytical activities with regard to SLA and pedagogy. According to Samuda and Bygate, the latter involves the teaching, studying and learning about language systems, such as vocabulary, grammar, and phonology by L2 learners. In addition, Samuda and Bygate express the idea that L2 learners use the above systems in isolation and in separate ways. Similarly, Samuda and Bygate are of the view that analytical activities intend to reduce the number of language aspects that L2 learners are exposed to, use and apply in their daily communications.

In this regard, according to Samuda and Bygate, L2 learners end up studying a limited selection of L2 aspects and features that L2 learners might not even use in their daily communication. See section 2.4.2, on page 69, for review of other analytical activities. In relation to the former i.e. holistic activities, Samuda and Bygate are of the view that L2 learners get involved in dealing with a range of language aspects and systems. Similarly, the Samuda and Bygate maintain that the language systems are used in an interconnected way (mode/manner) so as to reflect the normal language use or how L1 occurs across interlocutors. Finally, Samuda and Bygate stress that the use of language in a holistic way plays a significant role in facilitating SLA, pedagogy and language testing across contexts. In light of the above discussion, the subsequent section discusses another component, focus on meaning, which is also considered central in the process syllabuses.
2.4.6.2. Focus on meaning

In relation to the facilitation of SLA and language pedagogy, Thomas (1995: 1-2) observes that the notion of meaning is complex and is defined differently depending on the contexts. In this regard, Thomas draws our understanding to issues in relation to the notion of meaning. Thomas argues that pragmatic is commonly referred to as either (i) meaning in use or, (ii) meaning in context. According to Thomas, such references are too general in a way that they are basically related to the notion of meaning which is also related to meaning in context and use. Thus, as a result, the advocates in the field of pragmatics are broadly divided into two groups. On one hand, the group that equates pragmatics to the speakers’ meaning. Such advocates focus their attention on the social view approach to pragmatics in a sense that their focus is primarily directed to the speaker of the message or information.

On the other hand, there are the advocates that equate pragmatics to the utterance interpretation. This is advocated by those who view pragmatics from the cognitive approach. These advocates focus primarily on the receiver of the message or information. Thomas maintains that in practice, the two broader categories are not explicitly differentiated. Thomas however, emphasises that for the two views in meaning approaches to be understood. There is a need to understand the different levels of meaning. Meaning levels include abstract and contextual (utterance) meanings. In his view, Thomas contends that the abstract precedes contextual meaning. This is done through the assigning of sense to words, phrases or sentences. Thomas argues that the other level of meaning is the one reached by considering the speakers’ intention, in other words, the force of the utterance. See Thomas (1995), for review of in-depth discussion on the levels of meaning.

Furthermore, like Thomas, Ellis (2005a: 211) also draws a distinction between two senses of the meaning as a notion i.e. semantic and pragmatic meaning. Ellis relates semantic meaning to language lexical items or the meaning of specific grammatical structures. In other words, semantic treats language as an object and functions. On the other hand, Ellis refers pragmatic to the contextualised meaning that is based on the specific acts of communication. In this case, L2 is treated as a tool for communication and L2 learners function as communicators. Like Thomas (1995) above, also Ellis (2005a: 211) argues that SLA focuses on both pragmatic and semantic meaning. He argues that pragmatic meaning is emphasised more as crucial in language learning and teaching. Furthermore, Ellis states that TBSs are designed to facilitate the promotion of the pragmatic meaning across L2 learners. Ellis maintains that pragmatic meaning develops true fluency in L2 among learners. In addition, Ellis argues that pragmatic meaning helps also in the activation of linguistic resources of L2 learners that are developed by other means. The activation is
facilitated through the provision of ideal opportunities in meaning exchange (negotiation of meaning), a crucial component in the process syllabuses that is discussed in the following section.

2.4.6.3. **Negotiation of meaning**

While Larsen-Freeman (2000: 146) and Bruton (2005: 57) reaffirm that TBLT is premised within CLT principles, scholars, such as Eggins (2000: 132) and Schleppegrell (2004: 153) maintain that spoken languages provide room for participants (speakers) to actively contribute to the meaning-making processes (see Larsen-Freeman 2000: 144 for similar views). Eggins (2000: 132) argues that such interaction is facilitated through turns that interactors make for a successful interaction. Crookes (1990: 185) defines a turn as a stream(s) of speech bound by another stream of, often, an interlocutor, as demonstrated in Appendix (A-ii), specified as STDs. In this regard, in relation to interactional turns, or what Hasan (1985: 54) refers to as focused interaction, is where participants hold roles of seeker and supplier of, for example, information. Furthermore, while discussing interaction from a functional linguists’ perspective, Eggins (2000: 130) maintains that meaning-making processes are related to talking which represents semantic activities.

For Eggins, turn taking during conversation is a reflection of what functional linguists think is going around the world that they live in i.e. ideational meaning (see further, Willis & Willis 2007). On the other hand, in relation to interpersonal meaning, Eggins is of the view that such meaning is what functional linguists interpret as the way how they use meaning in order to interact with other people. It is through personal meaning that functionalists understand how the language is structured for them to make meaning with others. In other words, according to Eggins, the functionalists view language as a resource for connecting social life which is an attempt to understand how such resources are applied in daily talks. Thus, creating a link between language and contexts which facilitates the construction of social reality with which functionalists live.

In addition, according to VanPatten and Benati (2010: 116), negotiation meaning involves the interaction and conversations in a language. VanPatten and Benati are of the view that negotiation of meaning specifically takes place in a situation that there is a communication breakdown among the interlocutors. VanPatten and Benati argue that during the breakdown, one of the interlocutors triggers the clarification of the intended message from the speaker. Similarly, with reference to Ellis (2012: 238), Swain (2000: 11) points out the view that language meaning dialogues in SLA are helpful in the mediation of the construction as well as in the construction of knowledge about the mediation itself. Furthermore, with reference to Nunan (2004: 79), Hatch (1978) advances the view that L2 learners learn L2s through conversations. According to Hatch conversation in L2 is more
useful than the deployment of the L2 grammatical structures in the L2 learners’ conversations. Hatch concludes that interaction in an L2 leads to the development of grammatical knowledge of the target language amongst L2 learners.

In light of the above, Nunan (2004: 83) observes the views by scholars, such as Ellis (1984) and Long (1985) that negotiation of meaning is a crucial aspect especially the functions of language constructs during acquisition processes. According to Christie (2000: 184), language is the principal tool that language instructors and their learners use to achieve educational objectives and goals. Christie argues that through the use of language, classroom activities are coordinated through negotiating to understand between language learners and their teachers.

According to Christie, the negotiation of understanding or meaning is in terms of exploring sources of communication difficulties, task clarification, as well, as in assessing learners’ progress. Christie contends that language is a principle semiotic system in the classroom that is central to other available semiotic systems. According to Christie, such semiotic system includes graphs, pictures, videos or charts. Christie maintains that language use in the classroom should account for other semiotic systems. In this context, language learners and teachers should use language to explain and interpret other forms of semiosis that L2 learners are learning to use.

Similarly, with reference to Nunan (2004: 79-0), Ellis (1984: 95) is in support of Hatch’s views that interaction in L2 leads to the development of linguistics knowledge across L2 learners. In light of Ellis, and in relation to SLA and language pedagogy, Benati (2013: 53) refers to the notion of interaction to the exchange of information in form of conversations. Benati stresses that such conversations are held between language learners and other interlocutors. To Benati, interlocutors include both native or non-native speakers (NNS) of a specific language, or language teachers and their learners. Furthermore, in exemplifying the role of interaction in SLA, Ellis (1984: 95) argues that through interaction, L2 learners get to crack linguistic codes that are absent in their current linguistic competence in L2. In this regard, according to Ellis, when L2 learners relate the new linguistic code(s) to the discourse, L2 learners can supplement or even modify the linguistic knowledge used in the L2 production, and according to Ellis, the relationship between the new code and the discourse facilitate SLA.

Still, in relation to interaction, Ellis (2005a: 217) relates interaction to the means of automatizing existing linguistics resources as well as the creation of the new linguistics recourses across L2 learners. Similarly, with reference to Ellis (2005a: 218), and in relation to the sociocultural theory of mind, Lantolf (2000) argues that interaction is the form of meditation that provides opportunities
to L2 learners of constructing new linguistic and their subsequent functions as learners negotiate to mean in a range of contexts. Lantolf maintains that, according to the sociocultural theory of the mind, learning takes place first on the social plane and later learning is extended to the psychological plane. The advocates of the sociocultural theory, assume that social interaction is crucial, as well as, a primary source of learning.

Similarly, with reference to Ellis (2005a: 218), Johnson (1995) provides general opportunities for meaning negotiation in the classrooms. The opportunities include, (i) establishment of language use contexts which necessitates L2 learners to use the target language, (ii) provision of activities that motivate language learners to use all language skills, (iii) teacher should facilitate in the language related activities that are beyond learners’ current level of competencies. Lastly, (iv) allowing learners in engagements that provide them opportunities to express learners’ personal meanings. Johnson is of the view that, the above opportunities are advanced when the structure of learning tasks and social participation structures are flexible.

Similarly, with reference to Ellis (2005a: 281), Ellis (1999) argues that interaction is beneficial to L2 learners when learners have control of the discourse topic which is at their disposal. Ellis (1999) maintains that such control is attained through the formation of the small group works among learners themselves. Ellis advises that language teachers should control the generally supported discourse topic by the mean of teacher-initiative-student respond-teacher feedback (TRF) strategy. Similarly, Willis and Willis (2007: 164) advise teachers to sometimes allow learners to choose a specific role(s) in a task in order to generate more interaction during task performance. In this regard, with reference to Ellis (2005a: 281), Ellis (1999) contends that above small groups are problematic especially when there is excessive use of L1 in a monolingual group. As, Bruton (2005: 63) points out that learners’ L1 is central among the monolingual classrooms, Hung (2012: 26-27) observes the appropriate procedures of utilising L1 in the modern language teaching models, such as teachers’ explanations of concepts and complex ideas (cf. Higgins & Ponte 2017: 15), provision of accurate translations of lexical and grammatical input(s) and enough learners’ exposure to input mainly before task performance.

2.4.6.4. Meaning negotiation as a source of language input

With reference to Nunan (2004: 80), Swain (1985) argues that input is necessary but insufficient in the realization of SLA. Swain suggests that in addition to the input, L2 learners also need more opportunities to produce the target language (output). The reason for her suggestions is that, according to Swain, there are different psychological processes involved in the comprehension and
production of knowledge. For instance, Swain is of the view that in the comprehension of L2, an L2 learner might focus on the meaning rather than on the syntax of the utterance, or the other way around. Similarly, she argues that in the production of the same utterance, the L2 learner can syntactically utterance through the grammatical encoding of the utterance.

In developing Swain’s views further, for example, Ellis (2005a: 215) and VanPatten (2017: 48)argue that language learning is a gradual process (cf. Birdsong 2004; Birdsong & Paik 2008). Ellis stresses that even children use between two to three years to fully attain grammatical competence in L1, as a result of massive exposure to L1 input. Equally, according to Ellis, the same experience applies to L2 learners. The more exposure and exchange of meaning L2 learners receive, the faster they learn the L2 (see also VanPatten 2017: 51, for similar views). Ellis (2005a: 216) contends that such exposure can also be obtained not only in L2 classrooms, rather in, for example, outside L2 classrooms contexts. In relation to L2 classrooms, Ellis advises that there is a need for maximally use L2 inside the language classrooms. Ellis maintains that such language maximization is achieved through the use of L2 as the media of communication and instruction depending on the communicative needs of the learners.

Similarly, regarding input in terms of exposure to outside L2 classrooms, Ellis is of the view that staying or exposed to the lengthy stay in the country or contexts where the L2 is spoken increases L2 learners’ language proficiency. In addition, Ellis states that the availability of the amount of reading material as suggested by language teachers increases both proficiency and literacy developments across L2 learners. Ellis suggests that such reading material should be cautiously selected and graded to the level of such learners. According to Ellis, reading material provide input to the learners in two ways. One is a direct way when L2 learner reads the material, and the other indirect way is when the material is read to the L2 learner. Ellis finally stresses the view that input from inside as well as outside the language classroom facilitates SLA.

2.4.6.5. **Output as a product of meaning negotiation**

In relation to the role of output in the negotiation of meaning, with reference to Nunan (2004: 80), Long (1985) suggests that negotiation of meaning, also known as linguistic conversational adjustments is central in the development of comprehensible input. According to Long, such adjustments/ signals provide an indication for non-comprehension, thus, Long is of the view that the signals allow the speaker to re-adjust/formulate the utterance for the utterance to be more compressible across interlocutors. In this case, according to Long, comprehension through adjustments promotes L2 acquisition across L2 learners. Consequently, Long stresses the point that
meaning negotiation is a natural phenomenon that interlocutors rarely notice while doing/performing it. While expounding on Long’s view, Nunan (2004: 80) advances the suggestions of scholars, such as Pica, Holliday, Lewis, Berducci and Newman (1991), that negotiation of meaning is a four-stage process. According to Pica et al. (1991), there are four aspects of a sequence that are crucial in the meaning negotiation. The aspects include, and begin with, (i) trigger, (ii) signal, (iii) response and (iv) follow-up. The four aspects are diagrammatically illustrated in Table 2:3, as follows.

Table 2:3: Example 1 from Martyn (2001) illustrating the four-stage procedure.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Utterances</th>
<th>Stages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>She’s a loner.</td>
<td>Trigger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sorry?</td>
<td>Signal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She stays away from others.</td>
<td>Response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How about the other choices then?</td>
<td>Follow-up</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Modified from Nunan (2004: 81)

Another grammatical illustration of the four aspects in relation to meaning negotiation as a four-stage process is exemplified in Table 2:4 below.

Table 2:4: Example 2 from Martyn (2001) illustrating the four-stage procedure.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Utterances</th>
<th>Stages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I think the ah, drugs problem, ah ah, is related to the triad society.</td>
<td>Trigger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Triad society?</td>
<td>Signal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes.</td>
<td>Response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Triad society. I’m not sure. (pause)...But another thing//</td>
<td>Follow-up</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Modified from Nunan (2004: 81)

In relation to the above sequences of negotiation of meaning, with reference to Nunan (2004: 81), Shehadeh (1991) is in agreement with Ellis, Basturkmen and Loewen (2001) on the view that there are two types of meaning negotiation sequences. According to Shehadeh (1991) and Ellis et al. (2001) on one side, the sequences include simple or one signal, such as the above two grammatical extracts. On the other hand, according to Shehadeh (1991) and Ellis et al. (2001), there are sequences that are the most common. Shehadeh (1991) and Ellis et al. (2001) maintain that such sequences are referred to as, longer and more complex. Furthermore, Shehadeh (1991) and Ellis et al. (2001) are of the view that the longer and more complex sequences may include more than three interlocutors, five signals, and even nine responses. In relation to the above view, see, Nunan (2004: 82) for an extract of an illustration with regard to a longer more complex sequence as advanced by
Martyn (2001: 34). Similarly, for review of task-based interactions in classroom and laboratory settings, see, for example, Gass, Mackey and Ross-Feldman (2011).

2.4.6.6. **Focus on Form(s)**

In relation to meaning negotiations with regard to process syllabuses as discussed above, Long and Crookes (1993: 38) contend that the process syllabuses provide systematic support to L2 learners to direct their attention to focus on specific linguistic forms of the target language. Focus on linguistic form is essential because, according to Nassaji and Fotos (2011: 1), language is expressed in core dimensions through its forms (grammar). Therefore, Nassaji and Fotos (2011: 72) maintain that for learners to successfully acquire an L2, giving some attention to teaching the learners the language forms, rules and systems that underpin the grammar of a given language(s), is necessary. Similarly, Ur (2011: 507) holds the view that in the history of L2 teaching, the teaching of grammar has been an area of interest for language teachers. Nassaji and Fotos (2011: 1), for example, point out that grammar teaching in L2s has empirically and theoretically evolved into three different instructional approaches. The approaches include, (i) exclusive focus on grammar teaching, (ii) approaches that focus on meaningful communication in the target language. Lastly, (iii) the approaches that focus on both the meaning and grammatical forms of a given language. In support of the above views, Nassaji (2016: 39-62) attempts to explore studies on the evolution and manifestations grammar teaching and how such studies have continued to shape the discourse of focus on form as well as form-focused instruction as far as L2 teaching and learning is concerned.

In light of Ur’s views, Qian (2014: 129) and Nassaji (2016: 35) express their concerns that grammar teaching in L2 classrooms has taken a turn. According to Qian (2014: 129), this turn in reflected in the two major proposals regarding grammar teaching. On one hand, some researchers and teachers hold the views that suggest the option of teaching grammar as the only principle in L2 classrooms. On the other hand, according to Qian, there are views, such as ‘zero option’ as advanced by Ellis (2008), among others, that advocate for abandoning grammar teaching so that L2 learners are given chances to incorporate grammar naturally as they communicate in L2s. Based on the above situations, Qian (2014: 130) maintains that in L2 teaching and learning focus on form (FoF)is necessary thus Qian advocates the need to embed linguistic forms into learners’ communicative contexts aimed at facilitating learners’ achievements in effective communication and high levels of language performance (see further Nassaji 2016).

In developing the above views further, Keck and Kim (2014: 1) maintain that the teaching of grammar involves the following aspects. First, the description of language systems and rules;
secondly, the learning process, i.e. how grammar is taught. Lastly, the application and use of grammar in the contexts outside the L2 language classroom. Keck and Kim are of the view that the systematic application of the above three aspects is mainly based on language teachers’ beliefs and views on how grammar is learnt and what constitutes the teaching of grammar. In a similar way, Keck and Kim define pedagogical grammar as a discipline that concerns the effectiveness of two issues. Namely, (i) how language grammar is extended (taught) to learners and, (ii) how language grammar is learnt (processed) by L2 learners. Thus, in order to address the above concerns, with reference to Keck and Kim (2014: 1), Odlin (1994) contends that pedagogical grammar draws from a range of other disciplines, thus viewing pedagogical grammar as a ‘hybrid’ notion or discipline. In light of the above, with reference to Keck and Kim (2014: 1-2), Ortega (2003: 1) also refers pedagogical grammar as a ‘cross-fertilization’ field. That is to say, pedagogical grammar is explored from a range of disciplines within the field of ALs. Ortega states that the main disciplines which include, (i) linguistic description, (ii) second language instruction, lastly, (iii) second language acquisition. Keck and Kim (2014: 1-2) are of the view that Ortega’s (2003) views are more similar to those of Wang’s (2003: 73) list of needs that are required to improve grammar courses for teachers of grammar (see, for example, Keck & Kim 2014: 1-3).

Nevertheless, Keck and Kim (2014: 2) emphasise the point that in practice, the above three disciplines are inadequately incorporated mainly in the L2 grammar books. The main reason, according to Keck and Kim, is due to the “fragmented nature of grammar resources.” Thus, in order to strike a balance between the three aspects above, and in relation to Larsen-Freeman’s (2003) remarks on teachers’ beliefs on grammar teaching and how it can be extended to the learners (see also, Keck & Kim 2014: 4), Keck and Kim (2014: 4) synthesise the views of the above scholars (see, for example, Larsen-Freeman 2003; Ortega 2003; Wang 2003) to propose a framework that provides for language teachers to organise their present and future knowledge of grammar, SLA, and second language instruction and pedagogy. The framework (see, Keck & Kim 2014: 4, for its grammatical illustrations) is grounded to address the following questions that partly consider the examination of SLA:

How and when do L2 learners acquire particular grammar forms and systems? In what ways can instruction facilitate this process? Finally, the teacher must evaluate what they know about grammar and grammar acquisition in light of their own teaching contexts. How might a knowledge of pedagogical grammar help to inform the many decisions that teachers make, whether it be choosing a textbook, designing practice activities, or assessing student progress. (Keck &Kim 2014: 4)

According to Keck and Kim (2014: 3), the framework is flexible, based on empirical principles, it takes into considerations learners’ interests and needs of learning L2. The two scholars maintain
that, for example, teachers can redefine the framework with their own beliefs and experiences based on their instructional and institutional contexts and employ it in varying scales. Nassaji and Fotos (2011: 140) note that language teachers are more of professional decision makers rather than agents who only learn and apply teaching methods. Similarly, Keck and Kim (2014: 2-3) argue that classroom practices can hardly be defined in advance but in a “constant state of flux” that change from a moment to another based on the learning objectives and classroom contexts (see Chapter Five for some techniques for classroom grammar teaching).

Nassaji and Fotos (2011: 11) are, however, concerned that, in the literature concerning language learning and teaching, the concept of focus on form (FonF) is a widely advocated approach to grammar teaching. Nassaji and Fotos argue that the definition and the interpretation of the concept of FonF are inconsistent from one author to another. For example, as Ellis (2005b: 9) maintains that FonF facilitates in SLA, Ellis draws a distinction between three related but different senses of the same term, FonF. According to Ellis, these senses include, psycholinguistic, pedagogical as well as discourse-related sense. On one hand, Ellis argues that pedagogical FonF is related to an acquisition process that attempts to induce L2 learners to direct their attention to a particular linguistic form as learners the main goal is on communication and meaning exchange. Ellis maintains that pedagogical FonF is either incidental or planned.

For Ellis, planned FonF obtains when a specific form is selected for L2 learners to draw their attention to, whereas incidental FonF happens when there is a need for a particular linguistic form for L2 learners to attend to. On the other hand, Ellis views discourse-related focus on the form of the reactive as well as pre-emptive related devices that are used by interlocutors to focus on a given form during a conversation or while message exchange. According to Ellis, such devices, include, implicit and explicit feedback or through inquiries i.e. question about a given form. Furthermore, in relation to psycholinguistic-related perspective, Ellis points out that such a perspective is related to the mental processes that are involved in the selection of a linguistic form as the speaker attempts to communicate. Ellis argues that the psycholinguistic-related perspective is less similar to ‘noticing’, as discussed in Ellis (2005b: 7-9). Similarly, the notions of implicit and explicit feedback will be discussed in the subsequent section.

In support of the above views, Ellis (2005a: 212) states that focus on grammatical forms facilitates SLA. According to Ellis, the focus on form is based on three primary references. These are, (i) general orientation of language as a form to L2 learners, (ii) focus on the form might suggest to L2 learners to attend only to the graphic of phonetic instantiations of linguistic forms, lastly, (iii) the assumptions that refer to awareness of some underlying and abstract rule. In addition, Ellis is of the
view, the above references are incorporated within the pedagogical practices in three ways. These include, (i) through grammar lessons targeted to focus on the input and output processing of specific grammatical features. Ellis argues that such focus arrives at through inductive or deductive approaches. Ellis draws a distinction between the two approaches. According to Ellis, the former enhances the noticing of grammatical forms, while the latter attempts to create an awareness of the grammatical rules. (ii) Through focused tasks, i.e. tasks that necessitate L2 learners to comprehend and produce specific grammatical forms during task performance. Lastly, (iii) through methodological procedures that induce L2 learners’ attention to grammatical forms, such as corrective feedback et cetera. Corrective as a form of feedback will be discussed at length in the next section.

In light of the above, Long (2000: 179) suggests that the role of grammar (also known as, focus on form, or, FoF) or what Doughty (2001: 210) refers to ‘selective attention’, in SLA and language pedagogy, is part of the classroom activities even in the non-linguistic approaches to language learning and teaching. According to Long, grammar or FoF is presented to the L2 learner as a way of supplementing the lesson that focuses on meaning or communication. In justifying his own views, Long (2000: 179-185) argues that the teaching of meaning alone is limited to facilitate L2 learners to attain full-native like competencies in a target language. Therefore, Long proposes that whereas grammar supplements meaning on focused lessons, language teachers are bound to direct/shift learners’ attention to focus on form/grammar only when a communication gap exists (see also, Pica et al. 2009: 173-176), as regards to comprehension or production, during the lesson. In relation to the above views, Long (2000: 185) defines FoF as follows:

[Focus] on form refers to how attentional resources are allocated and involves briefly drawing students’ attention to linguistic elements (words, collocations, grammatical structures…) in context as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning, or communication. (Long 2000: 185)

Similarly, in relation to language forms, VanPatten, Williams and Rott (2004: 1) define a language form as a surface manifestation of the underlying representation of a given language. In other words, according to VanPatten et al. (2004: 1), a form is a surface feature of a language. VanPatten et al. (2004: 1) provide examples of language forms. Such examples include language lexemes, verbal and nominal inflections among others. VanPatten et al. (2004: 2) argue that most languages in the world hardly share similar surface features (forms). However, VanPatten et al. (2004: 2) maintain that even the few languages that share such features, such languages apply the shared features in different and varying degrees and scales.
VanPatten et al. (2004: 4) agree with, for example, other previous scholars on the view that perceive language forms after the meaning of such forms. In this context, VanPatten et al. (2004: 4) argue that there is a need to connect the meaning to their corresponding forms. Like Thomas (1995: 1-2), VanPatten et al. (2004: 2-3) also advance the view that meaning is related to a range of definitions. VanPatten et al (2004: 2-3) argue that meaning takes different perspectives in a range of discourse. According to VanPatten et al. (2004: 2-3), the notion of meaning can be defined in contexts, such as (i) sociolinguistics, (ii) pragmatics, (iii) abstract, or in (iii) concrete references.

VanPatten et al. (2004: 2-3) stress that the above meaning contexts can somehow be linked to their specific or corresponding forms. According to VanPatten et al. (2004: 2-3), such an exercise is done by the use of connectors, i.e. form-meaning connection (FMC) (see also Benati & Nuzzo 2017: 3). VanPatten et al. (2004: 2-3) maintain that FMC is a situation(s) where a language form is assigned or encoded to a referral meaning. These scholars point out that FMC is possibly presented as follows; i.e., for example, (i) one form is encoded to one meaning, (ii) one form is encoded more than one meaning. VanPatten et al. (2004: 2-3) argue that such a situation can happen either in different contexts or in a single context. Lastly, (iii) multiple forms encoding the same meaning. In their final remarks, VanPatten et al. (2004: 2-3) advance the view that FMC is a considerable aspect in L2 learning acquisition.

2.4.6.7. Form-focused instruction

In relation to FoF, Johnstone (2002: 157) observes that form-focused instructional (FFI) research is more motivated by a theoretical than a pedagogical perspective (cf. Johnstone 2001: 145), while Long (2000: 185), on the other hand, draws a distinction between form-focused instruction and focus on form. According to Long, the former is a broad phenomenon used with reference to pedagogical techniques that are used for drawing language forms either implicitly or explicitly, active or proactive. Long is of the view that such techniques include, focus on forms (FoFs) and focus on form (FoF) procedures and activities. For example, according to Long, all exercises that are specifically written to teach linguistic units of the target language are considered as FoFs exercises. On the other hand, Long (2000:185) is of the view that FoF refers to only form-focused activities that arise during the meaning-based instruction and lessons. Long agrees with Willis (2009: 227-228) that FoF activities are not scheduled prior to the lessons as it is with FoFs lessons. Willis maintains that FoF has specific times especially when they such forms are more valuable and can easily be remembered by the learners.
Similarly, in relation to FFI, Doughty (2001: 210) is of the view that such type of instruction is related to pedagogical efforts that language teachers use to draw learners’ attention to language structures (forms) of the target language. According to Doughty, the efforts to draw learners’ attentions are done by use of explicit or implicit techniques. Doughty argues that such techniques may involve the direct teaching of linguistic forms and rules of the target language, or through the employment of corrective feedback (CF) techniques, i.e. reactions to learners’ errors of the target language. In summary, Pica (Pica 2007) contends that time is important in directing the teaching of L2 forms in the classroom. This is because as a factor, time is addressed in three stages. Firstly, it all involves around time on the decisions on re-directing classroom communication from content to a form-focused activity. Secondarily, it is upon a time to select an appropriate form in light with learners’ level of development to notice. Lastly, decisions to implement form-focused activities for retention purposes overtime also involve around time. It is on this basis that Pica’s study (2007) underpins the relevance of time in instructed second language teaching. With that, the subsequent paragraphs are set to discuss feedback as a technique in FoF regarding SLA and language pedagogy.

Gass (2002: 170) argues that in L2 teaching and learning, there are two types of evidence in relation to feedback as a technique. That is to say, positive as well as negative evidence. According to Gass, positive evidence (PE) is related to the language that L2 learners read or hear in a given linguistic disposal or environments. Similarly, Gass argues that the negative evidence (NE) is complex and more complicated than the positive evidence. According to Gass the NE is complex because it relates to incorrect information that L2 learners produce. Gass maintains that such incorrect information is subject to corrections in order to serve the intended purposes in the target language (see also, Keck & Kim 2014: 9). However, elsewhere, as Gass (2010: 217-218) agrees that NE is related to incorrect information in language production, but NE is not necessarily concerned with what to consider in correcting the incorrect information. In this regard, Gass (2002: 171) suggests the overt correction as a form of NE. According to Gass (2010: 218), overt correction plays double roles in SLA. Gass argues that the first role is that of indication of the incorrect information in a language production. The second role is the provision of information on what is incorrect in given language production. However, Gass (2002: 171) is of the view that overt correction is complex, for instance, when it occurs in the syntax of the L2. Similarly, Gass argues that overt correction may be challenging in its applications especially in classroom situations.

On the other hand, while sharing his experience about the conventional techniques and steps applied in the preparation of L2 grammar lessons to non-native speakers (NNS) of Kiswahili language (cf.
Richards & Rodgers 1982), Haji (2003: 157) contends that as far as the teaching of additional language(s) is concerned, the notion of CF necessitates the language teacher to have technical skills for the notion to serve its purposes on the language learner(s). Haji maintains that CF needs to be extended to learners as soon as possible because correcting the same error (s) to the same learner(s) in later stages of his/her language development processes, is both challenging and complex.

According to Haji, it is challenging because some language learners have errors in preconceived knowledge of a, for example, given word(s) or a sentence of the target language. Haji stresses that the major source of learner’s preconceived knowledge of L2, are written materials, especially, materials that are written by non-specialists of the attested L2(s). See section 3.4.4.2, on page 136, for similar views. In this regard, Haji advises language teachers to correct the existing errors before extending new language knowledge to the same language learner(s). On this basis, Haji is partly attempting to address the concerns posed by Robert and Griffiths (2009: 291), on the modalities of correcting learners’ errors. While Robert and Griffiths agree on theoretical assumptions underpinning error corrections, Robert and Griffiths are concerned on situational issues in relation to error correction including learners’ age differences and the techniques for correcting young or adult learners, either one-on-one or in a group of learners, such as in the classroom.

In light of the above, Haji (2003: 158-159) cautions language teachers that some L2 learners do not want to be corrected as a result of the preconceived knowledge as discussed above. According to Haji, the major reason for the learners not to be corrected is learners’ assumptions that they are ‘right’ and that they ‘know’ the language to the extent that they do not make errors. Similarly, Haji argues that in case the same learners make mistakes, such learners do not want to be recognised by others that they have made errors. In this instance, therefore, Haji advances the view that for the language teacher to rationalise the above situation, there is a need for the language teacher to prepare enough examples of the similarly mistaken word(s) or sentences so that learners can have varieties to add to their corrected preconceived knowledge where learner can reliably make choices from. According to Robert and Griffiths (2009: 292), a classroom teacher is left in a dilemma amidst the above situation. Thus, Robert and Griffiths suggest to the language teachers that there is a need to research on the relationship between error correction and the excellent promotion of language learning and among learners.

Similarly, VanPatten and Benati (2010: 84) hold the view that in language learning and teaching, feedback is regarded as a “response that learners receive regarding the language that learners produce.” According to VanPatten and Benati, such responses also include comments, which are either in explicit or implicit forms. In addition, VanPatten and Benati, also, refer feedback to
negative evidence. In order to understand the notion of negative feedback, it is important to first discuss its antonym, i.e. positive evidence (PE). On one hand, VanPatten and Benati (2010: 127) define PE as a way of informing language learners on how language conventions of a particular language function. VanPatten and Benati relate PE to the input that both L1 and L2 learners engage within a range of communicative contexts (see also, Keck & Kim 2014: 9). In addition, VanPatten and Benati maintain that such input is extended to learners by, for example, (i) native speakers (NS), (ii) Non-Native speakers (NNS) or through, (iii) primary linguistic data, i.e. written sources in L2. However, VanPatten and Benati stress the view that the last option (written source) may only work for learners with reading competence (skills) in L2.

Building on VanPatten and Benati view regarding the written sources, on the other hand, VanPatten and Benati (2010: 114) relate negative evidence (NE) to the kind of feedback that indicates to the language learners that learners’ utterances or verbal constructs are somehow ill-formed. VanPatten and Benati draw a distinction between two forms of NE. Such forms include, (i) direct and (ii) indirect negative feedbacks. According to VanPatten and Benati (2010: 115), the former (direct) mainly involves verbal conversations or interactions in which one of the interlocutors (specifically teachers) implicitly informs the language learners that there is something incorrect with learners’ constructs (productions). See, for example, Spada, Ranta and Lightbown (1996: 38), for summarised details related to the role of a teacher who is native speakers and non-native speakers in the application of direct negative feedback to their learners.

According to VanPatten and Benati (2010: 155), the direct way to enforce such form of feedback is through, (i) recasts. Recasting involves restating what has been said by another interlocutor(s). (ii) Communication checks. Communication checks from the call for verification of what has been heard, lastly, (ii) clarification request, which involves, requesting or asking for what has been said already. (see further, VanPatten & Benati 2011: 115, for the summary of the examples that illustrates NE). In other words, according to VanPatten and Benati, NE facilitates the continuous flow of information exchange among the interlocutors as the main focus is on the meaning exchange. On the other hand, according to VanPatten and Benati (2010: 114), the indirect negative feedback involves explicitly informing language learners that their output is incorrect. According to VanPatten and Benati, this form of feedback generally takes place in language classroom contexts and situations.

In addition to VanPatten and Benati views on feedback, Nassaji and Fotos (2011: 71) also define corrective feedback (CF) as any utterance that pushes L2 learners to notice that their production or output of L2 is erroneous in one form or another. According to Nassaji and Fotos, CF is relevant in
the facilitation of learning both L1 and L2. Nassaji and Fotos argue that CF is also known as negative evidence (NE), according to them, NE is the information that learners receive about certain impossibilities of the L2 that they are learning. Nassaji and Fotos argue that information to do with NE is extended to the learners in a range of ways. Such ways include the explanations of grammatical features or rules of the target language.

Like NE in SLA and language pedagogy, Nassaji and Fotos are of the view that in L2 learning, there is also positive evidence (PE). According to Nassaji and Fotos, PE is related to the information that assures L2 learners on what is possible in the language they are learning. Nassaji and Fotos are of the view that information in relation to PE is extended to the learners by exposing learners to the correct models of the target language during the input processes. Finally, Nassaji and Fotos (2011: 72) hold the view that both NE and PE are crucial in the facilitation of L2 acquisition across language learners. (see, for example, Qian 2013, for similar views regarding self-assessment by learners and formative assessment by teachers to the learners).

In relation to the above discussed assumptions and aspects that are considered central in process syllabuses, Breen (1987a: 160) also emphasises the point that syllabus designers in the process paradigm are primarily concerned, specifically with why and how language is learnt rather than the language knowledge and its conventions as advanced mainly by the propositionalists. In developing further Breen’s views above, Perrett (2000: 88) argues that for effective pedagogical approaches to language teaching, there is a need to understand how learners learn as well as how the target language functions, structured and used. Therefore, in order to understand the process syllabus, the subsequent section discusses how L2 learner’s needs and interests are accommodated in the L2 syllabuses and in the L2 classrooms in order to justify the views that the process syllabus is learner-centred and so on.

2.4.7. Needs analysis for process syllabuses

Nunan (1988: 43) points out the view that the relevance of Needs Analysis (NA) in language teaching and learning is traced from the 1970s. According to Nunan, before the breakthrough of NA in language teaching and learning programmes, the application of NA has continuously been influential in other adult learning courses rather than in languages. Nunan maintains that the role of the Council of Europe in the establishment and strengthening of ‘modern languages’ is one of the contributing factors for the influence of NA in SLA and language pedagogy. In addition, Nunan argues that amongst the leading advocates of NA in language teaching and learning are the studies

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and contributions of Richterich and Chancerel around the 1970s under the auspices of the Council of Europe.

In this regard, Nunan (1988: 45) defines NA as a combination of procedures that are intended to determine the scope of a given course of study (cf. Richards 1985: 4-5; Ssebbunga-Masembe 2003: 154). In justifying his submission, Nunan provides a list of procedures that are crucial in determining the appropriateness of the language course(s). According to Nunan, the procedures include but are not limited to, identification, selection, and sequencing of the learning content. Nunan also points out the issue of grouping the L2 learners, the length and duration of the course in light with the selection of an appropriate methodology. Nunan (1988: 42-43) however points out that for an effective NA exercise, the following questions require addressing. According to Nunan, the questions include, (i) what kind of data is needed for collection? (ii) Why is such data collected? (iii) Who oversees data collection? (iv) What tools are used for data collection, and (iv) the purpose/intention of the collected data?

In addition to the above questions, Nunan (1988: 43) maintains the view that there are mainly two ways of collecting NA information/data. Nunan argues that NA data can be collected before the commencement of the language programme, or during the course of the study. According to Nunan, the former way is characterised by learners’ information, such as the L2 proficiency level of the learner, the education background, and learner’s age among other factors. Spada et al. (1996: 33) agree with Nunan (1988: 43) on the view that such data is suitably obtained by the language teachers or counsellors using interviews between learners and data collectors. Nunan (1988: 43) advises that in case L2 learners have low proficiency level in the target language, the use of learner’s L1 be used throughout the interview to collect valid and reliable information from the language learners.

On the other hand, with regard to data collection during the course of study, Nunan (1988: 42) is of the view that such information is collected for logistical purposes. Nunan maintains that such information may include L2 learners learning styles and preferences, learners’ general needs for taking a given language course, the information also covers the teaching methodology needed by learners. In support of Nunan’s views on logistical purposes, Skehan and Foster (1997: 186) are of the view that L2 teachers collect such information to organise classroom conditions that are favourable to L2 learners and teachers so that both learners and teachers can optimise both the speed and effectiveness with which learning takes place.
Similarly, Nunan (1988: 44) draws a distinction between objective and subjective needs. According to Nunan, objective needs are derived from the analysis of the target communicative situations in which L2 learners are to use the language. Nunan is of the view that the result of collecting objective information is the realization and specification of learning content. Nunan suggests that during the objective needs collection procedures, the input of L2 learners is unnecessary. On the other hand, Nunan states that subjective needs are typically designed for L2 learners’ input because according to Nunan, the end result of collecting subjective needs’ information is that of addressing learners’ learning preferences. Nunan, however, advises that the two types of needs should not be related to content (objective needs) or methodology (subjective needs) separately, but should be reflected as synonymous notions. Similarly, in relation to curriculum design procedures, Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006: 21) contend that both types of needs i.e. objective and subjective needs, need to consider and appropriately balanced to produce a comprehensive curriculum (syllabus). On one hand, Van Avermaet and Gysen (2009: 146) relate subjective needs as those that are based on learners’ own statements and on the other hand, the two scholars refer objective needs to the analysis of learners’ personal characteristics as seen by others e.g. language teachers.

In addressing some of his questions posed above, according to Nunan (1988: 45), the NA procedures are primarily carried out by language teachers in consultations with their specific language learners. Nunan also argues that in the pre-course planning, other than language teachers and learners, depending on the availability of resources, Nunan is of the view that a number of other participants constitute the NA survey. Nunan provides examples of such personnel which, include, curriculum planners, advisors, counsellors and bilingual assistants. Nunan is of the view that such participants are set to collect different information at a given point of time even, as the language course advances.

On the other hand, Nunan (1988: 45) expresses concerns on L2 learners as regards to learners’ language learning experience. Nunan maintains the view that learners with limited or no language learning experience, can only provide NA information, specifically, the subjective information not before the course starts, but rather at a later stage once the language course is progressing. In light of the above, Nunan (1988: 46) emphasises the idea of exposure amongst such language learners. Nunan advises language teachers to provide and facilitate a range of learning approaches to such learners so that learners can be exposed to a sufficient language learning experience. Furthermore, Nunan contends that language teachers should monitor the progress of such learners, learners’ changing needs and preferences because according to Nunan learning facilitates learners’ opportunities in terms of growth and developments.
Finally, Nunan suggests that such learners should also be exposed to a range of new instructional materials, language learning methods and approaches more often. Nunan emphasises the point that such exposure should be monitored by teachers, and Nunan is of the view that learners should not be forced to engage in a learning experience without their prior knowledge and acceptance.

Similarly, Brown (2009: 269) defines needs analysis (NA) as a systematic collection and analysis of all information for defining a defensible language curriculum. According to Brown, needs analysis is also referred to as a needs assessment. In relation to defensible curriculum, Brown is of the view that a defensible curriculum satisfies language learning and teaching. According to Brown, curriculum satisfaction is the requirements of language instructors and learners within the context of a particular institution. As with regard to the collection of needs analysis information, Brown (2009: 271) suggests that both subjective and objective information is necessary. Furthermore, Brown is of the view that any other information that may be appropriate to carry out an NA is also necessary to achieve the NA goals.

In addition, Brown (2009: 273) proposes that theoretically, NA is conducted at the international level, national, state or provincial, county or school districts, multi-programmed, programs or at the classroom levels. Brown, however, points out that the most commonly done NAs are at the local levels, especially for specific purposes, or what, with reference to Brown (2009: 273), Purpura, Graziano-King, Chang et al. (2003: 9) relate to situation specific. In relation to a specific situation or general pedagogical purposes, Brown (2009: 271) agrees with Long (2005a: 20) on the view that NAs publications are limited, thus, dissemination of NAs findings are scarce. Furthermore, Long argues that the number of NA research is increasing with no or limited references to foreign language teaching. Long maintains that much of the NA studies and research in relation to SLA remain unpublished.

According to Long (2005a: 21), the above situation is primarily motivated by the fact that most NAs are done based on the NA model that the Council of Europe applied in the 1970s. According to Long, the model intended to produce the unit credit systems for describing language proficiencies for immigrants and emigrant workers across European countries. Furthermore, Long advances the view that such a model is based on intuitional factors, with characteristics such, as being non-language specific, focusing on the semantics of a given language as well as its application mainly on structural syllabuses, and most importantly, according to Long, the model is used by linguists rather than domain experts, such as language teachers. Therefore, Long (2005a: 19) is of the view that such linguists have limited experience in research methods as well as little knowledge about the concerned fields, targeting L2 learners as their sole and primary source of information. Thus, Long
(2005b: 2) suggests that there is a need for the existing language teachers and applied linguists to understand historical developments of NA as a notion in SLA and language pedagogy. Long is of the view that there are limited opportunities to reinvent the wheel if NA data collectors are aware of the up-to-date sources and methods that are used for NA data collection and analysis.

Similarly, on the issue of L2 learners as sole and, the primary source of data for NAs, Long (2005a: 20) maintains his position that the validity and reliability of the outcome from such information are insufficient. Long argues that learners as respondents for their future and current learning needs are a sensitive and complex phenomenon, much as learners themselves are well informed and need to be consulted for their own needs. According to Long, L2 learners are capable of providing useful information, for example, their learning styles and preference. However, Long suggests that such information is more of an input for means analysis rather than for the needs analysis survey. In justifying his claims, Long argues that most L2 learners (such as pre-experienced or pre-service learners) know little about the kind of language they need to successfully function in a range of discourses in their target language(s). Thus, in such circumstances, Long (2005a: 27) argues that the needs of such learners can easily be drawn from the following relevant sources: (i) graduates of a particular language programme, (ii) subject area specialists, (iii) written sources, (iv) language employers, and (vi) experienced language teachers.

2.4.8. Task as a unit of analysis for a needs analysis survey

In light with the above views, and in relation to the contemporary approaches to foreign and L2 teaching and learning, Long (2005a: 22) advances the view that NA is conducted by using a unit of analysis that is compatible with the specifications of the language syllabuses, strategies, instructional materials, as well as, assessment procedures. Similarly, in order to adopt, for example, contemporary (holistic) syllabuses, such as process (Breen 1984), task (Long 1985), procedural (Prabhu 1987), task-lexical (Willis & Willis 1988) and lastly, task-structural (Ellis 1993) for L2 teaching and learning, Long (2015b: 3) advances the views that there is a need to use task as the units of analysis for desirable NA goals.

According to Long (2005a: 22), task-based needs analysis provides coherence in terms of course design compared to the analysis of learners’ needs in terms of linguistic units of the attested language. Long maintains that task-based needs analysis is an alternative approach to needs analysis surveys. In support of his position, Long argues that most ready-made jobs descriptions, such as in the military, government sectors, education, psychology et cetera, such descriptions are produced by domain experts, with appropriate background knowledge, average performance standards, and
tasks. Therefore, according to Long, the results of NA from such sectors are more liable and valid compared to those carried by linguists who are neither domain experts.

Furthermore, Long stresses that the results of task-based needs analysis can provide input in designing a range of analytic, task-based or even content based L2 courses. This is because according to Long, TBLT is learner-centred and is based on a psychological perspective learners’ internal developmental syllabus, which are crucial factors in language learning and teaching. See, Long (2005a: 22-48), for more advantages of the task as a unit of analysis for L2 syllabus design, as well as discussions with case studies for sources and methods for NAs. In conclusion, on the NA with regard to SLA and language pedagogy, with specific examples of tasks as a unit of analysis, Ellis and Shintani (2014:140) argue that an NA survey is more effective for designing specific language programmes than general language courses. In support of the above views as advanced by Ellis and Shintani view, for example, there is an increasing number of unpublished postgraduate studies as well as published articles, specifically, on African languages that are a result of NA surveys in a range of specific language programs. The studies include, for example, (i) doctor-patient communication in Xhosa (Smitsdorff 2008), (ii) Task-based design for lecturer-student communication in teaching Xhosa as a second language (Mntuyedwa 2009), (iii) instruction in Xhosa for multimedia curriculum (Steenkamp 2009), (iii) police communication in isiXhosa (Du Plessis 2011), (iv) campus communication in isiXhosa (Geldenhuys 2011), lastly, (vi) using cognitive complexity analysis for the grading and sequencing of isiXhosa tasks in the curriculum design of a communication course for education students (Steenkamp & Visser 2011). Finally, in his concluding remarks on his article, Van den Branden (2015: 318) recommends the need for more research on TBLT specifically in different learning contexts, different learners, and teachers, languages programs, and continents.

On the other hand, Candlin (2009: 23) and Van Avermaet and Gysen (2009: 144) are in agreement on the view that learners in general language programmes postulate divergent needs in relation to target languages. Candlin and Van Avermaet and Gysen maintain that such needs challenge designers’ decisions in considering the appropriate choice(s) of learning tasks. In addition, to the above challenge, while Fortez (1997: 17-19) suggests that TBLT approaches are designed to effectively address pedagogical challenges, such as limited opportunities to used L2 especially in big-sided classes, Zhang and Hung (2013: 698) and McDonough (2015: 231) report that the management of big-sized TBLT-oriented classes is also a challenge.

However, in relation to Candlin (2009: 23) and Van Avermaet and Gysen (2009: 144) views above, Johnson (1982: 42) suggests that there a need to apply the common core concept which assumes the
In relation to Johnson’s suggestions, Ellis and Shintani (2014: 140) advise L2 syllabus designers to consider the guiding principles of familiarity, intrinsic interests, and relevance of tasks to L2 learners. Furthermore, Nunan (1991: 23) argues that the above guiding principles/criterion provide what Nunan refers to general language abilities to learners. Nunan is of the view that general language abilities are achieved by randomly choosing tasks that resemble the real-world tasks. Similarly, Van Avermaet (2009: 152) is of the view that the random choice of real-world tasks can be also obtained through observation, getting information from field expatriates, consultations and so on.

In support of NA surveys in SLA and language pedagogy, Ellis (2005a: 218) suggests two crucial aspects that language teachers are required to consider. These include, (i) teaching activities (instructional procedures) that match to L2 learners’ specific learning aptitudes, and (ii) motivation to the L2 learner is essential. Ellis agrees and stresses that fulfilling the above two aspects is still challenging. According to Ellis the challenges that teachers face are mainly in the selection of appropriate strategies, determining learners learning styles, as well as in language testing. Ellis (2005a: 219) however, advises the teachers to adopt a flexible teaching approach with a range of teaching and learning activities that motivate learners’ learning styles. Ellis maintains that such approaches and strategies increase language disposal to learners in a range of ways that contribute to their motivation for learning the languages. Ellis emphasises that such activities are driven towards both experimental and analytical approaches to learning that demonstrate the uniqueness of such related approaches. In this context, Ellis argues that for task-based approaches, learner-training is essential. Ellis states that most school-based learners are accustomed to analytical learning approaches as discussed in sections 2.4.1 and 2.4.2, on pages 66 and 69, respectively.

In his conclusive remarks, Ellis stresses the idea of clarity and simple instruction. Ellis suggests that language teachers are required to apply the simplest explanations while extending the topic, ideas or instructional materials to their learners. Ellis maintains that such strategies pose an advantage in facilitating L2 learners’ intrinsic motivation towards learning L2. For a review of other characteristics and principles of instructed language teaching, see, for example, Ellis (2005a, 2005c, 2014). However, the subsequent section offers a rationale for adopting TBSs other than grammatical syllabuses.

2.4.9. The rationale for adopting task-based syllabus designs and decisions

For centuries, TBSs are continuing to be adopted in a range of L2 learning institutions because of other syllabuses to unsystematically facilitate L2 learners to optimally acquire L2(s) in different
contexts. As section 2.4.2.1, on page 72 through to section 2.4.2.4, on page 78, discussed the principles of syllabus considerations for traditional syllabuses, simultaneously, the same sections pointed out the limitations that such principles face in addressing syllabus design decisions, which reflect in their failures in pedagogical practices with regarding SLA and language teaching. Therefore, this section is a review of general considerations for the adaptation of TBSs other than re-examining the rejections of traditional syllabuses in the teaching and learning of L2.

Candlin (2009: 21) holds the view that other than in the facilitation of classrooms communication and SLA, TBLT principles provide a means for developing classroom syllabuses. Accordingly, Van den Branden (2006:3), the curriculum and syllabus designers for TBLT approaches formulate the operational language learning outcomes with more emphasis on the purpose for which language learners are learning the L2 than on the grammatical rules the learners need to acquire L2. Thus, in similar contexts, according to Van den Branden, Bygate and Norris (2009: 1), from the 1980s, researchers around the world, including, educationalists, language teachers, language testers, teacher trainers, curriculum developers as well as SLA researchers are increasingly interested in the field of TBLT (see East [2014: 262], on similar views). Van den Branden et al. are of the view that such an increase signifies the importance of TBLT framework in relation to the various functions it serves to the above categories of specialists.

Van den Branden et al. maintain the view that task as a notion serves the following as a point of departure to, (i) schools, task provide framework under which schools organise pedagogical practices in L2 classrooms (ii) SLA researchers who are interested in carrying out and construction of research primarily on learners’ performances in instructed SLA classrooms. (iii) Evaluators who document learners progress in pedagogical practices. Lastly, (iv) curriculum developers, syllabus designers and language teachers in the contractions and conceptualisation of the curriculum in general as well as language teaching syllabuses for L2s across contexts. In this context, Van den Branden et al. are of the view that TBLT framework stimulates L2 development to learners of all types. To attain the stimulation, Carless (2012: 352) argues that “teachers…need a variety of opportunities to learn about and engage with communicative and task-based teaching”.

Breen (1987a: 167) is of the view that process paradigm, TBSs in the particular project the general natural view of what language learning can achieve. According to Breen TBSs prioritise communicative competence compared to grammatical syllabuses that emphasise on linguistic competence. In this context, Breen (1987a: 167) agrees with Fortez (1997: 30) on the view that TBSs facilitate L2 learners’ in developing their own appropriateness, accuracy and in expressing meaningful negotiations in both written and spoken discourse. The above facilitation is possible
because according to Breen (1987a:167) and Fortez (1997: 29-30), learning tasks are designed with underlying relevancy and learners’ competencies in their daily or real-world communication of the target language. Considering the above, Breen argues that TBSs encourage learners to use competencies in their L1 as the foundation on which the target language knowledge and capabilities are accommodated as learners perform tasks in L2 (cf. Cook 2008: 233). In this context, Breen argues that learners’ participation in task performance is a catalyst for learning L2 whereby learners use the target language to learn that same language.

In regard to methodological issues, Breen maintains that TBSs is the representation of an attempt to merge between traditionally what is referred to as content ‘what’ and the process ‘how’ on which the content is extended to the L2 learners. In this context, Breen is of the view that TBSs through the use of tasks in the classrooms, learners’ problem-based as well as analytical knowledge and abilities are focused and addressed. In this way, learners are able to learn individually by locating their learning difficulties through the completion of a given task (s). Similarly, Breen stresses that learners can also make a reflection of their own learning experiences with an aim of considering alternative solutions to complete a task.

Breen is furthermore of the view that TBSs are both processes as well as end-focused syllabuses. This is because according to Breen, TBSs exploit learners’

[Current] competence and learning difficulties as dual means towards the development of competence in a new language. It also provides tasks which derive from relevant everyday communicative activities and events which may be undertaken by the user for the target language…TBS assumes that learning is necessarily both a metacommunicative and a communicative undertaken. It is based on the belief that learners can be analytical in their exploration of communication in the target language and of the knowledge and ability use it entails. (Breen 1987a: 164)

In summarising the above discussions, Ellis (2003b: 209) suggests that the adaptation of the TBSs is based on other factors for the following reasons. According to Ellis, from the theoretical perspective, TBSs is compatible with the psycholinguistics processes that are responsible for the acquisition of L2s. Similarly, Ellis maintains that TBSs facilitate in providing L2 learners in syllabus design as well as classroom participation during task performances. Finally, Ellis stresses that TBSs are designed to cater for learners language learning interests and needs as discussed in the preceding section. It is on this basis that the current study adopts the TBSs as a framework on which Kiswahili teaching syllabus for Ugandan secondary schools will be demonstrated, see Chapter Four.
2.5. Summary

The main purpose of this chapter has been to explore key perspectives on the field of applied linguistics in general with respect to the theoretical and empirical research and its interfaces with other fields such as sociology, linguistics, psychology and education, associated to ‘instructed’ second language acquisition in particular.

In general, the various perspectives discussed have addressed issues related to second language acquisition, curriculum studies and development and syllabus design, as central areas of investigations in the subfield of L2 teaching and learning. Specifically, the chapter has discussed areas in the scope of educational linguists concerning the design, implementation and management of educational policies for the teaching and learning of L1s and L2s in schools, as a result of changing educational needs in countries and across regions.

The chapter has explored the emerged various definitions and distinctions on differently interpreted notions in applied linguistics with the aim of explicating the existing ambiguities that exist among them and examining how they are applied in different educational contexts with the purpose of contextualising the theoretical underpinnings in the application of designing a syllabus for L2 teaching and principles which are employed in this study.

In regard to syllabus design, the major focus of the current study, the chapter has shown that contemporarily, task-based syllabuses and their pedagogical underpinnings are widely accepted with their use gradually increasing with regard to the L2 teaching of African languages. Thus, the chapter has adopted task-based theories and approaches for investing the design of a task-based Kiswahili syllabus for teaching Kiswahili as an L2 in the secondary schools of Uganda.
CHAPTER THREE
ISSUES IN TASK-BASED SYLLABUS DESIGN, COGNITIVE COMPLEXITY AND COGNITION HYPOTHESIS

Cognitive complexity [...] has to do with how costly, demanding, or difficult a given language feature is for a given language learner in a given learning context, particularly in terms of mental resources allocated and cognitive mechanisms deployed in the processing and internalizing the feature. – Housen and Simoens (2016: 166)

3.1. Introduction

In the last part of Chapter Two (i.e. section 2.4.9, on page 110), I provided justifications for the adaptation of the process paradigm, i.e. TBSs, over the traditional paradigm in relation to syllabus design decisions. Thus, this chapter builds further on the above views. For example, as section 3.2, on page 114, gives a theoretical connection between Task-based research and task-based syllabus design decisions, specifically, section 3.3, on page 117, reviews relevant principles that are employed in designing TBSs. In conjunction with section 3.3 above, section 3.4, on page 121, generally explores theoretical views on task as construct and a resource in research and L2 pedagogies. Relatedly, the chapter provides overviews on perspectives and frameworks that contemporary inform in the selection (see section 3.6, on page 155), grading (see section 3.7, on page 158) and sequencing (see section 3.8, on page 164) of learning tasks, respectively. Lastly, in section 3.9, on page 185, the chapter offers an elaborated review on the cognition hypothesis (CH), specifically, the Triadic Componential Framework (TCF), as advanced by Robinson (2001a, 2001b, 2005, 2007a, 2009, 2010, 2011 & 2015). This is because, while this study takes cognisance of available frameworks above and their specific purposes, the chapter primarily adopts the TCF and its cognitive complexity features as determinants of the procedures for grading and sequencing of Kiswahili learning tasks as will be demonstrated in Chapter Four.

3.2. Theoretical perspectives on task-based research and syllabus design

Scholars, such as Kumaravadivelu (2007: 7), Kim (2009: 254), Rahimpour (2010: 1662-1663) and Wang &Skehan (2014: 155), are of the view that there is an increasing interest in task-based approaches to language instruction as well as language performance (see, for example, Ellis
2009b:212, on similar views). According to Ellis (2014: 144), the possible justifications for the above view in relation to task-based language teaching is because TBLT nurtures real communicative abilities in L2 learners if the educational goals are for learners to achieve such abilities. For example, Van den Branden et al. (2009: 2) agree with Ellis (2014: 144) on the view that the purpose of teaching L2s is to provide learners with opportunities to use L2 purposely in their communication agendas. In order to fulfil learners’ agendas, according to Van den Branden et al. (2009: 4), TBSs provide social interactions in the classroom that depict what learners engage in while outside the classroom.

On one hand, Zhang (2007: 68-70), Steenkamp and Visser (2011: 11), Ur (2011: 508) and Ellis (2013: 141-142), hold the view that task-based approaches to language teaching and learning are internationally recognised approaches that facilitate in SLA and language pedagogies. Building on the above view, L2 researchers (including, Prabhu 1987, J. Willis 1996, Long & Doughty 2009; Butler 2011), from the sub-fields of ALs, as well as, L2 instruction and pedagogy, widely use the task-based approach and its related issues, in informing their scientifically evidenced decisions mainly in relation to, (i) the modification and developments of language theories and models, (ii) language programmes and syllabus designs, as well as in the advancements of pedagogical practices. This underscores the importance and relevance of task-based approaches to SLA and pedagogy.

In order to justify the above views, available studies with regard to different components of TBLT theories, reveal that TBLT approaches are increasingly carried out from a range of learning grades/levels and institutions, for example, in the pre-primary (Pinter 2007), primary (Zhang 2007), secondary (Van Gorp & Bogaert 2006, Tavakoli & Foster 2011), technical and vocational schools (Bogaert, Van Gorp, Bultynck, Lanssesns & Depauw 2006; Van den Branden, Van Gorp & Verhelst 2007b) as well as, in other tertiary institutions (Ogilvie & Dunn 2010; cf. East [2014: 261]). The increase in researching task-based approaches and its related principles reveal that task-based aspects are significantly influential in SLA and language pedagogy in a range of learning contexts.

In addition, with reference to Richards (2006: 29), Littlewood (2004: 350) agrees with Dim (2013: 123) on the views TBLT as a renovation within CLT. For instance, according to Littlewood (2004: 350), CLT is a development in language teaching and learning that dates back to the 1970s. Similarly, according to Skehan (2014: 1), CLT is a representation of a drastic change in goals and methodological strategies in language teaching and learning. Skehan is of the view that the origin of CLT dates back between the 1970s and 1980s. For Skehan, CLT is an alternative to structured—
domination of learning goals and methods of teaching the language. Skehan maintains that CLT presses emphasis on language use and its meaning (see further, Willis & Willis 2007: 178), for instance, in textbooks, instructional methods, assessment criterion and general goals of language teaching as well as teacher development. In addition to Skehan’s observations, Samuda (2009: 380-381) emphasises that features of CLT, such as learning task(s), need to be incorporated into teacher training programs as well as in the development of language instructional materials.

While Byomantara and Mace (1997: 91) point out the view that CLT is enjoyable and effective for both L2 learners and their teachers, Benati (2013: 18-19) maintains that CLT is an alternative/shift from the traditional approaches of language teaching and learning. Benati stresses the view that CLT is premised on the assumptions which intend to develop L2 learners in linguistic as well as communicative competencies of the target language (L2). Similarly, in relation to the above views, Breen (2001: 153) maintains that TBSs evolved from SLA research mainly from Steven Krashen’s views in the 1980s. According to Breen, Krashen maintains that L2 is best learned when L2 learners are provided with sufficient input that leads L2 learners to focus upon on the meanings of the input provided. According to Breen, such views by Krashen are still influential and significant in searching for the processes on how L2 learners interact to negotiate meaning in the target language(s).

In relation to Breen’s (2001: 153) view above, Larsen-Freeman (2011: 159) argues that TBSs also referred to as meaning-based syllabuses, emphasise the need for meaningful communication across L2 classrooms. According to Larsen-Freeman, meaning-based syllabuses, and their related issues focus upon and encourage L2 learners to communicate in order to be able to negotiate meaning in the target language from both within and outside L2 classrooms. In other words, Larsen-Freeman views the application and use of TBSs to communicate as both the means and process as well as the product or desired outcome in SLA. Similarly, Robinson (2001a: 291) and Rahimpour (2010: 1662) refer TBSs as performance-based syllabuses that engage L2 learners in accumulative performances of various tasks in order to realize development in learners’ target language.

On the similar note, Breen (2001: 153) proposes that the way the learning process (means) is done and what L2 learners are learning (content) can never be separated as it is with traditional approaches to L2 teaching and learning. In this case, Breen (2001: 153) agrees with Schleppegregell (2004: 148) on the view that other than focusing on the meaning of the target language, TBSs also focus on the linguistic forms of the target language(s). According to Breen, the relationship between the two language components i.e. meaning and form, are significantly influential in the teaching and
learning of a language in the classroom. According to Breen, the combination of the meaning and form leads to the facilitation of the acquisition processes of the target language.

In addition, Breen (2001: 153) is of the view that for the integration of both the language content and the language learning processes to systematically occur, there is a need to adopt task as a major constituent and significant unit in the organisation of L2 syllabuses as well as in the classroom implementation of such syllabuses. Thus, in agreement with Breen’s views above on task, Breen et al. (1979), Prabhu (1984), Long (1985), Candlin and Murphy (1987) and with reference to Breen (2001: 153), Long and Crookes (1992) stress the view that TBSs use tasks as organisational units/components. Hence the advent of TBSs as mentioned above. Therefore, for an in-depth understanding of TBSs, the subsequent section discusses the organisational principles with regard to TBSs.

3.3. Principles of syllabus design with regard to task-based syllabuses

Section 2.3.3, on page 63, noted that there are basically four organisational principles for syllabus design. However, according to Breen (1987b: 83, 2001: 152), with developments in language teaching and learning approaches, materials, strategies and theories mainly in SLA research and pedagogical practices, the four basic principles of syllabus design, are interpreted differently depending on the syllabus designers’ specific field and background knowledge on language, which contrasts with Robinson’s (2009: 294) observations on the rationale for syllabus designers. According to Robinson, the overall rationale for syllabus designers is to consider syllabus decisions, such as how language is acquired, internalised, accessed and performed. In this regard, however, process syllabuses in general and TBS designers in particular also vary in the treatment of the four attested principles, see, for example, Samuda and Bygate (2008: 192-205). For instance, Long (1985: 89) proposes four stages which are less similar to Breen’s general principles of syllabus design as listed in section 2.3.3, on page 63.

According to Long, the four stages include (i) identification of learners’ needs, (ii) definition of learning content, (iii) organisation of language learning opportunities, and lastly, (iv) measuring of learners’ acquisition. Similarly, Nunan (1991: 13, 1994: 58) agrees with Long and Crookes (1993: 40) on the view that TBS designers take into account and considers other aspects, such as the identification of L2 learners’ needs, as the first step in syllabus design, and also the considerations of assessment decisions, such as criterion-referenced tests for L2 learners (Long & Crookes 1993: 41).
In stressing Robinson’s (2009: 294) observations above, Breen (1987a: 160) points out the view that TBSs organise the learning content and goals in terms of the process through which L2 learners actively engage in communicative activities of performing language tasks. According to Breen, L2 learners develop language competencies by learning how to learn, as well as, learning how to communicate using the target language. In support of Breen’s views, Larsen-Freeman (2011: 160) argues that the main goal of TBLT approaches is to complete a goal (task) or solve a problem(s) through interaction in a language, in this context, the target language. Thus, Larsen-Freeman is of the view that through language interaction in the target language, there are sufficient processes in learning the target language. Similarly, Breen (1987a: 161) suggests that TBSs designers consider the learning process as a crucial aspect of appropriate content during L2 learning. Breen argues that such considerations are different from the traditional conventions and assumptions of isolating learning content from the learning processes, teaching methods and techniques (methodology). Thus, based on the above, the subsequent sections discuss the organisational principles regarding TBS design decisions.

According to Breen (1987a: 161), such principles are posted in form of questions. Breen maintains that ideally, there are four primary questions that TBS designers advance in order to address both challenges as well as opportunities regarding TBS design decisions. The questions include, (i) what knowledge does the TBS focus upon? (ii) What capabilities does the TBS focus upon? (iii) On what basis does the TBS select and divide? Lastly, (iv) how is the TBS content sequenced? In addition to the above questions, Breen maintains that TBS designers provide a rationale for the adoption of the TBSs. Thus, the subsequent sub-sections discuss in detail the above questions in their respective order.

Nevertheless, it should be recalled that section 2.4.7, on page 104, notes and considers the identification of learners’ needs as a crucial aspect in syllabus design decisions, specifically in the process paradigm. Therefore, before attempting to address Breen’s (1987b: 161) questions above in relation to principles of syllabus design in TBSs, there is a need to address the needs analysis issues as the first step in TBS design decisions as will be discussed below.

3.3.1. Needs analysis in task-based syllabus design

TBLT largely supports the philosophy of learning by doing. In TBLT, learning by doing has its genesis from the needs analysis (NA) survey. In this survey, L2 learners provide what Long (2015a: 223) refers to raw information/input from which selection of syllabus tasks is made after grouping together information with common features which constitute real-world task types or target task
types (TTTs). According to Long (2015a: 223-224), due to time constraints to consider all learners needs in the syllabus, the TTTs are categorised further to specifically suit L2 learners’ general interests, hence composing learning tasks/pedagogical tasks (PTs) based on complexity (as will be discussed in section 3.8.3.1, on page 171). Thereafter, the sequencing of PTs is considered to constitute TBSs, a result of rational processes (cf. section 3.8, on page 164).

In light of the above, Van den Branden et al. (2009: 6) and Willis and Willis (2007: 179-182) stress the view that within the framework of TBLT, needs analysis presumes the varying degrees of learners’ needs and interests in language learning intended for different purposes and situations. Similarly, Candlin (2009: 23) holds the view that in the language learning classrooms, learners differ in a range of ways. According to Candlin such differences impose considerable demands on task design and subsequent implementation of tasks in the classrooms. Candlin lists some of the differences including,

[Their] intelligence and language learning ability; their interests, needs wants and lacks; their strategies in communicating and interpreting what others say and write; their styles and modes of learning and the rate at which they learn; their desire to participate in the management of their own learning; their need for monitoring and supervision; in their socio-cultural background and educational histories; in their attitudes to the language in question and their motivation for learning it. (2009: 23)

Accordingly, in light of the learners’ differences above, Candlin adds on teacher’s differences in practical experiences that are likely to inhibit language learning as well as imposing demands on task designs and so forth. That in mind, according to Long (2005a: 23, 2015: 11), needs analysis (NA) is the initial step as far as decisions with regard TBSs are concerned. NA is the process of identifying L2 learners’ needs and reasons for learning a given L2. According to scholars, the NA survey collects and collates as many as possible real-world (target) tasks that learners are ought to/or use in their daily communication agenda mainly outside the language classrooms. In this context, the real-world task also known as communication goals are equated to what in section 2.4.7, on page 104, refers to objective needs, or what Long (2005a: 20) relates to arranging of discourse in the target language. That in mind, Long (2005a: 22) advises syllabus designers to use of task as a unit of analysis in determining learners target language needs (see also, Lambert 2010:100). Similarly, as far as TBSs are concerned, with reference to Ellis (2000: 194), Pica (1997) points out that task is considered crucial as an organisational unit in pedagogical practices as well as in the SLA processes.

Robinson (2010: 245) asserts that in designing TBSs for L2 learning, analysis of real-world needs is considered first for learners to perform while in the classroom for use on existing language
instruction programme. For Robinson (2010: 245) tasks are analysed from simple to gradually approximate complex real-world or target needs (demands). For instance, Robinson (2010: 243, 2015:87) agrees with Malicka (2014: 71) on the view that in different courses of learning institutions, such as musical or mathematical institutes, what is considered as simple theories (tasks) are extended to novice learners, then same learners are given more (increasingly) complex tasks in manageable ways with time. In order to address the above views, Robinson (2010: 245) maintains that there is a need to specify and cluster (taxonomy) characteristics of such pedagogical tasks. A taxonomy should select tasks that, (i) are most effective in promoting learning and performance based on theoretical views of SLA, such as motivation, (ii) have utility of a coherent demands between classroom tasks and real-world tasks, and (iii) operationally visible which involves its applicability and adaptability in any institutional settings, material development and so forth. In brief, Robinson (2010: 245) states that a taxonomy of learning task requires satisfying what he refers to as “…three-way mapping constraint of task characteristics to learning processes, target task analyses and operational consistency” for its optional use for task use and syllabus design purposes. This taxonomy (Triadic Componential Framework [TCF]) is discussed at length in section 3.9.2, on page 193.

Therefore, in order to understand task as a notion, section 3.4, on page 121, I defined and discussed task at length. Thus, the subsequent sections address the Breen’s (1987b: 161) questions that were raised in section 3.3, on page 117. In other words, the subsequent section is a continuation of an attempt to address the guiding principles as far as TBS designs decisions are concerned.

3.3.2. Knowledge of language that task-based syllabuses focus upon

In relation to the kind of knowledge that TBSs provide, Breen argues that L2 learners need to know how meaning is coded in both written and spoken discourses. Breen maintains that such knowledge helps L2 learners to share and exchange meaning in a range of social contexts. Therefore, according to Breen, TBS designers address the question (i) in section 3.3, on page 117, by focusing on the knowledge of linguistic forms and their related functions. According to Breen, such focus partly and at the surface, value constitutes what L2 learners are to learn.

Similarly, Breen stresses that TBS designers consider the language systems in the preceding paragraph as a merge which leads to the development of communicative knowledge of the L2 learners. Breen maintains that communicative knowledge is the ability to know the language rules and conventions that govern the language codes, behaviours as well as meaning. The above rules and language conventions motivate what Breen refers to the systematic relationship between three
types of knowledge that constitute communicative knowledge. Breen lists the knowledge types as, (i) textual knowledge (ii) interpersonal knowledge and (iii) ideational knowledge, as discusses below.

Breen relates textual knowledge to the linguistic inventories of the L2 learners. According to Breen, the use of the target language grammatical forms necessitates the L2 learners to make choices from their own linguistic inventories. In addition, Breen states that L2 learners use their choices and relate such choices to the socially acceptable norms, requirements and expectations that govern communicative behaviours. Breen refers to such expectations and requirements as interpersonal knowledge. Furthermore, Breen suggests that L2 learners use both the interpersonal as well as their textual knowledge to express ideas and meaning the L2 learners wish to share with others. Breen refers to the above knowledge of idea sharing as ideational knowledge. Finally, Breen contends that communicative knowledge is the integration of all the three knowledge types above. According to Breen, the attainment of communicative knowledge by L2 learners is the primary focus of TBS designers.

Other than focusing on the communicative knowledge as discussed above, Breen (1987a: 161) advances the view that TBSs also focus upon L2 learners’ own experiences on language awareness, specifically, language learning. Breen contends that knowledge about language learning, in terms of ‘what’ language learning involves, and ‘how’ language learning is carried out, are important aspects that TBSs focus upon. In this context, Breen argues that knowledge about language learning is a prerequisite for facilitating the development of the target language.

According to Breen once the ‘what’ and the ‘how’ language learning aspects are all integrated and addressed during task planning times, such aspects, form a primary characteristic of the TBSs. Breen argues that it is through tasks that TBSs plan what is to be achieved. Such tasks according to Breen include communication tasks as well as learning tasks. Before Breen elaborates and draws a distinction between learning and communicative tasks. It is paramount to define and understand the language task as a notion. After discussing the language task, the subsequent sections will continue attempting to address the Breen’s (1987a: 161) questions above.

3.4. Defining language task as a notion

Oxford (2006: 79), Pinter (2007: 313) and Hung (2012: 23-24) hold the view that defining the concept of the task in TBLT has varied among TBLT scholars. Similarly, with reference to Ellis (2000: 194), Bygate, Skehan and Swain (2000) are in agreement with other scholars including,
Kumaravadivelu (2007: 8), Ellis (2009: 227) and Ogilvie & Dunn (2010: 162), on the view that defining language task as a notion is still a challenging phenomenon (Richards 2013: 17). It is complex, for example, according to Willis (1996: 23), in defining a task, some authors define the task as a notion in relation to various pedagogical practices, such as role plays, practice activities et cetera (cf. Rose & Martin 2012: 6). In addition, Willis argues that because tasks are derived from a single topic, Willis maintains that such a topic provides a range of tasks which results in the divergent definitions of what a task is. Similar to Willis’s view, Van den Branden et al. (2009: 8), stress the view that tasks are applied differently for different purposes and situations, which in one way or another may affect its common definition. In addition, Van den Branden (2006: 3) is of the view that in the formulation and scope, task definition varies from various literature to the extent that some literature relates task to almost all pedagogical activities in the L2 classrooms. On one hand, Van den Branden (2006: 3) maintains that most of the task definitions reflect the questions he posed in section 2.3, on page 39. Van den Branden, however, stresses that only a limited number of definitions are relevant in reflecting the first question he posed in section 2.3, on page 39.

On the contrary, Bruton (1993: 17) argues that with a possible range of definitions regarding language tasks, tasks may nevertheless provide credibility in the facilitation of SLA and pedagogical learning activities. In this context, Bruton advises that a well-defined task needs to have a psychological basis. According to Bruton, only psychologically defined tasks as learning activities would be plausible at the pre-planning processes for language learning programmes. In this regard, therefore, the following paragraphs provide suggestions and proposals for the advents of the above views regarding the unlimited number of task definitions. The proposed and suggested definitions are set to provide background in order to identify a promising working definition a task as advanced above by Bruton.

In stressing Bygate, Skehan and Swain’s (2000) point on task definitions above, Samuda and Bygate (2008: 64) are of the view that task definitions differ based on the perspectives of the specific person postulating task definition and the purpose for which the same definition is being made. In exemplifying the above views, Samuda and Bygate (2008:63) analyse a list of widely cited definitions with regard to the task. The attested task definitions are advanced by scholars, such as Candlin (1987: 10), Long (1985: 89), Prabhu (1987: 24) and Skehan (1998: 95). According to the analysis and discussions of task definitions as advanced by the above scholars, Samuda and Bygate maintain that such task definitions are characterised by both divergent and convergent points of references. See, for example, Nunan (2004: 2-4), for similar views.
While explaining the sources of task definition discrepancies, Bygate et al. (2000) suggest that such inconsistencies are based on the role a task plays in a range of sub-fields. For example, Bygate et al. (2000) maintain that sub-fields expatriate that use task mainly ALs researchers and L2 teachers and instructors, apply tasks differently. According to Bygate et al. (2000), a researcher uses a task as a variable to realise a range of research findings in relation to SLA, on the other hand, Bygate et al. (2000) suggest that a language teacher uses the same task as an organisational unit of classroom activities and practices. Thus, the different uses of tasks are reliable to task divergent definitions.

Similarly, Pica et al. (1993: 16-17, 2009: 176-177) and Berben, Van den Branden and Van Gorp (2007: 33) assert the view that the differences in task definitions are a result of theoretical issues as regard to SLA processes and pedagogies. According to the Berben et al. (2007: 33), the theoretical issues include, for example, (i) TBS designers’ intentions on the task and the actual implementation/performance of the task in the L2 classrooms. (ii) Teachers’ different interpretations and the outcomes/goals of the same task. Lastly, (iii) differences in L2 learners’ interpretations of the task from those of their instructors and teachers. See Skehan (2015: 138-139) and Van den Branden (2015: 307) for similar views on learners’ factors. Similarly, see the views by Pica et al. (1993, 2009) on task expectations versus tasks in action in Chapter Four. Furthermore, in addition to the above list, Breen (2009: 334) and Lai and Lin (2015: 33) add the contexts under which tasks are performed and learners’ own perceptions and assumptions about their contribution towards the output of a given task(s). In this context, therefore, Berben et al. (2007: 56) propose the view that a task should be perceived as a flexible notion that can have a range of guises and interpretations rather than as a fixed notion. For example, Samuda (2015: 273) asserts that pedagogical and research tasks are used differently and that the demands that such task demand from learners is different. In support of the above proposals, Table 3:1 below, illustrates task guises as advanced by Berben et al. (2007: 56).
Table 3:1: Shows a summary of different task guises

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task guise</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intended task</td>
<td>What a person intends the task to be and to produce + What a person perceives to be other person’s task intentions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expected task</td>
<td>What a person expects the task to be and to produce + What a person believes to be other persons’ task expectations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performed task</td>
<td>What a person does during task performance + What person believes other persons are doing during task performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessed task</td>
<td>How a person assesses the task process and outcome + What a person believes others’ task assessments to be like</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Modified from Berben et al. (2007: 56)

Furthermore, in relation to the above proposals, a number of scholars provide task definitions with regard to the above task descriptions and guises as will be discussed below.

Prabhu (1987: 24) regards a task as a classroom activity that leads L2 learners to arrive at an outcome by using given information that requires L2 learners to go through thinking processes. According to Prabhu, in order for learners to arrive at an outcome, Prabhu maintains that language teachers provide assistance to make learners understand the task ahead of them. In addition, Prabhu asserts that language teachers guide the learners on how to carry out/perform the attested task. Furthermore, Prabhu maintains that in task-based classrooms, L2 learners are given parallel tasks which are either simpler or easily accessible to the learners. According to Prabhu, the parallel task is either performed by a class teacher or other learners with more abilities compared to others in relation to task performance. By observing the performance of the parallel task, Prabhu suggests that other learners learn how to also perform the attested task with limited guidance from their language teachers. In his view, Prabhu maintains that a language teacher is in control and a regulator of such pedagogical practices in the classrooms, as illustrated later in Figure 3:1, on page 127.

Similarly, the above-discussed task parallel is less similar to other pre-task planning activities. For instance, Ellis (2005b: 4) draws a distinction between two types of pre-task planning, i.e. strategic as well as rehearsal planning. According to Ellis, in the rehearsal planning, L2 learners are provided with opportunities to perform a task before the performance of the main task. In other words, according to Ellis, the performance of the main task is more of repeating of the first task. On the other hand, strategic planning involves allowing L2 learners to perform a task by using the learning
content that is planned to use in terms of encoding and how to express it during task performance. In such contexts, Ellis (2005b: 4-5) argues that in the pre-task planning L2 learners are provided with real/actual materials unlike other pre-task activities, such as brainstorming as well as dictionary search and forth.

Developing on Prabhu’s (1987: 24) definition of the task, Willis (1996: 23) relates a language task to a number of activities that L2 learners perform. In order to perform such activities, Willis argues that L2 learners use L2 as a purposeful communicative (goal) with the aim of achieving an outcome. Furthermore, Willis states that there are varieties of learning tasks. Willis is of the view that in order for L2 learners to achieve the communication goal(s), Willis maintains that language teachers need to select tasks from topics that are characterised by features, such as (i) motivational to their learners, (ii) tasks that engage learners’ attention, (iii) tasks that provide an average challenge based on learners’ abilities at cognitive and linguistic levels. Central to these all, (iv) are tasks that promote learners’ language development efficiently. Finally, Willis (1996: 24) contends that all learning tasks are bound to have achievable objectives within a given timeframe. In order to complete a task, Willis advises L2 learners to focus on conveying and understand the meaning so that learners can achieve their communicative goals. In additional to Prabhu’s (1987) and Willis’s (1996) definitions of tasks, Ellis provides a more detailed definition of a task as discussed below.

Ellis (2003b) defines language task as,

[A work] plan that requires learners to process language pragmatically in order to achieve an outcome that can be evaluated in terms whether the correct or appropriate propositional content has been conveyed. To this end, it requires them to give primary attention to the meaning and to make use of their own linguistic resources, although the design of the task may predispose them to choose particular forms. A task is intended to result in language use that bears a resemblance, direct or indirect, to the way language is used in the real world. Like other language activities, a task can engage productive or receptive, and oral or written skills, and also various cognitive processes. (2003b: 16)

In light of the above task definitions, Kumaravadivelu (2007: 8) is in agreement with Samuda and Bygate (2008: 65) that Ellis’ definition is a general representation of the convergence point of view in relation to the other task definitions. According to Kumaravadivelu (2007: 8), Ellis’ definition addresses a number of issues that are crucial to syllabus designers, language teachers, L2 learners as well as SLA processes. In support of Kumaravadivelu view, Nunan (2004: 1) also suggests that tasks are influential notions in relation to syllabus design decisions, classroom teaching and in the assessment of L2 learners. Nunan adds that language tasks inform the research agendas, educational policies reforms, and developments across contexts.
Basing on the above, Nunan (2004: 1) draws a distinction between pedagogical and target (real-world) tasks before he defines a language task. According to Nunan, on one hand, real-world or target tasks imply the use of a language in a range of situations outside the language classrooms. On the other hand, Nunan relates pedagogical tasks to activities that take place in the language classrooms. In light of that distinction, Nunan (2004: 4) defines a language (pedagogical/classroom) task as a piece of work that necessitates L2 learners to use their grammatical knowledge in order to comprehend, manipulate, produce as well negotiate meaning while using a target language. According to Nunan, in a task, the meaning is focused rather than the manipulation of linguistic forms of the target language. Nunan argues that in a task, L2 learners use grammatical knowledge in order to express meaning. According to him, both meaning and form are interconnected and that in language learning and teaching, grammar exists with an intention of facilitating language user to communicate and express a range of meanings. Nunan finally suggests that the main crucial aspect of a task is its sense of completeness and the ability to stand as a communicative act.

As regards to the above task definitions and distinctions, mainly Ellis’s (2003b: 16) definition, Samuda and Bygate (2008: 69-70) are of the view that in order to understand a task as a notion, there is a need to redefine Ellis’s definition because according to Samuda and Bygate, Ellis’s (2003b: 16) definition is derived from the widely cited task definitions as observed above. According to Samuda and Bygate (2008: 65), Ellis’s (2003b: 16) definition is a general representation of the convergence points of views for such definitions. Samuda and Bygate (2008: 65) observe that some aspects as regards to the task, such as task being a ‘jointly constructed social milieu’ are explicitly left underrepresented in such definitions. Thus, Samuda and Bygate propose to redefine Ellis’s (2003b: 16) definition to allow for an updated definition which Samuda and Bygate (2008: 65) refer to as the task working definition.

From Ellis’s (2003b: 16) task definition, Samuda and Bygate (2008: 69) derive the following five features as regards to a task. The features include; (i) a task is a holistic pedagogical activity, (ii) a task involves language use, (iii) a task has a pragmatic, non-linguistic outcome, (iv) a task is used in such a way as to create some challenges aimed at language development, lastly, (v) a task is aimed at promoting language learning through process or product or both. According to Samuda and Bygate, such features are summarised in a sentence as follows, “…the task is a holistic activity which engages language use in order to achieve some non-linguistic outcome while meeting a linguistic challenge, with the overall aim of promoting language learning, through the process of product or both.” Samuda and Bygate (2008: 69).
In relation to the task working definition, as Bruton (2002: 285) and Samuda and Bygate (2008: 70) are of the view that in order to distinguish a language task from other classroom activities and practices, Samuda and Bygate advice that there is a need to research on task that goes beyond the above task features and definition(s). According to Samuda and Bygate, future research directions ought to consider aspects and relationships, such as (i) the characteristics of a task and language, (ii) the implementation of task and language, (iii) L2 learners, tasks and language, (iv) the characteristics of the task, task implementation, L2 learners and learning. Lastly, (v) task and social settings, as partially illustrated in Figure 3:1, on page 127.

Figure 3:1: Key factors that relate task to second language learning

Similarly, Breen notes that TBSs plan what to be achieved through tasks. Like Nunan (2001: 1) above, Breen (1987a: 161) points out that there are basically two major types of tasks. According to Breen, such task types include communication and learning tasks. Breen maintains that the former, which Nunan (2004: 1) refers to target language tasks, are tasks that involve L2 learners’ actual expressions, exchange, and sharing of meaning. According to Breen, the exchange of meaning is done either in oral or written mode of communication. Breen (1987a: 161) stresses that during the meaning exchange, the use of L2 is purposely given a priority.

On the other hand, Breen relates Nunan’s (2004: 4) pedagogical tasks to learning tasks. According to Breen (1987a: 161), learning tasks focus upon exploring the relationships of L2 knowledge systems. Breen is of the view that such focus is primarily on how such language systems are manipulated and learnt. In this regard, Breen is of the view that there is a distinction that exists between communication and metacommunicative tasks. Furthermore, Breen suggests that the two
task types are set in the TBSs as two parallel but mutually supportive notions. Breen maintains that such tasks make TBS into two syllabuses. According to Breen, on one side of the syllabus there is a syllabus of communication tasks, and the other side of the syllabus, there is learning-for-communication tasks. Breen contends that the later syllabus or tasks provide room for learners to participate in the communication tasks.

Breen advances the view that the distinction between communication and learning tasks remain in the syllabus designing processes. Breen argues that during task performance, the distinction is minimal since both tasks act as input and resources to each other. In exemplifying this view, Breen argues that communication task may uncover something new that can be used to prepare a task in order to use that new something. Similarly, Breen stresses that learning tasks prepare and facilitate L2 learners in the use of communicative tasks.

Finally, Breen maintains that TBSs focus upon communicative knowledge as a unified component of text knowledge, interpersonal behaviour, and ideation knowledge. TBSs provide a plan that provides mutual support for both communication and learning tasks simultaneously. Lastly, TBSs also focus on learners’ experience and awareness of working in a new language. That in mind, the subsequent section is the continuation of the attempts to address questions that were posed in section 3.3, on page 117, in relation to the organisational principles of TBSs.

3.4.1. The capabilities that task-based syllabuses focus upon

Breen (1987a: 162) argues that TBSs focus upon on dual notions. These notions are communicative knowledge and the development of the same communicative knowledge. In other words, Breen is of the view that TBSs emphasise on the communication and learning to communicate in the target language. Breen maintains that TBSs focuses upon in developing L2 learners’ abilities of accuracy, socially appropriate code and in the sharing of meaningful information and message across contexts. Breen, however, stresses that in order to achieve the above abilities, L2 learners are obliged to simultaneously use the target language in the pedagogical practices. According to Breen, L2 is the means to facilitate L2 development i.e. speaking and the ability to exchange ideas in the L2 (cf. Mori & Markee 2009: 3).

In comparison with other syllabuses, such as functional or structural syllabuses, Breen maintains that TBSs focus upon the underlying abilities that are manifested in the four language skills that are the major focus of other syllabuses. In his view, Breen relates underlying abilities in terms of (i) the ability to interpret meaning from the range of sources mainly in written or oral texts and (ii) the
ability to express meaning, for example, in writing or speech discourse. Breen argues that both forms of abilities are crucial and rely on the ability to meaning negotiation. Furthermore, Breen draws a distinction between covertly and overtly ability to exchange and negotiation of meaning.

According to Breen, abilities to overtly negotiate meaning involves the interpersonal exchange of information, whereas covertly negotiate meaning is primarily at the personal level. Breen however, believes that both overtly and covertly meaning negotiation is crucial as far as task design, as well as future communication needs of learners, are concerned. In addition, Breen argues that TBSs focus on the assumptions that task emphasis on the abilities that underlay communication itself. Thus, the notions of interpreting an expression on how communication works in the target language and the process of negotiating about such things i.e. communicating in order to learn are taken to be important elements in TBSs. In this regard, Breen is of the view that L2 participation in communicating in L2 and communicating to learn are comparatively valuable especially when learners find difficulties as they discover a new language.

### 3.4.2. Holistic language use

In light of the above, Samuda and Bygate (2008: 7) also maintain that the assumptions behind L2 teaching, among others, is that of developing learners’ abilities to use the L2/target language. According to Samuda and Bygate, the abilities are developed purposely to involve and engage L2 learners into a personal and interpersonal exchange of information, such as in social, political discourse as well as for aesthetic pleasure. Samuda and Bygate argue that the above purposes are attained through the holistic use of the language. Also, see section 2.4.6, on page 88, for holistic language use considerations. Samuda and Bygate (2008: 7) maintain that the holistic use of the language is averagely presented by task, as exemplified in Figure 3:2, on page 130, for tasks’ holistic functions and uses. According to Samuda and Bygate, holistic use of language is crucial in the learning, teaching as well as, in the testing of the target language.
In demonstrating the holistic use of the target language diagrammatically, Samuda and Bygate (2008: 7) argue that language categories, meaning, wording and grammaticisation as shown in Figure 3:2 above, are areas where L2 learners are required to make a choice. According to Samuda and Bygate, the above categories indicate that in order to achieve the purpose, L2 learners are bound to make a choice and sequence relevant words, grammar and meaning and subsequent realisation of the pronunciation. Samuda and Bygate state that engagement with tasks, L2 learners are motivated to work and integrate with different aspects of the language for a range of purposes.

Samuda and Bygate (2008: 9) argue that in order for a task to serve the intended learning purposes to both language instructors and L2 learners, there is need to balance the “…focus on aspects of the target language in ways that enhance learning, without losing the overall holistic quality of normal language use.” In this regard, Samuda and Bygate pose the following questions, (i) what goals can different tasks serve for different students? (ii) How can tasks be exploited by teachers and learners to meet those goals? (iii) What are the strengths and weakness of different tasks, and of different ways of using them? Lastly, (iv) what could learners and teachers usefully know about tasks that the tasks are made to serve learners’ and teachers’ ends? The above questions can generally be related to what scholars refer to as task elements as will be discussed below. Similarly, other related notions similar to the same questions will be discussed later in section 3.5, on page 141.

### 3.4.3. Task elements

In relation to task elements, with reference to Nunan (2004: 40), Shavelson and Stern (1981: 478) relate and address the above questions as posed by Samuda and Bygate (2008: 9), in form of the elements that are crucial in task formation and performance. According to Nunan (2004: 40), the early proposals for task elements are advanced by scholars, such as Shavelson and Stern (1981),
Candlin (1987) and Wright (1987), as cited in Nunan (2004: 40). For example, below are the scholars’ proposals in relation to task elements.

Shavelson and Stern (1981: 478) suggest that the task should have the following six elements, (i) content; this is the subject matter to be taught to L2 learners. (ii) Materials; these are items that learners observe/manipulate in the lesson. (iii) Activities; things/actions that language learners and teachers do in the language lesson(s). (iv) Goals; these are language teachers’ general aims for tasks. Goals can be much more general and vague than objectives. (v) Students; their learning abilities, needs, and interests are crucial. Lastly (vi) social community; the language class of L2 learners as a whole and its sense of groupness. Building on Shavelson and Stern’s suggestions on task elements, Candlin (1987) also proposes the following task elements.

Candlin argues that task elements should be seven. These include input, roles, settings, actions, monitoring, outcome, and feedback. In explaining his proposal on task elements, Candlin defines input as data that is presented to L2 learners to work on and facilitate their learning. In relation to roles, Candlin maintains that such roles stipulate the relationship across task participants, especially during task performance. According to Candlin, settings are premises or contexts from where task performance takes places. Candlin stresses that such contexts can either be in the language classrooms or in an out of class arrangements. In additions, Candlin relates actions to the sub-tasks and procedures that L2 learners are to perform.

Likewise, Candlin (1987) relates the elements of monitoring to the supervision of progressing task during the performance. According to Van Avermaet, Colpin, Van Gorp, Bogaert and Van den Branden (2006: 175-176), monitoring of tasks involves mainly three stages; at the task planning time, during task performance and at the post-task assessment stages. In all the above stages, language teacher is central as a way of motivating and giving support to the learners to successfully complete a given task (see, for example, Willis and Willis 2007: 189, for the roles of teachers in TBLT). Finally, Candlin (1987) relates outcomes to task attained goals, he also refers feedback to the evaluation of the task. Contrary to the above task elements as observed in the preceding paragraphs is the proposal on task elements as advanced by Wright (1987).

According to Wright, a task should have a minimum of only two elements. These include, (i) the input data, and (ii) an initiating question. Wright stresses that input data is provided by language learning materials, language teachers or by L2 learners themselves. Similarly, Wright holds the view that the second element i.e. the initiating question, guides L2 learners on what to do with the provided data. Contrary to others scholars mainly those discussed above, Wright opposes the issue
of outcome and objectives as task elements. Wright argues that tasks are bound to have a range of outcomes. Furthermore, Wright maintains that it is more than possible that such an outcome can be different from the outcomes as anticipated by the language teacher, as illustrated in Table 3:1, on page 124. In relation to Wright’s views above, Nunan develops a model of task elements for specifying task components and their roles and functions.

3.4.4. The task specification model

Nunan (2004: 41) argues that whereas Wright’s (1987) view on the unpredictability of the task outcome is feasible, Nunan stresses that in his own belief, a goal as an element, plays a vital role in providing direction to both tasks, as well as curriculum planning. Similarly, Nunan advises syllabus designers on the idea of considering the role of the learner, the impact of the setting, feedback on tasks during task planning and implementations. In expanding on the above task elements as advanced by the above scholars, Nunan (2004: 40) argues that a task is made up of three elements. These include, (i) task goal, (ii) input data, and (iii) procedures. Nunan states that the three task elements are basically supported by the other three elements. Nunan lists the supportive elements as, (i) the roles of teacher, (ii) learner’s role, and (iii) the settings in which tasks take place or are performed (cf. Carless 2012). Nunan (2004: 41) summarises the elements as a model of task specifications as illustrated in Figure 3:3 below.

Figure 3:3: The task specification model

As regard, the task specification model above, Nunan provides a detailed discussion in relation to the task specifications. The task specifications according to Nunan include goals, input, and procedures. The following sections discuss in depth the above task specifications, respectively.

3.4.4.1. Goals as task specification

Nunan (2004: 41-42) holds the view that goals are general targets of any learning task. Nunan argues that goals provide a direct linkage between tasks and the general/broader curriculum
considerations. According to Nunan, task goals can either be specific or general. Nunan states that language teachers can, for example, provide a range of goal statements for teaching language to L2 learners. According to Nunan, an example of such statements includes, as a teacher, I want to develop learners’ interactional skills so that learners can use such skills for information negotiation with each other. Given a range of statements regarding task specifications, Nunan provides features that can best describe goals as task specifications. According to Nunan, such features include, (i) relationship to different general outcomes (for example, communicative, affective or cognitive), (ii) tasks also act as points of inferences for goals, (iii) there is an indirect relationship between goals and tasks. Lastly, (iv) a number of tasks and goals are embedded in complex tasks.

In relation to the task goals and goal features above, with reference to Nunan (2004: 42), Richards (2001: 113) is of the view that the choice of goals whether cognitive, affective or communicative, reflects the ideology and beliefs of syllabus designers about the nature of language learning, and the purpose, functions of education in general and syllabus in particulars. Furthermore, as regards to the reflection of ideology and belief of the designers, Nunan provides the early version of a task-based curriculum, the Australian Language Levels (ALL) project. According to Nunan, the ALL applied Halliday’s macro skills (aesthetic, interpersonal and personal) aspects as a point of reference for curriculum design and developments. Nunan maintains that the primary communicative goal for this project is the emphasis on language use and functions.

With reference to Nunan (2004: 42), Clark (1987: 226) maintains that such functions and language uses include, (i) the establishment and maintenance of interpersonal relationships. Through such relationships, information exchange, opinions, attitudes and so on, get done. (ii) Acquisition and use of information from a range of sources in the target language. Such sources include books, radios, public announcements and documents, tapes, slides and so on. (iii) Creation or reading, listening to or enjoying and responding to creative and imaginative uses of the target language. These include stories, songs, drama, poems and so forth. In addition, Nunan (2004: 43) reminds us that the goals may relate to both the language and other language learning processes and aspects. To illustrate the views on goals, Table 3:2 below, represents the ALL project on how its goals are sociocultural, process-oriented, cultural or communicatively clustered.
Table 3.2: Australian Language Level project task goal classification

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goal type</th>
<th>Descriptions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Communicative</strong></td>
<td>establish and maintain interpersonal relations and through this to exchange information, ideas, opinions, attitudes, and feeling and to get things done</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sociocultural</strong></td>
<td>have some understanding of the everyday life patterns of their contemporary age group in the target language speech community; this will cover their life at home, at school, and at leisure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Learning - how-to-learn</strong></td>
<td>to negotiate and plan their work over a certain time span, and learn how to set themselves realistic objectives and how to devise the means to attain them</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Language and cultural awareness</strong></td>
<td>to have some understanding of the systematic nature of language and the way it works</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Modified from Nunan (2004: 43)

From Table 3.2 above, Nunan (2004: 43) distinguishes between language purposes. Nunan clusters language purposes in three major categories. These include, (i) social and transactional, (ii) general and specific, lastly, (iii) academic and non-academic purposes. In expounding on his categories in a respective basis, Nunan provides examples of each of the above categories. For instance, according to Nunan category (i) involves language purposes, such as the purchase of goods and services. Nunan argues that the two purposes are sometimes intertwined in terms of authentic communication. In relation to category (ii), Nunan is of the view that general language use is the daily language that people use to communicate. However, Nunan argues that specific language is the opposite of the former. In addition, Nunan states that the purposes of specific language are further divided into the (iii) category, which involves academic and non-academic purposes.

According to Nunan, academic language course can focus on either specific subject area, such as science and technology or law. In addition, Nunan is of the view that academic language course can also focus on more general skills for tertiary studies, such as academic writing. On the other hand, according to Nunan, non-academic courses can also include courses, such as language for tourism and so on. In addition, Nunan (2004: 43-44) is of the view that the above distinctions can be applied to integrated or specific (for example, listening, writing and speaking) skills courses. Similarly, Nunan maintains that a programme might be designed to develop the specialised skills needed to undertake a study, for example, in an English-speaking country.

Accordingly, Nunan (2004: 44) argues that the most useful goal statements are those that are rather directly related to L2 learners than to their language teachers. Nunan states that such statements could be in term of observable performance. In this instance, Nunan provides an example of the
statement, such as “learner will give a five-minute presentation on a familiar topic, speaking without notes.” Such statements introduce us to the notion of learners’ performances as explained in detail below.

According to Nunan (2004: 44), focus on learner performance has been of importance since the advent of CLT. Nunan stresses that the advocates for CLT, such as linguists initiated the development of the conceptual framework for the Council of Europe. According to Nunan, early documentation of such linguists under the auspice of Council of Europe put more emphasis on performance-based curriculum. In a similar way, Nunan maintains that up to date, the Council of Europe still adheres to the performance-based approaches to L2 teaching. This is clearly expressed in the introduction section of the CEF that states that,

It describes in a comprehensive way what language learners have to learn to do to use a language for communication and what knowledge and skills they have to develop so as to be able to act effectively. The description also covers the cultural context in which the language is set. (Council of Europe 2001: 1)

Similarly, the CEF provides a range of domains/levels at which the above language use can be facilitated and applied by language users. The CEF categorises language users in three basic levels. These include, (i) basic users, (ii) independent users and (iii) proficient users. The three levels are further subdivided into other three level as illustrated in Table 3:3, on page 136. The table is the reflection of the global, behaviour descriptors for L2 learners at each specific level.
Table 3: An illustration of global/general scales of language users

| **Basic users** | [A1] Can understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very basic phrases aimed at the satisfaction of needs of concrete types. Can introduce her/himself and others and can ask and answer questions about personal details, such as where she/he lives, people she/he knows and things she/he has. Can interact in a simple way provided the other person talks slowly and clearly as is prepared to help. |
| **Independent users** | [B1] Can understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, et cetera. can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken. Can produce simple connected text on a topic which is familiar or of personal interest. Can describe experiences and events, dreams, hopes and ambitions and briefly give reasons and explains for opinions and plans. |
| **Proficient users** | [C1] Can understand a wide range of demanding, longer texts, and recognise implicit meaning. Can express her/himself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. Can use language flexibly and effectively for social, academic and professional purposes. Can produce clear, well-structured, detailed text on complex subjects, showing the controlled use of organisational patterns, connectors, and cohesive devices. |
| | [C2] Can understand with ease virtually heard or read. Can summarise information from different spoken and written sources, reconstructing arguments and accounts in a coherent presentation. Can express finer shades of meaning even in more complex situations. |

Source: Modified from Council of Europe (2001: 24)

In relation to the Council of Europe as regards to performance-based approaches to L2 teaching. See, for example, Nunan (2004: 46-47), for similar orientations as experienced in the United States of America. Otherwise, the subsequent section discusses input as another task specification.

3.4.4.2. **Input as task specification**

Hasan (1985: 69) contends that, in educational processes, learners require exposure in active and a range of genres (texts either written or spoken) with a communicative purpose(s). Like other scholars, Hasan (1985: 85) provides two forms of exposure he calls phonic and graphics. According to Hasan, phonic exposure is when learners contact a given message through air or sound waves. In addition, the graphic exposure is when a message is given to learners in images or written formats. Similarly, Benati and Angelovska (2016: 23) relate input to language that L2 learners get exposed to with a communicative intent. The exposure is either by reading or hearing (listening) this language. Similarly, Nunan (2004: 47) defines input as the written, spoken or visual data and
information that L2 learners work within in the course of completing a task. Nunan argues that Input data/information is either provided by a language teacher, textbook or any other alternative sources, for example, L2 learners themselves. Nunan (2004: 48) uses Hover’s (1986) inventory to list a range of input sources. Such sources include, (i) picture stories, (ii) missing person’s declarations, (iii) extracts from plays, (iv) both informal and formal letters, lastly, (v) family tree. According to Nunan, such a list could be used in a range of tasks to develop skills, such as listening, speaking and or for encouraging literacy skill development across L2 learners.

Regarding the development of writing skills, with reference to Nunan (2004: 48-49), Morris and Stewart-Dore (1984: 158) argue that it is not necessary to teach L2 learners writing styles in their respective language registers. Morris and Stewart-Dore, however, provide a list of writing options that are usually extended to L2 learners. Such options include, (i) reports from a range of groups, (ii) progress reports and plans for future development, (iii) minutes of the meeting, (iv) replies to letters and other kinds of correspondences. (see, for example, Henry & Roseberry 1998: 148, for similar views). Lastly, (v) plays, short stories and poems. On the other hand, Nunan is concerned about the authenticity of the materials that are considered as input.

Nunan (2004: 49) relates authenticity to the use of both spoken and written materials produced purposely for communication rather than for language teaching. According to Nunan, combinations of authentic materials, such as written ones provide L2 learners with optimum language learning opportunities. In a similar way, Nunan (2004: 50) argues that the simplification of input makes it easy for L2 learners to process language and language learning processes. According to Nunan, an increase in the frequency of language learning elements, such as patterns and regularities may appear to be to L2 learners. In addition, Nunan is of the view that slowing down the speed of speech make it easy for L2 learners especially the beginners to comprehend and understand the language better.

Nunan argues that exposing L2 learners to the authentic materials as input is crucial to such learners. Such input includes written texts and language dialogues. Nunan however, argues that such exposure serves only for classrooms purposes rather than preparing an L2 to copy with the language use that they hear or read in the real-world situations. In this regard, Nunan advises that in order for L2 learners to comprehend aural or written language in the real-world contexts, there is a need to provide L2 learners with structured opportunities so that learners can engage in such materials inside the language classrooms. See, for example, Nunan (2004: 50-51), for samples of the extracts of authentic published texts as presented by Nunan (1995: 172 & 152), respectively.
On the other hand, Nunan (2004: 51) holds the view that there are arguments against the use of both written and spoken texts in L2 classrooms. In justifying Nunan’s views above, with reference to Nunan (2004: 51), Brosnan, Brown and Hood (1984) argue that in the contexts of L2 as opposed to foreign language contexts, L2 learners need to read texts as already provided in the environment and contexts that learners engage in. Such contexts include, for example, the banking malls, shop doors, items’ packets, on windows et cetera. In support of their views above, Brosnan et al. (1984: 2-3) provide justifications for the use of the above real-world resources. The justifications include,

(i) [The] language is natural. By simplifying language or altering it for teaching purposes (limiting structures, controlling vocabulary, et cetera.) we risk making the reading task more difficult. We may, in fact, be removing clues to meaning. (ii) It offers the students the chance to deal with small amounts of print which, at the same time, contain complete, meaningful messages. (iii) It provides students with the opportunity to make use of non-linguistics clues (layout, pictures, colours, symbols, the physical setting in which it occurs) and more easily to arrive at meaning from the printed word. (iv) Adults need to be able to see the immediate relevance of what they do in the classroom to what they need to do outside it, and real-life reading material treated realistically makes the connections obvious. Nunan (2004: 51)

Thus, according to Brosnan et al. (1984: 2-3), language teachers need not create such texts for their learners. In a similar way, with reference to Nunan (2004: 51-52), Brown and Menasche (1993) also argue that input data can be placed on a continuum. That is to say from genuinely authentic to non-authentic. Brown and Menasche maintain that there should be at least five distinguishable points along the continuum. According to Brown and Menasche, such points include,

(i) Genuine: created only for the realm of real life, not for the classroom, but used in the classroom for language teaching. (ii) Altered: while there is no meaning change, the original has been altered in other ways (for example, the insertion of glosses, visual resetting, and the addition of visual). (iii) Adapted: Although created for real life, vocabulary and grammatical structures are changed to simplify the text. (iv) Simulated: Although specially written by the author for purpose of language teaching, the author tries to make it look authentic by using characteristics of genuine texts. (v) Minimal/incidental: Created for the classroom with no attempt to make the material appear genuine. Nunan (2004: 52)

Similarly, with reference to Nunan (2004: 52), Snow and Briton (1997) and Briton (2003) argue that in case the language programme is intended to develop learners’ academic skills or preparing learners for further studies, authentic content can be taken from the subject areas in the school curriculum. Activities can be adapted from relevant academic discipline, such as geography, physical education, music and so on. According to scholars, each of the disciplines has a body of literature which presents the content of that area in a language style of its own. In this regard, with reference to Nunan (2004: 52), Morris and Stewart (1984: 21) maintain that classroom learning is
extended beyond to the real-world situations. The above view leads us to the last task specification, which is procedures as will be discussed below.

### 3.4.4.3. Procedures as task specification

Nunan (2004: 52-53) defines procedures as things that L2 learners actually do with the input that constitutes the point of departure for the learning tasks. In addition, Nunan states that there is less attention that is directed towards the authenticity of the procedures as it is, for example, on the authenticity of the input, i.e. section 3.4.4.2, on page 136. In this regard, with reference to Nunan (2004: 53), Porter and Roberts (1981) are of the view that in such situation in relation to the authenticity of the procedures is motivated by the use of authentic texts in a non-authentic way. In this regards, Porter and Roberts argue that such usage limits the potential and the applicability of attested materials as resources for language learning and teaching.

Still, on the issues of the authenticity of the procedures, Nunan (2004: 54-56) suggests that tasks be analysed based on three accounts, (i) the extent to which procedures require L2 learners to rehearse, in class, sort of communicative behaviours that learners might be expecting to use in the genuine communicative interactions outside the classroom. (ii) Nunan, also suggests that the other way of analysing learning procedures is based on the goals or focus of the attested procedures. with reference to Nunan (2004: 54-56), Rivers and Temperley (1979) argue that one of the widely cited procedural goals is whether procedurals are skill-getting or skill-using. According to Rivers and Temperley, in skill-getting, L2 learners are expected to master the forms, such as grammatical, lexical and phonological et cetera.

Rivers and Temperley maintain that the mastery of such forms is through manipulating the grammatical rules and memorising of the forms, as discussed in sections 2.4.1 and 2.4.2, on pages 66 and 69, respectively. Furthermore, regarding skill-using, Rivers and Temperley maintain that L2 learners apply and use such skills in exchange for information in their communicative interactions. In this context, the advocates for P-P-P approaches assume that skill-using should proceed the skill-getting. According to Nunan (2004: 54), such assumptions underestimate the views that L2 learners can learn by doing. Similarly, he maintains that such assumptions overlook the complex inter-relationships between SLA and use. Lastly, (iii) Nunan expresses the view that learning procedures are also analysed by focusing on the L2 learners’ developments in language accuracy and fluency as discussed below.
Ellis (2005a: 2010) argues that L2 learners need both fluency and accuracy in order to attain proficiency in the target language. Housen and Kuiken (2009: 461) maintain that the operational definitions for the notions of fluency and accuracy have maintained their traditional meanings. For instance, on one hand, Ellis (2005a: 2010) relates fluency to formulaic expressions. In other words, according to Ellis, fluency is the result of learners’ competence in systematic expressions of the target language. Similarly, with reference to Housen and Kuiken (2009: 461), as Lennon (1990: 30) observes fluency as the learners’ abilities to process their target language(s) with native-like swiftness, Lai, Zhao and Wang (2011: 89) stress that fluency tends to diverge when same learners are performing the same task in two different instructional settings compared to when the same learners collaborate in performing the same tasks.

On the other hand, Ellis (2005a: 2010) relates the notion of accuracy to rule-based competence. In other words, Ellis maintains that learners’ competence in accuracy or complexity is derived from the acquisition of the knowledge of grammatical rules of the target language. With reference to Housen and Kuiken (2009: 461), as Lennon (1990: 30) refers accuracy to learners’ ability to exhibit error-free speeches in their target language(s), Ellis (2003b: 342) relates accuracy to the degree of oral production features that are exhibited by learners during task performances. Such features include hesitation, pausing and/or reformulations in their speech.

Finally, Ellis is of the view that competence in formulaic expressions (fluency) motivate, as well as, act as a basis for accuracy or rule-based competence. Whilst citing his earlier study, Ellis (2002) argues that the more chunk expressions used by learners promote early language acquisition. Ellis cautions teachers that formulaic expressions be introduced to L2 learners as the teaching of grammar is delayed until later stages. Finally, Ellis is of the view that language curriculum designers need to consider that L2 learner attains the knowledge of both formulaic expressions and rule-based. Basing on the above discussion, it is of importance to continue attempting the questions that Samuda and Bygate (2008: 9) posed in section 3.4.2, on page 129.

Still, in relation to the questions that Samuda and Bygate (2008: 9) posed in section 3.4.2, on page 129. Drawing from such questions, the questions suggest that there a range of tasks that are used in the teaching and learning of L2 in a range of learning contexts. Thus, the subsequent sections address task types and their respective classifications.
3.5. **Task as a resource in language learning**

In section 3.4 above, Nunan (2004: 1) drew a general distinction of tasks that are involved in task-based language teaching approaches. According to Nunan, there are broadly two types of tasks. These are, real-world, also known as, target tasks and pedagogical, also referred to as, classroom or learning tasks (cf. Ellis 2017: 509). Nunan (2004: 19-20) suggests that for the creation of learning opportunities to the L2 learners, real-world tasks should be translated/transformed into pedagogical tasks. Nunan argues that pedagogical tasks are placed on a continuum i.e. from rehearsal to activation tasks. Nunan describes rehearsal tasks as those tasks that may bear a direct relationship to its corresponding real-world tasks. According to Nunan, such tasks include role-play, problem-solving, information exchange tasks and so on. Nunan maintains that such tasks have what he refers to activation rationale. Nunan argues that pedagogical tasks are primarily set to activate L2 learners’ emerging (language) skills during task performance, Nunan maintains that the emerging skills facilitate learners’ shift from being the reproductive language users to creative language users.

Nunan draws a distinction between creative language use and reproductive language use. Nunan is of the view that reproductive language use is another process that learners use to manipulate and produce exactly, for example, what language theories, models that language teachers and or textbooks et cetera, provide to the learners. On the other hand, according to Nunan, creative language use refers to the situation where there is a combination of familiar expressions, words as well as language structures in innovative ways. Nunan stresses that it is at this point i.e. creative language use, that L2 learners “use language creatively that they are maximally engaged in language acquisition because they are required to draw on their emerging language skills and resources in an integrated way.”

In the same vein, Nunan (2004: 21) is of the view that activation tasks facilitate and encourage language learners to activate a range of language structures, as well as, functions of the target language(s). According to Nunan, such functions include suggestions, agreeing, disagreeing, talking about quantity, the wh-questions et cetera. In this context, L2 learners are bound to freely use any linguistic means at their disposal to complete the language learning tasks. Drawing from the above discussion in relation to learning and communicative tasks, it important now to look at different types of tasks that are used for various pedagogical purposes.
3.5.1. Types of learning tasks

Nunan (2004: 56-61) and Oxford (2006: 101) argue that the range of tasks is as unlimited as the number of scholars and studies in relation to TBLT (see, for example, Ellis 2009b: 212, on views regarding TBLT scholars). In justifying the above view, Nunan discusses historical developments on a range of proposals for task typologies and strategies. According to Nunan, the Bangalore (1987) project, championed by Prabhu, initiated the basis for task types. Nunan is of the view that the Bangalore project applied three principal tasks. According to Prabhu (1987: 46-47), the three tasks are characterised by communication gaps. The tasks include, (i) Reasoning-gap, (ii) information-gap and (iii) opinion gap. These tasks are among other tasks which are summarised in Table 3:5, on page 144. However, the three tasks will be discussed later in their respective task classification, for instance, in section 3.5.2.3, on page 147.

Similarly, Nunan argues that Pattison’s (1987) proposal, as cited in Nunan (2004: 57-58), on task typology was applied in almost the same period with the Bangalore project. According to Nunan, Pattison’s typology applied seven types of tasks and activities, as summarised in Table 3:4 below.

...
Table 3:4: Pattison’s (1987) types of tasks and activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task types</th>
<th>Activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pictures and picture stories</strong></td>
<td>Many communication activities can be stimulated through the use of pictures (e.g. spot the difference, memory test, and sequencing pictures to tell a story).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Discussions and decisions</strong></td>
<td>These require the learner to collect and share information to reach a decision (e.g. to decide which items from a list are essential to have on a desert island)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Communication strategies</strong></td>
<td>These are activities designed to encourage learners to practice communication strategies, such as paraphrasing, borrowing or inventing words, using gestures, asking for feedback and simplifying.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Question and answers</strong></td>
<td>These activities are based on the notion of creating an information gap by letting learners make a personal and secret choice from a list of language items which all fit into a given frame (e.g. the location of a person or object). The aim is for learners to discover their classmates’ secret choice. This activity can be used to practice almost any structure, function or notion.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Matching activities</strong></td>
<td>Here, the task for the learner is to recognize the matching item or to complete pairs or sets. ‘Bingo’, ‘Happy families’ and ‘Split dialogues’ (where learners match the given phrases) are examples of matching activities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dialogues and role plays</strong></td>
<td>These can be wholly scripted or wholly improvised. However, ‘if learners are given some choice of what to say, and if there is a clear aim to be achieved by what they say in their role plays, they may participate more willingly and learn more thoroughly than when they are told to simply repeat a given dialogue in the pair’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Puzzles and problems</strong></td>
<td>Once again, there are many different types of puzzles and problems. These require learners to ‘make guesses, draw on their general knowledge and personal experience, use their imagination and test their powers of logical reasoning’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Modified from Nunan (2004: 57-58)

In addition, according to Nunan (2004: 58), the most recent developments on task typology and pedagogical tasks are tasks proposed by Richards (2001: 162). Richards proposes five tasks, as summarised in Table 3:5, on page 144.
Table 3:5: A reflection of Richards's (2001) typology of pedagogical tasks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task types</th>
<th>Descriptions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Decision-making tasks</strong></td>
<td>In these tasks, learners are given a problem for which there is a number of possible outcomes/solutions and they choose one through negotiation and discussion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Information-gap tasks</strong></td>
<td>Information-gap tasks involve either a single learner of a group of them with a set of information. With another learner or group of learners with a complementary set of information. The two learners or two groups must negotiate and find out what the other learner or group’s information is in order to complete an activity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Opinion-exchange tasks</strong></td>
<td>In opinion-exchange tasks, learners do engage in discussion and exchange ideas. Learners do not need to reach an agreement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Jigsaw tasks</strong></td>
<td>Jigsaw tasks involve learners in combining different pieces of information to form a whole (e.g. three individual or groups may have three different parts of a story and have to piece the story together).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Problem-solving tasks</strong></td>
<td>In problem-solving tasks, learners are given a problem and a set of information. They must arrive at a solution to the problem. There is generally a single resolution of the outcome.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Modified from Nunan (2004: 58-59)

While reflecting on the above typologies of task types and activities, Nunan (2004) maintains the view that such typologies are primarily based on the analysis of communicative language use rather than on the strategies that underlie such tasks. In this context, Nunan proposes another typology of classifying tasks based on the strategies underpinning the attested tasks. According to Nunan, such strategies types include interpersonal, creative, linguistic, cognitive and affective strategies.

Similarly, in relation to task classification, Ellis (2003b: 205) relates task classification to (i) types of tasks that are included in the TBSs and (ii) the order at which such tasks are presented to the L2 learners in the classroom. According to Ellis (2003b: 206), TBSs provide a range of task specifications that are systematically graded based primarily on, (i) their level of difficulty to the learners, and (ii) the thematic content. In this context, unlike structural syllabuses, TBSs are composed of linguistically unfocused tasks. Ellis (2003b: 16) maintains that there ideally two types of tasks i.e. focused and unfocused tasks as discussed below.

### 3.5.2. Focused and unfocused tasks

According to Ellis (2003b: 16), focused tasks require L2 learners to specifically focus their mind on a particular linguistic form in order to accomplish a task. According to Ellis (2003b: 16), such focus is captured through the performance of activities with an aim of achieving the non-linguistic outcome (pragmatic language use). In addition, Ellis argues that focused tasks intend to, (i) encourage communicative language use across learners, and (ii) such tasks target the usage of a
particular, predetermined target language feature or forms. Ellis (2003b: 17) is of the view that focusing on the linguistic feature is crucial to the language learners in a way that language teachers may provide their learners with opportunities to perform a specific form in a range of communicative real-world contexts.

Unlike focused tasks, according to Ellis (2003b: 16), unfocused tasks are kind of tasks that require L2 learners to choose and use a range of linguistic forms rather than focusing on a specific or particular form or forms. In this instance, Ellis maintains that there is no prior planning attention to linguistic form/forms. The main aim of such tasks is to encourage meaning negotiation and general communication across L2 learners. In summarising his discussion on focused and unfocused tasks, Ellis draws a distinction between, (i) task-supported language teaching, and (ii) task-based language teaching (cf. Richards 2013: 17). According to Ellis, the former involves incorporating only focused tasks into structural syllabuses and approaches as discussed in section 2.4.1, on page 66, for the creation of an integrated syllabus for language teaching. On the other hand, the latter involves the use of both focused and unfocused tasks. Ellis stresses the view that both tasks types are crucial in terms of; (i) units of analysis in syllabus design (see mainly Chapter Four), as well as; (ii) in pedagogical practices in the task-based classrooms (see Chapter Five).

In light with the above views, Ellis also emphasises that during the designing decisions, as well as, in the construction of TBSs, it is important to first specify tasks types that will be included in the teaching syllabus. For that purpose, Ellis states that task specifications depend on both specific and general language syllabuses. In this context, therefore, the subsequent part of this section offers a summary of types of task classifications that will be discussed in the subsequent sections. According to Ellis (2003b: 216), task typologies/classifications vary depending on the key dimensions of tasks. In this instance, Ellis (2003b: 210-218) discusses typologies that are common in task classifications. These include pedagogical, rhetoric, cognitive and psycholinguistic classification. In addition to the task classifications above, Ellis also advances his general framework that is used for classifying tasks. Thus, the following sections discuss the above task classification respectively.

3.5.2.1. Pedagogical classification of tasks

Ellis (2003b: 211) hold the view that pedagogical classification of the task is the kind of classification which offers a wider range of procedures and other classroom recipes for task teaching in the language classroom. According to Ellis, such classification, mainly considers aspects, such as (i) the four language skills i.e. listening, writing, reading and speaking. (ii) The
aspects of linguistic knowledge i.e. language grammar and vocabulary. Lastly, (iii) the paralinguistic aspects. Ellis acknowledges that pedagogical classification is beneficial especially on instructional materials.

In addition, Ellis argues that pedagogical classification is primarily suitable for textbooks designs based on traditional approaches that focus mainly on the above considerations of language systems. Furthermore, Ellis is of the view that pedagogical classification, supplements on the textbooks that focus on specific language skills and knowledge. In his view, Ellis maintains that pedagogical classification has limited support in facilitating holistic and experimental learning. Ellis, however, argues that pedagogical classifications provide a basis for integrating task constructs into traditional language course.

Another form of pedagogical task classification is advanced by Willis (1996: 26-27). Willis’s classification is based on the analysis of task types found in textbooks materials. In this context, Willis advances six types of tasks. According to Willis, such tasks are a reflection of activities that learners are required to apply during task performance. Willis is of the view that such tasks are intended to generate a range sample of real-world tasks for the learners. In order to exemplify her views above, Willis lists such activities, as summarised in Table 3:6 below.

Table 3:6: An example of a pedagogical task classification

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Listing</td>
<td>For instance, the completed outcome is a list of things or items.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sharing personal experiences</td>
<td>For instance, tasks that engage learners in free talks about themselves and sharing of a range of their experience.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparing</td>
<td>For instance, tasks that involve the identification of similarities or differences in a given information.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creative tasks</td>
<td>For instance, projects that often involve several stages that can incorporate the various types of tasks., such as those provided in this table.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ordering and sorting</td>
<td>For instance, tasks that involve arranging, classifying, ranking or even the categorization of items or things.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem-solving</td>
<td>For instance, tasks that require intellectual activities, such as logical problems and puzzles.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Modified from Willis (1996: 26-27)

According to Ellis (2003b: 212), other than the pedagogical task classification, there is another classification of task referred to as rhetorical as discussed below.
3.5.2.2. **Rhetorical classification of tasks**

Ellis (2003b: 212) advances the view that the rhetoric classification of tasks is based on the assumptions of the rhetoric theory. Ellis argues that such assumptions distinguish a range of discourse domain in terms of structures and linguistic properties. According to Ellis, such discourses include but are not limited to, (i) reports (ii) instructions, (iii) descriptions, lastly, (iv) narratives. Ellis maintains that rhetoric classifications primarily target language courses and programs for specific academic purposes and functions of, especially structural syllabuses. Such functions include, for example, (i) definitions, (ii) giving examples, and (iii) classifications. In this context, Ellis is of the view that tasks serve as a motivator for the free production of linguistic properties that learners have to practice and drill. In other words, Ellis refers to such tasks as tasks that support teaching as discussed in section 3.5.2, on page 144.

Similarly, Ellis argues that rhetoric classification is possible for task-based classification of tasks only when rhetoric classification draws from other classification systems in order to determine tasks from a range of tasks that follow under rhetoric categories. Furthermore, Ellis stresses that rhetoric classification supports negotiation of meaning and the classification is crucial in determining the quality of learners’ productions. Similarly, Ellis is of the view that rhetoric classification facilitates the design of specific purpose courses that cater for L2 learners’ needs and interests. See, for example, Ellis (2003b: 212-213), for review of other examples and alternatives of rhetoric task classifications.

3.5.2.3. **Cognitive classification of tasks**

According to Ellis (2003b: 213), another type of task classification is the cognitive classification of tasks. Cognitive classification caters for tasks that are involved in the mental processes of the learners. In developing further his view, Ellis uses as an example, the widely cited and used tasks which were also applied in the Bangalore project in 1987. The tasks include, (i) opinion-gap activities, (ii) information-gap activities, and (iii) reasoning-gap activities (see also, Pica et al. 2009: 184). According to Ellis (2003b: 213), opinion-gap tasks involve the identification, articulation of personal preferences. According to Ellis, such preferences include personal attitudes and feelings as a response to a given situation. In addition, Ellis provides examples of such tasks which include, learners taking part in discussions or completion of a given story. Ellis stresses that tasks of this nature are open because such tasks offer a range of outcomes and solutions.
On one hand, Ellis is of the view that information-gap tasks involve the exchange or transfer of information, i.e. (i) from one form to another, (ii) from one learner to another, or (iii) from one place to another. In other words, Ellis argues that such tasks activities generally target to decode or encode information from or into a given language. In support of his views above, Ellis uses an example of information-gap activities as used in the Bangalore project. The example involves, using the information in a text to complete a table or a chart. According to Ellis, in, such as task, there is both an information gap and information transfer that learners are required to use in order to complete the attested table.

Finally, on the other hand, according to Ellis, reasoning-gap activities/ tasks are related to the process of deriving a given new information from an existing information. Ellis argues that such processes are achieved through inferring, deducing, as well as, learners’ reasoning processes. Ellis maintains that such a process may also involve perceptions of relationships or patterns. In other words, Ellis is of the view that such activities also involve the process of sharing information among learners. Ellis stresses that the kind of information sharing necessitates the language learners to go beyond the provided or working information. According to Ellis, such kind of task activities may include, making learners work out an instructor’s general timetable from a set of other classroom timetables.

Ellis (2003b: 214) maintains that reasoning-gap tasks are effective in the promotion of negotiation of meaning across learners. In addition, Ellis states that such activities provide room for language teachers to support learners in steps and procedures that need reasoning. Finally, Ellis concludes that the Bangalore tasks classification is suitable and crucial for designing specific language courses because such tasks cater to learners’ interests and needs. Another task classification criteria are based on psycholinguistics dimensions as discussed below.

### 3.5.2.4. Psycholinguistic classification of tasks

According to Ellis (2003b: 214), the psycholinguistic classification is based on the grounds of task potentiality to support language learning. Ellis argues that there are a number of theories in research that are based on psycholinguistic assumptions. Ellis maintains that not all such theories are used to classify task, but rather, the theories are used as a basis on complementing each other when a variety of language use and aspects serve as a criterion in task classification. In support of his view, Ellis provides an example of task types and classification that are advanced by Pica et al. (1993: 19). According to Ellis, psycholinguistic classification illustrates task taxonomies based on
interactional assumptions as discussed from section 2.4.6.3 to section 2.4.6.5 from page 91 to page 94.

Furthermore, Ellis (2003b: 215) maintains that psycholinguistic classification is also based on the interactional categories. Ellis argues that such categories affect the opportunities that language learners have to complement their input and obtaining feedback, as well as modifying their own output. According to Ellis, such categories are clustered as follows, (i) interactional relationship, (ii) interactional requirement, (iii) goal orientation. Lastly, (iv) outcome options.

According to Ellis, the interactional relationship involves three aspects. These are participants (learners) holding a given information ready for exchange. On the other hand, the participant requesting for such information, as well as, the participant who supplies the information. According to Ellis, the activities of requesting, supplying and the exchange of information are aimed at achieving the set task goals. Ellis maintains that the interactional relationship category is directly related to the two-way or one-way tasks. Furthermore, Ellis argues that the interactional relationship category is based on the assumptions that the existence of a mutual relationship between the supplier and the requester of the information, fosters the occurrence of negotiation of meaning.

On the other hand, Ellis states that interactional requirement category is concerned with whether the task requires its participants to request and supply information to each other, it is optional. Ellis argues that the interactional requirement category is based on the assumptions that the negotiation of meaning is enhanced when all participant during task performance actively interact in the task activities. Furthermore, in relation to goal orientation category, Ellis maintains that such a category dictates whether the task requires its participants to agree or disagree on a single outcome of the task. Ellis emphasises the view that tasks that provide room for collaboration among its participants facilitate meaning negotiation and the results are convergent. On the other hand, tasks that are independent are oriented towards divergent goals.

According to Ellis, the outcome options category involves the scope of the task outcome available to the participants for them to achieve the task goal (s). In this regard, Ellis provides an example of closed and open tasks. Ellis argues that in closed tasks, the single outcome is the required target. In addition, in relation to the open task, Ellis maintains that there are more and several possible outcomes. Furthermore, Ellis stresses the view that closed tasks facilitate meaning negotiation compared to the open tasks. Finally, by using Pica et al. (1993: 19) task typology, Ellis illustrates how the above categories can be used to distinguish a range of task types, as summarised in Table 3:7 below.
Table 3:7: A psycholinguistic task typology as advanced by Pica et al. (1993)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task type</th>
<th>Interactant relationship</th>
<th>Interactional requirement</th>
<th>Goal orientation</th>
<th>Outcome options</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jigsaw</td>
<td>two-way</td>
<td>required</td>
<td>convergent</td>
<td>closed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information gap</td>
<td>one-way or two-way</td>
<td>required</td>
<td>convergent</td>
<td>closed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem-solving</td>
<td>one-way or two-way</td>
<td>optional</td>
<td>convergent</td>
<td>closed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision making</td>
<td>one-way or two-way</td>
<td>optional</td>
<td>convergent</td>
<td>open</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opinion exchange</td>
<td>one-way or two-way</td>
<td>optional</td>
<td>divergent</td>
<td>open</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Modified from Ellis (2003b: 215)

In relation to the psycholinguistic task classification, as summarised by Ellis in Table 3:7 above, in the subsequent section, Pica et al. (1993, 2009) provide a detailed discussion with regard to their framework. Similarly, in Chapter Four, Pica et al. (2009: 180) offer a summary illustrating their framework in which, the holders, requesters and the suppliers of a given information are explicitly shown and discussed. It should be noted that a summary of Pica et al. (1993, 2009) framework will be discussed in Chapter Four before the same framework is used for the selection of tasks for the purpose of analysing their types based on the postulations as established by Pica et al. (1993, 2009) framework.

3.5.2.4.1. A framework of communication task types (Pica et al. 1993, 2009)

The above framework is championed by Pica et al. (1993, 2009). Pica et al. (2009: 172) argue that their framework (typology of task types) aims to characterise and organise communication tasks from other classrooms activities. The organisation and characteristics of the tasks are clustered based on a specific contribution (s) that a particular task provides towards the learner’s language learning. In this regard, Pica et al. (2009: 174) provide information regarding the typology of only communication task types rather than tasks in general. Pica et al. argue that communication tasks are comprised of five task types as discussed in previous sections. (see section 3.5.2.3, on page 147). In addition, Table 3:5, on page 144, provides a descriptive information on five tasks that are summarised in Table 4:1, on page 208.

In light of the above, Van den Branden, Bygate and Norris (2009: 1-2) stress the view that the framework as advanced by Pica et al. (1993) has been influential in advancing TBLT knowledge especially, by inspiring L2 teachers and researchers, across the world, to work with tasks. As a result, in 2009, this framework was reproduced in, Task-Based Language Teaching. A Reader, a collection 20 key articles, and chapters that shaped the field and discourse of TBLT at that time (see further, Van den Branden, Bygate & Norris 2009). On one hand, Ellis (2003b: 211) maintains that
in order to design suitable TBSs, there is a need for syllabus designers to incorporate a variety of language functions and aspects to determine a range of task types in a syllabus. According to Ellis, the integration of such types of tasks is a basis for classifying tasks on psycholinguistic perspectives. Ellis (2003b: 214) maintains that a psycholinguistic classification of tasks plays a complementary role to other types of task classifications that are based on, for instance, pedagogical, rhetorical and cognitive perspectives as discussed from section 3.5.2.1 to 3.5.2.3, from page 145 to page 147 respectively.

Subsequently, regarding syllabus design as identified by other scholars, for example, Van den Branden et al. (2009: 8), similarly, Ellis (2003b: 214) proposes a task classification type that is based on a psycholinguistics perspective, specifically the framework advanced by Pica et al. (1993). According to Pica et al. (1993: 18), the pedagogical claim of their framework is that the opportunities that L2 learners are given in comprehending the input, the provision of feedback after production and the modification of their output is crucial in determining learners’ interlanguage development. In order to exploit the above claim, Pica et al. maintain that there is a need for categories of their framework (see Table 4:1, on page 208), to interact in order to realise their intended effect(s) on L2 learners as discussed in section 3.5.2.4, on page 148 (see also, Ellis 2003b: 213).

The genesis of the framework by Pica et al. (1993, 2009), is derived from the characteristics and definitions of tasks as a concept (see section 3.4, on page 121, for views on task definitions). Pica et al. (1993: 11-12) identify two silent features about a task. These include, on one hand, a task as an interactional activity that is carried out, either orally or/and actions, by participants(s), in this context, L2 learners. On the other hand, this activity needs to have a communication goal or outcome. Pica et al. maintain that in order for the participants to attain the goal while carrying out (performing) the activity, participants are required to seek assistance so that their message is understood or for participants to clearly understand messages from other participants. According to Pica et al. (1993: 12), seeking assistance is one of the ways for L2 learners increase their chances to “activate and apply comprehension and production processes.” Furthermore, for above processes to be realised, Pica et al., advise L2 teachers and researchers to provide learners with detailed tasks that can evoke learners’ other experiences rather than focus only on carrying the activity to attain a set goal.

Pica et al., assume that detailed tasks enhance teachers’ objectives towards L2 learners by promoting efficient language learning. Basing on the above assumptions, Pica et al. propose a framework that illustrates the activity and goal features in the communication task in order to
realise the possible activity and goal speculations on L2 comprehensions, production, and opportunities for feedback as far as SLA is concerned. In additions, Pica et al. (1993: 13) are of the view that for the purpose of enhancing communicative activities and goals between participants and their interlocutors during communication, Pica et al. postulate the activity and goal features into two broader specify. These include interactional activity as well as the communicational goal. Pica et al. elaborate further the above two specify with regard to categories, such as (i) interactant relationship, (ii) interactional requirement, (iii) goal orientation, and (iv) outcome options.

According to Pica et al. (1993: 13, 2009: 179), interactional activity is composed of two categories, interactant relationship, and interactional requirement. On one hand, Pica et al. relate the former to responsibilities that task participants play during task performance. Such responsibilities include information holder, requester and/or information supplier in order to complete a given task with a set goal(s) (see, for example, Hasan 1985: 58, for similar views). The interactant relationship among participants can either be mutual or independent one. Pica et al. maintain that continuous mutual relationship of information requester and supplier leads to the exchange of information in two ways compared to when the mutual relationship breaks down or is differentiated (independent), the flow of information turns to be one-way, that is to say from, a supplier to the requester. In relation to Robinson’s (2001a: 30) TCF, this flow of information is regarded as [+/- one-way flow] feature.

On one hand, Pica et al. (1993: 13) argue that interactional requirement is premised on the assumptions whether, during task performance, it is obligatory or an option to request or supply task-related information among participants. Pica et al. stress the view that task support exchange of information among participants promote more interaction among the participants (see, for example, Hasan’s (1985: 54) previous views of focused interaction), compared to tasks that give a participant options or choices to or not to contribute towards information exchange during task performance. This is the feature that Robinson (2010: 257) relates to [+/- negotiation not needed] feature. On the other hand, Pica et al. (1993: 13) stress the view that the communication goal category of their framework is comprised of two sub-categories. These include goal orientation and outcome options. According to Pica et al. (1993: 15), the former is related to the convergence/ collaboration or divergence/ independence requirement among participants performing a task towards attaining a goal. This feature is similar to Robinson’s (2005: 2) [+/- convergent solution] feature. Then, the latter is related to various outcomes from the tasks that participants are likely to meet during task performance to attain a goal of a given task. Robinson (2011b: 6) refers this feature as [+/- open solution]. According to Pica et al. (1993: 31), there are two types of task outcome options, the closed and open task options. The former involves
tasks responds to only one acceptable outcome, whereas the latter deals with task outcomes which as more than one and so forth.

Therefore, basing on the previously noted claim of the framework as advanced by of Pica et al. (1993, 2009) and in relation to typology of task types, the above interplay between interactional activity and communicational goal, Pica et al. (2009: 183) point out the view that jigsaw and information gap tasks, respectively, appear to be the most effective tasks compared to opinion exchange tasks which are considered the least effective in providing L2 learners with opportunities to comprehend the input, the provision of feedback after production and the modification of their output with an aim of determining learners’ interlanguage development.

However, according to Ellis (2003b: 216), the above task classification, as proposed by Pica et al. (1993, 2009), is only suitable for the selection of tasks (This is exemplified in Chapter Four). In addition, Ellis argues that the other task classifications discussed above are based on the specific organisational principles. Therefore, in this instance, Ellis advances a general framework for task classification. According to Ellis, his framework is based on key task dimensions. Ellis states that such a framework is mainly underpinned by psycholinguistic, rhetoric and cognitive typologies, as discussed above. Thus, Table 3:9, on page 160, summarises Ellis’s general framework for task classification, as well as, for task grading and sequencing procedures.

In light of the above, Robinson (2011b: 5) stresses the view that there are other various proposals and approaches on how to analyse task so that their characteristics can be identified for effective pedagogical planning. Robinson considers task analysis as a vital process in the designing of pedagogical tasks for L2 learners with divergent language learning motives. With reference to Robinson (2011b: 5), Gagne (1962: 90) maintains that task analysis is one way of improving training problems that provide techniques, such as task components, sequencing of tasks and their subsequent subtasks, intra-task transfers and so forth. According to Gagne, such techniques are influential in the designing of effective language learning programmes. Accordingly, Robinson (2011a: 5-12) is of the view that Gagne’s (1962) thoughts are a foundation that advances a number of approaches for analysing tasks with an aim of characterising the attested tasks based mainly on their components. Such approaches include behaviour descriptive approach, information-theoretical approach, and ability required approach among others. In addition, Robinsons contends that the above approaches are used in different stages of language programme development(s) as well as the delivery of task-based instruction across contexts.
While exemplifying his contentions, Robinson (2011a: 5-12) argues for example that behaviour descriptive approach is used to analyse and classify tasks based on observing participation and non-participation procedures. On the other hand, the information-theoretic approach, according to Robinson (2011a: 7) involves information processing as well as cognitive processes in terms of input, output, interaction for task completion, mainly in educational domains. Lastly, according to Robinson (2011a: 8), the ability requirements approach is based on human cognitive abilities required to perform tasks effectively. To summarise his contentions, Robinson (2011a: 9) sums the above approaches on a dynamic and systematic Figure 3:4 below that represents issues that are discussed in various sections of this thesis. Specifically, Robinsons clusters the approaches along domains of aspects that are addressed by a particular approach as discussed above.

Figure 3:4: Task classifications and sequencing procedures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Domain</th>
<th>Analysis</th>
<th>Outcomes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[2] Syllabus design</td>
<td>Target task description</td>
<td>Information-theoretic</td>
<td>Pedagogical task sequences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[3] Learner Assessment</td>
<td>Pedagogical task design</td>
<td>Ability requirements</td>
<td>Task aptitude profiles</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Modified from Robinson (2011a: 9)

However, Robinson (2007a: 10) maintains that due to challenges in implementing the above analytical methodologies to task classifications and sequencing decisions across the above stages and various domains, Robinson suggests that the learning (pedagogical) tasks need to be designed, classified and sequenced based on the information-theoretical criteria. According to Robinson, the aim of using the information-theoretical criteria is to make an increase in L2 processing demands to the tune of the target task level(s).

In this respect, therefore, the subsequent section is a continuation of an attempt to address questions posed in section 3.3, on page 117, regarding the organisational principles in relation to TBS syllabus design and decisions, specifically, the basis on which TBSs select the learning content as discussed below.
3.6. The basis for selection of content in task-based syllabuses

Breen (1987a: 162) holds the view that both communicative and learning tasks are mutually supportive of each other. Like Nunan (2004: 1) on defining language task (see, section 3.4, on page 121), also, Breen (1987a: 162) draws a distinction between the communicative (target) and learning (pedagogical) tasks. Breen relates communicative tasks as those derived from the analysis of actual tasks/activities that someone performs when communicating through the use of a target language. Breen maintains that the analysis of the communicative tasks may in one way or another reveal a specific task or appropriate repertoire of language performance. According to Breen, the analysis may reveal aspects, such as specific code of communication, for example, for the specialists, engineers and doctor-patients, as demonstrated in Smitsdorff’s (2008) study. Similarly, Ellis (2003a: 65-66) is of the view that the content selection is based on what type of tasks to use and decide on their thematic content. Furthermore, Ellis argues that other essential elements, such as specific tasks that are likely to lead to the kind of communication in order to promote and facilitate SLA, are also considered.

3.6.1. Selection of communicative tasks

Ellis (2003a: 76) is of the view that the point of depart in course design is the selection of tasks. Ellis maintains that such tasks should be important and of interest to the L2 learners. Furthermore, he maintains that the selected tasks should be compatible with learners’ levels of intellectual development (cf. Long 2015a: 221-222). Similarly, Ellis argues that tasks should also contribute a new element to the learners’ current level of knowledge. Developing further the above views, Breen (1987a: 162) maintains that the role of TBS designers in relation to the selection of communicative tasks is to generally focus on the underlying competence that is required in a range of communicative situations. In this context, the designers primarily consider three major issues, such as (i) the underlying language rules and conventions of the actual language use. (ii) Focus on the knowledge that is needed by the discourse participants purposely for accuracy, appropriateness, and meaningfulness within a range of such communicative situations. Lastly, (iii) syllabus designers consider also skills or pattern use that discourse participants may want to participate in the expressing, interpreting and negotiations in the communications situations.

Nevertheless, Breen (1987a: 162) argues that focusing and selecting of the above underlying knowledge, and language ability use is more challenging for L2 designers compared to the selection of the learning content as depicted in the structural/linguistic syllabuses (see further section 2.4.2.2, on page 74). On the other hand, Breen asserts that TBS designers consider the selection of a wider
range of tasks and task types as an opportunity that directly bridges the gap between L2 learners’ present competence use in L1 and the future use of the target language (s). According to Breen, TBS designers’ considerations are motivated and based on two principles. The principles include,

[First], there will be areas of overlap between first language communicative competence and target competence so that the former can link with and accommodate the latter. Second, that underlying competence is generative in the sense that it is the means by which the learner can cope with the unpredictable, be creative and adaptable, and transfer knowledge and capability across tasks in a way that mastery of a fixed repertoire of performance might not facilitate. Breen (1987a: 162)

In relation to the selection of communicative tasks, Breen finally argues that TBS designers cluster only tasks with the following characteristics. Such characteristics include, (i) most common or generalizable task in the target situations and contexts. Breen refers to such tasks as core tasks that other tasks can be derived or seen from. (ii) The relevance of tasks in terms of L2 learners’ needs and interests. Lastly, (iii) or the combination of the characteristics in (i) and (ii) above.

Similarly, on the specific selection of the thematic content of tasks, Ellis (2003b: 218) stresses that thematic selection is a crucial aspect of syllabus design that receives limited attention. Ellis maintains that thematic content involves the selection of areas of interests or themes that learners will learn. Furthermore, Ellis argues that such selection is primarily based on whether the target of the pedagogical task is either for general language use of specific usage in the L2. In light of his views above, Ellis provides guiding principles for selection of the general language use. These include, (i) topic familiarity, (ii) intrinsic interests, and (iii) the prediction of general situations that L2 learners may later find themselves in. In addition, Ellis stresses that such themes are generated, as summarised in Table 3:8 below.
Ellis (2003b: 219) argues that the themes in Table 3:8 above, are organised in form of being either close or peripheral to the L2 learners. According to Ellis, the themes that engage learners in topics that are close to them include, (i) learners’ body functions, (ii) playing habits and (iii) birthdays. Ellis states that such examples of topics are mainly suggestions from language teachers. The suggestions primarily depend on learners’ levels of proficiency, i.e. close topics being more suitable for language beginners. On the other hand, peripheral themes/topics are set to cater to more advanced language learners. Such topics include local cultural values or interests. Finally, Ellis is of the view that, in case the syllabus is for specific purposes, topic selection is principally based on needs analysis (see, section 2.4.7, on page 104) of the target tasks that learners will need to perform. Similarly, while expounding on Ur’s (1996) views on task motivation, Roberts, Griffith, Rubin and McCoy (2009: 294-295) contend that language learners are more motivated, for example, if the task to be performed is relevant in terms of authenticity and meaningful to learners’ activities in association to learners’ life-related purposes that learners do outside their language classrooms. These views are in agreement that with those of Skehan (2015: 139) that motivation is brought to the task by the learners rather than during task performance as it is argued elsewhere.

### 3.6.2. Selection of learning tasks

In section 3.3.1, on page 118, Long (2015a: 224-225) emphasised the view that learning tasks or pedagogical tasks (PTs) are realised from L2 task-types or target task types (TTTs). In the same section, Long (2015a: 223) argues that needs analysis (NA) surveys provide information to the L2 teachers that all the collected data; (i) is sufficient to address learners’ interests in learning L2s; (ii) can sufficiently be addressed in the prescribed teaching time. In this regard, according to Long, PTs are directly realised from the target (real-world tasks) tasks and rationally sequenced to design TBSs. Long (2015a: 224-225), however, maintains that in a situation where either (i) or (ii) above is
insufficiently considered, there is a need for PTs to be transformed before a syllabus is realised. The transformation involves categorising target tasks as TTTs. Thereafter, PTs are derived from the TTTs, as illustrated below.

Figure 3.5: Steps and processes in task-based syllabus design

Source: Modified from Long (2015a: 224)

Similarly, Breen (1987a: 162) argues that the selection of learning tasks is based on the metacommunicative criteria. According to Breen, such criteria provide a framework for L2 learners to engage in communication tasks. In addition, Breen stresses the view that metacommunicative criteria deal with L2 learners’ difficulties which are bound to emerge during task performance. Furthermore, Breen (1987a:162-3) maintains that the metacommunicative criteria are set to address the following two questions. These include, (i) how do the knowledge systems work, and how can communication abilities be used in a suitable way? (ii) How can the learning and development of abilities best be done?

In other words, according to Breen (1987a: 163), learning tasks explicitly focus on the language rules and conventions of the three knowledge systems and their subsequent relationships as discussed in section 3.3.2, on page 120 (cf. Rose & Martin 2012: 236). In addition, Breen argues that learning tasks are about what needs to be known and that learning tasks also focus upon the way in which interpretation, expressing and language negotiations are made/performed. Therefore, in sections 2.3.3 and 3.3, on pages 63 and 117, Breen noted that the grading or subdivision of tasks proceeds the selection exercise of the learning tasks. Thus, the next section discusses the notion of grading regarding the learning content of TBSs.

3.7. Subdivision of learning tasks

While Willis and Willis (2007: 186) suggest the use of personal knowledge to examine the characteristic of a given class in relation to the previously covered task can be the solution to grading dilemmas, Willis and Willis (2007: 185) stress the view that, in syllabus design decisions, the exercise of task grading is challenging that needs attention from the designers. In light of the above, Breen (1987a: 163) argues that TBSs or tasks are subdivided on the basis of tasks types as discussed mainly in section 3.5.1, on page 142. For example, in section 3.6.2, on page 157, Long
(2015a: 223) emphasises the view that pedagogical tasks (PTs) are directly realised from the target (real-world tasks) tasks.

Long argues that in a situation, for example, PTs can insufficiently address L2 learners’ needs, teachers need to transform such PTs into target task types (TTTs). In comparing between TTTs and PTs, Long (2015a: 225) observes that PTs as simpler versions of TTTs. In addition, Long argues that PTs are increased in their complexity until the desired complexity is realised that is associated to the level of the target task(s) (cf. pedagogical task versions in Chapter Four). Furthermore, Long is of the view that PTs are simplified, i.e. from most complex to least complex by mainly breaking down their related sub-tasks or their constituents, as mainly demonstrated in Chapter Four with regard to pedagogical task versions.

Additionally, in relation to the subdivision of tasks, Breen maintains that there are ideally three ways through which tasks can be subdivided. These include, (i) through mapping of facilitative learning tasks onto or around one or in a range of communicative tasks. (ii) A representation or clustering of related or similar communication tasks. According to Breen, similar communication tasks are those that occur within a single or a larger communicative event or tasks that occur in an everyday communication sequence in the target language. Breen maintains that such tasks may also be linked to/with supportive learning tasks. Lastly, (iii) another form of subdivision is in terms of a single target activity which naturally entails subordinate tasks when combined can contribute to the completion of the overall task/activity.

Similarly, Ellis (2003a: 74) states that the grading of TBSs depends on syllabus designers’ (i) informal assessment of the complexity of the task, and (ii) the use of criteria provided in Table 3:9, on page 160, in order to fine-tune the validity of their assessments. In this instance, Ellis is of the view that both focused and unfocused tasks are graded using the guidelines as illustrated in Table 3:9 below.
Table 3.9: Showing criteria for grading of tasks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criterion</th>
<th>Easy</th>
<th>Difficult</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>A. Input</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Medium</td>
<td>Pictorial → written</td>
<td>→ Oral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. code complexity</td>
<td>High-frequency vocabulary/short and simple sentences</td>
<td>Low-frequency vocabulary/complex sentences structure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. cognitive complexity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. Information type</td>
<td>Static → dynamic</td>
<td>→ abstract</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Amount of information</td>
<td>Few elements/relationship</td>
<td>Many elements/relationships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Degree of structure</td>
<td>Well-defined structure</td>
<td>Little structure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Context dependency</td>
<td>Here-and-now orientation</td>
<td>There-and-then orientation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Familiarity of information</td>
<td>Familiar</td>
<td>Unfamiliar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>B. Conditions</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. interactant relationship (negotiation of meaning)</td>
<td>Two-way</td>
<td>One-way</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Task demands</td>
<td>Single task</td>
<td>Dual task</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Discourse model required to perform the task</td>
<td>Dialogic</td>
<td>Monologic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>C. Processes</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Cognitive operations</td>
<td>Exchange → reasoning</td>
<td>→ exchanging opinions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. Types</td>
<td>Opinions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Reasoning needed</td>
<td>Few steps involved</td>
<td>Many steps involved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>D. Outcomes</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Medium</td>
<td>Pictorial</td>
<td>→ written → oral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Scope</td>
<td>Closed</td>
<td>Open</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Discourse mode of task outcome</td>
<td>Lists; descriptions; narratives; classifications</td>
<td>→ instructions; arguments</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Modified from Ellis (2003a: 75). Key: → indicates a continuum of difficulty
For reference purposes; a detailed discussion of the criterion elements as shown in Table 3:9 above, are discussed later, specifically, from section 3.8.3.1, on page 171. However, the subsequent section also discusses some of the elements of the same table, i.e. Table 3:9, on page 160. The discussion of the elements in the next section is based mainly on Skehan’s (2008) perspectives on task grading and sequencing criterion. Section 2.4.2.3, on page 75, I noted that in syllabus design decisions, scholars and designers tend to treat the grading and sequencing principles as less similar to each other. Thus, the subsequent section discusses the two notions as though they are similar. In addition, a distinction between the two notions will be made when deemed necessary.

3.7.1. Skehan’s (2008) framework for grading tasks

Skehan (2008: 89) stresses the view that early proposal in relation to task selection and grading is based on speculative grounds. Skehan argues that in such proposals, speculative is seen in the dimensions of task difficulty. According to Skehan (2008: 99), such speculative dimensions are difficult to relate them to actual tasks, as well as in the conventions of communicative language teaching. Furthermore, Skehan emphasises the view that such proposal hardly accounts for task elements as discussed in section 3.4, on page 121, as far as task definition is concerned.

Therefore, based on the above challenges in relation to task grading criterion, Skehan (2008: 99) develops his framework for task grading and sequencing. Skehan’s (2008) framework is an extended and an advanced version of his (1992)’s study. In addition, Skehan notes that his 1992 study applies some of the task components, specifically, from Candlin’s (1987) study. Such components include code complexity and communicative stress. Skehan’s (2008) framework is premised on three-categorical distinctions in relation to task analysis. The three distinctions are reflected in, (i) code complexity, (ii) cognitive complexity, as well as, in the (iii) communicative stress, as summarised in Table 3:10 below.
Table 3:10: Showing Skehan’s (2008) task dimensions and task difficulty

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code Complexity</th>
<th>Cognitive complexity (a) Cognitive familiarity</th>
<th>Communicative stress</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- linguistic complexity and variety</td>
<td>- the familiarity of atopic</td>
<td>- time limits and time pressure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- vocabulary load and variety</td>
<td>- the familiarity of discourse genre</td>
<td>- the speed of presentation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- redundancy and density</td>
<td>- the familiarity of the task (b) Cognitive processes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- information organisation</td>
<td>- number of participants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- the amount of ‘computation’</td>
<td>- the length of text used</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- clarity and sufficient of information is given</td>
<td>- type of response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- information type</td>
<td>- opportunities to control interaction</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Modified from Skehan (2008: 99)

Basing in Table 3:10 above, Skehan (2008: 99) draws a distinction between the three categories in relation to task dimensions. On one hand, according to Skehan (2008: 99), dimensions in linguistic or code complexity involves the target language that learners need to learn. In addition, like other scholars, Skehan also emphasises a point that language is a complex notion. Drawing from structural syllabuses, as discussed in sections 2.4.1 and 2.4.2, on pages 66 and 69, respectively, Skehan (2008: 99) argues that language can be sequenced from simple to complex structures. In other words, Skehan develops further the assumptions that task can be graded from simple to complex linguistic features. Skehan however, stresses the point that the degree of simplicity is defined definitely. On the other hand, in relation to cognitive complexity, Skehan (2008: 99) contends that cognitive complexity involves the thinking in relation to the content that L2 learners need to perform a task.

Skehan draws a distinction between (i) cognitive familiarity and (ii) cognitive processing. Skehan (2008: 99) relates cognitive familiarity to the learners’ ability to access their existing knowledge in order for learners to provide a solution to the given task. In exemplifying his view above, Skehan (2008: 100) applies the family tree task, as advanced by Willis and Willis (1998). According to Skehan (2008:100), such a task requires L2 learners to make comparisons of their family trees. Skehan contends that for the learners to perform such a task, learners need to retrieve and mobilize their existing knowledge that learners have on the given task. With reference to Skehan (2008: 100), VanPatten (1994) argues that, in the family tree task, learners’ attentional resources are sparingly utilised while focusing on a language form(s) and so on. Thus, attentional resources provide room for learners to attendant the language codes of the task.
In addition, Table 3:10, on page 162, shows that cognitive complexity is further divided into, (i) topic familiarity and predictability. According to Skehan (2008: 100), cluster (i) above, involves the availability of differentiated or organised experience and knowledge across L2 learners. Similarly, in relation to (ii) familiarity of discourse genre, Skehan (2008: 100) argues that such a cluster involves the availability or not of recognizable mapping knowledge in relation to a given genre, such as microstructure. Lastly, according to Skehan, the (iii) familiarity with the task refers to a situation whether L2 learners are familiar or unfamiliar with a given task. Skehan provides tasks that are familiar to the learners, such as decision-making, as well as, jigsaw tasks as illustrated in Table 3:5, on page 144. On the other hand, according to Skehan, unfamiliar tasks are primarily unpredictable and less “susceptible to the previously developed communication”

Similarly, Skehan (2008: 99) refers cognitive processing to the need of working out a solution (s) to a given problem. In order to understand the cognitive processing category of his framework, still, Skehan (2008: 100) uses the example of the riddle task as advanced by Willis and Willis’s (1998). According to Skehan, riddle as a task has easy elements to handle. Skehan, however, maintains that such, elements are significantly uneasy to manipulate (in a positive sense). In that matter, Skehan stresses the point that learners are likely to face challenges to arrive at the solution that the task requires from them. According to Skehan, such challenges are due to the fact that much of the processing is directed towards learners’ cognitive problems involved, which in this sense, Skehan refers to the learners’ limited attention that is directed to focus on the linguistic feature(s).

In addition, Skehan (2008: 100) argues that cognitive processing involves the processing of the pressure (load) that is imposed on L2 learners while performing a given task. Skehan argues that such pressure is reflected in, (i) information organisation, (ii) amount of computation, (iii) clarity and sufficient information, and (iv) information type. According to Skehan, information organisation that he also refers to the order (naturalness) in which the task information is organised/structured. For instance, Skehan ascertains whether, for example, narratives follow the conventional sequence or not. Similarly, in relation to the amount of computation, Skehan refers, such amount to the rate (frequency) of transformations/ manipulating, a given information undergoes to complete a task. In order to understand the amount of computation, Skehan, once again, uses the riddle task from Willis and Willis (1998). Skehan argues that a riddle requires many elements to be worked upon simultaneously. Furthermore, Skehan relates clarity and sufficient information to the direct ways through which a given information is extended to the L2 learner. According to Skehan (2008: 100), clarity, and sufficient information may also mean the information that is given as reference. Finally, Skehan relates information type to all forms of information that
are given to L2 learners. He argues such information can take either an abstract – concrete form or static – dynamic form, as well as contextualized – decontextualized information.

Similarly, Skehan relates communicative stress to a number of conditions that influence L2 learners in order to perform a given task. In other words, Skehan states that communicative stress is a reflection of conditions which are not related to language code or content but are involved in imposing difficulty to the L2 learners while carrying out a task. According to Skehan, it is in the communicative stress that a task is directly implicated in processing. Such conditions include, (i) time limits and time pressure. Skehan contends that conditions to do with time are related to the need for the urgency under which the task is completed and the perception on how to complete the task under such circumstances (pressure). For instance, in reflecting the above views, Skehan stresses that;

> When larger quantities of material are presented quickly, and when little time is available for processing, when more complicated responses are required, and there is little opportunity to slow down interaction to take account of processing limitations, it is assumed that it will become more difficult to give attention to form. (2008: 100)

Furthermore, while giving a final remark of this framework, Skehan (2008: 100-101) holds the view that his framework is feasible and applicable in relation to components and labels that describe a learning task. Similarly, Skehan argues that his framework focuses on language meaning, as well as providing a link to the real-world situations of the L2 learners where language is best used. Finally, whereas tasks are subjected to the above subdivision and procedures as discussed above, Breen (1987a: 163) argues that TBSs may also be subdivided on the basis of overriding in the grading or sequential procedures as will be discussed in the subsequent sections.

### 3.8. The basis on the sequencing of task-based syllabuses

Unlike other syllabuses, Breen (1987a: 163) maintains that the sequencing of TBSs depends entirely on basis of task themselves, as well as, the learning problems. In other words, task sequencing depends on two aspects. According to Breen, such aspects include (i) the nature of the tasks, and (ii) the problems that emerge during task performances. In addition, Breen argues that the sequencing of TBSs is cyclic in a way that L2 learners move from one task to another amidst the on-going difficulties as they arise during task performance. In this way, Breen maintains that, as tasks are sequenced, similarly, the competence of L2 learner is also refined. This is because according to Breen, tasks need more of L2 learners’ competencies for learners to complete a given task. Breen stresses the view that, cyclic sequencing provides a diagnostic and remediation along task
performance, which gradually helps L2 learners to realise positive changes in the completion of a task.

In light of Breen’s view above, Ellis (2003a: 66) also points out the issue of task sequencing. According to Ellis, the appropriate criterion for grading/sequencing of the task at the difficulty level for learners is yet to be identified. However, Ellis proposes a general framework for sequencing of the task that can sufficiently provide for linguistically unfocused and focused tasks in a language classroom as illustrated in Figure 3:6 below.

Figure 3:6: A framework for designing and sequencing task-based courses

![Diagram of task-based syllabus]

Source: Modified from Ellis (2003a: 66)

In addition to Figure 3:6 above, Breen (1987a: 163) adds to the above framework the view that crucial in relation to task sequencing as discussed in the next section.

3.8.1. Task sequencing based on tasks themselves

As Lightbown & Spada (2013) argue that task sequencing influences the pedagogical practices and subsequent support for interlanguage development of L2 learners, Breen holds the view that tasks should be sequenced from tasks that are familiar in relation to the L2 learners’ current competencies to tasks that are less familiar to L2 learners’ current competencies (cf. Long 2015a: 306). Similarly, Breen maintains that task is also sequenced from most generalizable task types to the least generalised tasks. According to Breen, both modes of sequencing apply to the nature of knowledge and abilities required in a task. In this case, a task may require, for example, familiar textual, interpersonal, ideational knowledge as discussed in section 3.3.2, on page 120, and familiar use of learner’s abilities. In addition, Breen states that a task may require knowledge or abilities which
underlie in a wide range of communication tasks. In this instance, therefore, Breen maintains that there is an engagement of core knowledge and abilities which are generalizable in nature.

In relation to the above views, Breen argues that TBSs exploit subtleties in sequencing because according to Breen, TBSs are based on the analysis of a range of aspects and components in a communication. In explaining the communication components, Breen states that “...a task may require unfamiliar knowledge but exploit a use of ability which is familiar to the learner, therefore enabling the latter to compensate for the demands of the former, or vice versa.” In addition, Breen is of the view that, working within the knowledge systems, tasks may be quite demanding at the ideational i.e. at cognitive or conceptual levels. On the other hand, the same task may be manageable in terms of textual or and interpersonal knowledge which has to be exploited by L2 learners for the learners to complete the task (s). In this regard, Breen advises that although the three knowledge systems are interrelated in communication processes, Breen argues that the manageability of the same systems is complex and may vary in one way or another. Thus, according to Breen, TBS designers have a range of dimensions from which to direct and base the relative familiarity or demands of any task to the L2 learners. According to Breen, the dimensions include the three knowledge systems (as discussed in section 3.3.2, on page 120), and the language ability use.

Furthermore, Breen argues that the sequencing of the initial tasks is deliberately targeted to exploit and involve the communicative knowledge and abilities which L2 learners already possess. According to Breen, such knowledge and abilities represent the underlying competencies of the language learners know and they can as well use. In justifying his view, Breen states that initial tasks are diagnosed in the following senses; (i) such tasks are focused on uncovering what L2 learners can manage i.e. competencies that L2 learners possess. (ii) Such tasks also uncover what L2 learners do not know or cannot do. In this way according to Breen, the latter tasks constitute the point of departure for the on-going sequencing of learning tasks. In other words, Breen tries to explain that the subsequent tasks are sequenced based on the development of knowledge and abilities as depicted from the learners’ initial competencies. In relation to knowledge developments, Breen maintains that the development is both on the liner and expansive basis. According to Breen, the development is linear because of development progress towards a targeted competence. Furthermore, Breen argues that development is expansive because it allows L2 learners to participate in a range of tasks in a widening basis.

Similarly, in relation to task sequencing, while explaining the principles of task-based instruction, Skehan (2008: 129-131), argues that the target of sequencing tasks is for L2 learners to achieve
balanced goals of development in L2 competencies. According to Skehan, in order to achieve the developmental goal, the exercise of sequencing tasks should be based on scientific evidence, specifically, informed by task-based research. In this context, according to Skehan, task sequencing should appropriately target the levels of difficulty of the task to the learners. Skehan is of the view that such target requires designers to focus on the language notions of fluency, accuracy (see, section 3.4.4.3, on page 139), and complexity.

In explaining about task difficulty, Skehan (2008: 134) relates task difficulty to the information about the level of challenges that a given task may contain. According to Skehan, knowledge on task difficulty is useful in the following ways, (i) such information provides task designers with relevant information that can be used in designing tasks that match with learners’ knowledge levels for effective task performances. In this context, L2 learners are motivated in performing other tasks since they feel learners are required to respond to reasonable challenges as depicted in such tasks. And, (ii) learners are bound to cope with demands placed upon them on their attentional resources. According to Skehan, L2 learners possess limited attentional capabilities. In this context, learners are motivated to raise their noticing abilities, hence, a balanced language performance in L2. However, Skehan is of the view that in order for syllabus designers and language teachers for addressing issues related to task difficult as discussed above, Skehan argues that both teachers and task designers require experiences in task-based approaches. According to Skehan, the experience is an important aspect, specifically, for classroom teachers because teachers are the determiners of the classroom decisions and so on.

Similarly, on the notion of task difficulty, Nunan (2004: 85) agree with Skehan on the issues that task difficulty is crucial for language researchers, classroom teachers, curriculum developers, syllabus designer, as well as, material writers. Unlike structural syllabuses that adopt the notions of linguistic complexity, Nunan argues that task-based designers need to determine the degree of task difficulty in order to sequence and integrate tasks. According to Nunan, in the past, the lack of objective methods and procedures for determining task complexity and difficulty were absent. Thus, Nunan emphasises that lack of such procedures is primarily based on three intersecting factors that are involved in measuring tasks difficulty. The factors include learners, task, as well as text/input factors, as summarised in Table 3:11 below.
### Table 3:11: Indicating determiners of task difficulty

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Easier</th>
<th>More difficult</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Learner</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>is confident about the task</td>
<td>is not confident</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>is motivated to carry out the task</td>
<td>is not motivated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>has a necessary prior learning experience</td>
<td>has no prior experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>can learn at the pace required</td>
<td>cannot learn at the pace required</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>has necessary language skills</td>
<td>does not have language skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>has relevant cultural knowledge</td>
<td>does not have relevant cultural knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Task</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>low cognitive complexity</td>
<td>cognitively complex</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>has few steps</td>
<td>has many steps</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>plenty of contexts provided</td>
<td>no context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>plenty of help available</td>
<td>no help available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>does not require grammatical accuracy</td>
<td>grammatical accuracy required</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>has as much time as necessary</td>
<td>has little time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Text/Input</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>is short, not dense (few facts)</td>
<td>is long and dense (many facts)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clear presentation</td>
<td>presentation not clear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>plenty of contextual clues</td>
<td>few contextual clues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>familiar, everyday content</td>
<td>unfamiliar context</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Modified from Nunan (2004: 85-86)

Similarly, with reference to Nunan (2004: 88-90), Martyn (2001) identifies four key conditions with regard to cognitive demands. According to Nunan, such conditions is a collation of studies in relation to task difficulty. The conditions include, (i) the degree of task structure [whether high or low], (ii) contextual support [whether embedded, reduced or remote], (ii) availability of knowledge schema [provided or assumed through prior knowledge]. Lastly, (iv) reasoning demand [whether high or low]. Nunan is of the view that Martyn (2001) uses the four conditions to map the task framework as advanced by Pica et al. (1993) to generate a construction that measures the levels of communicative and cognitive demand as postulated in different task types. The construct is summarised as follows in Table 3:12 below.
Table 3:12: A construct for measuring levels of communicative and cognitive demands

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task types</th>
<th>Contextual support</th>
<th>Reasoning required</th>
<th>The degree of task structure</th>
<th>Available knowledge</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jigsaw</td>
<td>Embedded</td>
<td>not required</td>
<td>high</td>
<td>given</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information exchange</td>
<td>embedded</td>
<td>not required</td>
<td>high</td>
<td>given</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem-solving</td>
<td>some embedded</td>
<td>required</td>
<td>varies</td>
<td>given</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision-making</td>
<td>context-reduced</td>
<td>required</td>
<td>low</td>
<td>given or available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opinion exchange</td>
<td>remote</td>
<td>required</td>
<td>low</td>
<td>variable/not required</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Modified from Nunan (2004: 89)

Drawing from Table 3:12 above, and with reference to Nunan (2004: 89), Martyn (2001) hypothesises that the above tasks are presented in a continuum. According to her, the continuum is based on the density of negotiation sequences as postulated by each specific task type. Therefore, according to Table 3:12 above, jigsaw tasks are set to produce the lowest density of negotiation of meaning (see also, section 2.4.6.2, on page 90). In addition, Table 3:12, on page 169, also shows that opinion exchange tasks have the highest density of negotiation of meaning. Similarly, the remaining tasks are located between the continuums.

On the other hand, Martyn argues that jigsaw tasks reflect the least cognitive demands due to the following features. The features include, the embedded context within the task, the task has to be shared. The task requires no reasoning. The task is highly structured with a range of items to be exchanged. Lastly, the task is provided with knowledge schema. Unlike, jigsaw tasks, opinion exchange tasks have features, such as remote contexts due to the abstract nature of the task itself. The task requires reasoning. The level (s) of the structure is low because there isn’t information for exchange as it is with jigsaw tasks. In addition, opinion exchange task has a single outcome which is a non-requirement. The task also has divergent goals. Lastly, knowledge schema for opinion exchange task is not provided due to the fact that the outcome is open. Finally, Breen (1987a: 164) asserts that another option of a sequencing task is based on the emerging learner's problems as discussed below.
3.8.2. Task sequence on the basis of emerging learners’ problems

Breen is of the view that target and related learning tasks are planned in advance as a syllabus on the basis of two criterion or on the basis of relating the two criterions. These include, (i) comparatively familiar tasks that learners have knowledge about and are able to perform such tasks, and (ii) task that are comparative with least complexity of demand that such tasks impose on the language learners. However, Breen (1987a: 164) suggests that the above criterions provide a general and only constitutes a section as task guiding plan. In support of his suggestion, Breen argues that task sequencing based on the emerging problems/difficulties placed upon L2 learners i.e. diagnosis and remediation are worked upon on the basis of, (i) identifying learners’ learning challenges as observed, (ii) selection of such challenges according to the order they are to be addressed, lastly (iii) to identify appropriate tasks that are suitable for addressing the attested challenges.

According to Breen, sequencing of tasks using the above criterion provide learners with supportive learning tasks that are targeted to lead the learners to the main/subordinate tasks which are presumed to be most difficult. In addition, Breen argues that depending on the range of varying difficulties, especially in homogeneous classrooms, the sequencing of a learning task is predicted on a relative basis depending on the nature of the main task. Thus, the sequencing of the tasks basing on L2 learners’ learning problem is based on the learners’ own syllabuses and experience of working with the new language. According to Breen, such a situation implies that the designers should consider a range of initial provision of two types of learning tasks. These tasks include, (i) those directed to serve particular communicative tasks and (ii) “unsequenced set of learning tasks which are identified by specific problems that learners say have but which represents an asset of the supportive task as a resource used by particular learners only when they need them.” In relation to the Breen view above regarding task sequencing, Ellis (2003a) also advances his view regarding task sequencing.

3.8.3. Ellis’s (2003a) framework for task sequencing

Ellis (2003b: 220) argues that syllabus design requires the learning content be sequenced in an order that facilitates it maximum learning. According to Ellis, sequencing is the exercise of determining the complexity of the task in relation to learners’ level of developments. In expounding on his views, while in agreement with other scholars, Ellis (2003a: 67, 2003b: 221) synthesises four sets of factors considered crucial in determining the ease or difficulty with which to perform the task. According to Ellis, such sets include, for instance, (i) inherent characteristics of the task itself, [the
nature of the input, the task conditions, the processing operations involved in completing tasks and the outcome that is required], (ii) task difficulty and (iii) task procedure. Therefore, the subsequent section discusses in depth the factors in the set (i) above as illustrated in Table 3:9, on page 160. According to Ellis (2003a: 67-73), such factors are essential in determining the complexity of the task.

3.8.3.1. Factors related to task complexity

Before discussing sets of factors that are influential in determining task complexity, Ellis (2003a: 68) agrees with the idea that little is known about how factors in the set (i), i.e. inherent characteristics of the task above relate to each other as a system for determining the complexity. Subsequently, Ellis outlines such factors in the set (i) above as, (i) input (ii) conditions (iii) processes and (iv) outcome as discussed in the subsequent paragraphs.

According to Ellis (2003a: 68), in task-based theories and its related issues, the input is related to the information (content) that language teachers extend or provide to their learners for learning. Ellis argues that in a task, such kind of information tends to vary in complexity in various ways. Ellis points out some examples of such variations. The variations include, (i) the medium (ii) code complexity (iii) cognitive complexity (iv) context dependency and (v) the familiarity of information. Therefore, in order to understand the above variations in task input, the subsequent paragraphs discuss them respectively.

According to Ellis (2003a: 68), the medium of input or input medium is related to the information that is given to the L2 learners in form of oral, written or pictorial formats. Ellis contends that if for example, pictorial or written information is given to the learners and learners interpret the information in their own time, Ellis maintains that it becomes easier for the learners to process such information compared to when the learners are given, for example, oral information as medium input. Similarly, Samuda and Rounds (1993: 135) advise teachers to utilise pictorial tasks because they are easy and they create a sense of confidence, satisfaction, and motivation among learners who in return may want to perform more complex tasks. However, Ellis (2003a: 68) emphasises that the validity of the above view solely depends on the learners’ level of literacy. In support of his emphasis, Ellis uses the Bangalore project as an example. Ellis argues that the participants of the Bangalore project favoured and found out that the oral input is easier than the written input. Similarly, Ellis maintains that pictorial input is easier for learners than both written and oral. According to Ellis, the pictorial input requires noticing learners’ linguistic resources. Ellis, however, stresses that such pictures are required to be culturally familiar to the L2 learners. Thus,
Ellis advises teachers and course designers to use pictures and diagrams as input especially to the learners with limited proficiency in L2.

According to Ellis (2003a: 68), another complexity that is related to variation in task input is the code complexity. Ellis states that code complexity involves both lexical and syntactical complexities (see section 3.8.4, on page 179, for their reviews). Ellis argues that it is possible for lexical and syntactical complexities to have a direct role in influencing L2 learners’ ability in comprehending a given input. Subsequently, according to Ellis, such influence also affects the performance of the task itself. In justifying his views, Ellis emphasises the point that texts with complex sentences (syntactic) structures are more difficult compared to texts with low-level of subordination. On the other hand, Ellis also states that texts with high-frequency vocabularies (lexical) are easier to understand than texts with low-frequency vocabularies. In emphasizing Oh’s (2001) views, Ellis (2003a: 68) also suggests for the adoption of elaborative input. According to Ellis, elaborative input calls for devices, such as paraphrasing and glosses in the input rather than mere simplifications of the input.

Furthermore, Ellis (2003a: 69) advances the idea that cognitive complexity is another form of input complexity. According to Ellis, cognitive complexity involves the demand from the learners’ cognitional abilities required to process the content of the input materials. While explaining further the notion of cognitive complexity, Ellis synthesises from other scholars, three dimensions that affect cognitive complexity. According to Ellis, such dimensions include, (i) information type, (ii) amount of information, and (iii) degree of structure of the input as discussed below respectively.

Ellis (2003a: 69) argues that the type of information that is provided to learners can be of three types. (i) static (ii) dynamic and (iii) abstract. According to Ellis, static information is the type of information that remains the same throughout the task performance period. Similarly, according to Ellis, dynamic information is the type of information that keeps on changing at different intervals. An example of dynamic information includes video stories et cetera. Lastly, according to Ellis, abstract information is the type of information that “has to be used to form an opinion or justify a position.” In emphasising the above views, Ellis also stresses that static information/tasks are the easiest to perform, followed subsequently by dynamic and abstract tasks which are most difficult to perform. In addition, while advancing other scholars’ views, Ellis maintains that tasks that involve names of objects and actions are easier that tasks with abstract concepts.

In addition, Ellis (2003a: 69) also emphasises that the amount of information for processing also affect cognitive complexity. According to Ellis, the amount of information is composed of, (i) range
of elements, and (ii) the relationship of such elements in the tasks. In addition, Ellis argues that a task with a few elements is easier to perform than a task with more elements. Similarly, a task, for example, storytelling, with few characters, are easier to tell than stories with more characters of objects. Furthermore, in stressing Skehan’s (2001) suggestions, Ellis (2003a: 69) advances the view that the degree of the structure of the input as a contributing factor to cognitive complexity. According to Ellis, the degree of such a structure involves clarity of the information, i.e. macrostructure. Ellis maintains that with macrostructure, time stated, structured input compared to unstructured input are involved. Ellis argues that learners readily call on the structured schema to help them organise their language productions.

In relation to information complexity as previously discussed, while emphasising other scholars’ views, Ellis (2003a: 69) argues that input that depends on context has a direct bearing on the input complexity. For instance, Ellis states that “textual input that is supported by visual information…generally easier to process…” than information without such support. Similarly, Ellis emphasises the view that context-free input with the remote reference is more complex compared to contexts with nearby references. In this context, Ellis is advancing the idea that texts that are supported with or by tables, graphs, drawings and so on, are easier to understand and vice versa. In addition to context dependency, there is also familiarity with information that contributes to information complexity. According to Ellis (2003a: 70), the notion of familiarity of information is less the same as task difficulty and task complexity. According to Ellis, the familiarity of information constitutes both the thematic content of the task and the individual learners’ knowledge. Ellis maintains that the more knowledgeable the learners are about the world, the easier the task can be. Ellis agrees that a range of syllabus designers use learners’ familiarity with information as a criterion in influencing task complexity.

### 3.8.3.2. Factors related to task conditions

Ellis (2003a: 70) maintains that another set of factors that determine task complexity are the task conditions. Unlike task input, according to Ellis, task conditions receive limited attention from syllabus and task designers. In that instance, Ellis synthesises only three factors that influence task conditions that determine task complexity. According to Ellis, such factors include, (i) conditions related to the negotiation of meaning, (ii) task demands and (iii) discourse mode required by the task. On the other hand, in relation to conditions that influence the negotiation of meaning, Ellis (2003a: 70) infers that task completion depends on the psychological elements of a task. In this instance, according to Ellis, some tasks prove difficulty in completion compared to others. For examples, the one-way task is more complex than the two-way task in terms of negotiation of
meaning. According to Ellis, such situation is plausible because once learners are given enough opportunities to negotiate meaning, Ellis argues that such opportunities lead to successful task outcome. In addition, Ellis maintains that negotiation increases the number of time learners spend on tasks. However, Ellis advances the view that there are factors that affect the amount of time for negotiation. According to him, such factors are contributory to task complexity. The factors include, (i) information configuration (ii) interaction requirement and orientations.

According to Ellis (2003a: 71), another set of factors that influence task conditions are task demands. Task demands constitute to task conditions that lead to task complexity. In addition, Ellis stresses that research on task demands receives much more attention compared to other aspects of task complexity. Ellis relates task demand to the situation whether task imposes a single (one) or more (dual) demands on task performers (learners). In other words, task demand involves the addition of a task or series of tasks for the main task. In explaining task demand, Ellis uses Robinson’s (2001) illustration of task demand. The illustration involves, (i) making the learner describe a marked route. According to Robinson, such description is a single demand for the learner to perform, or (ii) making the learner mark the unmarked route, as well as, describing the route itself. According to Robinson, these are double tasks, i.e. demands that the learner performs.

Still, on task demands, Ellis (2003a: 71) maintains that investigations on task demands, particularly on dual tasks, are often conducted differently. For instance, Ellis stresses further that there are instances where learners are asked to describe a marked map (single task) to other participants. Subsequently, Ellis is of the view that the same map can be given to different learners to describe to others participants. But this time, the same map having some varying features or marks (dual task) that require learners to describe. According to Ellis, the later follows under dual task demands. In addition, other than task demands, On the other hand, there is discourse mode as an influential factor in conditioning a task.

While emphasising on Skehan’s (2001) study, Ellis (2003a: 71) argues that task differs in terms of considering the monologue or dialogue nature of a particular task on the side of the task participants. Ellis, however, stresses that monologue task facilitates greatly in promoting fluency. In relation to monologic tasks, Robinson (2015: 108) argues that such tasks promote both accuracy and complexity since there are uninterrupted turns as a result of limited interaction with other learners. Similarly, Schleppegrell (2004: 33) maintains that in monologic tasks, learners assume the role of language experts as they stand before others to perform the task in the classroom. Thus, in order to achieve the expertise, like in other tasks, Willis and Willis (2007: 57) are of the view that,
in monologic tasks, learners need to practice and exploit their listening devices to spoken texts and be able to process them aurally.

Likewise, Ellis argues that dialogical tasks also promote both accuracy and complexity as discussed in section 3.4.4.3, on page 139. According to Ellis, the former (dialogue) provides learners with opportunities to participate as they learn from each other’s performances. With reference to Ellis (2003a: 71), Skehan (1996) is of the view that the communicative stress is also realized as a result of how task participants are able to influence the way the task is performed. In addition, according to Skehan, L2 learners exert control on a task due to the opportunities that learners have in meaning negotiations for instance, through requesting for clarifications especially in dialogic tasks.

3.8.3.3. Factors related to the process of performing a task

Ellis (2003a: 71) argues that task complexity is a result of the nature of the cognitive processes and operations that are required to complete a given task. According to Ellis, such factors are unlimited. In a way, that, other than the role of reasoning needed in task completion, Ellis, for example, provides other options that are needed for task completion. According to him, such factors include methodological procedures, as well as, the inclusion or exclusion of the time factor for task performance. Ellis stresses the view that the above factors are given least attention during syllabus design compared to factors in relation to reasoning. Thus, for a detailed discussion on the, for example, methodological issues and procedures, see, for example, Ellis (2003b: 243-278). Otherwise, the subsequent paragraph discusses factors related to reasoning during task performance.

By using Bangalore’s (1987) project for illustration purposes, Ellis (2003a: 71-72) maintains that the amount of reasoning in a task determines the complexity of its performance. In explaining his views, Ellis uses Bangalore tasks samples, such as information-gap, reasoning-gap and opinion-gap tasks as discussed in section 3.5.2.3, on page 147. According to Ellis, the level of complexity in the task gaps keep on increasing in the same order as the way the tasks are listed above. In other words, on one hand, the information-gap task is least complex, and on the other hand, according to Ellis, the opinion gap is taken to be the most complex, thus allowing the reasoning-gap task to have average complexity. However, Ellis emphasises the point that the relativity of task difficulty is determined to further by the “distance” between the provided information and the information that is arrived at, as an outcome. Ellis argues that the information distance involves a number of steps. According to Ellis, such steps include, information-deductions, calculations of steps, as well as inferences involved. According to Ellis, another set of complexity is related to the task outcome as discussed below.
3.8.3.4. Factors related to task outcomes

Like other sets of complexity above, Ellis (2003a: 72) is of the view that task outcomes are also affected by other sets of factors. According to Ellis, such factors include, (i) the medium, (ii) the scope, (iii) the discourse domain, lastly, (iv) the complexity of the outcome. Ellis (2003a: 72) argues that as the medium of input, see section 3.8.3.1, on page 171, the medium of outcome (output) is another influential factor in determining task complexity. Ellis emphasises the point that pictorial and written production prove to be easier than the oral productions. Ellis argues that oral productions are more difficult, for example, in public presentations. Ellis, however, reminds us that the above productions often depends on individual learner’s experience with different audience and channels. For instance, Ellis maintains that the least complex production (outcome), involves a simple visual representation, such as a map, a diagram with little or no linguistics demands at the outcome level. According to Ellis, such tasks outcomes are more for comprehension purposes than for task production purposes. In this regard, Ellis advises syllabus designers and language teachers to make use of simple comprehension tasks especially to beginners with little or no competence in speaking or writing in the L2.

Similarly, other than the medium of the outcome, Ellis (2003a: 72) emphasises a point that there is also the scope of the outcome which also influences task outcome. However, Ellis stresses that in the SLA literature, the literature in relation to the relative complexity of the task is scarce, especially, the literature of task with closed or open outcomes. Ellis maintains that task with closed outcomes is easier. According to him, such tasks are easier because task participants perform while knowing that there is a right answer (outcome). In addition, Ellis is of the view that tasks with closed outcomes are economical perhaps in terms of time-saving. Furthermore, Ellis also suggests the discourse domain of the outcome as another contributing factor on task outcome.

Like the previous section, Ellis (2003a: 73) argues that in research, there is a scarcity of evidence especially the evidence that determines the appropriate discourse domain that imposes the most cognitive demands than other discourses. Ellis argues that:

Intuitively, lists and descriptions are less of a challenge than instruction or arguments, with classification and narration intermediate. In general, however, the degree of complexity of these discourse domains will depend on the level of detail required for the product. Instructions, for example, can be more or less complex depending on the number and content of the specific directives. (2003a: 73)

Additionally, Ellis (2007a: 73) is of the view that the complexity of the outcome is another factor to consider too. While referring to other scholars’ views, Ellis (2007a: 73) maintains that the
complexity of the outcome is an influential factor in decision-making tasks. Ellis stresses that the nature of the outcome, subsequently, impacts on the task performance, and as a result, it affects the complexity of the arguments and points to be made and considered. In support of the above views, Ellis also advances other scholars' views that task outcome may either be less precise or even more. Similarly, according to Ellis, the greater the precision the more complex the task. However, Ellis emphasises that such outcome also depends on a range of factors, for example, syntactic and lexical accuracy and so forth.

In addition, Ellis (2009b: 227) is of the view that some of the above-discussed factors are empirically based whereas others are based on speculations. For instance, Ellis states that input and dual as well as single tasks demands are empirically researched. On the other hand, Ellis stresses the view that is it challenging to determine, for instance, a task that involves unfamiliar information which is also static based on learners’ current knowledge and so on (cf. Long 2015a: 306). Similarly, Ellis is of the view that the relationships and the engagements of variously discussed factors above that determine task complexity are challenging and complex to determine. Thus, based on the above dilemma, Ellis (2009b: 228-229) proposes a criterion that course designers ought to use in the assessment of task complexity. According to Ellis, the criterion is divided into two stages. The initial stage involves the informal assessment of task complexity by the designers. Similarly, the second step is the application of the criterion as stipulated in Table 3:9, on page 160.

In relation to the above-discussed factors, Ellis is of the view that in relation to the formulation of TBSs, the above factors are mainly crucial in the grading of learning content. According to Ellis, such factors represent a checklist that is taken into account while designing TBSs. Ellis, however, argues that the real planning involves the following procedures. First, Ellis contends that the initial step is the determination of the goals of the intended course. Ellis categories the goals in three different focuses which include, language focus goals, such as focused and unfocused, a pedagogical focus, that is to say, specific or general purposes. Lastly, skill focus which involves, speaking, listening, writing, speaking or learner training. Second. Ellis stresses that the designers’ role is choosing from broad task types while specifying the given themes that the choice of tasks made will deal with. Subsequently, designers will have task organised in themes and the task will be specified in relation to the general activities that L2 learners will have to perform as shown in columns 1 and 2 in Table 3:13 below.
Table 3:13: An example of part of a task-based syllabus for general proficiency

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>General activity</th>
<th>Task options</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School timetables</td>
<td>[1] Listing: constructing timetable from instructions/descriptions.</td>
<td>Input: pictorial/written tight structure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Outcomes:</td>
<td>Outcomes:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>pictorial/written closed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Modified from Ellis (2009b: 229)

Third, this step allows designers to the nature of the task for use from a selection of various options related to, for example, input, processes, conditions as well as an outcome as illustrated in column 3 in Table 3:13 above. Ellis, however, advises that the selection of tasks should be mainly motivated by factors such as psycholinguistics issues while considering the specific language teaching and learning contexts. Lastly, according to Ellis (2009b: 230), the fourth step is the stage that involves the sequencing of the learning tasks. Ellis argues that the appropriate criterion for sequencing task is the criterion that has been illustrated in Table 3:9, on page 160, as a means of evaluating an intuition assessment of task complexity.

Finally, Ellis is of the view that the discussed factors and criterions are suitable for designing TBSs based on linguistically unfocused tasks. However, in terms of designing linguistically focussed TBSs, Ellis provides two options on how linguistic forms can be accommodated in such syllabuses. The options include, (i) by designing tasks that direct learners’ attention to focus on specific linguistic form or code, i.e. focused tasks as discussed in 3.5.2. (ii) The second option is the methodological aspect. In this option, learners are directed to focus on forms while performing linguistically unfocused tasks. This option is also referred to incidental attention where a code is focused during communication in terms of for instance feedback which is either instant or even after the communicative task has been accomplished (see Chapter Five). For detailed discussions on both options, see, for example, Ellis (2009b: 230 & 255).

In light of the above, section 3.9, on page 185, will review issues regarding CH as another basis for grading and sequencing of pedagogical tasks. Nevertheless, to clearly understand the CH and its related principles, it is necessary to review the notion(s) of linguistic and syntactic complexity, as will be advanced below.
3.8.4. Linguistic/syntactic complexity

In the previous sections, mainly sub-section 3.8.3.1, on page 171, in expounding about task complexity, Ellis (2003a: 68) briefly discussed the notion of syntactic complexity as an influential factor in determining task complexity while grading and sequencing learning tasks. Similarly, this study finds syntactic complexity as crucial in both syllabus designing processes and in the pedagogical practices with regard to TBSs. Thus, in this section, the study offers reviews on a few studies that have explored syntactic complexity as a field in SLA, particularly the measuring units of L2 sentences.

To begin with, in Chapter Two, sections 2.4.6.6 and 2.4.6.7, on pages 96 and 100, respectively, explored some theoretical views with respect to focus on form (FoF/FonF) and form-focused instruction (FFI), as pedagogical practices that support L2 learners in the acquiring grammatical features of L2 that they are learning. Therefore, this section, the study provides an overview of linguistic complexity, as a theoretical construct in relation to the acquisition and production of lexical forms, syntactic and subordination related constructs in the L2 speech discourse (see also De Clercq & Housen 2017). In the field of SLA and teaching, scholars advance the view that linguistic complexity (C) with is treated in conjunction with the notions of accuracy (A) and fluency (F) = (CAF), has been an area of interest for years now. These notions are important in the field of SLA because they demonstrate the degree of acquisition with respect to the production of L2 constructs from the learners’ perspectives.

While scholars including Norris & Ortega (2009), Pallotti (2009, 2015), Bulté and Housen (2012) and Housen, Kuiken & Vedder (2012) stress the view that CAF in general and complexity as a notion in particular, have been differently interpreted by several scholars across research contexts. According to Norris & Ortega (2009: 556), the major cause of such variations is the fact that each notion in CAF is as complex as its multiple subsystems and parts (cf. Nassaji & Fotos 2011: 11, with regard to FonF; Housen & Simoens 2016: 164 on difficulty/complexity). Such variations have led to, for example, multiple definitions of similar notions influenced the choices of metric measures of such notions that often realise generalised estimated research results (Robinson & Ellis 2008 as cited in Norris & Ortega 2009: 556; cf. Housen & Simoens 2016: 164). Subsequently, in their study, Norris & Ortega (2009) suggest for a proposal to advance an organic approach that can address the CAF notions with an aim of providing measurable, reliable and valid complex results when attempting, for example, to measure L2 learners’ speech productions (cf. Housen & Simoens 2016).
It is in this regard, however, that this section briefly reviews some theoretical views with regard to the notion of CAF before attempting to explore the choices of units measuring CAF. This aims to provide us with the common procedures that have been employed while dealing with the notion of CAF as far as measuring SLA and speech production are concerned.

3.8.4.1. Pallotti’s (2009) study

Pallotti’s (2009) study distinguishes the constructs of complexity, adequacy and fluency (CAF) from the notions of communicative adequacy and linguistic development. In particular, Pallotti (2009: 590) argues that for the purpose of interpreting the CAF measures, adequacy as a notion requires being separated as a dimension of performance. In addition, Pallotti maintains that while CAF constructs are employed in several dimensions for describing language performance with regard to, for example, variations in task features or levels of acquisitions in both L1 or L2 learners, scholars, including Pallotti stress the view that the performance descriptions of the three constructs are more general than being specific.

Before defining the constructs of CAF, Pallotti (2009: 590-191) poses two notes to researchers. In the first note, Pallotti stresses the view that in seeking the valid and informative measure results in language performance, researchers should be concerned with results which are on one hand similar and constant and on the other hand those with variations and differences. This is achieved when there is validity in the measure that is sufficiently represented by its fundamental construct(s). The second note is concerned with employing multiple measures in relation to the number (group) of subjects involved. In this respect, Pallotti advises researchers to be more cautious in the interpreting the results of CAF constructs “when only one or two measures out of many reach a significant result.” The above notes as advanced by Pallotti can be summarised by the views as emphasised by Norris and Ortega (2009) as cited in Pallotti (2009: 591) that researchers have attempted to at least consider the questions of what and why they are measuring the constructs, for example, syntactic complexity in terms of its theoretical underpinnings and operationalisations. It is in this regard that Pallotti offers definitions of the notions of CAF, as explored below.

3.8.4.1.1. The complexity, accuracy and fluency (CAF) triad

In defining complexity, Pallotti (2009: 592) emphasises that in the CAF triad, complexity as a construct is the most problematic given that complexity is related to either properties of language performance or to the task features. On the one hand, Pallotti (2009: 593) prefers to associate task properties to two meanings of difficulty (i) objective difficulty as inherited in the task (see Skehan’s
(2008: 100) views on task difficulty in section 3.7.1, on page 161), and (ii) subjective difficulty which is associated with someone’s competence/ incompetence while encountering a task(s).

Similarly, with respect to the complexity of the description of language performance, Pallotti argues that the construct of complexity still holds several meanings given that complexity can be applied to various language aspects and communication. With reference to Pallotti (2009: 593), Ellis (2005: 153-154) provides some of the aspects including interaction, lexical and several types of grammatical complexity. Basing on the above list, Pallotti wonders whether there is a need to still consider the whole list as the same construct or a different one. In addition, Pallotti maintains that each of the above aspects on the list uses the notion of complexity differently. Pallotti argues that there are three distinguishable meanings of complexity that can be drawn from the above list. They include (i) structural, composed of more than one part. that is simple or complex grammatical structures; (ii) variety of multiple alternatives (lexical complexity). This relates complexity to different or cognitively demanding; (iii) late acquisition, that is, the ability to realise more advanced target language or the result of using more advanced language. Pallotti is of the view that there is a need for the above meanings of complexity to be experimented not to generalise their operationalisations. According to Pallotti, this should be done because some forms may or can be acquired late given that they are communicatively irrelevant or infrequent. Thus, argues for the need to separate complexity as a construct from other notions associated with it such as progress or development, advanced or developed.

Basing on the above, Pallotti (2009: 594) suggests that language developments need to be considered separately from CAF. This is because development is a process while CAF is a product of properties of language performance. In a similar way, Pallotti (2009: 596) advances another construct of communicative adequacy while measuring CAF constructs. To Pallotti, communicative adequacy is related to the speaker’s ability to successfully perform a task and fulfil its intended goals. Pallotti is of the view that while there are several studies that have attempted to measure CAF, there are very few that report the unfolding of communicative adequacy as a construct. Pallotti argues that adequacy can be viewed in two dimensions. On one hand as a way of interpreting CAF measures, and on the other hand, as theoretically independent from CAF although empirically, there are chances that the two may relate (for a detailed discussion of this construct, see Pallotti 2009).

3.8.4.2. Bulté and Housen’s (2012) study

In classifying the characteristics of complexity in SLA research, Bulté and Housen (2012: 21) identify two broader strands that complexity can be distinguished. They include, (i) complexity as a
dependent construct that is operationalised in conjunction with accuracy and fluency; (ii) complexity as an independent variable that influences aspects of L2 performance or their proficiencies. It is in this respect that Bulté and Housen (2012: 22) point out the view that in all the studies that they examined in relation to the operationalisation of complexity in the above two strands, there have been inconsistent reports with regard to their results of measuring complexity. This inconsistency is attributed to the several definitions that complexity as a notion has received across studies (see Pallotti 2009: 593 for similar views). Thus, the need to correctly interpret the results of measuring complexity, Bulté and Housen advance the view that an explicit characterisation of complexity as a construct is needed (cf. Mitchell 2009 as cited in Bulté and Housen 2012: 22). According to Bulté and Housen,

the most basic definition of complexity can be related to the property or quality of a phenomenon of entity in terms of (1) the number and the nature of the discrete components that the entity consists of, and (2) the number and the nature of the relationships between the constituent components. (2012: 22)

Considering the above, with reference to Bulté and Housen (2012: 23), Dahl (2004), Miestamo, Sinnemäki and Karlsson (2008) distinguish between absolute and relative approaches (absolute & relative) with regard to complexity as used in the field of language science. On one hand, the relative approach is related to the language users. In this respect, for example, language features are considered complex when they demand language users’ or learners’ mental resources needed to process and internalise such features. According to Bulté and Housen (2012: 23-24), this type of complexity is also referred to as difficulty (see Skehan 2008; Housen & Simoens 2016) or cognitive complexity (see Robinson’s CH as discussed mainly in Chapter Three). On the other hand, complexity in relation to absolute approach is defined in terms of quantitative and objective terms such as the number of components (discrete) that consist a language feature and the number of corresponding connections of such components.

In relation to the above views and with respect to analysing L2 learners’ performance and proficiency, Bulté and Housen (2012: 24) provide three components of L2 complexity. They include discourse-interactional complexity, propositional complexity and linguistic complexity. With reference to Bulté and Housen (2012: 24), Zaki and Ellis (1999) and Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005) define prepositional complexity as a number of idea units that are encoded by a writer/speaker while expressing a message content of a task. For instance, this type of complexity is when one speaker encodes more ideas e.g. 100 and another one speaker encode only 40 (see, for example, STDs number 4.2.4.3 and number 4.3.1 as they occur in Appendix (A-ii), on page 469 and page 470, respectively). On the other hand, discourse-interactional is referred to the number of turns speakers initiate in an oral discourse and the number of different roles a speaker is given in a
communicative engagement, on the other hand, linguistic complexity is interpreted into two ways; global or system complexity and local or structural complexity.

The latter is related to the structural complexity with specific reference to the depth of linguistic features and individual uses. These are further divided into functional and formal complexity feature of L2. While the former is related to several functions and meanings embedded in a linguistic feature, the latter focuses on the several operations that are used to arrive at the structure of L2. Considering the global or system complexity as a sub-unit of linguistic complexity, Bulté and Housen (2012: 25) stress that this type of linguistic complexity is a dynamic property of leaner’s L2 system at large. It is a degree at which L2 learners can elaborate a variety of L2 diversities and several ranges of grammatical structures as so forth.

In brief, Bulté and Housen (2012: 26) emphasise the view that the above-drawn distinctions are proposals for further research when L2 researchers are investigating properties or complexity elements in L2s. Bulté and Housen argue that the above descriptions are only theoretical, some of them are intertwined and so forth (for a detailed discussion on linguistic and syntactic complexity, their measuring units and their schematic representations, see Bulté and Housen 2012: 26-41).

3.8.4.3. Pallotti’s (2015) study

Pallotti (2015: 117) is of the view that complexity has been employed as both dependents in terms of explaining the production of linguistics aspects in L2s, or an independent variable while designing features of real-world tasks. Like Bulté and Housen (2012), Pallotti (2015: 118) stress the view that there are several proposals that have been advanced to operationalise linguistics complexity. Nevertheless, these proposals are employed regardless of their validity with regard to their theoretical underpinnings. This has mainly been caused by a range of meanings associated with complexity as a notion. In this respect, Pallotti advances a simple view of complexity that avoids unnecessary assumptions while limiting its meaning to only formal and structural elements of linguistic systems and texts.

Drawing from the Dryer’s (2006) Basic Linguistic Theory, Pallotti (2015: 119) generally employs its underpinnings with an aim of eliminating inconsistent views about the several meanings on complexity as a notion. For example, with reference to Pallotti (2015: 119), Dahl (2009: 51) stresses that structural complexity is defined in two ways, on one hand, is Kolmogorov complexity which is demonstrated through the descriptions such as the length of strings that represent symbols. This can be measured by using Effective Complexity as advanced by Gell-Mann (see Pallotti 2015: 119, for several examples of Effective Complexity measurements).
On the other hand, the second way (Pallotti 2015: 119-120), is related to the applications of complexity as a notion. Pallotti suggests that a distinction should be drawn between text complexity and system complexity which includes the linguistic systems of a language and its associated rules. In addition, Pallotti (2015: 120) draws a distinction between stylistics complexity and grammatical complexity. Pallotti relates grammatical complexity to the linguistic rules that are employed in the production of grammatical sentences. Furthermore, Pallotti describes stylistic complexity as a text subordination that is influenced by patterns of cultural-specific rhetoric. In other words, stylistic complexity is a choice made by a writer/speaker of a language.

While attempting to provide an operational definition of complexity as a notion, Pallotti draws from Rescher’s (1998: 1) definition that complexity as a construct needs to be underpinned in a conceptualised foundation. In general, complexity has several elements that constitute an item and their structural interrelatedness. Thus, Pallotti defines the structural complexity of a text as the number of elements which realise descriptions of the structure of the text. In this regard, Pallotti (2015: 121-126) provides three types of complexity that range from morphological, lexical and syntactic complexity. Pallotti describes their definitions, measuring units and some challenges that such units pose to L2 researchers. Due to the extended scope of each type of complexity, this study is set to focus mainly on the syntactic complexity (that is, Pallotti 2015: 123-125).

Pallotti (2015: 123) argues that the complexity of the syntactic structure of a text is determined by several constituents and their combinations as realised in a text. Pallotti maintains that while investigating grammatical syntactic complexity in relation to language productions is often difficult, he, however, maintains that it is principally feasible. For instance, in relation to the complexity of stylistic syntax, Pallotti is of the view that this kind of complexity is related to several constituents that are connected to a single structure. This complexity can be measured by the length of the phrase, a number of clauses per unit and the number of phrases in a clause (see also section 4.4.1, on page 217). While Pallotti (2015: 123-125) defines the above measure and their opportunities in investigating complexity in L2, due to space constraint, this study primarily focuses on the number of clauses per unit to measure linguistic/syntactic complexity in the selected Kiswahili dialogue segments as they occur in their respective pedagogical tasks.

As I have concluded reviewing theoretical perspectives on linguistic and syntactic complexity, mainly regarding their units of measurements, the last paragraph of section 3.8.3.4, on page 176, I promised to continue with discussing task sequencing criterion as established in the CH, after exploring views on linguistic and syntactic complexity. Thus, the subsequent sections are crucial in providing background information in order to understand the CH that is discussed in depth in the

3.9. Perspectives on cognition in relation to SLA and language pedagogy

Ortega (2009: 82) holds the views that the term cognition is derived from a Latin verb “cognoscente” which means, ‘to get to know’. In this context, Ortega refers to the notion of cognition to the procedures on how information is processed and ultimately learnt within the human mind. Ortega argues that the study of cognition is the focus of many scholars and researchers interested in exploring how L2s are learnt in terms of comprehension and production. Ortega argues that such researchers focus primarily on memory and attention in L2 learning.

According to Ortega, the human mind is considered as a symbolic processor that is consistent with the engagements of mental processes. Ortega argues that the mental processes operate on the mental representation that is intervened between input and output. Ortega refers input to any form of data/information that is captured by the symbolic processor, i.e. the mind. Similarly, Ortega relates output to the realization of a performance. Ortega states that, unlike theories in behaviourism, theories in relation to information processing, consider performance as a crucial notion. Ortega justifies her view in a form that, mental processes are made as a result of observing the performance processes of a task rather than an inspection of the external behaviours as depicted by behaviourists.

Like Atkinson (2011: 4-6), Ortega (2009: 82) also provides two key assumptions that inform the information processing (cognition) studies. According to Ortega, such assumptions are related to, (i) the human cognition structure, and (ii) the cognition resources. Ortega argues that the cognition structure consists of both representation and access. Ortega draws a distinction between such structures. According to Ortega representation (knowledge) involves knowing about the content of something and how such content is organised. Ortega adds that the two (content and its organisation) aspects are related to one another. For instance, Ortega argues that linguistic knowledge consists of the forms/types of knowledge, for example, (i) grammatical, (ii) lexical and (ii) schematic or real-world related. Furthermore, Ortega argues that always, the knowledge about the L2 is premised/stored in our minds. Ortega stresses that it is the same knowledge that is needed to be accessed and retrieved especially during comprehension.

On the other hand, Ortega relates access (the cognition structure) to the processing that involves the activation and or the application of relevant knowledge. According to Ortega, processing/access happens in two different forms/ways. Such forms include, (i) automatic and fluent (unconscious)
and (ii) controlled or voluntary (conscious) processing. Ortega states that all human feelings, actions, thoughts as well as perceptions, are made through the interaction of the above two access points. Lastly, the other assumption according to Ortega is a cognitive resource i.e. memory as well as attention. Ortega maintains that such resources are limited in all humans. For example, Ortega (2009: 87) relate human memory, such as long-term memory (LTM), to representation as noted in this section above or in a later paragraph of the same section. Furthermore, Ortega is of the view that one of the characteristics of the LTM is that it is virtually unlimited in its capacity. Ortega argues that LTM consists of two memories. Such memories include, (i) explicit-declarative, and (ii) implicit-procedural memories (cf. Ellis 2010: 184).

According to Ortega, much of the knowledge that is encoded in the LTM is explicit-declarative in nature. In other words, such knowledge is verbalized and is intentionally evoked. Ortega stresses the view that, it is in the implicit-procedural memory that facts and events are supported and recollected. On the other hand, according to Ortega, implicit-procedural memory encodes much more knowledge compared to explicit-procedural memory. Ortega argues that the kind of knowledge that is coded by implicit-procedural memory, is the knowledge that consists of things/items that we know without knowing that we know such things. According to Ortega, the implicit-procedural memory primarily facilitates the learning of skills and other habits. Therefore, based on the above discussion, the subsequent paragraph discusses the working memory (WM) of the mind.

According to Ortega (2009: 89), the working memory is about the access i.e. processing. Ortega argues that unlike the LTM, the WM is limited in our minds. In order to understand the WM, Ortega (2009: 90) uses an example from Ellis’s (2005) study. For instance, with reference to Ortega (2009: 90), Ellis (2005) poses a question, that multiplies 397 by 27. In this context, Ellis (2005) argues that in order to find out the solution to the question, is simply to work it out (calculate), rather than looking for the solution from the LTM. In addition, Ellis relates the working memory to what Robinson (1995) refers to as a working space where skill developments begin. Furthermore, Robinson holds the view that it is in the working memory that information is sent to the LTM and, it is at the same place i.e. in WM, where information is retrieved from the LTM. Therefore, Ortega argues that L2 learners need working memory to hold, process information as well as integrates new information within the existing knowledge that is encoded in the LTM. In brief, Ortega states that working memory functions for automatic as well as controlled information processing.

Similarly, among other scholars, Benati and Angelovska (2016: 1 & 23) stress the view that language is an integrated system that is dynamic. According to Benati and Angelovska, language
interfaces with various processing mechanisms and other related factors. Some of the processing mechanisms include input, output, interaction and to a certain extent, L2 learners’ differences, intake accommodation and restructuring of output, strategies to access information and so forth (see, Robinson 2011: 18-21, for similar views). Other factors according to Benati and Angelovska (2016: 5-6), include language learning processes, such as syntax, phonology, pragmatics discourse, lexicon, morphology, and sociolinguistics. In brief, Benati and Angelovska (2016: 23) are of the view all the above factors are responsible for developing L2 learners’ new system for producing an L2, as summarised on the model below. (see, Benati & Angelovska 2016: 23-28 for detailed discussions on the components of the model).

Figure 3:7: Second language acquisition model that moves from input processing to output processing

Source: Benati and Angelovska (2016: 23)

In addition, Benati and Angelovska (2016: 2-6) argue that SLA has been an influential field mainly in the last forty years and so. Its influence creates complexity since it draws its input from other fields, such as education, psychology, and neurology. As a result, this complexity forms part of controversial debates in terms of key issues in, for examples, psycholinguistics, education, linguistics, applied linguistics, and psychology. In a nutshell, Benati and Angelovska (2016: 5) are of the view that despite the presence of the above controversies, the SLA as a field is credited acknowledging that L2 learners acquire L2s as a result of interactional factors, such as learners’ exposure to L2 input, use of learners’ existing knowledge of their L1, and lastly, L2 accessibility of universal properties.

Agreeing with the above views as advanced by Benati and Angelovska (2016: 2-6), Atkinson (2011: xi) argues that whereas SLA is an ‘extremely complex and multidimensional phenomenal’, Atkinson maintains that, for centuries, cognitivism, amidst other approaches, has predominantly been influencing SLA decisions. According to Atkinson, in order to understand the complexity of SLA, a variety of approaches and principles are required to engage and associate with one another. In addition, Atkinson (2011: 1) relates the complexity of SLA to the language itself. For example, Atkinson express concerns that language is many things, for instance, according to Atkinson, language is associated to, social fact, genetically inherited, the intuitions of native speakers and expressions of individual/cultural identity. Thus, based on the above language associations, Atkinson (2011: 1) argues that even the acquisition of the language also involves many things which make SLA a complex phenomenon.
Similarly, VanPatten (2004: 5) states that the complexity in SLA is due to the fact that SLA involves the attainment of implicit linguistic systems of the target language. VanPatten argues that such systems range from lexical entries, abstract syntactic, and phonological rules and so forth. VanPatten (2004: 4) and Atkinson (2011: 1) however, maintain that language is a cognitive product, and so is its development. As it is with TBLT issues, in the same vein, Atkinson states that cognitive/mental processes in relation to SLA are acknowledged widely. In this context, according to Atkinson, language learning primarily resides in the ‘human’ mind.

Atkinson (2011: 3) relates cognitivism to two factors, (i) that the brain or mind serves the purposes and intentions that are sufficiently necessary to address the human learning thoughts. (ii) That such thoughts and learning are a form of information processing. Drawing from other studies, Atkinson (2011: 4) argues that the common research objectives of the cognitivist are to disclose the mind’s conceptual as well as its representational capacities and how such capacities are structured and their functional representation of/in the mind. In order to disclose the above features, according to Atkinson, cognitivists apply sets and series of underlying assumptions that cognitivism is based on. In light of the above, Atkinson (2011: 4-6) lists and discusses a number of, such assumptions. Atkinson however, argues that such assumptions are based on a number of features. Atkinson regards the following four primary features are basics of all assumptions. That is to say, (i) mind as a computer (ii) representationalism, (iii) learning as abstract knowledge acquisition and (iv) centrality of language, and language as a code.

In relation to mind as a computer, Atkinson (2011: 4) relates cognition in terms of information processing. Atkinson argues that information processing has features, such as (i) mostly uniform, (ii) influenced by mechanical arrangements that operate in a way that it takes input, process the input and produce output just like any other machine, such as a computer. Similarly, in relation to representationalism, Atkinson also argues that the internal (in the mind) distribution and the representation of symbols and language knowledge structures, is the major focus of cognitivists. Atkinson argues that external, i.e. socially constructed representations, are stored internally, as a cognitive knowledge.

Furthermore, in relation to learning as abstract knowledge acquisition, to Atkinson, to learn, is a process of extracting perpetual clues given by the environment. Atkinson maintains that such clues are processed and stored in the mind. In addition, Atkinson reminds us that cognitivists, also presuppose the learning assumptions, such as innate and pre-existing knowledge in the mind that is triggered by any given input. In support of the above view, Atkinson also states that,
Knowledge must, therefore, be radically decontextualized and abstract: Internalised, it loses its concrete embedding in the environment. This view is crystallized in Chomsky’s famous competence-performance distinction, in which real-world performance is a weak, indirect, and misleading indicator of actual knowledge. Actual knowledge— in its pure form— can only be found abstractly represented in the mind/brain. (2011: 4)

Lastly, according to Atkinson, the centrality of language, and language as a code is another assumption for cognitivists. Atkinson (2011: 4-5) argues that in the cognitive doctrines and principles, language learning and acquisitions is considered crucial. According to Atkinson, such aspects are crucial because, cognitively, language models, theories, and other principles, advance on how language knowledge is organised, stored and activated. In a similar way, Atkinson maintains that language is a coded information that is sent and received. In addition, Atkinson states that such a process involves both language comprehension and productions. That is to say, encoding and decoding processes. In this context, Atkinson views language as a tool for referring things to the outside world.

Drawing from the above, and other features/aspects, Atkinson (2011: 6-15) provides a detailed discussion of the historical developments of cognitivism as a scientific field of inquiry. In addition, Atkinson also discusses how cognitivism is related to the field of SLA. Therefore, in order to elaborate more on the influence of cognitivism in SLA inquiries, the subsequent sections discuss a CH in relation to cognitive resources that influence task sequencing decisions as regards to SLA in general and TBSs designs in particular.

### 3.9.1. The Cognition Hypothesis (CH)

In agreement with Michael (2011: 12) that CH dates the back to the early 1990s, Baralt (2010: 8 & 47) discusses in depth the historical developments of the CH, as advanced by Robinson, (see further, Robinson 2001a, 2001b, 2005, 2007a, 2009b, 2010, 2011 & 2015) over time. Similarly, the present section discusses the on-going developments in relations to how the claims of CH functions as hypothesised in its underlying assumptions. On one hand, Benati and Angelovska (2016: 6-7) maintain that theories in L1 research have been influential in understanding processes involved in the acquisition of learners’ L2s. As, Benati and Angelovska, list some of such theories, including, processability, monitor, behaviourism, skill acquisition, complex, input processing, sociocultural, (see, detailed discussions about such theories and other models in Benati & Angelovska 2016: 7-21), Baralt (2010: 8) stresses the view that Robinson’s CH is motivated by his dissatisfactions with research outputs and new claims mainly by psychologists in relation to SLA and pedagogy based mainly on L1 acquisition and child developments (see Robinson 2007b: 198). For example,
according to Baralt (2010: 8), such outputs emphasise more on unconscious learning claims on SLA than on the nature of the task and its cognitive demands during the learning process.

Similarly, in relation to previous studies, as Robinson (2007b: 210) stresses the view that the two concepts of task difficulty and complexity are related constructs with explicit distinctions, Robinson (2001b: 27-28) argues that in relation to sequencing decisions, previous studies regarded the two notions above as synonymous and that specific scope and components of the two concepts was a challenge. Similarly, Robinson (2001b: 27) proposes that a distinction should be drawn between task complexity, difficulty, and task conditions. See 3.9.2, where I draw distinctions between the three concepts based mainly on, Robinson’s (2001b, 2007a, 2011), theoretical views. Furthermore, some previous studies considered linguistic content as crucial in determining criteria for sequencing TBLT syllabus. Robinson (2001b: 28-29, 2005: 4) suggests that other than using linguistic criteria as a basis for sequencing learning content, sequencing should be based on increasingly defined complexity that the task imposes on L2 learners. In light of the above view, while quoting Merrill (2006), Robinson argues that his CH is in line with constructivist views on educational perspectives. Thus, Robinson aptly puts it that,

The claim that holistic task should be sequenced in an increasing complexity for learners is also in line with other constructivists approaches to education, across a wider variety of content and skill domains, that proposed instruction should scaffold complex task performance. (2011: 11)

Based on the above views, Robinson assumes that during task performances, the interaction between task conditions, complexity and difficult occurs (see also, Robinson 2011: 18-20). Thus, basing on such dissatisfactions of major research conclusions and speculations with least considerations on factors regarding cognitive task demands (see also, Markee & Seo 2009: 39), for instance, Robinson (2001b: 27), identifies and collates series of components and their effects on task performance from a range of research outputs, as summarised in Table 3:14, on page 195, in order to develop his on-going, often applied and cited CH. In light of the above, Skehan (2015: 140) agrees with the view that CH is constituted by a number of variables that are researchable. According to Robinson (2001b: 31, 2011: 4-5 & 18-20), the CH is underpinned by a number of claims. The claims are generally and mainly based on both theoretical as well as pedagogical assumptions in relation to SLA and language pedagogy. For instance, Robinson emphasises

…that a fundamental pedagogical claim of the Cognition Hypothesis is that distributing optimal task-based L2 use and learning opportunities over time, i.e. task sequencing is done by designing and having learners perform tasks simple on all the relevant parameters of task demand first, and then gradually increase their cognitive complexity on subsequent versions. Such sequences allow for cumulative learning, since each task version differs in only small respect from the previous one, but also introduces an
incremental increase in the conceptual and communicative challenge of the task which prompts learners to adjust and expand their interlanguage resources to meet it, thereby creating the conditions for L2 development. (2010: 246-247)

In brief, Robinson maintains that tasks are sequenced for L2 learners from simple to complex versions (Robinson 2010: 246) with an aim of facilitating the performance of the successive task which provides learners opportunities to learn and ultimate interlanguage development (see further, Robinson 2007: 195-196). In relation to Interlanguage development, Benati and Angelovska (2016: 85) refer interlanguage to a developing language system with characteristics and influences of mainly two language systems of the L2 learners. That is to say, L2 learners’ L1 system and the new L2 system. Furthermore, Benati and Angelovska (2016: 86) assert that interlanguage as a concept is also referred to as (i) idiosyncratic dialect, (ii) developing a system or (iii) approximate system. Similarly, Robinsons (2010: 251) refers to interlanguage development as a result of noticing the differences in remapping or conceptualisation of “natural order” of linguistic expressions in L1 into L2. Furthermore, in addition to pedagogical claim, Robinson (2007b: 196) poses the theoretical claims of the CH which is the relationship between cognitive factors contributing to task complexity, and the learner factors contributing to the perception of task difficulty. This claim is underpinned by the learners’ differences in cognitive abilities and how such differences affect task performance and subsequence effect on the language productions. Furthermore, Robinson (2011a: 18-20) provides examples of some of the theoretically auxiliary claims that are advanced by other scholars. Robinson argues that such claims are constant with the CH claims in relation to SLA. Robinsons (2011b: 18-21) discusses five auxiliary theoretical claims of his CH and their possible effects on task complexity on language learning and productions.

The components of the claims include output, memory and retentions, automaticity, individual differences and uptake and interaction (as have been discussed in different sections of the current study, for example, see section 3.9, on page 185). Lastly, Robinson (2011a: 18) maintains that an increase or reduction of complexity in any of feature(s) in his TCF leads to variations in task performance, either simple or complex, based on an individual or the group of learners performing such a task. Based on the above assumptions. Thus, in order to address the above and other claims that CH postulates, like other scholars, Robinson (2001b: 27) also proposes a TCF that takes into account the above claims.

According to Robinson (2007b: 194, 2011a: 12), the TCF is an operational framework for addressing claims that CH posits. Robinson is of the view that TCF is the framework that describes the characteristics that constitute and make contributions to demands that tasks make to the learners, for instance, the interactional as well as cognitive demands. As noted above, according to Robinson,
(2001b: 288), the TCF is the taxonomy of empirically based studies of different scholars, as summarised in Table 3:14, on page 195, mainly the applied cognitive psychologists. Robinson (2011a: 3) emphasises the view that the studies are related not only to the effects of task complexity on the variables that are postulated by the TCF but also to the relationship of such studies to the theoretical underpinnings of the CH. In addition, Robinson (2001b: 27) specifically argues that the TCF identifies cognitive components in/of a task complexity, in order to examine the effects of such components in the task production. In this context, Robinson attempts to examine such components, in order to create a relationship between variables for the realization of L2 productions.

The variables include cognitive complexity, L2 learners’ rates of task difficulty as well as task production. In other words, Robinson (2001b: 31) is stressing the view that the TCF takes into account (i) cognitive resources of L2 learners, (ii) how different task components relate to each other, as well as (iii) the classroom methodological procedures. Robinson argues that such accounts are crucial in task design as well as in task grading and sequencing for optimum L2 development and production. As Robinson (2001b: 27) agrees with other scholars on the views that TBLT approaches operationalize, pedagogically feasible, theoretically motivated, as well as, empirically sustainable sequencing criterion, in relation to syllabus design decisions, task grading and sequencing, Robinson (2001b: 27) advances the view that the feasibility of TCF is operational as well as a researchable criterion mainly for task grading and sequencing.

In other words, Robinson (2001b: 28) reminds us that there are other proposals regarding task grading and sequencing. Robinson maintains that such proposals are based on increasing, the two notions of complexity and difficulty. As noted previously, the two notions, i.e. complexity and difficulty have limited consensus in terms of how the two notions differ in relation to their constituents or the components that define them. Furthermore, Robinson (2001a: 296-301) discusses the historical perspectives in relation to the proposal regarding task sequencing and grading. In general, Robinson maintains that such proposal is simplified, conflicted, and speculative based on scholars’ intuitions with limited conclusions regarding sequencing criteria. See, similar views as expressed by Ellis (2003a: 68) in section 3.8.3.1, on page 171. For Robinson (2001b: 28), lack of consensus on such proposals is a dilemma in the SLA research outputs. Like it is with the notions of complexity and difficulty, in a similar manner, Robinson maintains that it is challenging to the extent to which linguistic content can inform a decision(s) in relations to task-based sequencing criterions. In other words, Robinson expresses concerns that textual input to task sequencing is separable mainly from decisions about task sequencing which are based on the
increase in cognitively defined complexity. Thus, basing on the above background, the subsequent section discusses the Robinson’s evolving TCF that dates to 2001.

### 3.9.2. The Triadic Componential Framework (TCF)

According to Robinson (2011a: 12), TCF is designed to address the main claims of the CH as noted above. In addition, given TCF is detailed compared to earlier discussed taxonomies (Robinson 2011a: 20), Robinson (2005: 4) is of the view the TCF is specifically used to classify as well as to design pedagogical tasks with an aim of grading and sequencing learning content for optimum L2 development and production. In support of his views, Robinson (2011a: 5) argues that it is central to understand the nature of a task that L2 learners are to perform. Such an understanding provides support in the designing of instructional tasks and materials that enhance learning, such as the sequencing of tasks, time learners use to perform such tasks. Finally, Robinson maintains that analysis of task is a vital component in the designing of instructional materials.

In relation to designing of pedagogical tasks, Robinson (2001b: 29) draws a distinction between, factors/differentials in the processing demands of task which are primarily as a result of task structure and design (see also, section 3.8.3.1, on page 171), and factors/ differentials in the resources that L2 learners bring to tasks. According to Robinson, the latter factors are as a result of a range of individual differences across learners (cf. Ellis 2004). That in mind, for Robinson, task complexity as a concept, involves information processing demands that are imposed on the language learners by a given task. According to Robinson, such demands include (i) attention, (ii) reasoning, and (iii) memory (see section 3.9, on page 185, for similar views). Robinson stresses that such demands are based on the structure and the design of the task itself. In addition, Robinson maintains that such demands are “relatively fixed and invariant” due to the design characteristics.

In exemplifying his view on task complexity, Robinson (2001b: 30) relates a simple task to a task that requires, for example, an L2 learner to provide direction from point X to Y, using a simplified route that the learner (speaker) is familiar with. For Robinson, such a task is least demanding compared to the complex task. Robinson argues that a complex task requires the same learner to provide direction from point X to Y, then to Z, the points (places) which the learner is not familiar with. Robinsons argues that task complexity is vital in determining the learners’ variance during task performance. Robinson maintains that the effects of differences in complexity are indicated by signals, such as for example, in the case of cognitively simple task, task complexity, involves aspects, such as, (i) task completion is faster, (ii) lower error rate, and (iii) less susceptible to interference from completing task, compared to complex tasks.
Robinson, However, argues that variance in task performance can also be recorded as a result of task repetitions in both simple and complex tasks. Robinson stresses that practices and automatization decrease task demands on L2 learners. In a similar way, Robinson states that such type of complexity is different from how the CH claims. Therefore, in order to exemplify further the above claim, Robinsons proposes sequencing criteria in relation to task complexity. See, for example, Table 3:14 below.
### Table 3:14: The Triadic Componential Framework for pedagogic L2 task classification-categories, criteria, analytic procedures and characteristics as adopted from Robinson (2007b)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task complexity</th>
<th>Task condition</th>
<th>Task difficulty</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(cognitive factors)</td>
<td>(interactive factors)</td>
<td>(learner factors)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Classification criteria:</td>
<td>(Classification criteria:</td>
<td>(Classification criteria:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cognitive demands)</td>
<td>interactional demands)</td>
<td>ability requirements)</td>
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<tr>
<td>(Classification procedure:</td>
<td>(Classification procedure:</td>
<td>(Classification procedure:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>information-theoretical analyses)</td>
<td>behaviour descriptive analyses)</td>
<td>ability assessment analyses)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sub categories:</strong></td>
<td><strong>Sub categories:</strong></td>
<td><strong>Sub categories:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[a] resource-directing variables</td>
<td>[a] participation variables</td>
<td>[a] ability variables and task</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>making cognitive/conceptual</td>
<td>making interactional demands</td>
<td>relevant resources differentials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>demands</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+/- here and now (Gilabert 2007)</td>
<td>+/- open solution (Lambert &amp;</td>
<td>h/l working memory (Mackey et al.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Engler 2007)</td>
<td>2002)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+/- few elements (Kuiken et al. 2005)</td>
<td>+/- one-way flow (Pica et al. 1993)</td>
<td>h/l reasoning (Stanovitch 2003)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+/- causal reasoning (Becker &amp;</td>
<td>+/- convergent solution (Duff 1986)</td>
<td>h/l task-switching (Monsell 2003)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carroll 1997)</td>
<td></td>
<td>h/l aptitude (Robinson 2005a)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+/- intentional reasoning (Ishikawa 2008)</td>
<td>+/- few participants (Crookes 1986)</td>
<td>h/l field independence (Skehan 1998)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+/- perspective taking (MacWhinney 1999)</td>
<td>+/- few contributions needed</td>
<td>h/l mind-reading (Langston et</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(McGrath 1984)</td>
<td>al. 2002)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[b] resources-dispersing variables</td>
<td>[b] participant variables</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>making performative/procedural</td>
<td>making interactant demands</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>demands</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+/- planning time (Skehan 1998)</td>
<td>+/- same proficiency (Yule &amp;</td>
<td>h/l openness (Costa &amp; Macrae 1985)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MacDonald 1990)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+/- prior knowledge (Urwin 1999)</td>
<td>+/- same gender (Pica et al. 1991)</td>
<td>h/l control of emotion (Mayer et al. 2000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+/- single task (Robinson et al. 1995)</td>
<td>+/- familiar (Plough &amp; Gass 1993)</td>
<td>h/l task motivation (Dörnyei 2002)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+/- task structure (Shehan &amp;</td>
<td>+/- shared content knowledge</td>
<td>h/l anxiety (MacIntyre &amp; Gardner 1994)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foster 1999)</td>
<td>(Pica et al. 1993)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+/- few steps (Fleishman &amp; Quaintance 1984)</td>
<td>+/- equal status and role</td>
<td>h/l willingness to communicate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Yule &amp; MacDonald 1990)</td>
<td>(MacIntyre 2002)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+/- Independency of steps</td>
<td>+/- shared cultural knowledge</td>
<td>h/l self-efficacy (Bandura 1997)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Romiszowski 2004)</td>
<td>(Brindley 1987)</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Source: Modified from Robinson (2011a: 6, 2015: 96). Key: h=high, l=low
According to Robinson (2007b: 194), Table 3:14 above, illustrates the evolving TCF. As noted above, Baralt, Gilabert and Robinson (2014: 25-26) emphasise the view that the TCF collates several studies in relation to various components and issues (36 variables) in L2 acquisition and pedagogy, specifically on TBLT. According to Robinson (2010: 247), Table 3:14 on page 195, illustrates a list of characteristics that contribute to the cognitive complexity of L2 pedagogical tasks. The characteristics are composed of (i) task complexity, (ii) task condition and (iii) task difficulty variables. I will discuss the above variables in their respective order below. For Robinson (2001b: 30), task complexity which is specifically for sequencing learning tasks as well as a representation of prospective decisions related to task units, task complexity consists of several characteristics/ features. According to Robinson (2010: 249), the features/ dimensions/variables are broadly divided into two categories. The categories include, (i) resource-directing dimensions, such as [+/- here and now], [+/- few elements] and [+/- reasoning] features, as well as, (ii) resource-dispersing/ depleting dimensions, including, [+/- prior knowledge], [+/- planning time], [+/- single task], and [+/- single task].

Robinson (2010: 249) argues that “resource-directing variables (characteristics) make conceptual/communicative demands which direct learner attention and effort at conceptualization in ways that the linguistics L2 system can help them meet.” Thus, in order to understand and operationalize the effects of the above claim on learner language and language learning, Robinson suggests that a linguistic theory or an approach for example, in cognitive linguistics that theorises “the conceptual-linguistic interface during language performance.” To exemplify his views, Robinson employs L1 patterns for both conceptualization and thinking-for-speaking. He contends that such patterns require reconfiguration in order to suit the L2 morphological and linguistic constructs that are available for conceptual expression in language. In such a situation, Robinson maintains that L2 learners orient their attention to, for example complimenting constructions that accompany, for instance, cognitive state terms as a reference to others mind, for example, wonders whether, thinks that and so forth, hence promoting awareness of syntax of L2.

For example, according to Robinson (2007b: 194), as the [+ here and now] also referred to as [-there-and-then] feature illustrates narrations happening now and in a shared space among task participants, Robinson (2010: 251) asserts that [+ here-and-now] feature directs the attention of the learners to morphological aspects that convey tense and aspects in the present time (events), such as deictic expressions, for instance, here, this and so forth. In addition, the [- here and now] also known as [+ there-and-then] feature refers to narrations relating to events happening elsewhere, thus, necessitates L2 learners to direct their memory and noticing resources of L2 in encoding (i)
references to the past or future time and (ii) deictic expressions, such as there, that and so forth. Robinson (2010: 251) contends that [+ there-and-then] feature presses more cognitive demands on learners since the events are visually unavailable in the learners’ shared context(s). See, for example, Ellis (2003a: 69), for similar views.

In relation to [+/- few elements] features, Robinson (2007b: 194) relates such feature to making reference to single [+ few elements] or more elements [- few elements] or object(s), selectively distinguishing between them that direct L2 learners to direct their memory and noticing resources to employ L2 use of for example “complex pre-and post-modification of noun phrases” in their narrations. Similarly, Kuiken, Mos and Vedder (2005: 201) relate [+/- few elements] features to narrations that make reference to few or more things and the relationship of such things with other things they are connected to as discussed by Ellis (2003a: 69-75) in section 3.8.3.1, on page 171 and summarised in Table 3:9, on page 160. In addition, according to Robinson (2007b: 194), the [+/- perspective-taking] feature entails making reference to a number of, for example, different and multiple perspectives on a given event. For instance, having options of selecting constructs from available L2 lexicalisation patterns, the use of pronominal references of, for example, first, second or third persons, in learner’s L2.

Additionally, according to Robinson (2010: 250), the [+/- reasoning] feature involves reasoning with regard to spatial location, causality, and intentional reasoning. For instance, according to Robinson (2010: 249-251), spatial reasoning is related on how to move and the manner of one’s movements, for example, from place X to place Y and then to place Z. Robinson maintains that this kind of reasoning calls for the use of the description of motion events hence promoting lexicalisation patterns of a target language. Similarly, Robinson (2010: 247) argues that in general, intentional reasoning is why some people intend to carry out certain social actions. Robinson (2010: 247) relates [+ intentional reasoning] to causes why people perform certain actions whereas [- intentional reasoning] is just a description of such actions. Robinson (2007b: 194-195, 198 & 200) stresses that such intentions are motivated by beliefs, thoughts, and motives which cause certain people to perform certain actions. In this context, belief, emotional, psychological state words are employed to express such reasons. For example, verbs including, want, happy, know, think, realise, belief and so on, which are complemented by complex syntactic expressions, such as she knows that it…and so forth. Furthermore, Robinson (2007b: 197) argues that in complex narrations, intentional reasoning is required for because resource-directing demands increase on L2 task performance.
Robinso


d feature


s manipulated (in a positive sense), during task design processes. According to Robinson, the dimensions are presented by signs, such as [+] to mean addition or present, and or [-] sign, to mean absent or reduction. Robinson maintains that such dimensions can also be placed in a continuum from relatively less to relatively more complex dimensions. For instance, [+] planning time], [- planning time] and so forth, as summarised in his (2010: 253) study or in Figure 3:8, on page 199. According to Robinson, the two categories of resources are crucial in identifying differences and dimensional interactions in influencing the allocation of resources while learners are performing a given task. Furthermore, Robinson (2001b: 31) states through manipulating such dimensions, for instance, increase on a dimension in resource-directing, for example, [+ reasoning], to the already simple information that is provided, according to him, such an increase, calls for greater resource demands which can only be solved by using specific L2 features (codes). Robinson provides an example of features of logical connectors, such as (i) therefore, (ii) because, (iii) if-then, and so forth. Robinson holds the view that such connectors can be embedded in syntactic structures as subordination clauses. Furthermore, in relation to logical connectors, Robinson (2005: 5) stresses that psychological as well as cognitive verbs, such as to believe, to think, to know as well as to suppose, lead to syntactic complexity in a complementation (cf. De Clercq & Housen 2017: 331).

On the other hand, according to Robinson (2001b: 31), increasing complexity along resource-depleting dimensions leads to the imposition of demands on learners’ working memory as well as their attention. Robinson (2010: 251-152) however argues that such imposition does not necessarily allocate resources to specific linguistic forms (attention is directed to any linguistic and non-linguistic aspects) for learners to accomplish a given task. In exemplifying his view, Robinson (2001b: 31, 2010: 152) states for example, that when a secondary task is added to a primary task, the secondary [- single task] task depletes resources from the primary task. Resources are depleted especially when the planning time is reduced or removed i.e. [- planning] time feature for task performance is removed or is limited. While Robinson (2001b: 31, 2010: 251-152) maintains that increase in complexity on resource- dispersing variables leads learners’ attention to linguistic and non-linguistic forms of L2, Robinson (2010: 152) emphasises the view that increase in complexity of such variables is central in promoting, (i) faster access to and (ii) greater control to learners’ existing interlanguage systems-related knowledge.

According to Robinson (2001b: 31), the dimensions of task complexity from the two categories are likely to interact and cause an effect on task production in a measurable manner. In order to make such dimensions interact, Robinson provides another example. That is, in order to make a simple
pedagogical task, there is a need, for instance, to allow, planning time [+ planning time] along resource-depleting on one side, and on the other side, demand for no reasoning [- reasoning] along the resource-directing dimension. In brief, for Robinson (2010: 246), simplest (maximally scaled down) version of a pedagogical task is when such a task(s) exhibits [+ planning] and [- intentional reasoning] demands (or features). According to Robinson, such as simple task calls for the satisfaction of the linguistic demands of a given task on one hand, as a result of optimum resource allocation, on the other hand, rather than increasing task complexity in both categories simultaneously. Robinson (2001b: 31) argues that such a simple pedagogical version of the real-world task assists L2 learners to focus on their specific language code(s). Robinson maintains that such a task is designable and practical too. He argues that such a task can be followed by a more complex version of it. Hence, the realization of task sequencing and grading as exemplified in Figure 3:8 below.

Figure 3:8: Showing increasingly complexity pedagogical task versions of a target task

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Target Task</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Highly complex</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task involving complex reasoning about the intentions of others that led to the conflicts of interests and a subsequent disturbance in the work place and reporting both what happened and explaining why the disturbance occurred to a superior face to face, when called on to so without</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pedagogical task [I]</th>
<th>Pedagogical task [II]</th>
<th>Pedagogical task [III]</th>
<th>Pedagogical task [IV]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reporting - reasoning</td>
<td>Reporting - reasoning</td>
<td>Reporting + simple reasoning</td>
<td>Reporting + complex reasoning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+ planning time</td>
<td>- planning time</td>
<td>- planning time</td>
<td>- planning time</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Modified from Robinson (2011a: 10)

For Robinson (2007b: 205), simple (least complex) task is regarded as significantly less difficult than its simpler version (medium), so is the medium to the most complex version of the same task. In addition, the most complex is significantly regarded as most stressful as its other versions, this also applies to the learners’ confidence in its performance is significantly lower than in other simpler versions. Thus, basing on the above discussion in relation to cognitive factors/ task complexity, the proceeding paragraphs are set to discuss the methodological or variables that Robinson relates to on-line decisions which are mainly operational in the language classrooms i.e. task conditions and task difficulty of his triadic framework.

Following Table 3:14, on page 195, and in relation to task difficulty, Robinson (2001b: 31) argues that the structure of the task is a contributory factor in imposing a demand on learners’ cognitive
resources. Thus, Robinson maintains that in order to satisfy such demands, it entirely depends on the extent of resources that L2 learners extend to a given task(s). In his framework, Robinson clusters two types of factors in relation to task difficulty. The factors include cognitive as well as the learner factors. According to Robinson (2001b: 31), task complexity is the result of cognitive factors whereas learner factors lead to either simple or difficult task among learners. Robinson is of the view that learner factors vary from one learner to another in responding to task demands. According to Robinson, such variation is in terms of reasoning resource pools, attention as well as learners’ memories. In this context, L2 learners performing the same task may find it less or more difficult as a result of, for example, learners’ differences in intelligence or aptitude hence the influence in task performance and language production.

Like in task complexity above, Robinson (2001b: 32) also draws a distinction between affective and ability variables that constitute the dimensions of task difficulty. According to Robinson, the latter is related to fixed factors that influence the learner during task performance. Such variables include, for example, aptitude, intelligence, and proficiency. Similarly, in developing further the TCF, Robinson (2010: 250) adds more ability variables, and he clusters such variables in terms of high or low levels. For examples, high or low aptitude [h/l aptitude], high or low reasoning [h/l reasoning] and high or low working memory [h/l working memory] and so on, as illustrated in Table 3:14, on page 195.

On the other hand, according to Robinson (2001b: 32), the affective variables are related to temporary factors that may change from one L2 learner to another. These include factors, such as motivation, anxiety, and confidence towards task performance. Like the ability variable, Robinson’s (2010: 250) modification of the TCF includes other variables, such as control of emotion, willingness to communicate, openness to experience and so on, under the affective column. Likewise, Robinson clusters the above variables based on high or low levels. For example, task motivation [h/l task motivation], control of emotion [h/l control of emotion] and willingness to communicate [h/l willingness to communicate] with others. Similarly, in the proposal regarding task interactant relationship as advanced by Pica et al. (1993: 16-17), the issue of interactants’ unwillingness to interact with each other is also pointed out. In their discussion, Pica et al. stress the view in case such a situation occurs, task performance is controlled by a single participant (information supplier) until it is complete. They argue that an unwillingness to interact is due to options that interactants have to on not to participate in the task (see also, Pica et al. 2009: 177, for similar views).
In light of the above, Robinson (2001b: 32, 2001a: 287, 2010: 255) points out the view that predicting the effect of an affective variable on a task is a challenging phenomenon for the syllabus designers as well as language material developers. According to Robinson, the challenge is as a result of affective variables being temporal compared to the ability variables. Subsequently, as a recommendation, Robinson (2011a: 13) suggests that in order to address the above challenges, it is significant for the future researcher to focus on effects of task characteristics on L2 learning and performance. However, Robinson (2010: 255) agrees that there are few variables of task difficulty which has been researched on in relation to their effects on language learning. He points out aptitude as one of the few researched components. Nevertheless, Robinson (2010: 256) argues that the realization of aptitude factors on task characteristics are uniform.

Thus, Robinson (2010: 255) calls for more research on other variables, by using the list of factors provided on the task difficulty column. For Robinson, such factors provide a starting point for research for cognitively-based educational psychology that presumes to have relevancy to task complexity, difficulty, and interaction. Subsequently, according to Robinson (2001b: 32), presently, the possible solution to deal with the above challenge is through pairing or grouping L2 learners during task performance. Finally, Robinson recognises the role of previous studies in relation to task difficulty as far as task sequencing is concerned. See, for example, Robinson (2001a: 296-301) for review of such studies. However, the subsequent paragraphs discuss task conditions as another component of the TCF.

According to Robinson (2001b: 32), task conditions (also, interactive demands of tasks) are related to the cognitive complexity features of learning tasks that arise as a result of combining both L2 learner factors (as a participant) and the participation factors of task performance. According to Robinson participation are the principal factors compared to other factors that form task conditions during task performance. Thus, participant factors deal, on the one hand, with variables, such as gender [+/- the same gender], familiarity [+/- familiar] and the role of each participant as a supplier or requester of information [+/- equal status and role] towards task performance. According to Robinson (2007b: 199), in relation to conditions and participation factors, learners can ask/ request for clarifications or questions if there is a need. If there is no need, then that task is characterised as a single/one-way or closed task (see, Pica et al. 1993: 21, 2009: 181, for similar views). Similarly, for Robinson (2007b: 199), thinking about something and then narrates it to others characterise such a narration as a dual task too.

The above variable has also been pointed out in the proposals of Pica et al. (1993: 20, 2009: 181) regarding the status and roles of task interactants. According to Pica et al, participants have three
statuses, that is to say, information holder, requester, and supplier, with roles/responsibilities, such as either information requester/supplier or both. On the other hand, participation factors relate to the direction of the information flow, either two-way or one-way [+/− one-way]. In a group of participants, Willis and Willis (2007: 164) stress that the flow of information can be three or four-way rather than two-way when, for example, two participants explain ideas to each other. In addition to participation factors, Pica et al. (1993: 20, 2009: 181), the outcome of the task can be – either one or many outcomes [+/− convergent solution], or whether the task is considered closed or open [+/− open solution] among others. In their proposal, Pica et al. (1993: 20, 2009: 181) relate to the flow of information to information requester-supplier relationship, the outcome of the task is regarded as both goal orientation and outcome options, as will be discussed in section 3.5.2.4.1, on page 150 and summarised in Table 4:1, on page 208, in the next chapter. In addition to the above dimensions, Robinson (2001b: 33) argues that the context(s) of task performance is also a contributing variable under which a task is performed.

Finally, Robinson (2001b: 33) argues the TCF, i.e. the three dimensions of task complexity, task condition as well as task difficulty feasibly interact. Robinson maintains that such interaction has an influence on task performance as well as on the learners’ ultimate language learning and development. Robinson, however, advises syllabus designers that during decision making regarding task sequencing, differences in task complexity need to be logically considered in order to ensure optimal L2 acquisition across L2 learners. The above views will be elaborated further in section 4.3.2, on page 215, given that the section will be summarising the TCF with regard to CH claims for sequencing learning tasks considering L2 learners’ developmental (resource-directing) repertoire and its effect on task performance (resource-dispersing).

Earlier in this section, i.e. section 3.9.2, I noted that the main focus of Robinson’s (2005: 1-2) framework is to provide an operational tool for sequencing learning tasks that allow L2 learners achieve their communicative goals in the real-world situations. As observed previously that sequencing of pedagogical tasks should be based on increasing cognitively defined complexity (Robinson 2001a: 28-29, 2005: 3), thus, Robinson’s (2005) model intends to illustrate how such sequencing can be made. To do that, Robinsons (2005: 2) distinguishes between two dimensions that need to be manipulated so that they can be effective in creating conditions for both L2 development and L2 performance. On one hand, to create conditions for L2 development, there is a need to manipulate dimensions on task complexity so that “conceptual and linguistic demands tasks make on communications” are increased. On the other hand, in relation to L2 performance in the
real-world, there is a need to increase the demands that task complexity makes on accessing the existing interlanguage repertoire of the L2 learners.

Furthermore, Robinson (2005: 2) emphasises the view that TBLT approaches promise various opportunities for production, conditions for acquisitions, and the ultimate learning of L2s. This is in order because according to Robinson there is a coloration between dimensions on how task demands can differentiate L2 development and how task demands can stimulate L2 performance, as summarised, as summarised in Table 3:15, on page 203.

Table 3:15: Showing resource-directing (developmental) and resource-dispersing (performative) dimensions of complexity and their implications for task sequencing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Low performative and High developmental complexity</th>
<th>High performative and High developmental complexity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-few elements</td>
<td>-few elements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-no reasoning</td>
<td>-no reasoning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Here-and-Now</td>
<td>-Here-and-Now</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+planning</td>
<td>-planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+prior knowledge</td>
<td>-prior knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+single task</td>
<td>-single task</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Low performative and Low developmental complexity</th>
<th>High performative and Low developmental complexity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>+few elements</td>
<td>+few elements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+no reasoning</td>
<td>+no reasoning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+Here-and-Now</td>
<td>+Here-and-Now</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+planning</td>
<td>-planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+prior knowledge</td>
<td>-prior knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+single task</td>
<td>-single task</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Modified from Robinson (2005: 8)

The dimensions include those that are manipulated for stimulating access to learners’ current L2 knowledge pool (e.g. provision of planning time) and those manipulated in order to extend L2 learners beyond their existing L2 knowledge. Such dimensions include, for example, an increase in the demand for conceptual/linguistic variables needed to make reference to temporality, spatial location or causality. Robinson (2005: 2) observes that for the purposes of designing learning tasks, as it is possible to distinguish performative and developmental on two different axes as illustrated above, during an L2 performance in the real-world situations, the two are simultaneously drawn with possible synergies between the two.

In relation to task performance, Robinson (2005: 2-3) emphasises the view that quality and quantity of interaction is central to determining complex task performance. This is because Robinson argues that through interaction learners can share an attention to the language hence promoting their
language learning processes. He further argues that the sequencing criteria that he mentioned above gradually leads L2 learners to attend to “noticing, elaborative processing and retention of output” as a result of gradual analysis relating to input and output during task performance (see also, Robinson 2010: 249). This can be achieved by the provision of opportunities for interaction with an aim of facilitating both analytical and attentional processes. In other words, for Robinson (2005: 3), in TBLT, cognitive processes and the effects of interaction on task sequencing are mutually central in L2 development for adult learners.

In summary, from the above discussion with respect to the frameworks as advanced by Ellis (2003a) and Skehan (2008), respectively, that have informed decisions with regard to grading and sequencing of TBSs for different language programmes of L2 learning and teaching. It is evident that the CH promises a feasible application on its claims with regard to syllabus design and pedagogical practices. The possible justification for the above submission is that this section has discussed in-depth the development of the TCF which is the collection of several previous studies that have informed different aspects on, for example, syllabus design and classroom practices, as summarised in Table 3:14, on page 195. This suggests that the CH is up-to-date, compared to other reviewed frameworks. In fact, so far, the accessed literature on TBS design decisions with regard to African languages, indicate that aspects of CH have been employed in designing different L2 programmes for different purposes (see the third paragraph of section 2.4.8, on page 108, for the list of such studies). Thus, it’s on this basis that this study also attempts to utilise aspects of CH in demonstrating the grading and sequencing of Kiswahili learning tasks for Kiswahili beginner learners in Ugandan secondary schools.

3.10. Summary

The first purpose of this chapter was to continue exploring the theoretical perspectives of TBSs that had commenced in Chapter Two. Secondly, its purpose was to theoretically relate to the previous chapter, i.e. Chapter Two, with the next chapter, Chapter Four. Therefore, this chapter, aimed mainly to contextualise syllabus design principles of TBSs they are partly employed in the current chapter and in the next chapter, respectively. In this regard, the chapter began by summarising key research issues in TBLT. The chapter explored existing research on which task-based approaches are premised, and that underpin task-based approaches and their related pedagogical practices.

This chapter has concluded that, unlike the organisation principles of traditional syllabuses, TBSs consider three different but related designing principles. These include, (i) learners’ needs analysis, (ii) task as a unit of analysis, (iii) the selection, grading and sequencing of the learning content.
Since the principles (i) and (ii) above had been reviewed in sections 2.4.7 and 2.4.8, of the previous chapter, this chapter, explored some of the core properties. For example, in design processes of TBSs, needs analysis survey is the first issues to be considered. The chapter considered a definition of needs analysis, as a notion, its purpose in L2 learning and teaching, the nature of needs analysis surveys, how they are managed or arranged.

Given the prominence of tasks in designing contemporary syllabuses such as TBSs, the chapter specifically explored task as a notion. Thus, from its varying definitions, components and elements, different task types and the benefits of tasks as a resource in instructed SLA, have been discussed. Furthermore, the chapter has explored the theoretical underpinnings that different models and frameworks consider in selecting, grading and sequencing of pedagogical tasks. In this regard the chapter adopted the TCF that realises the claim of the CH, as advanced by Robinson (2001a, 2005, 2009b). The choice of the TCF for the current study has been on its development from previous models and frameworks, some of which have been reviewed in this chapter.

Utilising the components of the CH, i.e. the TCF, the next chapter is devoted to investigate and analyse cognitive and syntactic complex features of Kiswahili TDSs and STDs, respectively, for the purpose of explicating the grading and sequencing learning tasks for beginner learners in secondary schools of Uganda.
CHAPTER FOUR
INTERACTIONAL, COGNITIVE AND SYNTACTIC COMPLEXITY OF KISWAHILI COMMUNICATIVE TASKS

We have tried to explicate that language complexity is a multifaceted, multidimensional and multi-layered construct, a fact that is still insufficiently acknowledged in L2 research. Language complexity has cognitive and syntactic dimensions, and performance and developmental facets, and manifest itself at all levels of language structure and use. – Bulté and Housen (2012: 41)

4.1. Introduction

In general, this chapter presents extensive data for the purpose of investigating three facets of analysis, namely; interactional complexity (see section 4.2, on page 207), cognitive complexity (see section 4.3, on page 212) and sentential (hereafter, syntactic/linguistic) complexity (see section 4.4, on page 217) of the five selected task description specifications (TDSs) and their associated simulated task dialogues (STDs) (cf. section 1.8.1.2.3, on page 25). In addition, with the aim of not only contextualising specific theoretical constructs of the three facets of analysis but also to familiarise ourselves with the procedures and techniques that I will use to analyse the attested data, in sections 4.2.1 and 4.2.2, on pages 207 and 208; in sections 4.3.1 and 4.3.2, on pages 212 and 215; and in section 4.4.1, on page 217, I explore various theoretical perspectives with respect to, interactional complexity, cognitive complexity and syntactic/linguistic complexity, respectively.

In this regard, on one hand, the first two facets of analysis, are concerned with investigating the interactional and cognitive complexity, respectively, as they occur in the Kiswahili task description specifications (TDSs), in Table 4:3, on page 219, Table 4:9, on page 239, Table 4:15, on page 260, Table 4:21, on page 284 and Table 4:27, on page 305. The last facet of analysis is of syntactic complexity. It is concerned with exploring complexity, occurring in the Kiswahili simulated task dialogues (appearing, as sections 4.5.1.3.1, on page 233; 4.5.2.3.1, on page 252; 4.5.3.3.1, on page 276; 4.5.4.3.1, on page 296 & 4.5.5.3.1, on page 323, respectively) that have been constructed/realised from the above Kiswahili TDSs. It should be recalled that the STDs represent approximations of the authentic and real-world Kiswahili dialogues mainly between learner(s)-
learners, as well as a learner(s)-teacher(s) of the Kiswahili native speakers mainly in the form I and form II classes.

In brief, the primary aim of the three facets of analysis is to examine mainly the correlation between cognitive complexity, on one hand, as realised in Kiswahili communicative TDS and syntactic complexity on the other hand, as exemplified in the Kiswahili task dialogue segments, for the purpose of grading and sequencing of Kiswahili learning/pedagogical tasks. Therefore, to maintain consistency and cohesion in relation to the logical flow of argumentations in relation to a particular facet of analysis, the subsequent sections explore literature on specific facets of analysis before conducting their analysis later in this chapter.

4.2. Interactional complexity

This is the first facet of analysis in this study. It is concerned with analysing task features (configurations) of interactional complexity. The configurations include interactant relationship, interactional requirement, goal orientation and outcome options categories, that constitute part of the task typology framework of Pica et al. (1993; cf. 2009). By particularly invoking proposals advanced by Pica et al. (1993, 2009) on task typology, the focus of this analysis is to relate and identify respective configurations of the task that needs to be considered for determining task type(s), and it’s potential in providing opportunities for L2 learners to comprehend L2 input, receive feedback and subsequent modifications on their productions (Pica et al. 1993: 12). In section 3.5.2.4.1, on page 148, I provided a background regarding Pica et al.’s (1993, 2009) framework. Thus, for the purpose of analysing interactional complexity, the subsequent section i.e. section 4.2.1, on page 207, summarises Pica et al.’s (1993, 2009) framework regarding communication task types, as discussed in section 3.5.2.4.1, on page 150.

4.2.1. Task expectations versus task in action

In relation to goal orientation, Pica et al. (1993: 16) are of the view that practically, a task may be too difficult to the participants (L2 learners) and as a result, the participants end up working towards divergent goals with unexpected outcomes. For Pica et al. such a situation is possible, for instance, when learners misinterpret given information to complete the task or arrive at an outcome that is not expected by the instructor(s), as discussed in section 3.4, on page 121, and summarised in Table 3:1, on page 124. Pica et al. maintain that there are cases where interactants may hold either identical information or overlapping portions of information that participants are expected to use in task performance. In this instance, Pica et al. argue that interaction may be possible and expected
“but not necessarily required”, as a result, there are possibilities of a two-way flow of information but a task is completed without such an exchange. Similarly, there are cases where “[A finite] or even infinite number of outcome could be possible” for instance, in the rendering of decisions or registering of an opinion.

From the above discussion, Pica et al. conclude that task expectations and task inaction are likely to have either divergent goal or not as expected. Pica et al. (1993: 17) emphasise that a task that promotes the greatest opportunities for interaction is presumed to possess the following conditions. (i) every interactant holds part of the information that he/she manipulates to achieve task outcome, (ii) every interactant is required to supply and request information to and from every participant, (iii) interactants should have the same/ convergent task goal, and (iv) that all interactants should arrive at only one acceptable and possible outcome as they attempt to meet the task goal. Pica et al. argue that in order for participants to meet the above conditions, participants need to maintain a mutual relationship when comprehension is realised to be difficult or impossible. In this way, interactants are bound to receive feedback and subsequently modify their production output. Thus, from the foregoing discussion, Pica et al. design framework that can be utilised for generating a typology of communication tasks, as summarised in Table 4:1 below.

Table 4:1: Communication task types for L2 research and pedagogy analysis based on Interactant [X/Y] relationship and requirements in communicating information [INFn] to achieve task goals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task types</th>
<th>INFn holder</th>
<th>INFn requester</th>
<th>INFn supplier</th>
<th>INFn requester-supplier relationship</th>
<th>Interaction requirement</th>
<th>Goal orientation</th>
<th>Outcome options</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jigsaw</td>
<td>X &amp; Y</td>
<td>X &amp; Y</td>
<td>X &amp; Y</td>
<td>2 way [X to Y &amp; Y to X]</td>
<td>+ required</td>
<td>+ convergent</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information gap</td>
<td>X or Y</td>
<td>X or Y</td>
<td>X or Y</td>
<td>1 way &gt; 2 way [X to Y/Y to X]</td>
<td>+ required</td>
<td>+ convergent</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem solving</td>
<td>X = Y</td>
<td>X = Y</td>
<td>X = Y</td>
<td>2 way &gt; 1 way [X to Y &amp; Y to X]</td>
<td>- required</td>
<td>+ convergent</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision making</td>
<td>X = Y</td>
<td>X = Y</td>
<td>X = Y</td>
<td>2 way &gt; 1 way [X to Y &amp; Y to X]</td>
<td>- required</td>
<td>+ convergent</td>
<td>1+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opinion exchange</td>
<td>X = Y</td>
<td>X = Y</td>
<td>X = Y</td>
<td>2 way &gt; 1 way [X to Y &amp; Y to X]</td>
<td>- required</td>
<td>- convergent</td>
<td>1+/-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Modified from Pica et al. (1993: 19, 2009: 180)

4.2.2. Generating a typology of communication task types

Table 4:1, on page 208, is a representational of a framework as advanced by Pica et al. (1993, 2009). In this framework, other than, interactional requirement, goal orientation, and outcome options categories, the interactant relationship has further been elaborated. In this context, the
interactant relationship is comprised of information [INFn] categories, INFn holder, INFn requester, INFn supplier and INFn requester-supplier relationship, as shown in the first four columns in Table 4:1 above, and the remaining categories are shown in the last three columns of the same table. Labels X and Y represent interactants (participants), Pica et al. (1993: 20) stress that the interactants can be more than one on each label in their respective roles (responsibilities).

According to Pica et al. (1993: 20), the main focus of their framework is to distinguish the task types based on the assumptions of the four categories i.e. (i) the interactant relationship, (ii) interaction requirement, (iii) goal orientation and, (iv) outcome option, as discussed in section 3.5.2.4.1, on page 150. The aim of the framework is to identify the effect of such assumptions on providing the L2 learners with opportunities to “comprehend L2 input, be given feedback on their production and to modify their input. Scholars, including, Pica et al. (1993: 20-21), hold the view that jigsaw tasks are considered to generate most opportunities for task participants “…to work towards comprehension, feedback, and interlanguage modification processes related to successful SLA.” In this regard, with reference to Pica et al. (1993: 20), Johnson (1981) argues that jigsaw tasks are designed to ensure learners’ opportunities as both L2 receiver and producer in the language classroom (see, for example, Skehan & Foster 1997: 187, for similar views).

To exemplify the above view, Pica et al. (1993: 20) employ their framework (see Table 4:1, on page 208) to illustrate the configurations of jigsaw tasks. The configurations include, interactant [X] and [Y] hold a ratio of information that is needed and must be exchanged among participants as they work convergently to complete a task. In order to achieve the above, jigsaw participants need to engage in a “relationship of the mutual request and suppliance”. Such a relationship leads to a two-way flow of information that is to say from X to Y and from Y to X, which means that interaction between interactants is “absolutely required” i.e. [+ required as they alternate and seek information to and from each other as they seek to complete a task. In addition, from Table 4:1, on page 208, the jigsaw interactants exhibit dual roles, that is to say, requester and supplier of information. Finally, as shown in columns 6 and 7, jigsaw participants are required to work towards a convergent [+] goal, and a single output [1].

According to Table 4:1, on page 208, the information gap is the second task type. Pica et al. (1993: 21) argue that such task types are used mainly in characterising activities with an aim of motivating communication among L2 learners in the classrooms. Furthermore, with reference to Pica et al. (1993:21), Johnson (1981) states that information gap tasks are designed in a sense that one participant holds a given information that the other participant does not have or know, yet s/he needs to have or know it to complete a given task. Relating the above views to Table 4:1, on page
208, the table shows that one of the interactants, X has/holds relevant and task-related information that interactant Y needs to request for it. In this instance, the information gap is created on information distribution which denotes a one-way information flow. That is to say, from sender X to receiver Y.

Like the configurations of jigsaw tasks, interactants in information gap tasks work towards a single outcome. In this case, although interaction is required [+], to attain the convergent goal [+] and a single outcome [1], Pica et al. (1993: 21) argue that mutual opportunities of interactants to collaborate is limited since each interactant plays a fixed role. In this context, Pica et al. (1993: 21) suggest that there are ways to which to revert the above configuration of the information gap tasks to suit those of jigsaw tasks. On one hand, the information receiver Y can begin by posing certain information that needs to be confirmed or rejected by the sender X. On the other hand, Pica et al. (1993: 22) argue that in case interactants alternate their roles as sender (supplier) and receiver (requester), both interactants will have equal chances and opportunities of possessing given information that was not possible at the beginning.

Pica et al. (1993: 22) relate problem-solving task to tasks that are mainly used to characterise tasks that are “oriented towards a single resolution of the outcome.” In addition, in Table 4:1, on page 208, Pica et al. relate decision-making tasks to such tasks whose participants are expected to carry out towards “a single outcome but have a number of outcomes available to them.” Furthermore, opinion-exchange are tasks that are implicitly aimed at engaging learners in discussing and exchanging ideas in the classroom. According to Pica et al. the salient feature about the above three tasks is being less restrictive on how to fill the interactant relationship and interaction requirement categories. In the three tasks, all participants “start with shared access to the information” [X=Y], but because there is less restriction on interaction, interactants can possibly interact but it is not necessary. Subsequently, participants are likely to complete tasks individually by solving problems, forming and conveying opinions and make decisions.

However, Pica et al. argue that since participants in problem-solving task work towards a singular goal [1] and one outcome option [1], such configurations make problem-solving tasks generate more,
“[Opportunities] for interactants to works towards making themselves mutually understood, by seeking and providing help in comprehending unfamiliar or unclear information and modifying production towards comprehensibility. Such comprehension, feedback, and production opportunities become increasingly reduced as more than one task outcome is allowed, as in decision-making tasks, in which interactants must converge towards a single decision as their goal [+], but no one specific decision is required for task completion and thus the task has more than one outcome option [+].”

Pica et al. (1993: 22-23)

Pica et al. (1993: 23) suggest that the task with least opportunities for interactants to comprehend, get feedback and modify their production is opinion exchange task(s). In this regard, the configuration of such tasks does not require interactions [-], thus, denoting single interaction, either X or Y might dominate carrying out the task. Pica et al. argue that although interactants are allowed (permitted) to, they are not expected to converge towards a single goal [-], and any “number of outcome options” that is to say, even without an outcome at all, is also possible [1+/-].”

Subsequently, interactants are likely to continue holding their contrasting opinions with which they began. Thus, making opinion-exchange tasks as the least effective in providing interactants with opportunities to comprehend the input, the provision of feedback after production and the modification of their output with an aim of determining learners’ interlanguage development, as it is the case with other tasks types that have been discussed.

In relation to interlanguage development, Skehan, Xiaoyue, Qian and Wang (2012: 184) maintain that interlanguage development is likely to be realised when conditions for its growth are set especially in tasks that push for complexifications during its performance. Finally, Pica et al. (2009: 183) maintain that the above task typology is not fixed in a sense that in case a feature (s) in a task is changed, the task is subsequently affected. To exemplify the above view, Pica et al. use a jigsaw task, they argue that in case all its information is given to one participant, the jigsaw task will become information gap task since the flow of information is one-way and so forth. This change of task feature(s) in a task is what Robinson (2010: 252) considers as manipulating of task features, that is to [+/-] increasing or decreasing of a certain feature(s) in a task.

On the other hand, among other scholars, Van den Branden et al. (2009: 8), are of the view that the type of task typology based on Pica et al. (1993, 2009) classification, continues to inform TBLT researchers especially the syllabus designers. This is because, according to Ellis (2003b: 214), the framework that Pica et al. (1993) advance is composed of features that support task as a potential unit for L2 learning and teaching. Such features mainly include, for example, (i) meaning-making processes, (ii) language input, (iii) language production, and (iv) focus on form, as discussed in previous chapters, for example, see, from section 2.4.6.1 to 2.4.6.7, from pages 89 to 100 respectively. In light of the above discussion, the present study employs a framework as advanced
by Pica et al. (1993; cf. 2009), in order to select and categorise the various types of tasks from the Kiswahili communicative dialogues as illustrated in Appendix (A-ii), between page 444 and page 539.

### 4.3. Cognitive complexity

The second facet relates to the analysis of cognitive complexity. In the first part of analysing cognitive complexity, I employ Robinson’s (2001b, 2005, 2007a) TCF (as mainly discussed in section 3.9.2, on page 193). The analysis aims to determine the developmental and the performative complexity dimensions/ features as they occur in the selected Kiswahili TDSs. In addition, I utilise Robinson’s (2010) SSARC model (see section 4.3.2, on page 215, for the discussion on this model) in the final part of cognitive complexity analysis, which entails designing learning tasks or pedagogical task versions. Versions of learning tasks are designed through manipulating cognitive task complexity features as they manifest in the task descriptions (see Appendix (A-i), between page 419 and page 443). In this study, each task description benchmarks the most cognitively complex pedagogical version, hence, for illustrative purposes, each task description exhibits the features of version three (with the highest cognitive complexity) of the pedagogical tasks.

Thus, to design cognitively less complex versions of the most cognitively complex versions – version three, two techniques are employed, namely, omission and alteration in all the third and second versions of pedagogical – learning tasks. For the cohesion purposes, a summary of the SAARC model will be examined after the discussion on the optional and obligatory move structures below.

#### 4.3.1. Obligatory and Optional move structures in a text

The use of the two techniques, omission and alteration (cf. McDonough et al. 2013: 71-77), is in light with the optional and obligatory analysis of move structures of a genre, as advanced by Hasan (1985: 56-69) and Henry and Roseberry (1998: 147 & 149), respectively. According to the above scholars, optional moves are employed by a writer or speaker in situations that the presence or absence of such moves has an influence on communication without altering the main purpose of texts. For Hasan (1985: 62), “… an optional element is one that can occur but is not obliged to occur.” With reference to Hasan (1985: 62-63), Hasan (1979) provides some examples of optional moves or elements as those that occur more than once in a genre, i.e. recursive or iteration, in a minimal social distance between participants or sometimes salutation as a sign of not continuity of personal relation.
Similarly, the obligatory moves are essential—necessary—in achieving a communicative purpose of the text. Hasan (1985: 60) maintains that obligatory moves are those that are characterised and appear in a systematic and specific order that realises the completion of a text. This can be illustrated, for example, through requests and compliance with the requests. These characteristics are more similar to the information holder, requester and supplier relationships as advanced, for example, by Pica et al. (1993, 2009) and Robinson (2001b), as discussed in section 3.9.2, on page 193. Finally, Henry and Roseberry (1998: 147-148) stress the view that both moves, that is to say, optional and obligatory, are important in the realisation of the communicative purpose of the genre as a whole.

Furthermore, the purpose of the study by Henry and Roseberry (1998: 148), aimed at ascertaining the effectiveness of the genre-based approach in writing short texts for specific academic purposes (SAP). Henry and Roseberry (1998: 154) contend that knowledge and awareness of generic structures of texts ease the responsibilities of writers in arranging their materials, thus, providing them with sufficient time, to effectively combine various text elements while taking into consideration the realisation of the highly structured genre as well as maintaining the communicative goals. In this regards, Henry and Roseberry (1998: 149) identify four obligatory and four optional moves, respectively. The obligatory moves include, (i) identification, such as name (X). (ii) location, that is the location of (X) regardless of the direction to (X). (iii) description(s) regarding what (X) contains. Lastly, (iv) any other additional information that is not provided in (iii) above. Regarding the optional moves, Henry and Roseberry (1998: 149) provide them as follows, (i) explanation or information regarding (X), in case the identification provided/specified in the obligatory move (i) above, is sufficient. (ii) instruction on getting to (X) however vague it might be. (iii) A brief history of (X). Lastly, (iv) the reason(s) or motivation for going to (X).

In light of the above regarding moves in a genre, with reference to Hasan (1985: 57), Hasan (1973, 1978 & 1980) is of the view that moves in a genre can be influenced by details of a given tenor in a particular social structure which constitute a continuum that Hasan refers to as a social distance. According to Hasan (1973, 1978, 1980), the two end-points of the social distance are maximal and minimal social distances. Hasan points out that the former involves individuals who know each other through infrequent contact in any agent-related role. Similarly, the minimal social distance is constituted by individuals who frequently contact each in different capacities. Therefore, relating the above views in terms of obligatory as well as optional moves in a given genre, Hasan (1985: 62-63) argues that the maximal social distance can have more obligatory moves compared to the minimal social distance. This can be possible because, in the minimal social distance, the degree of
familiarity between participants is high that the probability of occurrence or predicting/recognising certain signals is possible, hence, some acts, such as salutation/greeting and saying goodbye to each other can be considered as optional.

Finally, according to Hasan (1985: 57-58), the role of the language in a genre can determine its obligatory or optional influence. In a mode of discourse, language mode can be ancillary (optional) or constitutive (obligatory) category in a genre. Hasan maintains that the two roles should be considered as two endpoints of a continuum rather than sharply district notions. In this regard, the ancillary category provides information that accompanies the constitutive category. While there is this relationship between the two categories, there are instances where both categories can be considered as obligatory categories, such as during the exchange of goods, money as specified by Hasan (1985: 59).

In light of the above, the current study employs the obligatory and optional perspectives as advanced by the above scholars to analyse the selected Kiswahili TDSs and their corresponding simulated dialogue segments. The use of the above perspectives assists in one way or another to:

identify how these moves are organised in a given genre (rhetoric organisation), identify the linguistic features chosen by expert users of the genre to realize their communicative purpose, and, finally, explain these choices in terms of the social and psychological contexts. The aim [...] is to raise learners’ awareness of both the rhetorical organisation and the linguistic features closely associated with the genre. (Henry and Roseberry 1998: 147)

Therefore, in light with the above views as advanced by Hasan (1979, 1985) and Henry and Roseberry (1998), and as I pointed out in the previous paragraph, task three versions of all Kiswahili task descriptions, refer to the most complex versions of the three pedagogical tasks that will be considered for analysis. Task version two refers to the version which exhibits lesser cognitively complexity features than task three. Lastly, task version one (least) version refers to the task version which has the least cognitively and syntactic complex features of task three version (as approximations of different standards of Council of Europe 2001: 24 summarised in Table 3:3, on page 136).

Thus, in order to design cognitively less complex task description (TD) versions from the most cognitively and syntactically complex versions, I employ the omission and alteration techniques, to manipulate the features (in both resource-directing and resource-dispersing dimensions) of each TD and their associated dialogues that will be analysed. The manipulation involves employing the omission technique mainly to optional moves, elements or a feature in a TDS(s). Similarly, the alteration technique is utilised mainly in modifying obligatory features, moves or elements, as
advanced by Hasan (1979, 1985) and Henry and Roseberry (1998). Furthermore, the task manipulation invokes Robinson’s (2010) SSARC model which I will discuss in a subsequent section. In this regard, it must be pointed out that the current study assumes that the [+/- planning time] feature (as illustrated in Figure 3:8, on page 199) of each task will be determined in the classroom before the task is performed. Thus, the [+/- planning time] feature will not be considered in the analysis of the complexity of TDSs for all the five tasks to be analysed.

4.3.2. Robinson’s (2010) SSARC model of pedagogical and task sequencing

According to Robinson (2010: 247-249), the SSARC model, an abbreviation for simple state (SS), automatization (A), reconstruction (R), and maximum complexity (C) of learners’ current interlanguage systems, is constituted by three task (characteristics) cognitive factors – task condition, task difficulty and task complexity –, as discussed in the previous sections (see, for example, section 3.9.2, on page 193). According to Robinson (2010: 244), SSARC model focuses on key aspects and provides a rationale for decisions related to course instruction in any setting and any type of learner. The Robinson’s (2010) SSARC model is an extended version of the previously discussed TCF (see section 3.9.2, on page 193) as posed in relation to his CH (discussed in section 3.9.1, on page 189). Robinson (2010: 247, 2015: 107-108) argues that the model is feasible in providing criteria as regards the features (characteristics) of cognitive complexity of target language communication tasks in relation to the grading, and sequencing of pedagogical tasks for L2 learners.

Robinson (2010: 247) argues that the SSARC model is underpinned by its two operational principles: (i) –only the cognitive demands of tasks contributing to their intrinsic conceptual and cognitive processing complexity is sequenced, and (ii) increasing resource-dispersing dimension of complexity first, and then increase resource-directing dimensions– (see, these dimensions of Table 3:14, on page 195). Robinson argues that the two principles operate in four systematic steps that are intended to enhance L2 learner’s interlanguage to maximum development. The steps are; (i) simple, stable (SS) meaning that tasks that are simple are sequenced and performed first. Such tasks are characterised by dimensions, such as [+few elements], [+planning] and [-intentional reasoning], which during the performance, such tasks draw on learners’ current state of interlanguage.

Step (ii) involves increasing the complexity of resource-dispersing dimensions, such as [-planning], [-few steps] and [-prior knowledge] which the model assumes will promote speedier access and automatization (A) on of the learners’ current interlanguage system. Step (iii) involves increasing the complexity of both resources directing, such as [-here and now], [-international reasoning] and dispersing dimensions [-planning], [+many steps]. This step develops a new form-function mapping
on the resource directing resources through the restructuring (R) process of the learners’ current language system. The new form function introduces maximum complexity (C), which destabilises learners’ current interlanguage system (cf. Long 2015a: 306). Finally, as he concludes his discussion about the steps, Robinson (2010: 248) advances the view that the structure of interlanguage resources that are used to accomplish tasks are conditional to the increase in task complexity through manipulating of task demands. Similarly, Robinson (2011a: 5) suggests that the understanding of the nature of the pedagogical task is crucial in designing successive tasks as well as instructional materials that support learning in a provided instructional period of time across a range of learners.

To exemplify the above views, Robinson (2010: 525) argues that in sequencing pedagogical (learning) tasks, the first versions are simple in all their dimensions (characteristics) of complexity, as summarised in Table 4:2 below. Furthermore, Baralt et al. (2014: 16) argue that simple tasks in all parameters are performed first before their successive complex versions.

Table 4:2: Five versions of a task that increase in complexity following the sequencing principles of the SSARC model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions of complexity</th>
<th>Simple 1st</th>
<th>2nd</th>
<th>3rd</th>
<th>4th</th>
<th>5th</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>planning time (before speaking)</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>single task</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prior knowledge</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>few elements</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Modified from Robinson (2010: 253, 2015: 101)

In this regard, Robinson maintains that simple tasks draw from simple/stabilizing (SS) of learners’ interlanguage. In addition, Robinson argues that the next (second) version of the task is made more complex than the first version. The complexity is realised in its resource-dispersing dimensions, for instance, by reducing/removing planning time [- planning time] dimension. According to Robinson, the second version automatizes (A) access to interlanguage. Similarly, Robinson argues that the third version is characterised by [- planning time] and [- single task] features. The fourth version of the task according to Robinson is characterised by [- prior knowledge] feature. Robinson argues that across all versions above, there is a gradual increase in accessing learners’ current knowledge on L2 dues to performative demands which lead to the promotion of speedier access to such knowledge.

According to Robinson’s (2010) SSARC model, the final (fifth) version is characterised by manipulating the resource-directing dimension of the task. According to Robinson (2010:252), such
a version exhibit [+ reasoning] and [- few elements] dimensions. Robinson asserts that the fifth version relates to distinguishing and referring to the use of an unlimited number of complex nominal expressions; it also contains the use of relative clauses; adjective-noun-constructions. As a result, the fifth version is the most complex version which according to Robinson (2010: 252), “promotes restructuring and complexifying (RC) of the learner’s current level of interlanguage (cf. Long 2015a: 306 on learners’ current processing capacities [CPCs]) in order to meet the demands of the task, compared to the previous version.” Finally, to demonstrate that his model is feasibly applicable, Robinson (2010: 252-253), provides a sample of selected empirical studies that have operationalised or researched on some of the characteristics/ dimensions of his model.

4.4. Syntactic complexity

Finally, the third facet is that of linguistic/ syntactic complexity. A detailed review of theoretical perspectives on linguistics/syntactic complexity has been provided for in sections, 3.8.4, 3.8.4.1, 3.8.4.1.1, 3.8.4.2 and 3.8.4.3, on pages 179, 180, 180, 181 and 183, respectively. Nevertheless, the subsequent sub-section, section 4.4.1, on page 217, offers a recap of the previous views, mainly on insights regarding unit of measuring spoken data as proposed by Foster, Tonkyn, and Wigglesworth (2000). In this study, Foster et al. s’ (2000) views have been employed for demarcating clauses before analysing the linguistic/ syntactic complexity of the associated STDs of cognitively analysed Kiswahili TDSs.

4.4.1. The analysis of speech unit (Foster et al. 2000)

The genesis of advancing the analysis of speech unit (AS-unit) has been motivated by the gaps/deficiencies of several other units of analysis for speech data. Foster et al. (2000: 353) maintain that such units lack a clear definition(s), as well as being less detailed in terms of identifying the scope and their limits in analysing a given set of oral data (see, Foster et al. 2000: 354-364; Smitsdorff 2008: 65-73; Norris & Ortega 2009, for an in-depth discussion on several deficiencies of several units of analysis). In this context, the Foster et al., argue that such units have inadequately addressed the transcriptions of complex sets of oral data of either L1 or an L2, respectively. Nevertheless, Foster et al. (2000: 353-354) contend that to determine the scale of syntactic complexity in terms of frequency of grammatical or discourse features, including confirmation/ clarification checks in oral data, the data needs to be organised in units. These segmental units are essential in easily calculating quantitative analysis of language development.
Foster et al. (2000: 356) emphasise that their proposal is concerned with the extent to which a speaker can be able to produce complex or extended syntactic turns drawn from smaller segments. To realise positive results, the three authors assert that their proposal is based on an established criterion of validity and reliability. For instance, the proposal is flexible in reliably comparing other languages whose syntactic structures are like those of the English language. The three authors argue that the basic unit that promises greater validity and liability is the syntactic unit (see also Norris & Ortega 2009: 558, for similar views). The subordinate units that are common in syntactically based units include the clauses and the s-nodes. While Foster et al. (2000: 559) stress the view that clause and s-node are interchangeable; and that they are useful in dividing and subdividing units into smaller segments for ease analysis, Foster et al. (2000: 362) maintains that supra-clausal units provide an ideal validity in analysing the spoken data.

While Foster et al. (2000: 362) stress that supra-clausal units give greater chances to data analysts to reflect on the several embedded clauses which are a result of the complex/confiscated speech, there are challenges that are accompanied by such longer units. In light of the above, Foster and Skehan (1996: 310), cited in Foster et al. (2000: 559) relate a clause to “either a simple independent finite clause or a dependent finite or non-finite clause”. In addition, with reference to Foster et al. (2000: 559), Ellis et al. (1994: 483) emphasise that s-nodes are indicated by either an untensed or tensed verb. In light of the above, compared to L1 speech data, the three authors state that L2 data is messier to analyse. Thus, to address the above lacuna, Foster et al. (2000: 365) argue that there is a need to have a standard and accessible unit of analysis. The unit should be based on psycholinguistically valid, explicit and exemplified, and its application should be able to treat several oral data.

Foster et al. (2000: 365) contend that the AS-unit is a syntactic unit because as previous studies report that it is at the syntactic boundaries that many pauses occur hence making AS-unit a genuine unit of planning for analysis. In addition, the AS-unit provides room for analysing units larger than a simple clause. This is because of the possible pauses and intonations that speakers are likely to produce. Thus, the three authors suggest that dealing with larger units is paramount in establishing speakers’ levels of language proficiency. In concluding their study, Norris and Ortega (2009: 574) recommend that the unit of measuring the general complexity of a construct should attempt to consider complexity such as insubordinations.

Thus, based on the above anecdote, Foster et al. (2000: 365) propose the use of AS-unit in analysing oral data. Norris and Ortega (2009: 558) argue that, presently, AS-Unit has been used frequently to address the above-discussed concerns by measuring syntactic complexity using
subordinations in clauses. While referring to a unit of analysis, Foster et al. (2000: 365) define an AS-unit as an utterance of a speaker. To them, an utterance consists of (i) an independent clause or/and subclausal unit, (ii) any other subordinate clause(s) associated with (i) above. In addition, the three authors observe that minimally, an independent clause is a clause such as a finite verb (Foster et al. 2000: 365). Furthermore, to them, an independent sub-clausal unit consists of a single phrase or more which can be elevated to a complete/full phrase by recovering its ellipsed features/elements basing on the context of the discourse (Foster et al. 2000: 366).

4.5. Complexity analysis for Kiswahili pedagogical tasks

As I pointed out in section 4.1, on page 206, that this section and its subsequent sub-sections analyse the complexity of the Kiswahili pedagogical tasks with reference to their respective task description (TDS) and their corresponding segments in the STDs. It should be noted that all the TDS have been developed from the overarching task theme description as provided in Appendix (A). In addition, all task descriptions (TDS) are exemplified in Appendix (A-i). Each task description has a specific thematic topic (title) purposely for distinguishing it from other task descriptions. Furthermore, the corresponding simulated dialogue segments for the above TDS appear in Appendix (A-ii). Like task descriptions, the corresponding simulated dialogue segments bear a similar thematic topic as that of its TDS that reflects the content of a particular TDS it corresponds with.

4.5.1. Task one

Task one is about a discussion related to Presidential State Houses. The discussion is between students and their teachers. Task description for Task one is indicated as section 4.3.1, on page 426 in Appendix (A-i), as summarised in Table 4:3, on page 219. In the table below, the task description specifications (TDSs) for Task one are specified.

Table 4:3: Task description specifications (TDSs) for Task one

| (a) | Wewe na wanafunzi wenzako mmekaa kwenye moja ya vivuli vya hoteli. |
| (b) | Mwalimu wenu anajumuika nanyi na kuwasalimia. |
| (c) | Kisha anawambia kuhusu sehemu ambazo ilibidi mzitembelea siku hiyo. |
| (d) | Yeye na mmoja wa wanafunzi wenzako wanakubaliana na wanawaambieni kuwa siku hiyo ni Sikukuu ya Kitaifa. |
| (a) | You and your classmates are sitting in one of the shades at the hotel. |
| (b) | Your teacher joins you and greets you all. |
| (c) | She then informs you about the places that you were supposed to visit that day. |
| (d) | Your teacher and one of your classmates agree and tell you and your classmates that the day was a national holiday. |
The above TDSs are summarised in the table below. The corresponding STDs of TDSs for Task one, are given in section 4.3.1, on page 470 in Appendix (A-ii). Furthermore, the same STDs are coded in section 4.5.1.3.1., on page 233, as summarised in Table 4:4, on page 220.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TDS Indicators</th>
<th>Task description specifications (TDSs)</th>
<th>Sentence(s) in a dialogue segment(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(b-c)</td>
<td>Mwalimu wenu anajumuika nanyi na kuwasalimia. Kisha anawambia kuhusu sehemu ambazo ilibidi mzitembelea siku hiyo.</td>
<td>[^{b_{1} - c_{3}}]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Your teacher joins you and greets you all. She then informs you about the places that you were supposed to visit that day.</td>
<td>[^{b_{1} - c_{3}}]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(d-e)</td>
<td>Yeye na mmoja wa wanafunzi wenzako wanakubaliana na wanawaambieni kuwa siku hiyo ni Sikukuu ya Kitaifa. Mwanafunzi mwenzenu huyu anawaambieni zaidi kuwa alizungumza na wazazi wake na anawafahamisha aliyoambiwa na wazazi wake kuhusu ratiba yao ya sikukuu hiyo.</td>
<td>[^{d_{1} - e_{3}}]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Your teacher and one of your classmates agree and tell you and your classmates that the day was a national holiday. This classmate further tells you that she talked to her parents and she informs you of what her parents told her about their programme for this holiday.</td>
<td>[^{d_{1} - e_{3}}]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(f-g)</td>
<td>Kisha, baadhi ya wanafunzi wenzako wanajadiliana kuhusu Ikulu za Rais, sababu za kwanini ziko zaidi ya moja, uwepo wa Rais kwenye Ikulu hizi, majukumu ya watumishi wengine kwenye Ikulu za Rais, nakadhalika. Mwisho, mwalimu wenu anakushukuru wewe pamoja na wanafunzi wenzako kwa kushiriki kwenye mjadala.</td>
<td>[^{f_{1} - g_{1}}]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Then, some of your friends have a discussion about the presidential State Houses, the reasons why there are more than one, the presence of the president in the State Houses, the role of other employees in the State Houses and so forth. Finally, your teacher says thank you to you and your friends for participating in the discussion.</td>
<td>[^{f_{1} - g_{1}}]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Following the above summary, I will analyse the task complexity of TDSs of Task one with regard to its interactional, cognitive and syntactic complexity, respectively.

4.5.1.1. Interactional complexity for Task one

In relation to the requester-supplier relationship, Task one exhibits configurations for both mutual and independent relationships based on the roles (responsibilities) that the information holders, requesters, and suppliers have, as illustrated in its TDSs. The TDSs of Task one that exhibit configurations of mutual interactants’ relationship, include, TDS (b) your teacher joins you and greets you all, TDS (d) your teacher and one of your classmates agree and tell you and your classmates that the day was a national holiday, TDS (e) This classmate further tells you that she talked to her parents and she informs you about what her parents told her about their programme for this holiday, and TDS (f) then, some of your friends have a discussion about the presidential State Houses, the reasons why there are more than one, the presence of the president in the State Houses, the role of other employees in the State Houses and so forth. Similarly, TDSs that exemplify configurations of independent relationship, include, TDS (c) she then informs you about the places that you were supposed to visit that day and TDS (g) finally, your teacher says thank you to you and your friends for participating in the discussion. Examples of simulated dialogue segments (see section 4.5.1.3.1, on page 233) that demonstrate the configurations of mutual interactant relationship are found in sentence(s), $b_1 - b_2$ and $c_5 - d_1$. Similarly, examples of simulated dialogue segment that illustrate configurations of an independent interactant relationship include sentence(s), $c_1 - d_4$ and $g_1$.

From the above interactional task complexity configurations, as exemplified by the TDSs (b), (d), (e) and (f), the configurations illustrate that interactants convergently working towards achieving one goal [1] and a single outcome [1]. This is exemplified in configurations, such as mutual interactant relationship, required [+] interaction requirement, and two-way flow of information occurring as a result of continuous requests and supply of information among the interactants. Similarly, interactional task complexity configurations as exhibited in TDSs (c) and (g), exemplify configurations of interactants also convergently working towards achieving one goal [1] and a single outcome [1].

However, since interactants are expected but not necessarily required to request and supply information, then, task configurations as exemplified in TDS (c) and (g) include, the independent interactant relationship, required [-] interaction requirement and one-way flow of information. The configuration of independency among interactants creates an information gap, where a single
interactant(s) dominates others as information supplier(s) leading to limited interaction since interactants have options to contribute or not to contribute to the exchange of information (participation) with others in order to complete the task.

Therefore, considering the above configurations of TDSs for Task one, it can be concluded that the TDSs for Task one predominantly exhibit configurations that exemplify information gap task type. This is possible because interactants have fixed roles mainly as information suppliers hence creating a one-way flow of information which is brought about by limited interaction among interactants.

4.5.1.2. Cognitive complexity for Task one

In relation to developmental complexity features of Robinson’s (2005) Triadic Componential Framework, the TDSs of Task one illustrate both [+/- few elements] features. The [+ few elements] feature is present in narrations with standard expressions, such as salutations and appreciations, as exhibited in TDSs, such as TDS (b), your teacher joins you and greets you all, and TDS (g), finally, your teacher says thank you to you and your friends for participating in the discussion. The simulated dialogue segments (see section 4.5.1.3.1, on page 233) that illustrate the [+ few elements] features are found in sentences(s), such as \([b_1 – b_2] \) and \([g_1] \).

As pointed above, Task one also illustrates the [- few elements] feature in narrations where participants make reference to, for example, locatives, remote events, personal experiences, and variety of entities, mainly, in a shared context, as demonstrated in TDSs, such as TDS (c), she then informs you about the places that you were supposed to visit that day, TDS (d) your teacher and one of your classmates agree and tell you and your classmates that the day was a national holiday, TDS (e) This classmate further tells you that she talked to her parents and she informs you about what her parents told her about their programme for this holiday, and TDS (f) then, some of your friends have a discussion about the presidential State Houses, the reasons why there are more than one, the presence of the president in the State Houses, the role of other employees in the State Houses and so forth. The simulated dialogue segments (see section 4.5.1.3.1, on page 233) that exemplify [- few elements] feature, include sentence(s) indicated, as, \([c_2 – c_4], [c_1] \) and \([c_3] \).

In addition, TDSs of Task one exhibit both [+/- no reasoning] features. In this task, there are limited narrations that illustrate [+ no reasoning] feature. Such narrations are in scenarios, for example, where a participant enquires about the well-being (salutation) of others and in expressing appreciations to them as demonstrated in TDSs, such as TDS (b) your teacher joins you and greets you all, and TDS (g) finally, your teacher says thank you to you and your friends for participating
in the discussion, respectively. The simulated dialogue segments (see section 4.5.1.3.1, on page 233) that illustrate the [+ no reasoning] feature, include sentence(s) indicated, as, \([b_1] \) and \([g_1] \).

Furthermore, the TDSs of Task one as a whole largely exhibits the [- no reasoning] feature in scenarios where participants narrate events with reference to, for example, causal, intentional and logical reasoning, as illustrated in TDSs, such as TDS (b) your teacher joins you and greets you all, TDS (d) your teacher and one of your classmates agree and tell you and your classmates that the day was a national holiday and, TDS (f) then, some of your friends have a discussion about the presidential State Houses, the reasons why there are more than one, the presence of the president in the State Houses, the role of other employees in the State Houses and so forth. The corresponding sentence(s) in the respective segment(s) of the simulated task dialogue (see section 4.5.1.3.1, on page 233) that exemplify [- no reasoning] feature, include sentence(s) indicated, as, \([b_2], [s_5] \) and \([s_2 - f_4] \).

The last developmental complexity feature in Robinson’s (2005) Triadic Componential Framework is the [+/- here-and-now] feature. In this regard, TDSs of Task one demonstrate both [+/- here-and-now] features. TDSs that illustrate [+ here-and-now] feature, are exhibited in scenarios where participants express narrations with reference to events happening in the present time and space. These scenarios are exemplified in various TDSs, including, TDS (b) your teacher joins you and greets you all, TDS (d) your teacher and one of your classmates agree and tell you and your classmates that the day was a national holiday, TDS (f) then, some of your friends have a discussion about the presidential State Houses, the reasons why there are more than one, the presence of the president in the State Houses, the role of other employees in the State Houses and so forth, and TDS (g) finally, your teacher says thank you to you and your friends for participating in the discussion. The corresponding sentence(s) in the respective segment(s) of the simulated task dialogue (see section 4.5.1.3.1, on page 233) that exemplify [+ here-and-now] cognitive complexity feature, include sentence(s) indicated, as, \([b_1 - b_2], [s_5 - d_4] \), and \([g_1] \).

TDSs of Task one that illustrate the [- here-and-now] feature, are exemplified in scenarios where participants express narrations with reference to events happening elsewhere in time and space as demonstrated in TDSs, such as TDS (c) she then informs you about the places that you were supposed to visit that day, TDS (e) This classmate further tells you that she talked to her parents and she informs you about what her parents told her about their programme for this holiday, and TDS (f) then, some of your friends have a discussion about the presidential State Houses, the reasons why there are more than one, the presence of the president in the State Houses, the role of other employees in the State Houses and so forth. The corresponding sentence(s) in the respective
segment(s) of the simulated dialogue segments (see section 4.5.1.3.1, on page 233) that exemplify [-
here-and-now] features, include the sentence(s) indicated, as, \([c_1-c_4], [e_1], [f_2],\) and \([f_4-f_{14}].\)

In relation to Robinson’s (2005) Triadic Componential Framework, the TDSs of Task one exhibit both [+/- prior knowledge] and [+/- single task] features of its performative complexity dimensions.

For examples, the [+ prior knowledge] feature is predominantly exhibited in almost all narrations except in few scenarios where participants ask about the well-being of others, and in inquiring about something(s). Such scenarios that exemplify the [- prior knowledge] feature, as illustrated in TDSs, including, TDS (b) your teacher joins you and greets you all, and TDS (f) then, some of your friends have a discussion about the presidential State Houses, the reasons why there are more than one, the presence of the president in the State Houses, the role of other employees in the State Houses and so forth. The corresponding task dialogue segments (see section 4.5.1.3.1, on page 233) that demonstrate the [- prior knowledge] features are found in sentence(s) indicated, as, \([b_1], [e_2],\) and \([e_4].\)

Finally, TDSs of Task one as a whole illustrate only the [+ single task] feature. In this task, in all scenarios, participants perform not more than one activity (dual-task) or [- single task] feature. Thus, the corresponding task dialogue segments (see section 4.5.1.3.1, on page 233) that illustrate the [+ single task] feature are found in the sentence, \([b_1-g_1].\)

In summary, from the above cognitive analysis it is evident that TDSs of Task one exhibit various cognitive complexity features in that the [+few elements], [+ no reasoning] and [+ here-and-now] features are fewer than the [-few elements], [- no reasoning] and [- here-and-now] features. In addition, the [+ prior knowledge] feature has been observed in most parts of the task, so is the [+ single task] feature that is absolutely occurring in all TDSs of Task one, as summarised in Table 4:5 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Resource-directing</strong></th>
<th><strong>Resource-dispersing</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- few elements: TDS (c), (d), (e) &amp; (f)</td>
<td>+/- planning time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- no reasoning: TDS (b), (d) &amp; (f)</td>
<td>+ prior knowledge: Almost all TDSs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- here-and-now: TDS (c), (e) &amp; (f)</td>
<td>+ single task: Almost all TDSs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Therefore, it can be concluded that TDSs of Task one predominantly illustrate features that are categorised in quadrant [3] of Robinson’s (2005: 8) Triadic Componential Framework, summarised as Table 3:15, on page 203. This suggests that Task one, on one hand, demonstrates low performative level, and on the other hand, a high developmental complexity.
4.5.1.2.1. Pedagogical task versions for Task one in terms of cognitive complexity

Considering Robinson’s (2001a:31, 2010:246) views, the features identified above for Task one, as summarised in Table 4:5, on page 224, can be considered as complex for beginner L2 Kiswahili learners (refer also to section 4.3.1, in Appendix (A-i)). This is because of the occurrence of, for example, TDSs with [-] features. Thus, to scale down the complexity of TDSs of Task one, for grading and sequencing purposes, from the most complex version as summarised in Table 4:5, on page 224, it is necessary to manipulate the resource-directing features only, given that all the resource-dispersing features exhibit features of less cognitive complexity.

4.5.1.2.1.1. Pedagogical task version two of Task one

The decomplexification design for TDSs, of the task description, of Task one as formulated above (see Table 4:5, on page 224), involves manipulating resource-directing features as realised in various TDSs, through omission in conjunction with the alteration techniques. The manipulation can be done with respect to TDS as a whole, or in some parts/elements of the TDSs of the task description, as illustrated for in Task one of the paragraphs below.

In relation to the [-few elements] feature, for the purpose of designing a less complex version (i.e. version two) from the most complex version of Task one (i.e. version three) as summarised in Table 4:5, on page 224, the omission technique can be used. Regarding the omission technique, TDS (d) *Your teacher and one of your classmates agree and tell you and your classmates that the day was a national holiday.*., and TDS (e)*This classmate further tells you that she talked to her parents and she informs you about what her parents told her about their programme for this holiday.*., can be completely omitted from the TDSs of Task one. This technique of omission is in order because both TDS (d) and (e) illustrate narrations that are not directly related to the core TDSs of the task description of Task one. For example, TDS (d) and (e) exhibit narration with elements, such as temporal references and reference to a third person who is visually absent in the interactional task context. Such elements can be referred to as optional elements, given that such elements are not essential to the broader thematic topic of Task one. Thus, the occurrence of such optional elements, as in TDS (d) and (e) of Task one (version three), exemplify the overall task description as cognitively complex for beginner L2 Kiswahili learners, hence, they can be considered for omission in this respect to the manipulation of task feature in designing a less complex version of pedagogical tasks.
Considering the [- no reasoning] feature, to design a less complex (second) version from TDSs for Task one, it is possible to manipulate its TDSs, for example, by completely omitting TDS (b) *Your teacher joins you and greets you all.*, and TDS (d) *Your teacher and one of your classmates agree and tell you and your classmates that the day was a national holiday.*, respectively. The omission of these two TDSs can be done because, for example, TDS (b) exhibits optional reasoning expressions in it, such as a response to salutation/greeting which is a daily custom in the Kiswahili cultural, especially when younger ones (in this case students) and elders (teachers) meet each other. In this regard, given that there is minimal social distance among the task participants, salutation can be considered as optional. In addition, as TDS (d) demonstrates an expression ‘agree’ which can be considered to embed reasoning feature(s) in it, it is evident that, predominantly, TDS (d) is completely unrelated to the task description of Task one, as a whole, as specified on its thematic topic. Hence, it can be considered that both TDS (b) and (d) as optional TDSs of Task one.

Considering [- here-and-now] feature of Task one, for the purpose of designing less complex version (version two) from the most complex version (version three), of TDS(c) *She then informs you about the places that you were supposed to visit that day.*, the alteration technique in conjunction omission technique can be used, respectively. For example, the alteration can be employed to manipulate narrations with reasoning features that make reference to temporal expressions which illustrate events which would happen elsewhere. In addition, the use of the omission technique can be used to omit iteration expressions in order to reduce recursive expressions and maintain narrations which exhibit events that are presently happening in a shared context. Thus, the modified TDS (c), is formulated as follows, TDC (c) […] *anawaambia […] sehemu […] ‘mnazozitembele’ […].* She […] ‘is telling’ you […] the places […] you ‘are’ […] ‘visiting’ […].

Furthermore, for the purpose of designing least complex version of version three for Task one, like TDS (c), also in TDS (e), both omission and alteration techniques can be employed to manipulate narrations of TDS (e) that, for example, make reference to the third person who is visually absent in the interactional task context while refereeing to past events, and events which are happening elsewhere in unshared place. Thus, the modified TDS (e) is formulated as follows, TDS (e) […] *‘anawaambieni’ […] ratiba yao ya sikukuu hiyo. […] she ‘is telling’ you […] her ‘parents’’ […] programme […].* for this holiday.

In addition, considering TDS (f) *Then, some of your friends have a discussion about the presidential State Houses […], the reasons why there are more than one, the presence of the president in the State Houses, the role of other employees in the State Houses and so forth.*, it is
possible to manipulate it by using omission and alteration techniques. The manipulation can be done in expressions that make reference to, for example, narrations with aspects that exhibit near past events and narrations which demonstrate repeated expressions. Thus, the modified TDS (f), can be illustrated as follows, TDS (f) [...] baadhiri ya wanafunzi wenzako wanajadiliana kuhusu Ikulu za Rais [...]J. [...] some of your friends ‘are discussing’ about the presidential State Houses [...]J.

Therefore, based on the above task versions, it is evident that the [-here-and-now] features have been manipulated and modified to [+ here-and-now] features that can be considered as least cognitively complex for beginner L2 Kiswahili learners, as summarised in Table 4:6 below.

Table 4:6: Summary of pedagogical task version two of Task one

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource-directing</th>
<th>Resource-dispersing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- few elements: TDS (c) &amp; (f)</td>
<td>+/- planning time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- no reasoning: TDS (f)</td>
<td>+/- prior knowledge: Almost all TDSs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+ here-and-now: TDS (c)^{mod_2}, (e)^{mod_2} &amp; (f)^{mod_2}</td>
<td>+ single task: Almost all TDSs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.5.1.2.1.2. Pedagogical task version one of Task one

In relation to [- few elements] features, to design a less complex (first) version from the second version of Task one, the alteration technique can be employed in the manipulation of elements of the remaining TDSs of the task description, i.e., TDS (c) and (f). For example, TDS (c) *She then informs you about the places that you were supposed to visit that day.* It is possible to alter part of TDS (c) so that this TDS can be specific to a particular aspect of the task that the participants are intended to attend to and realise in their performance as reflected in the broad thematic topic of the whole task description for Task one. Thus, TDS (c) can be modified as follows: TDS (c) *Kisha anawaambi a kuhusu ‘Ikulu’ ambazo ilibidi mzitembelee siku hiyo.* [She then informs you about the ‘State House’ that you were supposed to visit that day]. This example illustrates that the element ‘places’ has been replaced by a specific element ‘State House’, as reflected in the broad thematic topic and in the task description of Task one, hence reducing the many non-specific and optional elements that were part of TDS (c), to a few specific and obligatory elements, demonstrates TDS (c) with relatively [+ few elements] features.

In addition, some optional elements of TDS (f) *Then, some of your friends have a discussion about the presidential State Houses, the reasons why there are more than one, the presence of the president in the State Houses, the role of other employees in the State Houses and so forth*, can also be omitted. The omission is possible given that such elements demonstrate narrations with
expressions repeated. Therefore, the modified TDS (f) can be illustrated as follows; [...] baadhi ya wanafunzi wenzako wanajadiliana kuhusu, uwepo wa Rais [...] majukumu ya watumishi wengine kwenye Ikulu za Rais [...]]. [...] some of your friends have a discussion about [...] the presence of the president [...] the role of other employees in the State Houses [...]].

Although the altered TDS (c) and (f) can be considered to be relevant to the broad thematic topic and the task description of Task one as a whole, it is evident that several obligatory elements still remain that are being narrated in terms of these two TDSs which exhibit the [- few elements] feature in version one of Task one. This suggests that it is still possible to further design another less cognitively complex version (s) of the [few elements] feature from TDS (c) and (f), as summarised in Table 4:7, on page 229, for the purpose of grading and sequencing pedagogical tasks in the process of TBS design.

Considering the [- no reasoning] features, in order to design a less complex (first) version from the second version of Task one, both the omission and alteration techniques can be employed by manipulating optional reasoning expressions that occur in narrations with reference to, for example, iteration, and third person expressions, found in TDS (f) Then, some of your friends have a discussion about the presidential State Houses, the reasons why there are more than one, the presence of the president in the State Houses and so forth. In this regard, it is possible to first omit the above-mentioned expressions from TDS (f), and the modified TDS (f) can be illustrated as follows, TDS (f) [...] baadhi ya wanafunzi wenzako wanajadiliana kuhusu Ikulu za Rais, [...] uwepo wa Rais kwenye Ikulu hizi [...]]. [...] some of your friends have a discussion about the presidential State Houses, [...] the presence of the president in the State Houses [...]]. Then, the alteration technique can be employed to change, for example, the ‘have a discussion about’, to ‘talk about’ expression. Therefore, the modified TDS (f) can be illustrated as follows. TDS (f) [...] baadhi ya wanafunzi wenzako ‘wanaongelea’ kuhusu Ikulu za Rais, [...] uwepo wa Rais kwenye Ikulu hizi [...]]. [...] some of your friends ‘talk about’ the presidential State Houses, [...] the presence of the president in the State Houses [...]]. Therefore, from the above examples, it can be concluded that the [-no reasoning] features have been manipulated into the [+no reasoning] feature. Hence, TDS (f) for Task one can be considered as cognitively least complex for beginners L2 Kiswahili learners, as illustrated in Table 4:7 below.
Table 4:7: Summary of pedagogical task version one of Task one

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource-directing</th>
<th>Resource-dispersing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- few elements: TDS (c)\textsuperscript{mod1} &amp; (f)\textsuperscript{mod1}</td>
<td>+/- planning time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+ no reasoning: TDS (f)\textsuperscript{mod1}</td>
<td>+ prior knowledge: Almost all TDS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+ here-and-now: TDS (c)\textsuperscript{mod1}, (e)\textsuperscript{mod1} &amp; (f)\textsuperscript{mod1}</td>
<td>+ single task: Almost all TDSs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above task versions are summarised as shown in Table 4:8 below.

Table 4:8: Three task versions exemplifying progressively more cognitive complexity for Task one

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource-directing</th>
<th>Resource-dispersing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Task version one</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- few elements: TDS (c)\textsuperscript{mod1} &amp; (f)\textsuperscript{mod1}</td>
<td>+/- planning time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+ no reasoning: TDS (f)\textsuperscript{mod1}</td>
<td>+ prior knowledge: Almost all TDSs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+ here-and-now: TDS (c)\textsuperscript{mod1}, (e)\textsuperscript{mod1} &amp; (f)\textsuperscript{mod1}</td>
<td>+ single task: Almost all TDSs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource-directing</th>
<th>Resource-dispersing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Task version two</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- few elements: TDS (c) &amp; (f)</td>
<td>+/- planning time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- no reasoning: TDS (f)</td>
<td>+ prior knowledge: Almost all TDSs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+ here-and-now: TDS (c)\textsuperscript{mod2}, (e)\textsuperscript{mod2} &amp; (f)\textsuperscript{mod2}</td>
<td>+ single task: Almost all TDSs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource-directing</th>
<th>Resource-dispersing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Task version three</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- few elements: TDS (c), (d), (e) &amp; (f)</td>
<td>+/- planning time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- no reasoning: TDS (b), (d) &amp; (f)</td>
<td>+ prior knowledge: Almost all TDSs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- here-and-now: TDS (c), (e) &amp; (f)</td>
<td>+ single task: Almost all TDSs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.5.1.2.1.2.1. Sequencing of pedagogical tasks for Kiswahili learners

Considering the analysis presented above of cognitive features as demonstrated in respective TDSs, it can be concluded that the above TDS features exemplify Robinson’s (2001a, 2001b, 2005, 2007a, 2009, 2010, 2011 & 2015) CH, as discussed in section 3.9.1, on page 189. The CH (see also, Triadic Componenntal Framework in section 4.3, on page 212) is premised on the key claim that sequencing of pedagogical tasks be done in an order of increasing complexity in relation to the cognitive demands a task(s) imposes on L2 learners.

In refining the CH further, Robinson (2010) proposes that the SAARC model (as was explored in section 4.3.2, on page 215), specifically for the grading and sequencing of pedagogical tasks. Thus, drawing on the two principles of the SAARC model (see section 4.3.2, on page 215), this study will
attempt to demonstrate the applicability of the two principles with regard to increase cognitive complexity features from version one through to version three in all the designed TDS with their respective STDs.

The two principles mentioned in section 4.3.2, on page 215, are restated for ease of reference. They are, (i) only the cognitive demands of tasks contributing to their intrinsic conceptual and cognitive processing complexity are sequenced, and (ii) the increase of resource-dispersing dimension of complexity is done first, and then, the increase of resource-directing dimensions is done (see, these dimensions in Table 3:14, on page 195). Robinson maintains that these principles operate in a four-way system as explored in section 4.3.2, on page 215.

Thus, to contextualise the first principle of the SAARC model, all the designed task description (TDS) in this study, see Appendix (A-i), cause both cognitive and conceptual processing complexity given that they exhibit various cognitive features from simple to complex as, for example, as demonstrated in Table 4:8, on page 229. Therefore, in the remaining sections of this study, the first principle will not be discussed any further. Attention will be emphasised mainly on the two steps of the second principle as will be exemplified in the sequencing of the three versions of the pedagogical tasks in the following sub-sections.

Before moving to sequencing of the three pedagogical task versions of Task one, as presented in Table 4:8, on page 229, it is in order to mention that, in relation to the sequencing of pedagogical tasks, Robinson (2010: 525) argues that the first version(s) of pedagogical tasks need to be simple in all dimensions. For instance, considering the first version of the TDSs of Task one, as shown in Table 4:8 above, with regard to the resource-dispersing dimensions, for the learners to complete the performance with narrations related to Presidential State Houses with ease while saving time, they are required to have enough time to plan and prepare for the performance [+planning time] feature. In addition, this task version requires Kiswahili novice learners to be with adequate information about the task they are to perform [+ prior knowledge]. Lastly, in this task version, learners are expected to perform not more than one task at a time, hence performing [+ single task].

On the other hand, with regard to the resource-directing dimension of version one of TDSs for Task one, it can be seen that while Robinsons (2010: 525) maintains that first versions need to be simple in all dimensions, this is not the case with the [+- few elements] features. This is because of the occurrence of TDS (c)\text{mod}_1 and (f)\text{mod}_1 that impose cognitive demands on the L2 learners. Nevertheless, TDS (c)\text{mod}_1 & (f)\text{mod}_1 can be manipulated further by altering some parts of these TDSs, so that the TDSs can exhibit fewer elements compared to their present forms, this can be of
advantage to Kiswahili learners because when elements are fewer, to perform this task version, learners are expected to demonstrate their mastery of Kiswahili language in expressing narrations that exemplify simple ideas of few items or objects.

In relation to the [+ no reasoning] feature, in task-performing, this task version requires learners to demonstrate their proficiency in Kiswahili to narrate simple events that do not require learners to give any form of reasoning in their narrations. For example, simple sentences. Similarly, unlike the occurrence of the [- few elements] features in version one, there is the occurrence of the [+ no reasoning] feature in the same version. Thus, this task version requires learners in their task performance to use language content in Kiswahili that expresses simple reasons. Lastly, the occurrence of the [+ here-and-now] feature in this version, learners are supposed to demonstrate their Kiswahili skills in expressing events that are happening in the present time and in the context surrounding them. For instance, a simple and formal introduction to the class.

In relation to increasing cognitive complexity from version one to version two of Task one, as pointed out earlier, the second operational principle of Robinson’s (2010: 247) SSARC model is employed. On one hand, cognitive complexity is first increased on the resource-dispersing dimensions, on the other hand, there will be an increase in complexity in the resource-directing dimension. It should be remembered that for all versions (one and two) the [+- planning time] feature will be present/ provided for, except in version three. Therefore, like in the previous task version, in the performance of this task version, Kiswahili learners are supposed to have enough time for planning purposes before they perform this task version. Similarly, as was the case in the previous task version, in this version also, Kiswahili learners are expected to have relevant information [+ prior knowledge] about the task they are about to perform. Lastly, with regard to the resource-directing dimension, Like the previous version, it occurs in this version too that Kiswahili learners are supposed not to perform more than one task [+ single task]

To increase cognitive complexity about resource-dispersing dimension in TDSs of Task one, it can be observed that [- few elements] features of this version were altered to have the [- few elements] features of version one. This means this version exhibits more complexity of the [- few elements] features compared to version one. Thus, this task version required Kiswahili learners to demonstrate the masterly of Kiswahili while expressing narrations with several ideas and items more than those they expressed in the version one above. Furthermore, the [- no reasoning] feature of this version in the modified feature of version one above. This suggests that this version is more complex than version one with regard to the [+- no reasoning] feature. In this context, to perform this task version, Kiswahili learners are supposed to express narrations about the number of State Houses

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with some simple reasoning incorporated in them. Lastly, with regard to the [+ here-and-now] feature, it can also be observed that TDSs in this version have been modified to have version one. Therefore, although this version exhibit [+ here-and-now] feature, during the performance of this version, Kiswahili learners are supposed to make more reference to events that are happening now than those that are happening elsewhere and not in the shared context.

With regard to increasing the cognitive complexity of version three in the resource-dispersing dimension, except in the [+/- planning time] feature, the manipulation of [+ prior knowledge], [+ single task] features are like those of versions one and two, respectively. It was mentioned in version two that through the study, it is only in all version one and two that the [+/- planning time] feature is available/present [+ planning time] feature. The [- planning time] is assumed to be absent in all versions (three) throughout the study. To contextualise it, with regard to version three of Task one, Kiswahili learners are expected to perform this task version without given time for preparation purposes yet they are supposed to perform and accomplish a given task within a prescribed time.

On one hand, with regard to [- few elements] features in this task version, Kiswahili learners are required to perform this task version and exhibit their proficiency in Kiswahili by the ability to give narrations entailing the use of complex sentences compared to the narrations they expressed in version one and two above. Similarly, considering the [- no reasoning] feature in this version. It demonstrates the high complexity structure in terms of reasoning. This, in turn, requires learners to employ their mastery of Kiswahili reasoning skills to support their narrations as for example, one learner explains to you the programmes of her parents on Uganda’s Christian Martyrs day while using complex sentences. Lastly, in relation to the occurrence of the [-here-and-now] feature, in performing this task version, Kiswahili learners are expected employ high proficiency of Kiswahili commands to narrate past or future events that occurred or will occur elsewhere in unshared contexts. In this regard, learners are supposed to use, for instance, past tenses to explain to others about the officers who took them around when they visited the State House a few years ago.

4.5.1.3. Syntactic complexity for Task one

This section presents the STDs for Task one as illustrated in section 4.5.1.3.1, on page 233. Then, the syntactic complexity analysis of the simulated task dialogue is done (see section 4.5.1.3.1.1, on page 235). Thereafter, the subsequent sub-sections of this section, are intended to illustrate the construction of linguistically less complex dialogues (version two and version one) as learning tasks from the most syntactically complex dialogues (version three). The construction is realised through
the manipulation of only resource-directing features, as demonstrated in section 4.5.1.4.1, on page 237, and in section 4.5.1.4.2, on page 237, respectively.

4.5.1.3.1. Simulated task dialogue for Task one

*Mwalimu Peta:* b[^b]1| Hamjambo wanafunzi?

*Teacher Peta:* b[^b]1| How are you learners?

*Wanafunzi:* b[^b]2| Hatujambo mwalimu, shikamoo mwalimu[^NP]?

*Learners:* b[^b]2| We are fine teacher, we respect you teacher.


*Teacher Peta:* c[^c]1| Today we were supposed to visit different places that we did not manage yesterday. c[^c]2| Our schedule shows that we had to begin our tour by visiting the State House here in Entebbe. c[^c]3| Then, visit few ministries based here, such as the Ministry of Agriculture and Ministry of Health. c[^c]4| Then in the afternoon we would complete our tour by visiting the airport and the United Nations offices, which are located adjacent to the airport. c[^c]5| But as you all know, today is 3/6/2015, a national holiday in our country.

*Ndunamiwe:* d[^d]1| Ni[^IND. COV. PRES] kweli mwalimu Peta | d[^d]2| Leo ni[^IND. COV. PRES] sikukuu ya mashahidi wa Uganda |

*Ndunamiwe:* d[^d]1| It is true Teacher Peta. d[^d]2| Today is the Uganda’s Christian Martyrs public holiday.

Yesterday night I spoke to my dad and mom and they informed me that today they will go to Namugongo to join with other congregations in celebrating this holiday. Teacher, you spoke about Entebbe State House, how many state houses does the president have? I only know the one in Kampala, whose photo is displayed on newspapers and television, and it is also mentioned on radios. Can the president be ready to welcome and show us different places in the state house? I would be very happy to find him waiting for us.

Msella: Of course not! I do not think if the president will be around. After all, two years ago, while still in primary school, we visited the Kampala State House but it does not mean that we met with the president. Although the State House is his office and residence, that does not mean he is available all the time in there. For instance, in that year when we were entering the State House, he was leaving to the Entebbe airport on his way to attend the African Union Summit in Ethiopia. But other officers working in there took us to different places of the State House.

Kombe: Ndunamiwe, kuhusu idadi za Ikulu {zilizopo nchini mwetu} | Sina uhakika sana | ilanadhani | nilishawahi kusoma kwenywe kitabu fulani kwamba hapo awali | Rais aliwuwa Ikulu mbili | yanhi hii ya Entebbe na ile ya Kampala ujulikanayo na wenzi | Hii ya Entebbe ndiyo kongwe zaidi | kwasababu ilijengwa na wakoloni | Wakati huo wazungu walitaka mji wa Entebbe ndiyo uwe mji mkuu wa nchi yetu | Lakin baada ya kupata uhuru mwaka 1962 | watawala waliocuwa madaraka | baada ya kuondoka kwa Kakolonj | walianza ujezi wa Ikulu ya Kampala | Waliona mji wa Entebbe aliwuwa mdogo sana na ulipanuka kwa kasi | Jambo ambalo lingeweza kutishia usalamwa wa Rais | Ishitoshe kitabu kiliandika kwamba | kila kwenywe Makao Makuu ya wilaya Rais hujengewa
sehemu maalumu kama Ikulu | 14 Rais huitumia (IND. HAB. PRES) kama makazi yake | || endepo ataitembelea hiyo wilaya husika || ]

Kombe: 16 Ndunamiwe, you asked about the number of state houses which are in our country. 17 I am not quite certain but I think I once read from a book that in the past the president had two State Houses, which are this one in Entebbe and the one in Kampala, which is well known by many. 18 The one in Entebbe is the oldest because it was built by colonialists. 19 At that time, the whites wanted Entebbe to be the capital city of our nation. 20 But after independence in 1962, new leaders who assumed power from colonialists begun to build the Kampala State House. 21 They saw Entebbe as a too small town but the one which was expanding fast. 22 Something which could compromise president’s security. 23 Also, the book indicated that in each district’s headquarters there is special residence for president, which functions as State House. 24 The president uses it when he/she visits a respective district.

Mwalimu Peta: 25 [ 8 Asanteni sana kwa mzungumzo mazuri kama hayo (ADVB. P)]

Teacher Peta: 26 [ 8 Thank you for such an insightful discussion.]

4.5.1.3.1.1. An analysis of syntactic complexity for Task one

TDS 4.3.1 of Task one, as illustrated in its associated simulated task dialogue 4.3.1, mostly demonstrates complex syntactic sentences. This complexity is evident in main clauses and in the independent clauses that realise sentences in this dialogue. For example, in monoclausal sentences, \[c_2, d_1, f_5, f_6, f_9 & f_0 & f_11\], syntactic complexity is realised mainly in the verbs or predicate forms. Clauses with only lexical verbs are illustrated in sentences \[d_1, f_5 & f_6\], while sentences \[c_2, f_9 & f_11\] exhibit both an auxiliary and a lexical verb as they occur in a clause. Irrespective of the specific types of lexical verb, most of the clauses predominately exhibit the [- here-and-now] feature of cognitive complexity. For example, in sentence \[f_9\], the clause with an indicative past tense lexical verb \(walitaka\) expresses Kombe’s explanations to his fellow students about initial plans the Whites had of making Entebbe the capital city of Uganda.

In addition, this task segment, several sentences illustrate the occurrences of an independent clause and a dependent clause in a single complex sentence. These include, for example, sentence \[e_5, f_1, f_8, f_12, f_13 & f_14\]. In these sentences, the syntactic complexity of sentences is predominantly evident in narrations that refer to several things and ideas expressed in a single clause, hence realising the [- few elements] feature of the cognitive complexity. For example, sentences \[f_13\], express the content of Kombe informing his fellow learners about what the book wrote with respect to the building of
Presidential State Houses in every district headquarters. In sentences that express the narrations of mentioning all these entities result in such sentences to demonstrate the [- few elements] feature of cognitive complexity. A similar cognitive complexity feature, i.e. the [- few elements], occurs in the relative clauses that modify nouns which are realised in the respective preceding independent clauses. Such clauses are exhibited in sentence \([c_1, c_3, c_4, c_5, e_3, f_6 & f_{12}]\).

Furthermore, task dialogue 4.3.1 exhibits various sentences with an independent clause and more than two dependent clauses. Examples of such clauses are demonstrated in sentences \([e_1, f_4 & f_{10}]\). It evident that most of these clauses are either dependant on the main clause, or dependant on other dependent clauses. For example, in sentence \([f_{10}]\) the main clauses are in the indicative mood past tense with the lexical verbs \(waliuchukua\) and \(walianza\), respectively, which exemplify the [- here-and-now] cognitive complexity feature.

In sentence \([f_{10}]\), the clause introduced by the conjunction \(lakini\), followed by an infinitive lexical verb \(kuanza\) occurs as a subordinate clause of the main clause with an indicative mood past tense with the lexical verbs \(waliuchukua\). In this subordinate clause, \(lakini\) is a conjunction, which also entails a reasoning element, given that it expresses the content which introduces contrasting expressions as provided for in sentence \([f_9]\), hence leading \([f_{10}]\) to realise the [- no reasoning] feature of cognitive complexity.

Additionally, in sentence \([f_{10}]\), the clause with the infinitive lexical verb \(kuondoka\) is a dependent clause to the main clause with an indicative mood past tense verb form \(waliuchukua\). In this respect, this subordinate clause provides more information about the content expressed in the main clause. For example, when Kombe is explaining to fellow students about the people and the year in which the Kampala State House was built, hence, exemplifying the [- few elements] features of cognitive complexity. It is evident that all the clauses occurring in sentence \([f_{10}]\), realise the syntactic complexity that corresponds to the [- few elements], [- no reasoning] and [- here-and-now] cognitive complexity features. Thus, it is evident from the above analysis, that the sentences are mainly syntactically complex, exemplifying the most complex pedagogical task version, version three, of Task one, as summarised in Table 4:5, on page 224, which benchmarks the advanced level of Kiswahili proficiency for this task.

4.5.1.4. Pedagogical task versions of Task one in terms of syntactic complexity

Thus, to construct the syntactically less complex dialogues for learning task versions, version two and version one, from the most syntactically complex task version three, it is necessary to
manipulate some of the complex sentences of version three to yield their respective dialogues. This task requires manipulating resource-directing features only given that all its resource-dispersing variables are in their approximate least pedagogical versions, as summarised in Table 4:5, on page 224.

4.5.1.4.1. Pedagogical task version two of Task one

To construct the syntactically less complex pedagogical task versions, version two and version one, from the most syntactically complex task version three, it is necessary to use omission and alteration techniques (as proposed by Hasan 1985: 56-69; Henry & Roseberry 1998: 147 & 149), to realise syntactically less complex sentences in the STDs.

To produce a syntactically less complex pedagogical task version, version two, representing a level of communicative adequacy which is syntactically less complex than the syntactic complex associated with communicative proficiency for task version three, as shown in Table 4:5, on page 224, it is necessary to omit the sentences in the dialogue segments (d) and (e) that demonstrate the [- few elements] as well as the sentences in the dialogue segments (b) and (d) that illustrate the [- no reasoning] feature. The omission of the above sentences realises segments (c) and (f) which exhibit the [- few elements], and segment (f), which illustrates the [- no reasoning] feature. Hence, the occurrence of relatively less cognitive complex pedagogical task version two of Task one.

Lastly, to produce the syntactically less complex version, task version two, in relation to the [- here-and-now] feature of task version three, it is in order to modify both auxiliary and lexical verbs forms with the [- here-and-now] features which occur in sentences that constitute dialogue segment (c), (e) and (f). For example, the lexical verb forms tutembelee, niliongea, atakuwepo as they occur in, sentence [c1, e1 & f1], respectively, can be modified to tunatembelea (IND. PRES), naongea (IND. PRES) and yupo (COP. COV. PRES) to syntactically demonstrate the [+ here-and-now] feature of less cognitive complexity of task version two which can be illustrated by modified segments (c) \text{mod}_2, (e) \text{mod}_2 and (f) \text{mod}_2, as summarised in Table 4:6, on page 227.

4.5.1.4.2. Pedagogical task version one of Task one

To produce the syntactically least complex sentences of task version one, from less syntactically complex sentences of task version, version two, it is necessary to modify the sentences with the resource-directing features that occur in respective dialogue segments. For example, to realise the syntactically least complex version, version one, from the [- few elements] feature of task version two, clauses in sentences such as [c3, c4 & f7] that demonstrate the [- few elements] features as they
occur in dialogue segments (c)\textsuperscript{mod1} and (f)\textsuperscript{mod1}, respectively, need to be modified. This modification can be done by omitting, for example, subordinate clauses which cannot alter the original meaning of the main clause when they have been omitted.

For example, in sentence [f7], all the clauses can be omitted except the main clause with an auxiliary verb form \textit{alikuwa} (IND. PT), followed by the main verb form \textit{na} (IND. PRES). This is attributed to the fact that this main clause expresses content indicating the exact number of State Houses that the President has. This statement is the response to the question asked by Ndunamiwe in sentence [e2]. Thus, the omission of other clauses in sentence [f7] results in sentence [f7] to demonstrate the relatively less syntactic complex feature of [- few elements] of task version one. This means that the dialogue segments (c) and (f) can still be manipulated further until their sentences exemplify the [+ few elements] which also denotes both syntactically and cognitively least complex sentences and feature, respectively.

To realise the syntactically less complex task version, version one, with regard to the [- no reasoning] feature of task version two, clauses with elements of the [- no reasoning] feature as they occur in dialogue segment (f)\textsuperscript{mod1} can be modified. This modification can be done by omitting mainly coordinators or subordinate clauses with reasoning elements which do not affect the main clause once such elements have been omitted. In this context, for example, coordinator \textit{kwasababu} in sentence [f8] can be omitted and the meanings of the two main clauses it was coordinating remain unchanged.

With regard to producing further the least syntactically complex of task version one from the [+ here-and-now] features of task version two, as it has been the case with task version two, similar procedures can be repeated with task version one until all the sentences in their respective segments demonstrate the [+ here-and-now] features as summarised in Table 4:7, on page 229, which is an illustration of a syntactically and cognitively least complex construct benchmarking beginner Kiswahili learners’ proficiency required in the performance of this task version.

4.5.2. Task two

Task two illustrates a possible discussion that takes place among learners and their teacher while they have breakfast. The task description of this Task two is indicated as section 4.2.1, on page 422 in Appendix (A-i), as summarised in Table 4:9, on page 239. In the table below the task description specifications (TDSs) for Task two are specified.
Table 4:9: Task description specifications (TDSs) for Task two

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TDS Indicators</th>
<th>Task description specifications</th>
<th>Sentence(s) in a dialogue segment(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a-c)</td>
<td>Unawaeleza wanafunzi wenzako kuhusu muda na kisha unawasalimu. Kisha, waalike wanafunzi wenzako na mwalimu wenu mezani ili kupata kifunguakinywa. Waeleze vyakula vilivyoadaliwa kwa ajili ya kufunguakinywa.</td>
<td>[a] You inform your classmates about the time, and greet them all. [b] Then, you invite your classmates and your teacher to the breakfast table.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(d)</td>
<td>Wakati baadhi ya wanafunzi wenzako wakijadiliana kuhusu wafanyakazi, muda wa kuwingia na kutoka kaziini, vitendea kazi vya hapo hotelini, muda wa kupata kifunguakinywa pamoja na vyakula wanavyopenda na wasivyopenda kwenye orodha ya vyakula vya kifunguakinywa, vyakula ambavyo vilivyochwa, viwango na idadi ya virutubisho vilivyomo, mmoja wa wanafunzi anajadiliana na wenzake kuhusu kuogelea, anasema anataka kuongeza na kifunguakinywa chake ili aweze kuogelea wakati nyinyi mkiendelela kupata kifunguakinywa.</td>
<td>[c] As some of your classmates have a discussion about the hotel attendants, their working routines, working tools, time for taking breakfast, their likes/dislikes, and their choices on the breakfast menu, the dishes that have been left out, the levels and quantities of ingredients, one of your classmates discusses with others about swimming, she says she wants to take away her breakfast so that she can swim while you and others take your breakfast. [d] As the discussion about the hotel attendants continues, one of your classmates says that she wants to watch television, like what her father does, while he is having breakfast. [e] Then, your teacher tells all of you to finish taking your breakfast because you still have a long day ahead of you.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above TDSs are summarised in the table below. The corresponding STDs of TDSs for Task two, are provided in section 4.2.1, on page 456, in Appendix (A-ii). In addition, the same STDs are coded in section 4.5.2.3.1, on page 252, as summarised in Table 4:10, on page 239.

Table 4:10: Summary of TDSs for Task two

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TDS Indicators</th>
<th>Task description specifications</th>
<th>Sentence(s) in a dialogue segment(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a-c)</td>
<td>Unawaeleza wanafunzi wenzako kuhusu muda na kisha unawasalimu. Kisha, waalike wanafunzi wenzako na mwalimu wenu mezani ili kupata kifunguakinywa. Waeleze vyakula vilivyoadaliwa kwa ajili ya kufunguakinywa.</td>
<td>[a] You inform your classmates about the time and greet them all. Then, you invite your classmates and your teacher to the breakfast table. Explain to them what has been served as breakfast.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(d)</td>
<td>Wakati baadhi ya wanafunzi wenzako wakijadiliana kuhusu wafanyakazi, muda wa kuwingia na kutoka kaziini, vitendea kazi vya hapo hotelini, muda wa kupata kifunguakinywa pamoja na vyakula wanavyopenda na wasivyopenda kwenye orodha ya vyakula vya kifunguakinywa, vyakula ambavyo vilivyochwa, viwango na idadi ya virutubisho vilivyomo, mmoja wa wanafunzi anajadiliana na wenzake kuhusu kuogelea, anasema anataka kuongeza na kifunguakinywa chake ili aweze kuogelea wakati nyinyi mkiendelela kupata kifunguakinywa.</td>
<td>[d] As some of your classmates have a discussion about the hotel attendants, their working routines, working tools, time for taking breakfast, their likes/dislikes, and their choices on the breakfast menu, the dishes that have been left out, the levels and quantities of ingredients, one of your classmates discusses with others about swimming, she says she wants to take away her breakfast so that she can swim while you and others take your breakfast. [e] As the discussion about the hotel attendants continues, one of your classmates says that she wants to watch television, like what her father does, while he is having breakfast. [f] Then, your teacher tells all of you to finish taking your breakfast because you still have a long day ahead of you.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
wanavyopenda na wasivyopenda kwenye orodha ya vyakula vya kifunguakinywa, vyakula ambayo vilivyoachwa, viwango na idadi ya virutubisho vilivyomo, mmoja wa wanafunzi anajadiliana na wenzake kuhusu kuogelea na anasema anataka kuondoka na kifunguakinywa chake ili aweze kuogelea wakati nyinyi mkiendelea kupata kifunguakinywa.

As some of your classmates have a discussion about the hotel attendants, their working routines, working tools, time for taking breakfast, their likes/dislikes and their choices on the breakfast menu, the dishes that have been left out, the levels and quantities of ingredients, one of your classmates discusses with others about swimming and she says she wants to take away her breakfast so that she can swim while you and others take your breakfast.

As the discussion about the hotel attendants continues, one of your classmates says that she wants to watch television, like what her father does, while he is having breakfast.

Then, your teacher tells all of you to finish taking your breakfast because you still have a long day ahead of you.

Following the above summary, I will analyse the task complexity of TDSs for Task two with regard to its interactional, cognitive and syntactic complexity, respectively.

4.5.2.1. Interactional complexity for Task two

In relation to the interactant (requester-supplier) relationship, Task two predominantly exhibits configurations of the relationship of the mutual request and suppliance of information except, in a few cases, where a mutual relationship is limited hence the independent interactant relationship occurs. In Task two, the configurations for the independent interactant relationship are illustrated in TDSs with expressions related to, introductory remarks, opinion requests and, in closing remarks of a narration(s). Thus, such TDSs include, for example, TDS (a) You inform your classmates about the time, and greet them all, TDS (b) Then, you invite your classmates and your teacher to the breakfast table, TDS (c) Explain to them what has been served as breakfast and TDS (f) Then, your teacher tells all the learners to finish taking your breakfast because you still have a long day ahead of you. The simulated dialogue segments (see section 4.5.2.3.1, on page 252) that exemplify configurations for independent interactant relationship include, sentence(s), \([a_1 - c_4]\) and \([f_1 - f_7]\).
In light of the above properties (configurations) for independent interactant relationship, as illustrated in TDS (a), (b), (c) and (f), illustrate that, as interactants are convergently working towards achieving one common goal and a single outcome, the conditions (configurations) under which the participants are carrying out the tasks are fixed, thus exhibiting the features of limited interaction [- required] interactional requirement and fixed (single) role (supplier) of supplying information (X or Y). With reference to Pica et al. (1993: 21), Johnson (1981) asserts that such configurations lead to information gap activities as there is a one-way flow of information, i.e. from supplier to requester (X to Y/ Y to X) only. In this regard, as Pica et al. (1993: 16) emphasise that while there is limited interaction among participants, such a task can be completed by a single participant (supplier) since other participants (requesters) can opt to participate or not participate in the same task.

In sum, according to Pica et al. (1993: 11-12), the above configurations for independent interactant relationship are important for task completion. For example, Pica et al. maintain that configurations that express participants seeking assistance from others, such as opinion requests, are important in explicitly putting across given information for the purposes of clarity. Furthermore, Pica et al. (1993:12) contend that one-way flow of information, such as introductory or closing remarks, facilitate learners with additional information which is not required to complete the task but necessary in evoking other experiences of the interactants related to the information provided.

TDSs that exemplify relationship of mutual request and suppliance of information, include, TDS (d) As some of your classmates have a discussion about the hotel attendants, their working routines, working tools, time for taking breakfast, their likes/dislikes and their choices on the breakfast menu, the dishes that have been left out, the levels and quantities of ingredients, one of your classmates discusses with others about swimming and she says she wants to take away her breakfast so that she can swim while you and others take your breakfast. Examples of simulated dialogue segments (see section 4.5.2.3.1, on page 252) that illustrate the configurations of the mutual request and suppliance of information relationship include sentence(s), \([d_8 - d_{11}], [d_{12} - d_{15}] \) and \([d_{21} - d_{27}]\).

From the above TDS properties (configurations) identified for the mutual request and suppliance of information, TDS (d), for example, illustrates that interactants are performing towards achieving a convergence [1] goal and a single [1] outcome. In addition, The TDS exhibits all possible configurations for achieving the above task goals and outcome. According to Pica et al. (1993:17), such configurations, for example, include, participants (X & Y) possessing a given ratio of the information, such information needs to be exchanged, [+ required] interactional requirements, occurrence of two-way flow of information due to continuous requests and supplies (X to Y & Y to
X) of information as a result of mutual relationship among information holders. According to Pica et al. (1993:17), these configurations are important in promoting greater interaction among task participants.

In general, taking into account configurations for both independent and mutual request – supppliance relationships as exemplified in the analysis of TDSs of Task two, it is evident that the TDSs of Task two exhibit configurations of jigsaw task type. This is in reference to configurations, such as information flow (two-way) and interactional requirement [+ required]. However, the occurrences of a distinctive configuration, that is, the fixed roles (responsibilities) among the participants as independent suppliers of information, it can be concluded that TDSs of Task two qualify to be regarded as (under) information gap task type. This is because it is only information gap tasks that demonstrate this district configuration, as summarised in Table 4:1, on page 208.

4.5.2.2. Cognitive complexity for Task two

With regard to the developmental (resource-directing) complexity features of Robinson’s (2005) Triadic Componential Framework, TDSs for Task two predominantly demonstrate [- few elements] feature in narrations that make references to descriptions of various entities of, for example, the past, present and future events, objects, human beings and so forth, as illustrated in TDSs, such as TDS (d) As some of your classmates have a discussion about the hotel attendants, their working routines, working tools, time for taking breakfast, their likes/dislikes and their choices on the breakfast menu, the dishes that have been left out, the levels and quantities of ingredients, one of your classmates discusses with others about swimming and she says she wants to take away her breakfast so that she can swim while you and others take your breakfast and TDS (e) As your teacher discusses the hotel attendants, one of your classmates says that she wants to watch television, like what her father does, while he is having breakfast. Examples of corresponding task dialogue segments (see section 4.5.2.3.1, on page 252) that illustrate the above [- few elements] feature are in sentence(s), \([d_1 - d_3], [d_{15} - d_{18}], [d_{31} - d_{36}]\) and \([e_3 - e_5]\), respectively.

Furthermore, the TDSs of Task two predominantly exhibit [- no reasoning] feature. Such features are exemplified in the scenario where task participants give narrations that describe events and actions. For example, the use of what Robinson (2001b:31, 2005: 5) refers to logical connectors (conjunctions) and psychological verbs (Robinson 2007: 194-195, 198 & 200, 2007a: 194-195, 198 & 200). Such TDSs, include, for example, TDS (d) As some of your classmates have a discussion about the hotel attendants, their working routines, working tools, time for taking breakfast, their likes/dislikes and their choices on the breakfast menu, the dishes that have been left out, the levels
and quantities of ingredients, one of your classmates discusses with others about swimming and she says she wants to take away her breakfast so that she can swim while you and others take your breakfast and TDS (e) As your teacher discusses the hotel attendants, one of your classmates says that she wants to watch television, like what her father does, while he is having breakfast. The corresponding task dialogue segments (see section 4.5.2.3.1, on page 252) that demonstrate the above [- no reasoning] features appear in sentence(s) \([d_{11} - d_{12}], [d_{14} - d_{15}], [d_{18}], [d_{24}], [d_{39} - d_{40}], [e_{3}] \) and \([f_{4}]\).

In addition, TDSs of Task two predominantly demonstrate the [- here-and-now] feature. This feature occurs in narrations that participants refer to events happening elsewhere, for example, in the past or future that according to Robinson (2010:251), such events are visually unavailable in the participants’ shared context. Similarly, there are few instances in the TDSs of Task two that demonstrate the [+ here-and-now] feature. Such instances occur in expressions that make reference to events that are happening now and in a shared context of the participants. TDSs that exemplify the [+ here-and-now] feature include, TDS (a) You inform your classmates about the time, and greet them all, and TDS (d) As some of your classmates have a discussion about the hotel attendants, their working routines, working tools, time for taking breakfast, their likes/dislikes and their choices on the breakfast menu, the dishes that have been left out, the levels and quantities of ingredients, one of your classmates discusses with others about swimming and she says she wants to take away her breakfast so that she can swim while you and others take your breakfast. The corresponding task dialogue segments (see section 4.5.2.3.1, on page 252) that illustrate the [+ here-and-now] feature, include, sentence(s), \([a_{2}]\), \([d_{3}]\), \([d_{7}]\) and \([d_{25}]\), respectively.

In relation to Robinson’s (2005) model and with regard to its performative complexity (resource-dispersing) dimensions, TDSs for Task two predominantly exhibit [+ prior knowledge] feature. This feature is illustrated in scenarios where participants express awareness about an event or something being expressed. There are few cases where TDSs of Task two demonstrate the [- prior knowledge] feature. This is observed in scenarios where, for example, participants express uncertainty about a situation, where participants ask about the well-being of others, and in inquiring about something(s). TDSs that exhibit [- prior knowledge] feature, include, for example, TDS (a) You inform your classmates about the time, and greet them all, (d) As some of your classmates have a discussion about the hotel attendants, their working routines, working tools, time for taking breakfast, their likes/dislikes and their choices on the breakfast menu, the dishes that have been left out, the levels and quantities of ingredients, one of your classmates discusses with others about swimming and she says she wants to take away her breakfast so that she can swim while you and others take your breakfast.
others take your breakfast, and (f) Then, your teacher tells all the learners to finish taking your breakfast because you still have a long day ahead of you. Thus, the corresponding task dialogue segments (see section 4.5.2.3.1, on page 252) that illustrate the [- prior knowledge] feature, include, sentence(s), [d11, d27 – d28], and [f7], respectively.

Additionally, the TDSs for Task two predominantly demonstrate the [+ single task] feature in narrations that require a simple description of a given event or action at a time. However, there are scenarios where TDSs exhibit [- single task] feature. This occurs in narrations where participants make reference to more than one event at a time, such as in recalling past events and experience, making reference to other people who are non-participants. Therefore, TDSs that exhibit the [-single task] feature, include, for example, TDS (d) As some of your classmates have a discussion about the hotel attendants, their working routines, working tools, time for taking breakfast, their likes/dislikes and their choices on the breakfast menu, the dishes that have been left out, the levels and quantities of ingredients, one of your classmates discusses with others about swimming and she says she wants to take away her breakfast so that she can swim while you and others take your breakfast, and TDS (f) Then, your teacher tells all the learners to finish taking your breakfast because you still have a long day ahead of you. The corresponding task dialogue segments that (see section 4.5.2.3.1, on page 252) illustrate the [- single task] feature, include, sentence(s), [d3, d15, d19, and [d3], respectively.

In summary, from the above analysis, it is evident that TDSs for Task two predominantly exhibit various cognitive complexity features, such as [-few elements], [- no reasoning] and [- here-and-now] for resource-directing (developmental) dimensions. The occurrences of features, such as the [- single task] and [- prior knowledge] for resource-dispersing (performative) dimensions are limited, hence demonstrating resource–dispersing dimensions of TDSs for Task two with [+ single task] and [+ prior knowledge] features, as summarised in Table 4:11 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource-directing</th>
<th>Resource-dispersing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- few elements: TDS (d) &amp; (e)</td>
<td>+/- planning time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- no reasoning: TDS (d) &amp; (e)</td>
<td>+ single task: almost all TDSs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- here-and-now: TDS (b), (c), (d), (e) &amp; (f)</td>
<td>+ prior knowledge: almost all TDSs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It can be concluded that TDSs for Task two predominantly illustrates features that are categorised in quadrant [3] of Robinson’s (2005:8) Triadic Componential Framework, summarised as Table 3:15, on page 203. This suggests that Task two, on one hand, exhibits low performative complexity, and on the other hand, a high developmental complexity.
4.5.2.2.1. Pedagogical task versions of Task two in terms of cognitive complexity

Considering Robinson’s (2001a:31, 2010:246) proposals, the above features of Task two, as summarised in Table 4:11, on page 244, can be considered as relatively complex for beginner L2 Kiswahili learners. This is in order because of the occurrence TDSs with [-] features in all its resource-directing dimensions. Thus, in order to scale down the complexity of TDSs for Task two from the most complex pedagogical task version as given in Table 4:11, on page 244 (refer also to section 4.2.1, on page 422, in Appendix (A-i)), for grading and sequencing purposes, as was the case for Task one, it is necessary to de-complexify the resource-directing features only, given that all the resource-dispersing features exhibit features of less cognitive complexity.

4.5.2.2.1.1. Pedagogical task version two of Task two

In order to decomplexify TDSs of Task two, as formulated in Table 4:11, on page 244, with regard to the [-few elements] feature, the decomplexification involves manipulating a whole TDS and some parts of the remaining TDSs, through the omission technique, as demonstrated below.

For example, for the purpose of designing a less complex version of the more complex version of Task two (version two), TDS (e) *As your teacher have a discussion about the hotel attendants, one of your classmates says that she wants to watch television, like what her father does, while he is having breakfast.*, can be completely omitted. The manipulation is in order because TDS (e) involves narrations that make reference to many optional elements, such as activities that are non-essential to the broad thematic topic of Task two and making reference to a third person who is visually absent in the interactional task performance (context). Thus, the [few elements] features of the second version for Task two can be represented by TDS (d) only, as summarised in Table 4:13, on page 249.

Considering the [- no reasoning] feature, it is possible to manipulate the TDSs of Task two in order to design a less complex (second) version of Task two. For example, TDS (e) can completely be omitted. This can be done because TDS (e) *As your teacher have a discussion about the hotel attendants, one of your classmates says that she wants to watch television, like what her father does, while he is having breakfast.*, as a whole, can be considered as an optional TDS given that it exhibits reasoning elements which, for example, refer to, mainly, third persons who are visually absent in the interactional task context or in a continuum of maximal social distance (see section 4.3.1, on page 212, for views on end-points of social distance). Hence, by omitting TDS (e), the
cognitively complex reasoning demands that the TDS (e) can impose on beginner Kiswahili L2 learners, can be scaled down.

Considering the [- here-and-now] feature, it is possible to manipulate the TDSs of Task two in order to design a less complex (second) version of Task two. For example, TDS (e) As your teacher have a discussion about the hotel attendants, one of your classmates says that she wants to watch television, like what her father does, while he is having breakfast., can be manipulated through its complete omission. The manipulation is in order because while the [- here-and-now] features of TDS (e) partly reflect the broad thematic topic of Task two, it is evident that such features occur, for example, in expressions that make reference to thirds person who is visually absent in the interactional task performance. Hence, demonstrating TDS (e) as optional the core task description of the thematic topic.

In TDS (b) Then, you invite your classmates and your teacher to the breakfast table., the omission and alteration techniques can be employed to manipulate the [- here-and-now] feature in expressions that exemplify the indefinite aspect that can be considered as optional in terms of the core task description of the thematic topic for Task two. Thus, the modified TDS (b) is formulated as follows. TDS (b) [...] waalike wanafunzi wenzako na mwalimu wenu mezani ‘waje’ kupata kifunguakinywa. [...] invite your classmate and your teacher to the breakfast table].

Furthermore, TDS (c) Explain to them what has been served as breakfast., can be manipulated by mainly alteration techniques by modifying the expressions that illustrate the perfect progressive aspects of presenting continuous aspect. Thus, the modified TDS (c), is formulated as follows, ['sasa waelezee’ vyakula [...] v [...] ya ‘kifunguakinywa’]. ['now tell’ them ‘the food items for the’ breakfast].

From the above analysis, it is evident that through the manipulation of some of the [-here-and-now] features in TDSs of Task two, while such features have been modified, it is evident that they are still cognitively complex, hence, demonstrating the [- here-and-now] features, as summarised in Table 4:12 below.

Table 4:12: Summary of TDSs of cognitively complex features for task version two of Task two

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource-directing</th>
<th>Resource-dispersing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- few elements: TDS (d)</td>
<td>+/- planning time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- no reasoning: TDS (d)</td>
<td>+ single task: almost all TDSs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- here-and-now: TDS (b)<em>{mod}, (c)</em>{mod}, (d) &amp; (f)</td>
<td>+ prior knowledge: almost all TDSs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.5.2.1.2. Pedagogical task version one of Task two

The least complex (first) version of Task two in relation to the [- few elements] feature involves omitting some parts of TDS (d) As some of your classmates have a discussion about the hotel attendants, their working routines, working tools, time for taking breakfast, their likes/dislikes and their choices on the breakfast menu, the dishes that have been left out, the levels and quantities of ingredients, one of your classmates discusses with others about swimming and she says she wants to take away her breakfast so that she can swim while you and others take your breakfast. This omission is in order because, such parts include narrations that are mainly to other activities that are not specifically part of task description of Task two, making reference to a third person (non-task participants) and aspects related to their jobs. Such expressions can be considered as optional with respect to the task scenario of breakfast meals, hence characterising the performance of such a task quite cognitively complex for beginner Kiswahili L2 learners. Thus, the relevant parts for the omission in the TDS (d) include, TDS (d) Wakati baadhi ya wanafunzi wenzako wakijadiliana kuhusu[...]muda wa kupata kifunguakinywa pamoja na vyakula wanavyopenda na wasivyopenda kwenye orodha ya vyakula vya kifunguakinywa, vyakula ambavyo vilivyoochwa, viwango na idadi ya virutubisho vilivyomo, [...] [As some of your classmates have a discussion about the [...] time for taking breakfast, their likes/dislikes, and their choices on the breakfast menu, the dishes that have been left out, the levels and quantities of ingredients [...]]

From the above analysis, it is evident that through the manipulation of the [- few elements] features in TDSs of Task two, the number of elements has been reduced and modified to be more specific to aspects related the broad thematic topic of Task two. In addition, the remaining elements of the TDS (d) still exhibits several obligatory elements that exhibit the [- few elements] feature. This indicates that it is possible to design another less cognitively complex version (s) of the [few elements] features from TDS (d), as exemplified in Table 4:13, on page 249.

In order to design the first version of Task two with regard to [- no reasoning] feature, it is possible to manipulate the reasoning features that occur in the remaining of task description, i.e. TDS (d) As some of your classmates have a discussion about the hotel attendants, their working routines, working tools, time for taking breakfast, their likes/dislikes and their choices on the breakfast menu, the dishes that have been left out, the levels and quantities of ingredients, one of your classmates discusses with others about swimming, she says she wants to take away her breakfast so that she can swim while you and others take your breakfast. This manipulation can be done by omitting, for example, reasoning elements which occur mainly in non-constitutive narrations with regard to the core task description for Task two as specified in its broad thematic topic. Thus, the manipulated
formulation of TDS (d) can be illustrated as follows, TDS (d) [...] baadhi ya wanafunzi wenzako wakijadiliana kuhusu [...] muda wa kupata kifunguakinywa pamoja na [...] orodha ya vyakula vyakifunguakinywa [...]]. [...] some of your classmates have a discussion about [...] time for taking breakfast [...] and [...] the breakfast menu [...]].

From the above example, it is evident that TDS (d) still demonstrates reasoning elements that occur in the segment, hence, exhibits some [- no reasoning] feature. This suggests that it is possible to design another less cognitively complex version (s) of the [- no reasoning] feature from TDS (d), as summarised in Table 4:13, on page 249.

In order to design the first version of Task two with regard to [- here-and-now] feature, it is possible to manipulate the [-here-and-now] features that occur mainly in those TDSs that were not manipulated in the task version two. They include TDSs, (d) and (f). For example, TDS (d) *As some of your classmates have a discussion about the hotel attendants, their working routines, working tools, time for taking breakfast, their likes/dislikes, and their choices on the breakfast menu, the dishes that have been left out, the levels and quantities of ingredients, one of your classmates discusses with others about swimming, she says she wants to take away her breakfast so that she can swim while you and others take your breakfast,*, can be manipulately by omission and alteration techniques. The omission technique can be employed, for example, in narrations, the exhibit repeated expressions and those that make reference to third persons who are visually absent in the interactional task performance (context). Similarly, the alteration technique can be used to modify parts of TDS (d), such as converting a noun into a present continuous verb. Thus, the modified TDS (d), is formulated as follows, TDS (d) [...] baadhi ya wanafunzi wenzako ‘wanajadiliana’ kuhusu [...] muda wa [...] kifunguakinywa pamoja na [...] orodha ya vyakula [...]]] [...] some of your classmates [...] ‘are discussing’ about the [...] time for [...] breakfast, [...] and [...] the [...] menu [...]]].

In addition, TDS (f) *Then, your teacher tells all of you to finish taking your breakfast because you still have a long day ahead of you,*, can be manipulated through omission and alteration techniques to some of its parts. The omission can be done in narrations that make reference to, for example, non-constitutive expression with regard to the core task description of Task two. Furthermore, the alteration technique can be employed in cases where, for example, the indefinite aspect is converted into a present continuous aspect. Thus, the modified TDS (f) is formulated as follows, TDS (f) [...] mwaliimu wenu anawaambia [...] wote ‘mmalize’ kupata kifunguakinywa [...]]]. [...] your teacher ‘is telling’ all of you to finish [...] taking your breakfast [...]].
From the above analysis, it is evident that through the manipulation of the [-here-and-now] features in TDSs of Task two, such features modified to be more specific to aspects related the broad thematic topic of Task two. Hence, exemplifying the [+ here-and-now] features, as summarised in Table 4:13 below.

### Table 4:13: Summary of pedagogical version one of Task two

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource-directing</th>
<th>Resource-dispersing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- few elements: TDS (d)_{mod}^1</td>
<td>+/- planning time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- no reasoning: TDS (d)_{mod}^1</td>
<td>+ prior knowledge: Almost all TDSs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+ here-and-now: TDS (b)<em>{mod}^1, (c)</em>{mod}^1, (d)<em>{mod}^1, (f)</em>{mod}^1</td>
<td>+ single task: Almost all TDSs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In relation to the [+ here-and-now] features of Table 4:13 above, it is evident that there are two TDSs (b)_{mod}^2 and (c)_{mod}^2. The two TDSs occur as they are because they have not been modified, hence, remained that way they were as they occurred in the task version two of Task two or as summarised in Table 4:12 on page 246. Therefore, Table 4:14 below is a summary of the cognitive features of all the three versions of Task two.

### Table 4:14: Showing progressively more cognitive complexity of Task two in three task versions

#### Task version one

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource-directing</th>
<th>Resource-dispersing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- few elements: TDS (d)_{mod}^1</td>
<td>+/- planning time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- no reasoning: TDS (d)_{mod}^1</td>
<td>+ prior knowledge: Almost all TDSs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+ here-and-now: TDS (b)<em>{mod}^1, (c)</em>{mod}^1, (d)<em>{mod}^1, (f)</em>{mod}^1</td>
<td>+ single task: Almost all TDSs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Task version two

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource-directing</th>
<th>Resource-dispersing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- few elements: TDS (d)</td>
<td>+/- planning time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- no reasoning: TDS (d)</td>
<td>+ prior knowledge: Almost all TDSs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+ here-and-now: TDS (b)<em>{mod}^1, (c)</em>{mod}^1, (d)<em>{mod}^1, (f)</em>{mod}^1</td>
<td>+ single task: Almost all TDSs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Task version three

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource-directing</th>
<th>Resource-dispersing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- few elements: TDS (d) &amp; (e)</td>
<td>+/- planning time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- no reasoning: TDS (d) &amp; (e)</td>
<td>+ prior knowledge: Almost all TDSs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- here-and-now: TDS (b), (c), (d), (e) &amp; (f)</td>
<td>+ single task: Almost all TDSs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 4.5.2.2.1.2.1. Sequencing of pedagogical tasks for Kiswahili learners

Considering Robinson’s (2010: 525) views on task sequencing, Robinson argues that the first version(s) of pedagogical tasks need to be simple in all dimensions. For example, with respect to resource-dispersing dimension, as shown in Table 4:14 above, like Task one, the cognitive features
in all the three task versions demonstrate the [+ features. This suggests that except in performing task version three where Kiswahili learners are expected to perform task version three using the prescribed time as provided by the teacher. During the performance of task version one and two, respectively, Kiswahili learners are expected to have sufficient time as exhibited in the [+planning time] feature. Furthermore, to perform this task version one, Kiswahili novice learners need to have adequate information about the discussions that take place when breakfast is served, thus demonstrating the [+ prior knowledge] feature. Lastly, in performing task version one, Kiswahili learners are expected to perform only a single task at a time, thus, exemplifying the [+ single task].

With respect to the resource-directing dimension of task version one of TDSs for Task two, while Robinson (2010: 525) emphasises the view that first pedagogical task versions need to be the least complex, in task version one, the [- few elements] feature is in contrast with to Robinson’s proposal. This can be attributed to the occurrence of TDS (d)\textsuperscript{mod1} that requires Kiswahili learners to use Kiswahili language in describing about hotel attendants, the breakfast menu and swimming activities at the hotel as demonstrated in TDS (d)\textsuperscript{mod1}, which entails some degree of cognitive complexity to learners in performing task version one. However, if TDS (d)\textsuperscript{mod1} is further manipulated, learners can perform task version one with less cognitive complexity given that the modified TDS (d)\textsuperscript{mod1} necessitates Kiswahili learners to use few ideas and items in expressing about, for example, the hotel attendants.

Furthermore, like the [- few elements] feature above, with respect to the [- no reasoning] feature of task version one of TDS for Task two, it is evident that while task version one which according to Robinsons (2010: 252) needs to be simple, the [- no reasoning] feature of this task version is relatively complex to the learner(s). This is attributed to the occurrence of TDS (d)\textsuperscript{mod1}, with incorporated reasoning elements. Nevertheless, this TDS can further be manipulated to remove parts that require Kiswahili learners to use the Kiswahili reasoning commands. In this context, Kiswahili learners are required to exhibit simple Kiswahili proficiency, for example, in mentioning the dishes that have been left out of the breakfast menu. Hence, exemplifying the [+ no reasoning] feature.

Lastly, unlike the [- few elements] and the [- no reasoning] features as discussed above, the [-here-and-now] feature confirms to Robinson’s (2010: 252) proposal that first task versions need to be the least complex. Therefore, with respect to task version one, with regard to the [-here-and-now] feature, Kiswahili leaners are expected to demonstrate Kiswahili proficiency in narrating events, for example, about inviting others to the breakfast table which entails the use of present tense hence, exhibiting the [+ here-and-now] feature.
To increase cognitive complexity from version one to version two of TDSs for Task two, the design entails considering the resource-directing dimension only given that the resource-dispersing dimension is constant as it has been the case in task version one above. Therefore, with respect to the [- few elements] feature, it is evident that this feature, TDS (d), as it occurs in task version two, is more complex compared to its modified version occurring in task version one. Thus, in performing task version two, compared to task version one, Kiswahili learners are expected to demonstrate Kiswahili proficiency in narrating about items such as working routines of hotel attendants, their working tools, time for taking breakfast and quantities of ingredients used in preparation of breakfast menu which entail the [- few elements] feature.

In relation to the [- no reasoning] feature, task version two is more complex than version one. This can be attributed to the presence of unmodified TDS (d) which exhibit reasoning elements. Therefore, to perform task version two, Kiswahili learners are required to exemplify proficiency in Kiswahili reasoning skills, for example, in explaining to others the reason for taking away breakfast. Lastly, taking into account the [- here-and-now] feature, it is evident that TDSs (b)\textsuperscript{mod2}, (c)\textsuperscript{mod2}, (d) and (f) exemplify a relatively cognitive complexity compare to task version one. This suggests that during task performance of task version two, Kiswahili learners are needed to demonstrate Kiswahili proficiency about narrating events that are happening elsewhere which are visually unavailable in the participants’ shared context.

On one hand, to increase the cognitive complexity from task version two to task version three in the resource-dispersing dimension, compared to version one and two, respectively, in performing task version three, it is assumed that in the actual performance the planning time feature is not provided to the learners, hence, the occurrence of the [- planning time] feature. This suggests that to perform task version three, Kiswahili learners are required to complete the task of discussing with others about the breakfast that has been served.

On the other hand, regarding the resource-directing dimension, all variable features in task version three demonstrate the occurrence of the [-] features, hence, exemplifying the cognitively most complex features. For example, in relation to the [- few elements] feature, to perform task version three, Kiswahili learners are expected to exhibit a more advanced Kiswahili proficiency in narrations about the hotel attendants and about watching television, like what some of the parents do during breakfast time, as exemplified in TDS (e). With respect to the [-no reasoning] feature for task version three, compared to version two, task version three necessitates learners to illustrate more advanced Kiswahili proficiency in providing views about reasons for foregoing breakfast as illustrated in TDS (d).
Lastly, in relation to the [- here-and-now] feature, to perform task version three, compared to task version one and task version two of Task two, Kiswahili learners are required in task version three to exemplify proficiency in using Kiswahili in explaining to others what has been served for breakfast, which entails the use of perfect tense that exemplifies the [- here-and-now] feature.

4.5.2.3.  **Syntactic complexity for Task two**

This section presents the STDs for Task two as illustrated in section 4.5.2.3.1, on page 252, below. Then the syntactic complexity analysis of the simulated task dialogue is done, as demonstrated in section 4.5.2.3.1.1, on page 256. Thereafter, the subsequent sub-sections exemplify the construction of linguistically less complex dialogues (version two and version one) as learning tasks from the most syntactically complex dialogues (version three). The construction is realised through the manipulation of only resource-directing features, as demonstrated in section 4.5.1.4.1 and section 4.5.1.4.2, on pages 237 and 237, respectively.

4.5.2.3.1.  **Simulated task dialogue for Task two**

*Sajile: * [a1] Mambo vipi ndugu zangu?  [a2] Saa yangu [inaonesha] (IND. PRES) saa kumi na mbili na dakika kumi [a3] Naamini (SUBJ) sote tumeamka (IND. PPT) salama | [b1] Karibuni mezani [ili] [tupate] (IND. PRES) kifungua kinywa | [b2] Please welcome to the table to have our breakfast |

*Sajile: * [a1] What’s up my friends?  [a2] My watch shows it is 6:10 am.  [a3] I hope we are all well |

[b1] Karibuni mezani [ili] [tupate] (IND. PRES) kifungua kinywa |

[b2] Please welcome to the table to have our breakfast |


c1 Thermoses which are in front of you have the following beverages.  
c2 The green thermos has millet porridge, a blue thermos contains corn porridge, a red one has milk tea, and white thermos has plain tea.  
c3 Also, inside yellow jug there is mango and berries juice blend.  
c4 Regarding bites, there are boiled and fried eggs, bread, chapatti, smoked potatoes, vitumbua, boiled ground nuts, fried cassava, boiled cassava, as well as fruits, such as mangoes and oranges, please welcome.

Kombe: 4[ 5This hotel has many attendants. 6I can see others are just arriving while others have been serving us throughout the night. 7Look at those ones they are cleaning floor using machines. 8They do not bend as we normally do when we mop. 9My sister, can I have that thermos with black tea? 10I don’t know why they didn’t bring us a bottle of hot water. 11I can see there is everything except hot water. 12Others are not used to drink tea this early.


Kaganda Mkubwa: 4[ 5It’s true my brother Kombe. 6I also see it is too early to have tea now. 7If it is possible I will take away my tea and bites so that I have them later on the journey. 8I have a desire to go to the swimming pool so that I swim but I am afraid water would be too cold now. 9At least it would be a little bit sunny, one could jump in for a few seconds.


Lembo: 4[ 5I don’t think they can allow you this time to use the pool. 6I can see that gentleman is bringing tools so that he starts cleaning it. 7Can I have sugar container, please? 8I can see they did not add sugar in porridge at all. 9But I have liked the way they have mixed milk in porridge, it is well balanced.

Silagoni: When I saw a jug of juice, I have remembered tamarind juice. You guys drinking tea now, how do you manage with this heat?

Lembo: Wewe acha tu | hujui (IND. PRES. NEG) | ni jinsi gani ninavyojisikia (IND. PRES) | chai ikiingia mwilini | muda kama huu | Wataalamu wananasa (HAB. PRES) | ni (COV. PRES) | bora kupta (INF) kiamsha kinyo kuliko mlo mwengine wowote | Ila kwasababu tupo ziarani, | pia tunashauriwa (HAB. PRES) kula chakula | cha mchana na kushiba (INF)

Lembo: Just leave it, you don't know how I feel when tea gets into my body during times like this. Experts say it is better to have breakfast than having any other meal. But because we are on tour, we are also advised to eat lunch and get satisfied.

Kemilembe: Ni kweli Lembo, lakini chai (COV. PRES) ya moto mno | Mwenyewe naipenda (HAB. PRES) niinywe ya moto | ila hii | imezidi (IND. PPT) | Siju (IND. PRES. NEG) | ni kwasababu ya | tangawizi (iliyowekwa!) | Halafu naona kama | chai ya maziwa inaelkeka kuisha (INF) | je tunaruhusiwa (IND. PRES) kuumba (INF) chupa nyingine? | Kwasababu natarajia (SBJV. PRES) kunywa (INF) zaidi ya kikombe kimoja | kutokana na ya kwamba | sitokula (IND. PRES. NEG) vitafunwa |

Kemilembe: It's true Lembo, but the tea is too hot. I also would like to drink hot tea but this one is too much hotter. I don't know if it is because of ginger added! And I see as if milk tea is about to finish, are we allowed to ask for one more thermos? Because I expect to drink more than one cup since I'll not eat bites.

Kalunga: Basi tupo (COV. PRES) wengi tusiokula (HAB. NEG) hivi vitafunwa | Napenda sana vitafunwa | kama mikate na labda chapatti ila hapa mezani | sivioni | Nadhani nitakula mayai ya kuchemsha | ila sio yale ya kukaangwa | Naona ya kukaangwa yana (COV. PRES) mafuta mengi | Daima tunashauriwa tusile mafuta kupita kiasi |  Mafuta (tuliyokula (IND. PT) kwenye nyama jana usiku) | yanatosha (IND. PRES) mwilini mwengu | Naomba unilelee mayai mawili tafadhali |

Kalunga: Then we’re many who do not eat these bites. I very much like bites like bread, and maybe chapatti which I don’t see on the table. I think I will eat boiled eggs but not fried ones. I can see fried eggs are too much full of fat. We are always advised not to consume too much fats. The fats we consumed in a meat yesterday night is enough in my body. Please pass me two eggs.

Kayobora: Kweli umenena! Naona hata kwenye upande wa vimiminwa | walisahau kutuletea (INF) kahawa | Ila nimentuma yule dada | kasema anaileta | Napenda sana kahawa | kwasababu | inanifanya nisilale | na isitoshe kahawa ni kimiminwa kinachoweza kunywewa (INF)
wakati wowote | wa siku hata usiku wa manane d₄₁|| Kungekuwa na mikate || ningekula(SUBJ) kama tosi mbili hivi zenye blubendi |

Kayobora: d₃₇ Well said: d₃₈ I can also see on the side of the drinks they said they forgot to bring us coffee. d₃₉ But I have asked that sister and she said she will bring it. d₄₀ I like coffee too much because it keeps me vigil, and besides coffee is a drink that can be taken at any time of the day even at midnight. d₄₁ If there were bread, I would eat something like two blue band toasts.

Chipoli: d₄₂ Naomba (IND. PRES) chupa ya juisi na mkebe wa sukari jamani | d₄₃ Naona maandalizi yao ni mazuri || na chai pia ningeipenda (IND. PPT) mbele ya safari || nikesikia kiu || d₄₄ Hii juisi naipaki || nitainywa (IND. FUT) mbele ya safari || nikesikia kiu || d₄₅ Mwezenu naongezwa sukari kwenye kila ninywaacho | kwasababu || | wakati napiga mswaki sikusutukutua (IND. PT. NEG) mdomo wangu vizuri || na dawa kubaki(INF) mdomoni || na kupoteza(INF) radha ya kila niwekacho kinywani |

Chipoli: d₄₂ Guys, please pass me a jug of juice and a sugar container. d₄₃ I can see their preparations are good and I also have loved their tea. d₄₄ I am packing this juice into my bottle, I will drink it on our way when I feel thirst. d₄₅ I add sugar in everything I drink because I did not wash my mouth properly when I brushed my teeth so toothpaste remained in my mouth which has caused a loss of taste on anything I put in my mouth.

Nkya: d₄₆ Mwenzena nimezoa(HAB. PRES) kula(INF) mua au juisi yake kama kiamsha kinywa | d₄₇ Naona | | sasa hivi ni mapema sana kunywa(INF) chai | d₄₈ Nyumbani tumezoa(HAB. PRES) kunywa chai saa nne au tano za asubuhi | d₄₉ Ila kwasababu sina jinsi | naombeni(IND. PRES) hiyo chupa ya kijani namimi niweze kunywa kama nyie | ]

Nkya: d₄₆ I am used to eating sugarcane or drinking its juice for breakfast. d₄₇ I can see now is too early to drink tea. d₄₈ At home we are used to drink tea at 10:00 or 11:00 am. d₄₉ But because I don’t have choice, please pass me that green thermos so that I can have tea as you do)

° [ ⁶]°° Natamani(SUBJ) hawa watu wangekuja(SUBJ) || || wakatuwashia(SUBJ) runinga || | tukaangalia(SUBJ) katuni | ² | Najua | | mwalimu atataka(INF) kuangalia(INF) taarifa ya habari muda huu kama baba yangu | ³ | Hawezi(HAB. PRES. NEG) kukaa(INF) hadi aangalie(HAB. PRES) habari {zilizojiri usiku kwenye stesheni kama vile Aljazeera, BBC na CNN } ]

° [ ⁶₁° I wish these people could come to switch on TV for us so that we watch cartoons. ⁶₂ I know the teacher would like to watch news this time around as my dad does. ⁶₃ He won’t rest until he watches news about what has happened the previous night on TV stations like Aljazeera, BBC, and CNN]

Mwalimu Peta: ° [ ⁶₁° Wanangu, | malizeni(IMP. PRES) basi kunywa chai | ²₁° Tunacop. cov. PRES) mambo mengi ya kufanya(INF) leo | ²₁° Naona dereva ameshapaki(IND. PPT) gari | | anatusubiri | ²₄° Ila kabla || hatujapanda(IND. PRES. NEG) basi || | ningeipenda(SUBJ. PRES) || | tukumbushane kuhusu matembezi yetu ya leo | ²₅° Mnaonaje? | ²₅° Naamin sote tumekunywa(IND. PPT), tumekula(IND. PPT) || na kushiba(INF) ° ⁷]
Teacher Peta: \[ f_1 \] My children, please finish your tea. \[ f_2 \] We have many things to do today. \[ f_3 \] I can see the driver has already parked the bus and is waiting for us. \[ f_4 \] But before we get into the bus, I would like to remind ourselves about today’s tour. \[ f_5 \] What do you think? \[ f_6 \] I believe all of us have drunk, eaten and are satisfied. \[ f_7 \] And we have acquired energy that will enable us to walk safely until we will eat our lunch.

4.5.2.3.1.1. An analysis of syntactic complexity for Task two

In relation to TDS 4.2.1 of Task two, as demonstrated in its associated task dialogue 4.2.1, predominantly exhibits complex syntactic sentences. This is evident in several complex sentences that realise cognitive complexity features in the dialogue representing the most complex version (i.e. version three) of target language proficiency in Kiswahili. In this dialogue, like in Task five, there are several monoclausal sentences including sentence \([c_1, d_1, d_3, d_4, d_5, d_6, d_7, d_8, d_{10}, d_{20}, d_{33}, d_{36}, d_{42}, d_{46}, d_{48}, f_1, f_2, & f_5]\). For example, in sentences \([d_6 & d_8]\), syntactic complexity is realised by the occurrence of a negative indicative present perfect tense lexical verb form \(hawajatuletea\), found in sentence \([d_6]\), and a negative habitual present tense lexical verb form \(hatujazoea\) and an infinitive lexical verb form \(kunywa\), occurring in sentence \([d_9]\), respectively, hence exhibiting the \([-\) here-and-now\] feature of cognitive complexity.

In addition, this task dialogue segment exemplifies the occurrence of sentences with one main clause and an associated dependent clause in a single complex sentence. Examples of such sentences include sentence \([d_{19}, d_{21}, d_{23}, d_{35}, d_{38}, d_{41}, d_{47}, e_2, & e_3]\). In these sentences, the syntactic complexity is predominantly demonstrated, for example, by expressions that refer to several things in a single clause, hence realising the \([-\) few elements\] feature of cognitive complexity. For example, sentence \([d_{35}\)], the indicative past tense lexical verb form \(tuliyokula\) and the indicative present tense lexical verb form \(yanatosha\), as they occur is the dependent clause and independent clause, respectively, describe the subject noun \(mafuta\), direct objects \(nyama\) and \(mwilini\), as well as temporal element \(jana usiku\). Thus, by Kalunga to narrate all these things to fellow students and the teacher once results in sentence \([d_{35}\]) to exemplify the \([-\) few elements\] features of cognitive complexity. Other sentences that demonstrate similar features are mainly those with relative clauses such as sentence \([e_3, e_1, c_4, & d_{27}\]).

Furthermore, this dialogue segment exhibits sentences, see, for example, sentence \([d_2, d_{11}, d_{15}, d_{18}, & d_{25}\]), with two coordinated main clauses. These clauses are coordinated by several conjunctions.
For example, in sentence \([d_{18}]\), the conjunction lakini coordinates the first main clause with an indicative present perfect lexical verb form nimependa, preceding an indicative past tense lexical verb form walivyokoroga, with the second main clause with an indicative present perfect tense lexical verb form wameyabalansi. It should be born in our minds that while the conjunction lakini coordinates the two main clauses, it also entails contrasting narrations with regard to the narration, as expressed in sentence \([d_{17}]\), hence resulting sentence \([d_{17}]\), to demonstrate the [- no reasoning] feature of cognitive complexity. Other reasoning expressions occurring in sentences other than in sentence \([d_{17}]\) are found, for example, in sentences \([d_{11}, d_{12}, d_{15}, d_{24}, d_{26}, d_{27}, d_{29}, d_{45} & d_{49}]\), respectively.

Therefore, considering the analysis of the above sentences, it is evident that this sentence is syntactically and cognitively complex, exhibiting a correlation between the syntactic complexity of sentences and the cognitively complexity features of resource-directing resources, as summarised in Table 4:11, on page 244, and, as task version three in Table 4:14, on page 249. Thus, this dialogue version benchmarks the most advanced level of Kiswahili proficiency expected in the performance of this task.

4.5.2.4. Pedagogical task versions of Task two in terms of syntactic complexity

To realise the syntactically less complex dialogues for learning task versions, i.e. task version two and task version one, from the most syntactically complex task version three, it is necessary to manipulate some of the complex sentences of version three to yield their respective dialogues. Thus, to produce a syntactically less complex pedagogical task version, version two, representing a level of communicative adequacy which is syntactically less complex than the syntactic complex associated with communicative proficiency for task version three, as shown in Table 4:11, on page 244, like Task one and Task four, this task requires to manipulate resource-directing variables only.

4.5.2.4.1. Pedagogical task version two of Task two

Therefore, in relation to resource-directing dimensions as regard to the construction of the dialogues associated with the syntactically less complex task version, version two, from the most syntactically task version three, it is necessary to manipulate the [- few elements] feature that realise sentences in simulated task dialogue (d) and (e). For example, in this task version, it is in order to omit all sentences that are realised in the dialogue segments (e). In these sentences, the learner, Nkya, narrates to her fellow students, content with several ideas and things that are non-essential to the thematic topic of task two, thus exhibiting most syntactically sentences, realising the most
cognitively complex feature of the [- few elements] variable. For example, sentences [e₁ – i₃], can all be omitted because their content is non-essential to the broad thematic topic of task two in general. Thus, their omission does not affect the intended meaning of this task, as it is realised in the remaining dialogue segment, (d), hence realising relatively less syntactically complex sentences exemplifying relatively less cognitively complex features of the [- few elements] variable, summarised as task version two in Table 4:14, on page 249.

Regarding the realisation of less syntactically complex task version two with respect to the [- no reasoning] feature of task version three, there is a necessity to manipulate the simulated task dialogue segment (d) and (e). In this regard, for example, it is necessary to completely omit all sentences that occur in dialogue segment (e). For example, in sentence e₃, the conjunction *bila* which coordinates the infinitive lexical verb form *kukaa* of the main clause, and the habitual present tense lexical verb form *aangalie*, entails the causal reasoning elements. Nevertheless, it is evident that the content in which the causal reasoning element *bila* occurs, is non-essential to the broad thematic topic of Task two, hence by omitting such a main clause, results the remaining task dialogue segments such as (e) mod₂, (f) and (g), to exhibit less syntactically complex sentences demonstrating less cognitively complex feature of the [- no reasoning] variable of task version two, as summarised in Table 4:14, on page 249.

Lastly, in regard to the realisation of the syntactically less complex version, version two in relation to the [- here-and-now] feature of task version three, it is in order to, for example, omit all sentences that occur in the task dialogue segment (e). This is in order because this dialogue exhibits sentences that illustrate the occurrences of, for example, relativiser *zilizojiri*, which demonstrate the [- here-and-now] feature, yet the clause in which it occurs is non-essential to the thematic content of task two. Thus, by omitting the task dialogue segment (e), the remaining task dialogue segments, can also be modified to exhibit dialogue (b) mod₂, (c) mod₂, (d) and (f), demonstrating sentences that illustrate relatively less syntactically complex sentences realising relatively less cognitive complex feature of the [- here-and-now] variable of task version two, as summarised in task version two demonstrated in Table 4:14, on page 249.

**4.5.2.4.2. Pedagogical task version one of Task two**

Regarding the resource-directing dimensions with respect to the construction of the dialogues associated with the syntactically least complex task version, version one, from the less syntactically task version two, it is necessary to manipulate sentences which demonstrate the [- few elements] features. For example, in the simulated task dialogue of segment (d), there is a sentence, including
sentences \([d_1-d_4]\), that can be omitted to realise relatively syntactic least complex sentences realising relatively least cognitive complex features of the [- few elements] variables. In sentences, \([d_1- d_4]\), the learner, Kombe, narrates about ideas that are non-essential to the broad thematic topic of task five, as they express, for example, several subject and object nouns such as *hotel*, *wafanyakazi*, *deki*, *mashine*, and *muda*. Thus, the omission of sentences \([d_1- d_4]\), from the dialogue segment (d), does not directly affect the intended meaning of Task two, hence results as sentence \((d)^{\text{mod}_1}\), which exhibit least syntactically sentences, exhibiting least cognitively complex feature, summarised as, task version one in Table 4:14, on page 249.

In relation to the realisation of syntactically least complex sentences of task version one to demonstrate the realisation of cognitively least complex features of the [- no reasoning] variables, as they occur in dialogue segment (d). In the dialogue segment (d), it is possible to manipulate some sentences that exhibit the [- no reasoning]. The manipulation is necessary to omit sentences, for example, \([d_{12}, d_{13} & d_{15}]\). The omission is possible because, in the clauses that compose these sentences, there are occurrences of reasoning conjunctions as *ili*, *ila* and *ili*, respectively. The occurrences of these conjunctions increase the syntactic complexity in the respective sentences, yet in general, the content in which these conjunctions occur is non-essential to the thematic topic of task two. Thus, by omitting the sentences in which the conjunctions occur does not directly affect the intended meaning of Task two in general. This suggests that by omitting sentences \([d_{12}, d_{13} & d_{15}]\), from the dialogue segment (d), results to dialogue segment \((d)^{\text{mod}_1}\) to realise syntactically relatively least complexity sentences demonstrating cognitively least relative complexity of the of the [- no reasoning] feature, as summarised in Table 4:14, on page 249. This means that the dialogue segment \((d)^{\text{mod}_1}\) can further be manipulated until it exhibits sentences without reasoning elements, hence realising least syntactically sentences, illustrating a least cognitively complex feature of the [+ no reasoning] variable.

Lastly, to produce the syntactically least complex version, task version one, in relation to the [-here-and-now] feature of task version two, it is in order to modify both auxiliary and lexical verbs forms with the [- here-and-now] features which occur in sentences that constitute dialogue segment \((b)^{\text{mod}_2}, (c)^{\text{mod}_2}, (d)\) and \((f)\), illustrated as, task version two in Table 4:14, on page 249. For example, in dialogue segment \((f)\), in sentence \([f_2, f_3, f_6 & f_7]\), there are several dependent clauses with their associative dependent clauses exhibiting the [-here-and- now] feature. For example, the clauses in which the indicative lexical verb forms *ameshapaki*, *tumekunywa*, *tumekula*, *tumepata*, *tutakapo*, respectively, occur, can be completely omitted from the dialogue segment \((f)\). This is because the presence of such clauses increases the syntactic complexity of the sentences in which they occur.
Yet, the content of such indicative lexical verb forms contain are non-essential to the thematic topic of task two. Thus, their omission from dialogue segment (f), results to the dialogue segment (d)$^{\text{mod}}$, summarised as, task version one in Table 4:14, on page 249, as the realisations of a syntactically least complex sentence exhibiting cognitively least complex feature of the [+ here-and-now] feature of dialogue segment (d)$^{\text{mod}}$, of task version one of Task two.

### 4.5.3. Task three

Task three exemplifies a monological conversation of one learner, Sajile, to others (cf. Loewen & Sato 2018: 304). The conversation is about economic activities on one of the islands in Uganda. The description of Task three is given as section 4.2.4.3, on page 425, in Appendix (A-i), as summarised in Table 3:15, on page 203. The Table below is an illustration of task description specifications (TDSs) for Task three.

**Table 4:15: Task description specification (TDSs) for Task three**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task Description</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In recalling your teacher’s explanations about Ssese islands, tell your friends about the islands that</td>
<td>In recalling your teacher’s explanations about Ssese islands, tell your</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>constitute Ssese islands, tell them about the largest island of all, its status in the islands and so</td>
<td>friends about the islands that constitute Ssese islands, tell them about</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>on.</td>
<td>the largest island of all, its status in the islands and so on.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In addition, explain to your classmates the known activities that were carried out in Kalangala</td>
<td>In addition, explain to your classmates the known activities that were</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>district before 2006, the agricultural activities carried out on the islands, list for them crops that</td>
<td>carried out in Kalangala district before 2006, the agricultural activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>grow on the islands and how monkeys were a threat to the island farmers.</td>
<td>carried out on the islands, list for them crops that grow on the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Furthermore, explain to your classmates the reasons for introduction of commercial agriculture</td>
<td>Furthermore, explain to your classmates the reasons for introduction of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parallel to domestic agriculture in the islands, the size of land that small agricultural farmers</td>
<td>commercial agriculture parallel to domestic agriculture in the islands,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>utilise, inform them about the newspaper that wrote about the overseer of the commercial agriculture</td>
<td>the size of land that small agricultural farmers utilise, inform them</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>project, the agreement that was signed between the government and investors of this commercial</td>
<td>about the newspaper that wrote about the overseer of the commercial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agriculture project.</td>
<td>agriculture project, the agreement that was signed between the government</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tell your friends about some of the benefits of commercial agricultural, the buyers of farmers’</td>
<td>Tell your friends about some of the benefits of commercial agricultural,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>produce, the amount of land that has been put to use as the result of commercial agriculture and so forth.</td>
<td>the buyers of farmers’ produce, the amount of land that has been put to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finally, inform them that you have arrived at the hotel, request them to get out the bus so that they</td>
<td>Finally, inform them that you have arrived at the hotel, request them to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>can go to their rooms until when you meet again.</td>
<td>get out the bus so that they can go to their rooms until when you meet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>again.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In light of the above TDSs, below is their summary. The corresponding STDs of TDSs for Task three, appear as section 4.2.4.3, on page 469, in Appendix (A-ii). In addition, these STDs are coded in section 4.5.3.3.1, on page 276, as summarised in Table 4:16, on page 261.

Table 4:16: Summary of TDSs for Task three

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TDS Indicators</th>
<th>Task description specifications (TDSs)</th>
<th>Sentence(s) in a dialogue segment(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a-b)</td>
<td>In recalling your teacher’s explanations about Ssese islands, tell your friends about the islands that constitute Ssese islands, tell them about the largest island of all, its status in the islands and so on. In addition, explain to your classmates the known activities that were carried out in Kalangala district before 2006, the agricultural activities carried out on the islands, list of crops that grow on the islands and how monkeys were a threat to the island farmers.</td>
<td>$\left[ t_{1-b_4} \right]$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c)</td>
<td>Furthermore, explain to your classmates the reasons for introduction of commercial agriculture parallel to domestic agriculture in the islands, the size of land that small agricultural farmers utilise, inform them about the newspaper that wrote about the overseer of the commercial agriculture project, the agreement that was signed between the government and investors of this commercial agriculture project.</td>
<td>$\left[ t_{1-c_6} \right]$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(d)</td>
<td>Tell your friends about some of the benefits of commercial agricultural, the buyers of farmers’ produce, the amount of land that has been put to use as the result of commercial agriculture and so forth.</td>
<td>$\left[ t_{1-d_2} \right]$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(e)</td>
<td>Mwisho uwajulishe kuwa mmeshafika hotelini na uwaombe washuke na waende vyumbani mwao hadi mtakapoonana tena.</td>
<td>$\left[ t_{1-e_3} \right]$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Basing on the above summary of TDSs for Task three, below is the analysis of task complexity for TDSs for Task three with regard to its interactional, cognitive and syntactic complexity, respectively.

4.5.3.1. Interactional complexity for Task three

In relation to the interactant (requester-supplier) relationship, as a whole, TDSs of Task three illustrate configurations of independent interactant relationship only. This is because all the narrations of the TDSs are expressed by a single participant as provided in the TDS of Task three. The TDSs that exhibit independent interactant relationship, for example, includes, TDS (a) *You recall your teacher’s explanations on Ssese islands, tell your friends about the islands that constitute Ssese islands, tell them about the largest island of all, its status in the islands and so on,* and TDS (c) *Furthermore, explain to your classmates the reasons for introduction of commercial agriculture parallel to domestic agriculture in the islands, the size of land that small agricultural farmers utilise, inform them about the newspaper that wrote about the overseer of the commercial agriculture project, the agreement that was signed between the government and investors of this commercial agriculture project.*

The simulated dialogue segments (see section 4.5.3.3.1, on page 276) that exemplify configurations for independent interactant relationship include, for example, sentence(s), [a1 – a3] and [c1 – c6].

From the above TDSs of Task three, it is evident that the TDSs exemplify configurations of a monologue task. Whereby, there is a fixed (only one) role of supplying information (X or Y). This suggests that the flow of information is one-way (X to Y) since it is optional for other participants (listeners) to request for information which would instead make the flow of information for TDSs of Task three a two-way. In addition, TDSs of Task three illustrate that a single participant is convergently working towards achieving a single goal and a closed outcome as provided for in the TDS of Task three. While there is limited interaction with other participants [- requires interactional requirement], the TDSs reveal that this monologist accomplishes his role, that is to say, of expressing all task narrations to others.

In sum, taking into account configurations for TDSs of independent request–suppliance relationship as demonstrated in the analysis of TDSs of Task three, it is evident that the TDSs of Task three exemplify configurations of information gap task type. This is because of the presence of mainly two distinctive configurations as illustrated by TDSs of Task three. The configurations include, (i) possession of information by a single participant (X only) and (ii) single direction of suppliance of the same information (from X to Y only). As there are limited interactions among participants, other
than developing accuracy and complexity as suggested by Robinson (2015: 108), Robinson (2001b: 32) maintains that the completion of a task by a single participant, on one hand, develops confidence for the same participant to perform other tasks ahead, on the other hand, it motivates none active participants in participating in other task performances. Similarly, Schleppegrell (2004: 33) maintains monologists presume the role of language experts while performing to or on behalf of others in the classroom. Finally, as Willis (2009: 229) observes that a learner’s confidence increases, once the learner realises that s/he can perform tasks, without the direct support of a teacher.

4.5.3.2. Cognitive complexity for Task three

In relation to developmental complexity features of Robinson’s (2005) Triadic Componential Framework, the TDSs of Task three predominantly illustrate the [- few elements] feature. The feature occurs in narrations that make reference to various entities, such as temporal expressions, comparisons in terms of activities, numbers, and figures, animals and human beings. Such TDSs include, for example, TDS (a) In recalling your teacher’s explanations about Ssese islands, tell your friends about the islands that constitute Ssese islands, tell them about the largest island of all, its status in the islands and so on, TDS (b) In addition, explain to your classmates the known activities that were carried out in Kalangala district before 2006, the agricultural activities carried out on the islands, list for the crops that grow on the islands and how monkeys were a threat to the island farmers, and TDS (c) Furthermore, explain to your classmates the reasons for introduction of commercial agriculture parallel to domestic agriculture in the islands, the size of land that small agricultural farmers utilise, inform them about the newspaper that wrote about the overseer of the commercial agriculture project, the agreement that was signed between the government and investors of this commercial agriculture project. The corresponding simulated dialogue segments (see section 4.5.3.3.1, on page 276) that illustrate the above [- few elements] feature are in sentences, [a_1–b_4] and [c_1–c_6], respectively.

In addition, the TDSs of Task three predominantly exhibit [- no reasoning] feature except in few TDSs where the [+ no reasoning] feature occurs. The [+ no reasoning] feature occurs in narrations that involve giving additional information about something mainly for illustrative purposes. For example, the [+ no reasoning] feature is demonstrated in TDSs, such as TDS (a) In recalling your teacher’s explanations about Ssese islands, tell your friends about the islands that constitute Ssese islands, tell them about the largest island of all, its status in the islands and so on. The simulated dialogue segments (see section 4.5.3.3.1, on page 276) that illustrate the [+ no reasoning] feature, include sentence indicated, as [a_3].
Furthermore, with regard to the [- no reasoning] feature, this feature occurs mainly in narrations that make reference to causal-effect relationships, hence demonstrating the causal reasoning feature. The TDSs that exhibit this feature include TDSs, such as TDS (b) In addition, explain to your classmates the known activities that were carried out in Kalangala district before 2006, the agricultural activities carried out on the islands, list for them crops that grow on the islands and how monkeys were a threat to the island farmers, TDS (c) Furthermore, explain to your classmates the reasons for introduction of commercial agriculture parallel to domestic agriculture in the islands, the size of land that small agricultural farmers utilise, inform them about the newspaper that wrote about the overseer of the commercial agriculture project, the agreement that was signed between the government and investors of this commercial agriculture project, TDS (d) Tell your friends about some of the benefits of commercial agricultural, the buyers of farmers’ produce, the amount of land that has been put to use as the result of commercial agriculture and so forth, and TDS (e) Finally, inform them that you have arrived at the hotel, request them to get out the bus so that they can go to their rooms until when you meet again. The simulated dialogue segments (see section 4.5.3.3.1, on page 276) that illustrate the [- no reasoning] feature, include sentence(s) indicated, as, [\textordmasculine}_1], [\textordmasculine}_3^2 – \textordmasculine}_4] and [\textordmasculine}_3], respectively.

Regarding the [+/- here-and-now] feature, TDSs of Task three predominantly demonstrate the [-here-and-now] features, except in few TDSs where participant makes narrations with reference to events happening in present tense. For example, TDS (a) In recalling your teacher’s explanations about Ssese islands, tell your friends about the islands that constitute Ssese islands, tell them about the largest island of all, its status in the islands and so on. The simulated dialogue segments (see section 4.5.3.3.1, on page 276) that illustrate the [+ here-and-now] feature, include sentence indicated, as, [\textordmasculine}_2^2 – \textordmasculine}_3], respectively.

Similarly, TDSs that exhibit the [- here-and-now] feature are observed in narrations in which the participant make references to events happening in the past, everyday and future tenses hence exhibiting the [- there-and-then] feature. The TDSs that exemplify such feature, include TDSs, such as TDS (a) In recalling your teacher’s explanations about Ssese islands, tell your friends about the islands that constitute Ssese islands, tell them about the largest island of all, its status in the islands and so on, TDS (b) In addition, explain to your classmates the known activities that were carried out in Kalangala district before 2006, the agricultural activities carried out on the islands, list for them crops that grow on the islands and how monkeys were a threat to the island farmers, TDS (c) Furthermore, explain to your classmates the reasons for introduction of commercial agriculture parallel to domestic agriculture in the islands, the size of land that small agricultural farmers
utilise, inform them about the newspaper that wrote about the overseer of the commercial agriculture project, the agreement that was signed between the government and investors of this commercial agriculture project, and TDS (e) Finally, inform them that you have arrived at the hotel, request them to get out the bus so that they can go to their rooms until when you meet again. The simulated dialogue segments (see section 4.5.3.3.1, on page 276) that illustrate the [-here-and-now] feature, include sentence(s), $[^a_1]$, $[^b_1 - c_1]$, $[^c_3 - c_6]$ and $[^e_3]$, respectively.

In relation to Robinson’s (2005) Triadic Componential Framework, the TDSs of Task three exhibit both [+/- prior knowledge] and [+/- single task] features of its performative complexity dimensions. For example, regarding the [+/- prior knowledge] feature, TDSs for Task three predominantly demonstrate the [-prior knowledge] feature, mainly when the participant makes reference of his narrations to, for example, a third person who is visually absent in a shared context. The TDSs that exhibit the [- prior knowledge] feature include, TDS (a) In recalling your teacher’s explanations about Ssese islands, tell your friends about the islands that constitute Ssese islands, tell them about the largest island of all, its status in the islands and so on, and TDS (c) Furthermore, explain to your classmates the reasons for introduction of commercial agriculture parallel to domestic agriculture in the islands, the size of land that small agricultural farmers utilise, inform them about the newspaper that wrote about the overseer of the commercial agriculture project, the agreement that was signed between the government and investors of this commercial agriculture project. The simulated dialogue segments (see section 4.5.3.3.1, on page 276) that illustrate [- prior knowledge] feature include, for example, sentence(s), $[^a_1]$, $[^c_1]$ and $[^c_3 - c_4]$, respectively.

Regarding the [+ prior knowledge] feature, the narrations that the participant makes regarding the provision of additional information to the existing one and in the closing remarks of his narrations hence exhibiting [+ prior knowledge] feature as illustrated in TDS (e) Finally, inform them that you have arrived at the hotel, request them to get out the bus so that they can go to their rooms until when you meet again. The simulated dialogue segments (see section 4.5.3.3.1, on page 276) that illustrate [+ prior knowledge] feature include, for example, sentence(s), $[^e_1]$ and $[^e_3]$. In relation to [- single task] feature, this feature is observed in TDSs where the monologists, for example, recalls the past events which
involve thinking and at the same time narrating to others. Similarly, the [- single task] feature occurs when the narrator expresses events with references to a third person who is visually absent in a shared context. The TDSs that exemplify the [- single task] feature include, TDS (a) *In recalling your teacher’s explanations about Ssese islands, tell your friends about the islands that constitute Ssese islands, tell them about the largest island of all, its status in the islands and so on*, and TDS (c) *Furthermore, explain to your classmates the reasons for introduction of commercial agriculture parallel to domestic agriculture in the islands, the size of land that small agricultural farmers utilise, inform them about the newspaper that wrote about the overseer of the commercial agriculture project, the agreement that was signed between the government and investors of this commercial agriculture project*. The simulated dialogue segments (see section 4.5.3.3.1, on page 276) that illustrate [- single task] feature include, for example, sentence(s), [^1] and [^3 – ^4], respectively.

In summary, from the above analysis, unlike Task two, it is evident that TDSs for Task three as a whole demonstrate a range of cognitively complexity features in both resource-directing and resource-dispersing dimensions, as summarised in Table 4:17 below.

Table 4:17: Summary of TDSs of cognitively complex features for Task three

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource-directing</th>
<th>Resource-dispersing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- few elements: TDS (a), (b) &amp; (c)</td>
<td>+/- planning time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- no reasoning: TDS (b), (c), (d) &amp; (e)</td>
<td>- prior knowledge: TDS (a) &amp; (c)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- here-and-now: TDS (a), (b), (c) &amp; (e)</td>
<td>- single task: TDS(a) &amp; (c)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Therefore, It can be concluded that TDSs for Task three predominantly illustrate features that are categorised in quadrant [4] of Robinson’s (2005:8) Triadic Componential Framework, summarised as Table 3:15, on page 203. This suggests that Task three, on one hand, exhibits high performative complexity, and on the other hand, a high developmental complexity.

**4.5.3.2.1. Pedagogical task versions of Task three in terms of cognitive complexity**

Taking into account Robinson’s (2001a: 31, 2010: 246) proposals, the features identified above for Task three, as summarised in Table 4:17, on page 266, can be considered as most complex for beginner L2 Kiswahili learners. This is because of all TDSs for Task three exhibit the [-] features. Thus, in order to scale down the complexity of the TDSs for Task three, from the most complex version given above, for grading and sequencing purposes, it is necessary to manipulate both the resource-dispersing and resource-directing features, respectively, of Task three as illustrated below.
4.5.3.2.1.1. Pedagogical task version two of Task three

Thus, the decomplexification for TDSs of Task three as formulated in Table 4:17, on page 266 (also refer to section 4.2.4.3, on page 425, in Appendix (A-i)), involves manipulating through techniques of omission in conjunction with the altering some parts of its TDSs, as illustrated in the paragraphs below.

In relation to the [-few elements] feature, for the purpose of designing a less complex version from the complex version of Task three, TDS (a) and (c) can be completely omitted. This can be done because, for example, TDS (a) *In recalling your teacher’s explanations about Ssese islands, tell your friends about the islands that constitute Ssese islands, tell them about the largest island of all, its status in the islands and so on*, exhibits optional elements that make reference to, for example, iteration expressions and narrations of a third person who is visually absent in a shared context as reflected in broad thematic topic of Task three. Similarly, TDS (c) *Furthermore, explain to your classmates the reasons for introduction of commercial agriculture parallel to domestic agriculture in the islands, the size of land that small agricultural farmers utilise, inform them about the newspaper that wrote about the overseer of the commercial agriculture project, the agreement that was signed between the government and investors of this commercial agriculture project*, illustrates optional elements that make reference to, for example, third person that are none task participants, hence, illustrating such optional elements as not necessary for beginner L2 Kiswahili learners because such elements are considered to increase the cognitive complexity to the participant of Task three. Thus, manipulation of the above TDSs through omitting them from the TDSs of Task three leaves task description of Task three with relatively few obligatory elements that demonstrate a systematic relationship with the broad thematic topic and the core task description of Task three, as illustrated in TDS (b).

In relation to [- no reasoning] feature, it is possible to design a second, less complex version of the most complex version from the TDSs of Task three. This can be done by completely omitting TDS (e) *Finally, inform them that you have arrived at the hotel, request them to get out the bus so that they can go to their rooms until when you meet again*, as a whole. This is in order because TDS (e), for example, demonstrates reasoning elements in its non-constitutive narrations with regard the core task description for Task three as reflected in its broad thematic topic.

Similarly, the reasoning elements in the narrations which provide historical information in TDS (b) *In addition, explain to your classmates the known activities that were carried out in Kalangala district before 2006, the agricultural activities carried out on the islands, list for them crops that
grow on the islands and how monkeys were a threat to the island farmers., can be manipulated given that such information is considered optional in terms of the core task description of the broad thematic topic. Hence, TDS (b) can be modified as follows, TDS (b) Aidha, [...] wanafunzi wenzako [...] ‘wataje’ mazao yanayomea visiwani humo [...]}. In addition, [...] your classmates [...] list [...] crops that grow on the islands [...]].

In relation to the [- here-and-now] feature, for the purpose of designing less complex version from the complex version of Task three, TDS (e) Finally, inform them that you have arrived at the hotel, request them to get out the bus so that they can go to their rooms until when you meet again., can be completely omitted in the task description of Task three as a whole. The manipulation is in order because TDS (e) is non-essential to the broad thematic topic for Task three.

In addition, both the omission and alteration techniques can be employed to manipulated TDS (a) In recalling your teacher’s explanations about Ssese islands, tell your friends about the islands that constitute Ssese islands, tell them about the largest island of all, its status in the islands and so on., for example, alteration technique can be used to change nouns into verbs and verb aspects. In addition, the omission technique can also be employed in the narration that is, for example, repeated expressions that can be considered as optional given that the sufficient information is provided in terms of the broad thematic topic of Task three. Thus, the modified TDS (a) is formulated as follows, TDS (a) [...] ‘unajikumbusha’ maelezo ya mwalimu wenu kuhusu Visiwa vya Ssese, ‘waelezee’ wanafunzi wenzako kuhusu Visiwa [...] vya Ssese [...]}. [...] ‘you are recalling’ your teacher’s explanations about Ssese islands, ‘by telling’ your friends about [...] Ssese islands [...]].

Furthermore, TDS (b) In addition, explain to your classmates the known activities that were carried out in Kalangala district before 2006, the agricultural activities carried out on the islands, list for them crops that grow on the islands and how monkeys were a threat to the island farmers., can be manipulated through the techniques of omission and alteration, respectively. For example, the omission is in order because parts of TDS (b) demonstrate, for example, repeated, historical and temporal expressions that can be considered as optional in terms of the core task description of the thematic topic for Task three. Furthermore, the alteration technique can be employed to modify, for example, nouns into verbs and also to convert various aspects of verbs. Thus, the modified TDS (b) is formulated as follows, TDS (b) [...] ‘ukiwa unawaelezea’ wanafunzi wenzako shughuli [...] ‘zinazofanywa’ wilayani Kalangala [...] ‘unawatajia’ mazao ‘yanayomea’ visiwani humo [...]}. In [...] ‘explaining’ to your classmates the known activities that ‘are’ carried out in Kalangala district [...] list for them crops that ‘are grown’ on the islands [...]].
Regarding the [- prior knowledge] feature, it is possible to employ the omission technique to manipulate TDS (a) *In recalling your teacher’s explanations about Ssese islands, tell your friends about the islands that constitute Ssese islands, tell them about the largest island of all, its status in the islands and so on.*, in order to design a second, less complex version of the most complex version from the TDSs of Task three. The manipulation is in order because TDS (a), for example, exhibit a feature that makes reference to the third person who is visually absent in the shared context of the task participant(s). This feature can be considered as optional, for example, in completing a task. Therefore, modified TDS (a), is formulated as follows. TDS (a) [...] *waeleze wanafunzi wenzako kuhusu Visiwa vidogovido visiwa vya Ssese, waambie kuhusu Kisiwa kikubwa kuliko vyote pamoja na hadhi yake katika Visiwa hivyo.* [...] *tell your friends about the islands that constitute Ssese islands, tell them about the largest island of all, its status in the islands and so on.* Thus, after omitting parts of TDS (a), the remaining obligatory elements of TDS (a) of Task three demonstrate elements of prior knowledge that are directly specific to the broad thematic topic of the task description for Task three, hence exhibiting the [+ prior knowledge] features as summarised in Table 4.19, on page 273.

Similarly, TDS (c) *Furthermore, explain to your classmates the reasons for introduction of commercial agriculture parallel to domestic agriculture in the islands, the size of land that small agricultural farmers utilise, inform them about the newspaper that wrote about the overseer of the commercial agriculture project, the agreement that was signed between the government and investors of this commercial agriculture project.* can be manipulated by using the omission technique. This is possible because TDS (c) exemplifies feature that makes reference to the third person who is absent in a shared context. Thus, such a feature can be considered as optional in this TDS. Therefore, the manipulated TDS (c) is formulated as follows. TDS (c) [Zaidi ya hayo, waeleze wanafunzi wenzako sababu za kuanzishwa kwa kilimo cha kibiashara sambamba na mazao ya chakula visiwani humo, ukubwa wa heka wanazotumia wakulima wadogowadogo wa kilimo cha biashara, wafahamishe [...] kuhusu msimamizi mkuu wa mradi huo wa kilimo cha biashara, mkataba uliosainiwa baina ya serikali na wawekezaji wa kili mo hicho cha biashara]. TDS (c) [Furthermore, explain to your classmates the reasons for introduction of commercial agriculture parallel to domestic agriculture in the islands, the size of land that small agricultural farmers utilise, inform them about [...] the overseer of the commercial agriculture project, the agreement that was signed between the government and investors of this commercial agriculture project].

From the above analysis, it is evident that TDS (c) predominantly exhibits the [+ prior knowledge] features as illustrated in Table 4.19, on page 273. In general, the above analysis from TDS (a) and
(c) further suggests that, like the [+/- prior knowledge] feature of Task two, the above [+ prior knowledge] features of TDS (a) and (c), respectively, cannot be designed further because the above versions predominately exhibit the [+ prior knowledge] feature as illustrated in Table 4:19, on page 273.

Considering the [- single task] features, like the [- prior knowledge] features of Task three, it is possible to employ the omission technique to manipulate TDS (a). In recalling your teacher’s explanations about Ssese islands, tell your friends about the islands that constitute Ssese islands, tell them about the largest island of all, its status in the islands and so on., in order to design a second, less complex version of the most complex version from the TDSs of Task three. The manipulation is in order because TDS (a), for example, exhibits a feature that makes reference to the third person who is visually absent in the shared context of the task participant(s). This feature can be considered as optional, for example, in completing Task three. Therefore, the modified TDS (a), is formulated as follows; TDS (a) [... waeleze wanafunzi wenzako kuhusu Visiwa vidogo vidogo vinavyouna Visiwa vya Ssese, waambie kuhusu Kisiwa kikubwa kuliko vyote pamoja na hadhi yake katika Visiwa hivyo. [...] tell your friends about the islands that constitute Ssese islands, tell them about the largest island of all, its status in the islands and so on. Thus, after omitting parts of TDS (a), the remaining obligatory elements of TDS (a) of Task three demonstrate elements of [+/- single task] that are directly specific to the broad thematic topic of the task description for Task three, hence exhibiting the [+ single task] features as summarised in Table 4:19, on page 273.

Similarly, TDS (c) Furthermore, explain to your classmates the reasons for introduction of commercial agriculture parallel to domestic agriculture in the islands, the size of land that small agricultural farmers utilise, inform them about the newspaper that wrote about the overseer of the commercial agriculture project, the agreement that was signed between the government and investors of this commercial agriculture project., can be manipulated by using the omission technique. This is possible because TDS (c) exemplifies feature that makes reference to the third person who is absent in a shared context. Thus, such a feature can be considered as optional in this TDS. Therefore, the manipulated TDS (c) is formulated as follows. TDS (c) [Zaidi ya hayo, waeleze wanafunzi wenzako sababu za kuanzishwa kwa kilimo cha kibiashara sambamba na mazao ya chakula visiwani humo, ukubwa wa heka wanazotumia wakulima wadogo wadogo wa kilimo cha biashara, wafahamishe [...] kuhusu msimamizi mkuu wa mradi huo wa kilimo cha biashara, mkataba uliosainiwa baina ya serikali na wawekezaji wa kilimo hicho cha biashara]. TDS (c) [Furthermore, explain to your classmates the reasons for introduction of commercial agriculture parallel to domestic agriculture in the islands, the size of land that small agricultural farmers utilise,
inform them about [...] the overseer of the commercial agriculture project, the agreement that was signed between the government and investors of this commercial agriculture project.

From the above analysis, it is evident that TDS (c) predominantly exhibits the [+ single task] features as illustrated in Table 4:18 below. In general, the above analysis from TDS (a) and (c) further suggests that, like the [+/ single task] feature of Task two, the above [+ single task] features of TDS (a) and (c), respectively, cannot be designed further because the above versions predominately exhibit the [+ single task] features, as illustrated in Table 4:19, on page 273.

Table 4:18: Summary of pedagogical task version two of Task three

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource-directing</th>
<th>Resource-dispersing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- few elements: TDS (b)</td>
<td>+/- planning time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- no reasoning: TDS (b)\textsuperscript{mod_2}, (c) &amp; (d)</td>
<td>+ prior knowledge: TDS (a)\textsuperscript{mod_2} &amp; (c)\textsuperscript{mod_2}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- here-and-now: TDS (a)\textsuperscript{mod_2}, (b)\textsuperscript{mod_2} &amp; (c)</td>
<td>+ single task: TDS (a)\textsuperscript{mod_2} &amp; (c)\textsuperscript{mod_2}</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.5.3.2.1.2. Pedagogical task version one of Task three

Furthermore, in relation to manipulating the [- few elements] feature for the design of the first (least) version of Task three, parts of TDS (b), can be omitted. TDS (b) In addition, explain to your classmates the known activities that were carried out in Kalangala district before 2006, the agricultural activities carried out on the islands, list for them crops that grow on the islands and how monkeys were a threat to the island farmers. The [- few elements] feature of TDS (b) that can be omitted as optional elements are those that make reference to, for example, temporal expressions and those that express the third person that are visually absent in the shared context of the task participant. Thus, the modified version of TDS (b) can be illustrated as follows. TDS (b) Aidha, waelxe waafunzi wenzako... mazao yanayomea visiwani humo [...]. [In addition, explain to your classmates...list of crops that grow on the islands [...]]. Thus, after omitting parts of TDS (b), the remaining obligatory elements of TDS (b) of Task three demonstrate few elements that are directly specific to the broad thematic topic of the task description for Task three, hence exhibiting the [+ few elements] features, as summarised in Table 4:19, on page 273.

The design of a least complex (i.e. first) version of Task three in relation to the [- no reasoning] feature involves manipulating some narrations that express reasoning elements in TDS (c) Furthermore, explain to your classmates the reasons for introduction of commercial agriculture parallel to domestic agriculture in the islands, the size of land that small agricultural farmers utilise, inform them about the newspaper that wrote about the overseer of the commercial agriculture project, the agreement that was signed between the government and investors of this
commercial agriculture project. This manipulation can be done because, the reasoning elements occur, for example, in recursive and motivational narrations which can be considered optional in terms of the core task description of the broad thematic topic of Task three. Thus, the manipulated formulation of TDS (c) can be illustrated as follows, TDS (c) [...] ‘wambie’ wanafunzi wenzako ‘aina’ za [...] kilimo [...] visiwani humo, [...] mkataba [...] wa kilimo [...] cha biashara. [...] ‘tell’ to your classmates ‘types’ of [...] agriculture [...] in the islands, [...] the agreement [...] of ‘the’ commercial agriculture [...]).

In addition, TDS (d) Tell your friends about some of the benefits of commercial agricultural, the buyers of farmers’ produce, the amount of land that has been put to use as the result of commercial agriculture and so forth., can be manipulated in order to design least cognitively complex reasoning demands for beginners L2 Kiswahili learners. This manipulation is possible and can be done by omitting repeated narrations with mainly reasoning expressions. Thus, the modified TDS (d), is formulated as follows, TDS (d) Waambie kuhusu [...] faida za [...] kilimo cha kibiashara [...]]. [Tell your friends about [...] the benefits [...] of commercial agriculture [...]].

Given the above examples, it can be concluded that as various narration reasoning features have been omitted and modified, it is evident that TDSs of Task three still illustrate few reasoning elements in its segments, hence exhibit some [- no reasoning] features. This suggests that less cognitively complex versions can be designed from such TDSs, as summarised in Table 4:19, on page 273.

Furthermore, in relation to manipulating the [- here-and-now] feature for the design of the first (least) version of Task three, TDS (c) requires both omission and alteration techniques for manipulation exercises. For example, omission technique can be employed in cases, for example, where there is non-constitutive information that is non-essential of the broad thematic topic of Task three (see Hasan 1985:57-58, on view regarding constitutive moves). Similarly, the alteration technique can be used for converting, for example, nouns into verbs and in the modification of aspects of verbs. Thus, the modified TDs (c) is formulated as follows, TDS (c) [...] ‘unawaelezea’ wanafunzi wenzako sababu za ‘kukianzisha’ [...] kilimo cha kibiashara sambamba na mazao ya chakula visiwani humo, ukubwa wa heka ‘zinazotumiwa na’ wakulima wadogo wadogo [...]]. [...] ‘in explaining’ to your classmates the reasons for ‘introducing’ [...] commercial agriculture parallel to domestic agriculture in the islands, the size of land that small agricultural farmers ‘are utilising’ [...].
From the above analysis, although the omission and alteration techniques have predominantly modified the [- here-and- now] features of the whole task specification for Task three, it is evident that there are some [- here-and- now] features in TDS (a) and (b). This suggests that it is possible to design other less version(s) of [- here-and- now] features from TDS (a) and (d), respectively, as exemplified in Table 4:19, on page 273.

Table 4:19: Summary of pedagogical version one of Task three

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource-directing</th>
<th>Resource-dispersing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>+ few elements: TDS (b)\textsuperscript{mod\textsubscript{1}}</td>
<td>+/- planning time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- no reasoning: TDS (b)\textsuperscript{mod\textsubscript{2}}, (c)\textsuperscript{mod\textsubscript{1}} &amp; (d)\textsuperscript{mod\textsubscript{1}}</td>
<td>+ prior knowledge: Almost all TDSs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- here-and-now: TDS (a)\textsuperscript{mod\textsubscript{2}}, (b)\textsuperscript{mod\textsubscript{2}} &amp; (c)\textsuperscript{mod\textsubscript{1}}</td>
<td>+ single task: Almost all TDSs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thus, the above task versions are summarised as demonstrated in Table 4:20 below.

Table 4:20: Showing progressively more cognitive complexity of Task three in three task versions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task version one</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Resource-directing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+ few elements: TDS (b)\textsuperscript{mod\textsubscript{1}}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- no reasoning: TDS (b)\textsuperscript{mod\textsubscript{2}}, (c)\textsuperscript{mod\textsubscript{1}} &amp; (d)\textsuperscript{mod\textsubscript{1}}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- here-and-now: TDS (a)\textsuperscript{mod\textsubscript{2}}, (b)\textsuperscript{mod\textsubscript{2}} &amp; (c)\textsuperscript{mod\textsubscript{1}}</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task version two</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Resource-directing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- few elements: TDS (b)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- no reasoning: TDS (b)\textsuperscript{mod\textsubscript{2}}, (c) &amp; (d)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- here-and-now: TDS (a)\textsuperscript{mod\textsubscript{2}}, (b)\textsuperscript{mod\textsubscript{2}} &amp; (c)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task version three</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Resource-directing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- few elements: TDS (a), (b) &amp; (c)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- no reasoning: TDS (b), (c), (d) &amp; (e)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- here-and-now: TDS (a), (b), (c) &amp; (e)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.5.3.2.1.2.1. Sequencing of pedagogical tasks for Kiswahili learners

On one hand, considering the sequencing of learning task version one of TDSs of Task three, with regard to resource-dispersing features, like in the first version of Task one, for the learners to complete version one of Task three with ease while saving time, given that this is a monologic task (see Schleppegrell 2004: 33; Willis and Willis (2007: 57), a learner is expected to have enough time to plan and prepare for the performance [+ planning time] feature. In addition, this task version
expects Kiswahili novice learner to be with adequate information [+ prior knowledge] about the economic activities that are carried in the Ssese Islands. Lastly, in this task version, a learner is required to perform not more than one task at a time, hence demonstrating the [+ single task] feature.

On the other hand, with regard to the resource-directing dimension of version one of TDSs for Task three, considering the [+ few elements] feature, this task version expects the learner to exhibit the use of Kiswahili expressions to narrate, for example, activities that were taking place in Kalangala district before 2006. Furthermore, with regard to the [- no reasoning] feature, it can be observed that while this is the first version which according to Robinsons (2010: 252) needs to be simple, the [- no reasoning] feature of this task version is relatively complex to the learner(s). This is attributed to the occurrence of TDSs (b), (c)\textsuperscript{mod_1}, and (d)\textsuperscript{mod_1} with incorporated reasoning elements. However, these TDSs can further be manipulated to remove parts that expect the learner to use the Kiswahili reasoning commands. The omission of reasoning parts is of an advantage to Kiswahili learner because s/he is expected to demonstrate simple Kiswahili proficiency such as in mentioning the buyers of farmers’ produce from Ssese Islands which do not require reasoning.

Lastly, like the [- no reasoning] feature above, this task version also demonstrates the [- here-and-now] feature. It follows that this task version is cognitively challenging to the learner given that during task performance, the learner is required to explain to others what the newspaper wrote about the agricultural project in the Islands, which exhibit past events exemplifying the [- here-and-now] feature. Thus, for the purpose of sequencing this task version, there is a need to further remove parts of [- here-and-now] features from TDSs (a), (b) and (c)\textsuperscript{mod_1}. The omission of such features allows Kiswahili learner to exhibit Kiswahili skills for such as in requesting other learners to get out of the bus, whereby the learner uses present tenses that demonstrate events happening now [+ here-and-now] and in a shared context.

Considering the resource-dispersing features of task version two of Task three, with regard to increase cognitive complexity for learners to perform pedagogical tasks, like in the previous task version, in this version, the learners to perform the task is expected to have enough time [+ planning] for proper planning and preparation to ease the task performance challenges. In relation to the [- single task] feature, it can be observed that this feature has been modified to have the [+ single task] feature as exhibited in the first task version. This suggests that this task version is cognitively more complex compared to task version one. The complexity can be attributed to the property in this task version which provides a room for this learner to perform more than one task at a time. For instance, this task version required the learner to first recall and then explain to others
what the teacher said about Ssese Islands, first remember the information in the newspaper and then narrates it to other classmates.

The resource-directing features of this task versions are predominantly more complex than those in version one. This can be attributed to the presence of the [-] features in this dimension. For example, regarding the [- few elements] feature, this task version expects the learner to exhibit a higher degree (compared to version one) of Kiswahili proficiency in, for example, in describing agricultural and non-agricultural activities that were carried out in Kalangala district before 2006.

With regard to the [- no reasoning] feature, this version is more complex than version one. This can be attributed to the presence of unmodified TDSs (c) and (d) which exhibit reasoning elements. Therefore, in this task version, the learner is required to exemplify proficiency in Kiswahili reasoning skills about informing others of the reasons behind the introduction of commercial and domestic agriculture in the Ssese Islands. Lastly, in relation to the [- here-and-now] feature of version two of Task three, this version is more complex than the previous one. This can be attributed to the presence of unmodified TDS (c). In this regard, while performing this task version, a learner is expected to demonstrate Kiswahili commands in narrating past expressions about the agreement which was signed between the government and the agricultural investor.

To increase cognitive complexity from version two to version three of TDSS of Task three, the resource-dispersing dimensional features are considered first in accordance with Robinson’s (2010: 525) SAARC model. Unlike version one and two where the [+- planning time] feature is given to task performer, the planning time for this version is absent [- planning time]. This means that to perform this task version, the learner is expected to perform and complete the task within the time that has been prescribed by the teacher in the classroom. In addition, considering the [- prior knowledge] feature for this task version, this version is cognitively most complex compared to version two and one, respectively. This can be attributed to the occurrence of unmodified TDSs that the learner is unaware of about their information yet the learner is expected to perform them too. Therefore, this type of task version requires the learner to demonstrate the highest degree of knowledge about the islands that constitute Ssese islands and the largest island of all.

In relation to the resource-directing domain of version three of TDSs for Task three, this version predominantly exemplifies cognitively complex features for task performance by the learner. This can be attributed to the occurrence of the [-] features throughout the domain. Considering the [- few elements] feature, unlike the second version, in this version, the learner is required to demonstrate high proficiency in Kiswahili when, for example, explaining to other learners about Ssese Islands, the crops that grow in the Islands and so forth. This type of task version incorporates several items...
and ideas that the learner need to express in a single performance. Regarding the [- no reasoning] feature, in this version, the learner is expected to exhibit reasoning commands in Kiswahili when, for example, explaining to other classmates the reasons as to why they need to get out of the bus. Lastly, with regard to the [-here-and-now] feature, in this task version, the learner is required to exhibit proficiency in Kiswahili in narrating events about informing other classmates that they have arrived at the hotel. This narration entails the use of perfect tense which demonstrates the [- here-and-now] feature.

4.5.3.3. Syntactic complexity for Task three

This section presents the simulated dialogues for Task three as demonstrated in section 4.5.3.3.1, on page 276. Then the syntactic complexity analysis of the simulated task dialogue is done in section 4.5.3.3.1.1, on page 278. Thereafter, the subsequent sub-sections illustrate the construction of linguistically less complex dialogues (version two and version one) as learning tasks from the most syntactically complex dialogues (version three). The construction is realised through the manipulation of both resource-directing and resource-dispersing features, as exemplified in section 4.5.3.4.1 and section 4.5.3.4.2, on pages 280 and 282, respectively.

4.5.3.3.1. Simulated task dialogue for Task three

Sajile: a [ a₁ || Kama nilivyogusia (IND. PT) hapo awali kuwa || | mwalimu Ndawula alisema (IND. PT) visiwa vya Ssese viko (COP. COV) zaidi ya visiwa themanini | a₂ | Lakini sio (COP. COV. NEG) kwene visiwa vyote wanaishi (IND. PRES) binadamu | a₃ | Visiwa wanaavyoishi (IND. HAB PRES) binadamu ni vichache | {ambavyo miongoni mwavyo ni(COP. COV. PRES) Kisiwa cha Bugala } : {ambacho pia ndio kuna(COP. PRES) makao makuu ya wilaya ya Kalangala}:

a [a₁] As I had briefly explained earlier, Teacher Ndawula said that Ssese islands are more than eighty.

a₂ But not in all islands, there are human beings who live there.

a₃ Islands that human beings live are few, which include Bugala island, which is also the headquarters of the Kalangala district]

b [ b₁ || Hadi mwaka 2006, Kalangala ni (COP. COV. PRES) wilaya iliyojulikana || | kwa shughuli za uvuvi na ukataji mbao | b₂ || Japokuwa wilaya ilikuwa na uvuaji wa samaki na ukataji mbao ||, | pia wananchi wa Kalangala walijulikana (IND. PT) na kilimo cha mazao ya chakula || | kwa ajili ya kutumia (INF) nyumbani || b₃ Mazao {ambayo yanashamiri(COP. COV. PRES) kwenye visiwa hivi ni(COP. COV. PRES) kama vile mihogo, viazi vitamu pamoja na zao la ndizi } b₄ | Wakulima walikuwa(COP. PRES) wanalaamika(COP. PRES) sana || | kuwa nyani waishio(HUB. PRES) kwenye misitu || {iliyopo kando na mazingira pamoja na mashamba yao} : ndio(COP. COV) adui mkuu wa mazao yao : ]
Until 2006, Kalangala district was known for fishing and timber activities. Also, people of Kalangala engaged in food crop agriculture for domestic use. Crops that grow in these islands include cassava, sweet potatoes, and banana. Farmers were complaining that monkeys living in the forests around their farms were the main enemies of their crops.

On another side, Teacher Ndawula told us after 2006, in addition to food crop agriculture for domestic use, farmers in the islands begun to grow palm as a commercial crop. Palm farmers are small scale who cultivate between four and five hectors of land for agriculture. According to The Independent newspaper of 22/11/2013, the manager of the project which buys palm from the farmers when he was being interviewed by the newspaper reporter said the project was overseen by the government. He continued to say that the main reason to start the palm agriculture in the island was the availability of land which was not in use. For that reason, the government signed an agreement to lease 6500 hectors of land in the island for cultivation of plantations and small farms of palm. However, until now, investors who entered into the agreement with the government have managed to cultivate only 3860 hectors of land.
enable people of Kalangala to raise their income and to enable Uganda to produce commodities, such as cooking oil, soap, et cetera., in order to increase national foreign income

I can see we have already arrived at the hotel. But in short, that is what I have prepared for you regarding Ssese islands. I request you to get out of the bus so that we can go to rest in our rooms until when we will meet again for supper

4.5.3.3.1.1. An analysis of the syntactic complexity of Task three

In relation to TDS 4.2.4.3 of Task one, as demonstrated in its associated task dialogue 4.2.4.3, predominantly exemplifies complex syntactic sentences. This is evident in several complex sentences that realise cognitive complexity features in the dialogue representing the most complex version (i.e. version three) of target language proficiency in Kiswahili. In this dialogue, there are only two monoclausal sentences namely sentence [a2 & e1]. For example, in sentence e1, syntactic complexity is realised by the occurrence of two lexical verb forms i.e. naona and tumeshafika, in the same sentence. The verb form naona is in the indicative present tense, while tumeshafika is in the indicative present perfect tense lexical verb form, hence realising the [- here-and-now] feature of cognitive complexity.

In addition, this task dialogue segment illustrates the occurrence of sentences with one independent clause and an associated dependent clause in a single complex sentence. Examples of such sentences include sentence [a1, b1, b3, c1, c2, & c6]. In these sentences, the syntactic complexity is predominantly manifested, for example by expressions that refer to several things in a single clause, hence realising the [- few elements] feature of cognitive complexity. For example, sentence [c1], the indicative past tense lexical verb form walianza and the infinitive lexical verb form kulima of the dependent clause, are describing the complex predicate alitueleza of the independent clause. Thus, this sentence illustrates the content of the leaner, Sajile, narrating to fellow students what their teacher, Ndawula, told them about the time commercial farming alongside subsistence farming begun in the Ssese Islands. Narrating all these things to fellow students at once results in such sentences exhibiting the [- few elements] features of cognitive complexity. See also sentence [a3, c4, & d1], where relative clauses qualify nouns in the preceding main clauses.
In addition, this dialogue segment exhibits sentence \([d_2]\), consisting of two coordinated main clauses and a single dependent clause. In this sentence, the conjunction *ili* which precedes the infinitive lexical verb form *kuonageza*, which introduces the dependent clause of the two coordinated independent clauses. This conjunction *ili* entails elements of intentional reasoning qualifying verb forms that occur in the two proceeding independent clauses, hence demonstrating the [- no reasoning] feature of cognitive complexity. Other reasoning expressions occurring in sentences other than in sentence \(d_2\) include those that occur in sentences \([c_5 \& e_3]\), respectively. They include, *kwa ajili ya ili*.

Furthermore, this task dialogue segment demonstrates several sentences composed of a main clause and two or more dependent clauses. These include sentences \([b_2, b_4, \& c_3]\). In these sentences, it is evident that the dependent clauses either depend on the main clause or depend on (i.e. are subordinate to) other dependent clauses. For example, in sentence \([b_4]\), the indicative past tense auxiliary form verb *walikuwa* and the indicative present tense lexical verb form *wanalalamia* occur in the main clause of sentence \([b_4]\). The independent clause verb of the above main clause is realised by the habitual lexical verb form *waishio*. This dependent clause has two embedded (i.e. subordinate) clauses. On the one hand, the embedded clause which has a connection to the main clause is realised by a copulative covert verb predicate *ndiyo*. On the other hand, the embedded clause without a connection to the main clause is realised by relativiser *iliyopo* which relates the relative clause to the noun, *misitu*, of the main clause.

Therefore, considering the analysis of the sentence \([b_4]\) given above, it is evident that this sentence is syntactically and cognitively complex. Thus, in term of resource-directing resources of cognitive complexity regarding the [- few elements] feature, it is realised in the sentence content where the learner, Sajile, explains to his fellow learners about monkeys that were staying on the forests across the farms used to destroy farmers’ crops. Thus, describing all these things, realised in a single sentence, results in sentence \([b_4]\) exemplifying the [- few elements] of cognitive complexity. Lastly, in relation to the [- here-and-now] feature, sentence \([b_4]\) demonstrates the realisation of [- here-and-now] cognitive complexity features. This feature is realised in, for example, the indicative past tense auxiliary verb form *walikuwa* of the main clause, and in the habitual lexical verb form *waishio*, which constitutes a subordinate clause of the main clause.

**4.5.3.4. Pedagogical task versions of Task three in terms of syntactic complexity**

In summary, it is evident that this dialogue segment exhibits a correlation between the syntactic complexity of sentences and the cognitively complexity features of resource-directing resources, as
summarised in Table 4:17, on page 266, and as task version three in Table 4:20, on page 273. This dialogue version benchmarks the most advanced level of Kiswahili proficiency expected in the performance of this task. Thus, to construct the syntactically less complex dialogues for learning task versions, version two and version one, from the most syntactically complex task version three, it is necessary to manipulate some of the complex sentences of version three to yield their respective dialogues. Thus, to produce a syntactically less complex pedagogical task version, version two, representing a level of communicative adequacy which is syntactically less complex than the syntactic complex associated with communicative proficiency for task version three, as shown in Table 4:20, unlike Task one, this task requires to manipulate resource-dispersing variables first, and then manipulation of resource-directing resources is done, as demonstrated below.

4.5.3.4.1. Pedagogical task version two of Task three

With regard to the [- prior knowledge] features of cognitive complexity, this task version requires omission of parts of the sentences in the version three dialogue that expresses the content of Sajile referring to narrations based on his previously acquired knowledge, as realised in dialogue segments (a) and (c), respectively. For example, in sentence a1, the dependent clause with an indicative mood past tense lexical verb form nilivyogusia, and the subject noun phrase mwalimu Ndawula which introduces the independent clause with an indicative mood past tense lexical verb form alisema can be omitted. This partial omission is in order because, in the remaining part of the sentence, the previously intended meaning of the whole sentence [c1] still exists, hence resulting sentence [a1], to demonstrate the relatively less syntactic complex feature of [+ prior knowledge] of task version two, as demonstrated in Table 4:20. As has been the case with dialogue segments (a), the same manipulation technique can be employed to omit some parts of sentences in dialogue segments (c) to realise relatively less syntactic complex feature of [+ prior knowledge] of task version two, as demonstrated in Table 4:20. From the above analysis, it is evident that the simulated task dialogue (a) and (c) cannot be manipulated further. This suggests that to construct a dialogue associated with the syntactically least complex task version, version one of this task, the same clauses that realise sentences in simulated task dialogue (a) and (c), respectively, can as well be demonstrated to exhibit the least complex task version of this Task, hence realising cognitively and syntactically least complex feature in sentences with respect to the [+ prior knowledge] variables, as summarised in Table 4:20, on page 273.

Lastly, with regard to resource-dispersing of the [- single task] features in relation to the construction of syntactically less complex task version, version two, from the syntactically most complex task version three, it is necessary to use the omission technique to omit some parts of
dialogue segment (a) and (c), respectively that realise the sentences which are syntactically and cognitively complex sentences exhibiting feature of the [- single task] variable. For example, in sentence [c3], it is possible to omit all the clauses that are realised in sentence [c3], except the independent clause that is realised by complex predicate habitual verb form unasimamiwa. This is because most of the omitted clauses demand Sajile to refer to third persons and things which requires him to first remember something before he narrates it to his fellow colleagues. Thus, the omission of such parts from sentence [c1] results [c1] to exhibit both relatively less syntactically sentence and cognitively complex feature, respectively, of the [+ single task] variable. As has been observed in the previous analysis, this task version, version two cannot be manipulated further with regard to the [+ single task].

This suggests that to realise the syntactically least complex task version, version one of this task, the same clauses that realise sentences in simulated task dialogue (a) and (c), respectively, can be demonstrated to exhibit the least complex task version, version one of this Task, hence realising least syntactically sentences, demonstrating the least cognitive complexity feature of the [+ single task] variables, of task version one, as summarised in Table 4:20 on page 273.

In relation to resource-directing dimension as regard to the construction of the dialogues associated with the syntactically less complex task version, version two, from the most syntactically task version three, it is necessary to apply the omission technique to manipulate the [- few elements] feature that realise sentences in simulated task dialogue (a), (d) and (c). For example, in this task version, it is in order to omit all sentences that are realised in the dialogue segments (a) and (c), respectively, that demonstrate most syntactically sentences, realising the most cognitively complex feature of the [- few elements] variable. For example, in sentences from [a1 – a3] that are required by dialogue segment (a), these sentences can all be omitted because their content is non-essential to the broad thematic topic of task three in general. Thus, their omission does not affect the intended meaning of this task, as it is realised in the remaining dialogue segment (d), hence realising relatively less syntactically complex sentences exemplifying relatively less cognitively complex features of the [- few elements] variable, as summarised in task version two in Table 4:20, on page 273.

Considering the realisation of less syntactically complex task version two with respect to the [- no reasoning] feature of task version three, there is necessary to manipulate the simulated task dialogue segment (b), (c), (d) and (e). In this regard, for example, it is necessary to completely omit all the sentences that are realised in simulated task dialogue (e). This is can be done because in the simulated task dialogue (e), for example, in sentence [e3], there is a conjunction ili that introduces a
subordinate clause with an indicative present tense auxiliary verb form *tuweze*, which is proceeded by an indicative present tense auxiliary verb form *kwenda*, followed by an infinitive *kupumzika*. The conjunction *ili* entails features of intentional reasoning describing verbs forms which occur in the preceding main clause of sentence *e₃*. However, the content of sentence *e₃*, in which conjunction *ili* occurs is non-essential to the broad thematic topic of task three, hence by omitting, for example, sentence *e₃* and other sentences in task dialogue segment (e), results in the remaining task dialogue segments such as (b)ᵩᵦ₂, (c) and (d) to exhibit less syntactically complex sentences demonstrating less cognitively complex feature of the [- no reasoning] variable of task version two, as summarised in Table 4:20, on page 273.

In regard to the realisation of the syntactically less complex version, version two in relation to the [- here-and-now] feature of task version three, it is in order to omit all sentences that occur in the task dialogue segment (e). This is in order because this dialogue exhibits sentences that illustrate the occurrences of, for example, the auxiliary and lexical verb forms. Such as the indicative present perfect tense lexical form, *tumeshafika*, an indicative present perfect tense auxiliary verb form, *nimeweza*, and an indicative future tense lexical verb form, *tutakapokutana*, as they occur in sentences, *[e₁, e₂ & e₃]*, respectively, demonstrating syntactically complex sentences in relation to the [- here-and-now] feature. However, these sentences are non-essential to the thematic content of task three. Thus, by omitting the task dialogue segment (e), the remaining task dialogue segments, i.e. dialogue (a)ᵩᵦ₂, (b)ᵩᵦ₂, and (c), exhibit sentences that illustrate less syntactically complex sentences of less cognitive complex feature of the [- here-and-now] variable of task version two, as demonstrated in Table 4:20, on page 273.

4.5.3.4.2. Pedagogical task version one of Task three

Given that all the resource-dispersing features of [+/- prior knowledge] and [+/- single task] have realised their syntactically least version of Task one, as summarised in Table 4:20, thus, the paragraphs below analyse the construction of syntactically and cognitively least version, version one of Task three in relation to the [+/- few elements], [+/- no reasoning] and the [+/- here-and-now] cognitive features.

For example, to realise the syntactically least complex sentences of task version one, from less syntactically complex sentences of task version, version two, it is necessary to manipulate sentences which exhibit the [- few elements] feature as they occur in the dialogue segment (b). For example, in the simulated task dialogue of segment (b), there are sentences that can be omitted to realise syntactically least complex version of task one which to exhibit the [+ few elements]. These include
sentence \([b_1 \& b_4]\). For example, in this sentence \([b_4]\), the content in which Sajile narrates about several ideas such as the subject nouns phrases including wakulima, nyani, misitu and adui, as they occur in their respective clauses of a single sentence. It is evident the sentences in such which subject nouns phrases occur are non-essential to the broad thematic topic of task three. Thus, these sentences can be omitted without affecting the intended meaning of Task three, hence results in a sentence \((b)^{\text{mod}_1}\), which exhibits least syntactically sentences, exhibiting least cognitively complex feature, as summarised in Table 4:20, on page 273.

Considering the realisation of least task version with regard to the syntactically [- no reasoning] complex feature from task version two as they occur in dialogue segments \((b)^{\text{mod}_2}\), (c), and (d). It is possible to manipulate some sentences that exhibit the [- no reasoning]. The manipulation is necessary for example to omit sentences that occur in simulated dialogue segments (c) and (d). For example, in sentence \([c_6]\), the omission technique can be applied in the dependent clause that is introduced by a conjunction lakini and the main clause that is introduced by the indicative past perfect tense auxiliary verb form wameweza which is also proceeded by the infinitive lexical verb form kutumia. In sentence \([c_6]\), the conjunction lakini entails a contrasting reasoning element that qualifies the noun ardhi that occurs in sentence \([c_5]\). Nevertheless, the remove the whole of sentence \([c_6]\) does not affect the intended meaning of mainly sentence \([c_5]\). This suggests that the omission of sentence \([c_6]\) results dialogue segment \((c)^{\text{mod}_1}\) to realise syntactically and cognitively relatively least complexity sentences and features of the [- no reasoning] feature, summarised in Table 4:20. This means that the dialogue segment \((c)^{\text{mod}_1}\) can further be manipulated until it exhibits sentences without reasoning elements, hence realising least syntactically sentences, illustrating a least cognitively complex feature of the [+ no reasoning] variable.

Lastly, to realise produce the syntactically least complex version, task version one, in relation to the [- here-and-now] feature of task version three, it is in order to modify both auxiliary and lexical verbs forms with the [- here-and-now] features which occur in sentences that constitute dialogue segment (a), (b) and (c). For example, the indicative past tense lexical verb form alitueleza occurring in the independent clause, and the indicative past tense lexical verb form walianza that occurs in the dependent clause of the proceeding independent clause of sentence \([c_1]\), can be modified from the past tense to the present tense, hence realising lexical verb forms such as anatueleza and wanaanza, respectively, to realise relatively syntactically and cognitively least complex sentences and feature of the [- here-and-now] feature of sentence \([c_1]\), as summarised in Table 4:20, on page 273. This means that if other sentences in dialogue segment \((c)^{\text{mod}_1}\), and those in other dialogue segments such as \((a)^{\text{mod}_2}\), \((b)^{\text{mod}_2}\) are modified further, this task version, version
one can realise the least syntactically and cognitively complex sentences and features of the [+ here-and-now] of task version one of task three.

### 4.5.4. Task four

This task illustrates a mainly a discussion about plans to purchase food items. The discussion is among learners and their teacher. The description of this task is given as section 4.4.2, on page 433 of, Appendix (A-i), as summarised in Table 4:21, on page 284. Thus, task description specifications (TDSs) for Task four is provided in the table below.

Table 4:21: Task description specifications (TDSs) for Task four

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TDS Indicators</th>
<th>Task description specifications (TDSs)</th>
<th>Sentence(s) in a dialogue segment(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(b)</td>
<td>Mmoja wa wananunzi wenzako anawajulisheni kuhusu kanuni zinazohusu vyakula pamoja na vitu kama hivyo vinavyoingizwa ndani ya bustani kutoka nje, kanuni hizo ni kama vile kulisha wanyama.</td>
<td>[b_1 \rightarrow b_5]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table below illustrates a summary of the above TDSs for Task four. The corresponding STDs of TDS for Task four, appear in section 4.4.2, on page 495, of Appendix (A-ii). In addition, the same STDs are coded in section 4.5.4.3.1, on page 296, as summarised in Table 4:22, on page 284.

Table 4:22: Summary of TDSs for Task four
ya bustani kutoka nje, kanuni hizo ni ka vile kulisha wanyama.

One of your classmates informs you and your classmates about the rules regarding food and other related items from outside the zoo, such as the law against feeding animals and so forth.

Wakati akiendelea kuwaelezeni kuhusu kanuni za bustani, mwalimu wenu na wanyama wakula cha mchana kwa ujumla.

While she explains to you and your classmates these rules, your teacher and other classmates of yours have a discussion about your lunch.

Kwa kuzingatia kiasi cha fedha kilichopo, baadhi ya wanafunzi wenzako wanaonyesha kukuza kutokubaliana huku wakiamibizana faida za kununua baadhi ya vyakula na vitu vingine vitakavyotumika, mjadala wao unajikita katika kiasi, gharama, nakadhalika.

Considering the amount of money available, some of your classmates, express their agreement and disagreement telling each other about the benefits of buying some food items and other things to be used, their quantity, costs, and so on.

Mwisho, wakati baadhi ya wanafunzi wenzako wanajitolea na wanawajulisheni sababu zao binafsi zinazowafanya waende sokoni, baadhi ya wanafunzi wengine wanajadiliana juu ya kuwingia kwenye bustani, kumpata mhusika wa bustani na faida ya waurusika hao kwa wanyama na watalii.

Finally, while some of your classmates volunteer and inform you and others about their intentions and personal interests to go to the market, some other classmates discuss entering the zoo, getting a zoo guide and the benefits of guides to the animals and tourists.

From the above summary of TDSs for Task four, below is the analysis of task complexity for TDSs of Task four with regard to its interactional, cognitive and syntactic complexity, respectively.

4.5.4.1. Interactional complexity for Task four

In relation to the interactant (requester-supplier) relationship, like Task two, Task four predominantly exhibits TDSs of configurations for the relationship of the mutual request and supply of information except, in few cases where independent interactant relationship occur. The few cases are observed in TDSs that express narrations in reference to, for example, giving advice, personal opinion, and provision of additional information that is not required but necessary in the context under which the task is performed. Such TDSs suggest that there is limited interaction as a result of the one-way flow of information. TDSs include, for example, TDS (b) One of you classmates informs you and your classmates about the rules regarding food and other related items from outside into the zoo, such as the law against feeding animals and so forth, and TDS (e)
Finally, while some of your classmates volunteer and inform you and others about their intentions and personal interests to go to the market, some other classmates discuss about entering the zoo, getting a zoo guide and the benefits of guides to the animals and tourists. The simulated dialogue segments (see section 4.5.4.3.1, on page 296) that illustrate configurations for independent interactant relationship include, for example, sentence(s), $[^b_1-^b_4]$ and $[^c_3-^c_5]$.

Regarding the relationship of the mutual request and suppliance of information, as a whole, TDSs of Task four demonstrate such relationships especially in narrations involving the exchange of ideas and known information in a shared context. This implies that there is a two-way flow of information as a result of required interactional requirements. The TDSs of Task four that demonstrate mutual interactant relationship include, for example, TDS (c) While she explains to you and your classmates these rules, your teacher and other classmates of yours have a discussion about your lunch, and TDS (d) Considering the amount of money available, some of your classmates, express their agreement and disagreement telling each other about the benefits of buying some food items and other things to be used, their quantity, costs, and so on. The STDs (see section 4.5.4.3.1, on page 296) that illustrate mutual request and suppliance of information relationship, include, for example, sentence(s), $[^c_{11}-^c_{13}]$ and $[^c_{17}-^d_2]$.

While TDSs for Task four demonstrate configurations of both independent and mutual interactant relationships, it is evident that interactants are convergently working towards achieving a common goal and a single outcome. This is possible because of mainly information sharing (two-way flow) as a result of complex interaction which has been largely obligatory for each task participant. Thus, basing on the above configurations, it can be concluded that TDSs of Task four can be clustered under information gap task type because of the occurrences of independent interactant relationship in sections/parts of its TDSs.

4.5.4.2. Cognitive complexity for Task four

Considering the [+/− few elements] features of resource-directing dimensions, as a whole, TDSs of Task four exhibit the [- few elements] feature. This feature is realised in narrations that make reference to, for example, expressions related to countable and quantifiable objects, locatives, abstract and concrete ideas in both shared and unshared contexts. The TDSs that demonstrate such expressions are exemplified in TDSs, such as TDS (b) One of you classmates informs you and your classmates about the rules regarding food and other related items from outside into the zoo, such as the law against feeding animals and so forth, TDS (d) Considering the amount of money available, some of your classmates, express their agreement and disagreement telling each other about the
benefits of buying some food items and other things to be used, their quantity, costs, and so on, and TDS (e) Finally, while some of your classmates volunteer and inform you and others about their intentions and personal interests to go to the market, some other classmates discuss about entering the zoo, getting a zoo guide and the benefits of guides to the animals and tourists. The corresponding simulated dialogue segments (see section 4.5.4.3.1, on page 296) that illustrate the [-few elements] features are in sentence(s), \([b_1 - b_4], [c_1 - c_1] \) and \([c_3 - c_7]\), respectively.

In relation to [+/- no reasoning] feature, TDSs of Task four predominantly illustrate the [- no reasoning] feature. This feature occurs in narrations related to, for example, expression of personal opinions, descriptions of simple events that exhibit both causal and spatial reasoning features. Such TDSs, include, TDS (b) One of you classmates informs you and your classmates about the rules regarding food and other related items from outside into the zoo, such as the law against feeding animals and so forth, TDS(d) Considering the amount of money available, some of your classmates, express their agreement and disagreement telling each other about the benefits of buying some food items and other things to be used, their quantity, costs, and so on, and TDS(e) Finally, while some of your classmates volunteer and inform you and others about their intentions and personal interests to go to the market, some other classmates discuss about entering the zoo, getting a zoo guide and the benefits of guides to the animals and tourists. The simulated dialogue segments (see section 4.5.4.3.1 on section 296) that illustrate the [- no reasoning] feature, include sentence(s), \([b_3 - b_4], [d_3], [d_12], [e_2] \) and \([e_7]\), respectively.

Accordingly, as a whole, TDSs of Task four exemplify the [- here and now] feature. While participants are in a shared context, it is evident most of their narrations are expressed with reference to, for example, the past, present simple or in future tenses except in few events that the [+ here-and-now] feature occurs. The TDSs that exemplify the [- here-and-now] feature, include, TDS (b) One of you classmates informs you and your classmates about the rules regarding food and other related items from outside into the zoo, such as the law against feeding animals and so forth, TDS (c) While she explains to you and your classmates these rules, your teacher and other classmates of yours have a discussion about your lunch, TDS (d) Considering the amount of money available, some of your classmates, express their agreement and disagreement telling each other about the benefits of buying some food items and other things to be used, their quantity, costs, and so on, and TDS (e) Finally, while some of your classmates volunteer and inform you and others about their intentions and personal interests to go to the market, some other classmates discuss about entering the zoo, getting a zoo guide and the benefits of guides to the animals and tourists.
The simulated dialogue segments (see section 4.5.4.3.1, on page 296) that demonstrate the [- here-and-now] feature, include sentence(s), [b₃], [c₁₂], [c₁₇], and [e₅], respectively.

Relating to [+/- prior knowledge] feature of resource-directing dimensions, TDSs of Task four predominantly demonstrate the [+ prior knowledge] feature despite the fact that there are few events, for example, where participant(s) refer to other communication channels as sources of their narrations (experience) hence exhibiting [- prior knowledge] feature. The TDS that exemplify the [- prior knowledge] feature, is TDS (e) Finally, while some of your classmates volunteer and inform you and others about their intentions and personal interests to go to the market, some other classmates discuss about entering the zoo, getting a zoo guide and the benefits of guides to the animals and tourists. The simulated dialogue segments (see section 4.5.4.3.1, on page 296) that demonstrate the [- prior knowledge] feature, include sentence(s), [e₁₀ – e₁₂], respectively. Furthermore, the TDSs that demonstrate the [+ prior knowledge] feature, include, TDS (c) While she explains to you and your classmates these rules, your teacher and other classmates of yours have a discussion about your lunch, and TDS (d) Considering the amount of money available, some of your classmates, express their agreement and disagreement telling each other about the benefits of buying some food items and other things to be used, their quantity, costs, and so on. The simulated dialogue segments (see section 4.5.4.3.1, on page 296) that demonstrate the [+ prior knowledge] feature, include sentence(s), [c₃ – c₇], [c₁₈], and [d₇], respectively.

Finally, TDSs of Task four predominantly illustrate the [+ single task] feature except in few cases, for instance, where participant(s) make use of other sources to get information hence exhibiting the [- single task] feature. The TDSs that exemplify the [+ single task] feature, include, TDSs (b) One of your classmates informs you and your classmates about the rules regarding food and other related items from outside the zoo, such as the law against feeding animals and so forth, and TDS (d) Considering the amount of money available, some of your classmates, express their agreement and disagreement telling each other about the benefits of buying some food items and other things to be used, their quantity, costs, and so on. The simulated dialogue segments (see section 4.5.4.3.1, on page 296) that demonstrate the [+ single task] feature, include sentence(s), [b₁ – b₄], and [d₃ – d₅], respectively.

In general, from the above analysis, it is evident that TDSs for Task four, as whole demonstrate considerable cognitive complexity features in both resource-directing and resource-dispersing dimensions, as summarised in Table 4:23 below.
Table 4:23: Summary of TDSs of cognitively complex features for Task four

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource-directing</th>
<th>Resource-dispersing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- few elements: TDS(b), (d) &amp; (e)</td>
<td>+/- planning time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- no reasoning: TDS (b), (d) &amp; (e)</td>
<td>+ prior knowledge: Almost all TDSs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- here-and-now: TDS (b), (c), (d) &amp; (e)</td>
<td>+ single task: Almost all TDSs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thus, like in Task one and Task two, it can be concluded that TDSs for Task four predominantly illustrate features that are categorised in quadrant [3] of Robinson’s (2005:8) Triadic Componential Framework, summarised as Table 3:15, on page 203. This suggests that Task four, on one hand, demonstrates low performative complexity, and on the other hand, high developmental complexity.

4.5.4.2.1. Pedagogical task versions of Task four in terms of cognitive complexity

In relation to Robinson’s (2001a: 31, 2010: 246) views, the features identified above of Task four, as summarised in Table 4:23 can be considered as complex for beginner L2 Kiswahili learners. This is because, like Task one, the TDSs for Task four exhibit the [-] features on its resource-directing dimensions only. Thus, in order to scale down the complexity of the TDSs, from the complex version given above, for grading and sequencing purposes, it is necessary to manipulate the resource-directing features of Task four.

4.5.4.2.1.1. Pedagogical task two of Task four

Thus, the decomplexification for TDSs of Task four as formulated in Table 4:23, on page 289 (refer also to section 4.4.2, on page 433, in Appendix (A-i)), involves manipulating through techniques of omission in conjunction with the altering some parts of its TDSs, as illustrated in the paragraphs below.

Regarding the [-few elements] feature, for the purpose of designing less (second) complex version from the most complex version of Task four, the omission technique can be employed. TDS (b) can completely be omitted. This can be done because, as a whole, TDS (b) One of you classmates informs you and your classmates about the rules regarding food and other related items from outside into the zoo, such as the law against feeding animals and so forth., exhibits narrations that predominantly demonstrate optional elements which can be considered as completely non-essential to the broad thematic topic for Task four. In addition, like TDS (b), some elements of TDS (e) Finally, while some of your classmates volunteer and inform you and others about their intentions and personal interests to go to the market, some other classmates discuss about entering the zoo, getting a zoo guide and the benefits of guides to the animals and tourists, exhibit optional elements as those expressed in TDS (b) above. The optional elements that can be omitted from TDS (e) are
those that occur in narrations with reference to, for example, third person and expressions of elements that are non-specific in the thematic topic of Task four. Thus, the modified TDS (e) can be illustrated as; TDS (e) *Mwisho, [...] baadhi ya wanafunzi wenzako wanajitolea [...] waende sokoni [...].* [Finally, [...] some of your classmates volunteer [...] to go to the market [...]}. With the omission of an optional TDS, i.e. TDS (b) and some optional elements from TDS (e), respectively, then, it can be concluded that the remaining few elements in TDS (e) can be considered to be systematically related to the thematic topic of Task four and to the other remaining elements within the task description of Task four.

In order to design the second version of Task four with regard to the [- no reasoning] feature, it is possible to manipulate TDS (b) *One of you classmates, informs you and your classmates about the rules regarding food and other related items from outside into the zoo, such as the law against feeding animals and so forth.,* by completely omitting it as a whole. This can be done because in TDS (b), the reasoning expressions are predominantly in narrations that make reference to, for example, elements that are non-specified in reflecting the core task description of Task four or its thematic topic.

Furthermore, TDS (d) *Considering the amount of money available, some of your classmates, express their agreement and disagreement telling each other about the benefits of buying some food items and other things to be used, their quantity, costs, and so on.,* can be manipulated, for example, by omitting and altering reasoning narrations that illustrate recursive and abstract expressions. Therefore, the modified TDS (d) is formulated as follows, TDS (d) * [...] wanafunzi wenzako [...] ‘wanaambizana’ faida za kununua baadhi ya vyakula [...]]. [...] your classmates [...] ‘tell’ [...] each other [...] the benefits of buying some food items [...].*

In relation to the [-here-and-now] feature, for the purpose of designing a less complex version from the highly complex version of Task four, TDS (b) can be completely omitted. This manipulation is in order because TDS (b) *One of you classmates informs you and your classmates about the rules regarding food and other related items from outside into the zoo, such as the law against feeding animals and so forth.,* predominantly exhibits optional features, for example, the non-constitutive expressions are non-essential to the broad thematic topic of Task four.

In addition, TDS (c) *While she explains to you and your classmates these rules, your teacher and other classmates of yours have a discussion about your lunch.,* can be manipulated by omitting and modifying some of its parts. The parts that can be considered for omission are, for example, expressions that are non-essential to the broad thematic topic of Task four. Similarly, the alteration
technique can be employed to modify, for example, nouns into verbs. Thus, the modified TDS (c) can be formulated as follows. TDS (c) [...] mwalimu wenu na wanafunzi wengine wanajadiliana kuhusu chakula cha mchana kwa ujunla. [...] your teacher and other classmates of yours ‘are discussing’ about your lunch in general.

From the above analysis, it is evident that the after manipulation of some features, as a whole, this task description is as summarised in Table 4:24, on page 291.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource-directing</th>
<th>Resource-dispersing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- few elements: TDS (d) &amp; (e)$_{mod_2}$</td>
<td>+/- planning time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- no reasoning: TDS (d)$_{mod_2}$ &amp; (e)</td>
<td>+ prior knowledge: Almost all TDSs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- here-and-now: TDS (c)$_{mod_2}$, (d) &amp; (e)</td>
<td>+ single task: Almost all TDSs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.5.4.2.1.2. Pedagogical task one of Task four

Similarly, regarding [- few elements] in designing a less complex (first) version from the second version of Task four, the omission technique can be employed in the manipulation of optional elements in the remaining TDS, i.e., TDS (d) Considering the amount of money available, some of your classmates, express their agreement and disagreement telling each other about the benefits of buying some food items and other things to be used, their quantity, costs, and so on. It is evident that TDS (d) exhibits many elements hence, demonstrating the [- few elements]. Thus, the optional elements that can be omitted are those, for example, elements which are recursively narrated. Therefore, the modified TDS (d) of Task four, can be as follow. TDS (d) Kwa kuzingatia kiasi cha fedha kilichopo, baadhi ya wanafunzi wenzako wanaonyesha [...] faida za kununua baadhi ya vyakula na [...] kiasi [...]. [Considering the amount of money available, some of your classmates, express [...] the benefits of buying some food items and [...] their quantity [...]].

Thus, it can be realised that the remaining elements in TDS (d) can be obligatory and are systematically corresponding to the thematic topic of Task four, hence exhibiting [+ few elements] feature. Therefore, as a whole, it can be concluded that TDSs (d) and (e) exemplify obligatory elements of TDS for Task four. The analysis also suggests that the above TDSs illustrate the [+ few elements] feature of Task four, as summarised, in Table 4:25 on page 293.

Similarly, in designing the first version of Task four, it is possible to manipulate reasoning elements in TDS (e) Finally, while some of your classmates volunteer and inform you and others about their
intentions and personal interests to go to the market, some other classmates discuss about entering the zoo, getting a zoo guide and the benefits of guides to the animals and tourists. The manipulation can be by omitting reasoning features that predominantly, occur in narrations that make reference to, for example, non-specified narrations that can be considered as ancillary in reflecting the core task description or the thematic topic of Task four. Thus, the modified TDS (e), can be as follows, TDS (e) [...] wanafunzi wenzako wanajitolea [...] ‘kwenda’ sokoni [...]. [...] your classmates volunteer [...] to go to the market [...]]

In light of the above examples, it can be concluded that as various narration that exhibits reasoning features have been omitted and modified, it is evident that TDSs of Task four demonstrate few reasoning elements, hence exemplifying the [+ no reasoning] feature, as illustrated in Table 4:25, on page 293.

In order to design the first version of Task four with regard to [- here-and-now] feature, in relation to TDS (d) Considering the amount of money available, some of your classmates, express their agreement and disagreement telling each other about the benefits of buying some food items and other things to be used, their quantity, costs, and so on., it is possible to manipulate TDS (d) by omission in conjunction with alteration techniques. For example, the repeated expressions can be considered as optional hence, being omitted for TDS (d). Similarly, modifying some of the parts of TDS (d) can be done, for example, in noun expressions into verb aspects. Thus, the modified TDS (d) is formulated as follows, TDS (d) [...] baadhi ya wanafunzi wenzako ‘wanaambizana’ faida za kununua baadhi ya vyakula [...]. [...] some of your classmates […] ‘are telling’ each other […] the benefits of buying some food items […]

Regarding TDS (e) Finally, while some of your classmates volunteer and inform you and others about their intentions and personal interests to go to the market, some other classmates discuss about entering the zoo, getting a zoo guide and the benefits of guides to the animals and tourists., it is possible to manipulate it by both omission and alteration techniques. For example, omission techniques can be used in expressions that are non-essential to the broad thematic topic of Task four. Similarly, the alteration technique can be used in modifying, for example, nouns into verbs. Thus, the modified TDS (e) is formulated as follows, TDS (e) Mwisho, [...] baadhi ya wanafunzi wenzako wanajitolea [...] ‘kwenda’ sokoni [...]. [Finally, […] some of your classmates ‘are volunteering’ […] to go to the market […].]
From the above analysis, it is evident that the [-here-and-now] features have been modified, hence, as a whole, this task description predominantly exhibits the [+ here-and-now] features, as summarised in Table 4:25.

Table 4:25: Summary of pedagogical versions of Task four

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource-directing</th>
<th>Resource-dispersing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>+ few elements: TDS ((d)<em>{mod_1} &amp; (e)</em>{mod_2})</td>
<td>+/- planning time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+ no reasoning: TDS ((d)<em>{mod_2} &amp; (e)</em>{mod_1})</td>
<td>+ prior knowledge: Almost all TDSs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+ here-and-now: TDS ((c)<em>{mod_2}, (d)</em>{mod_1} &amp; (e)_{mod_1})</td>
<td>+ single task: Almost all TDSs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In general, the above task versions, are summarised as shown in Table 4:26 below.

Table 4:26: Showing progressively more cognitive complexity of Task four in three task versions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task version one</th>
<th>Resource-directing</th>
<th>Resource-dispersing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>+ few elements: TDS ((d)<em>{mod_1} &amp; (e)</em>{mod_2})</td>
<td>+/- planning time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>+ no reasoning: TDS ((d)<em>{mod_2} &amp; (e)</em>{mod_1})</td>
<td>+ prior knowledge: Almost all TDSs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>+ here-and-now: TDS ((c)<em>{mod_2}, (d)</em>{mod_1} &amp; (e)_{mod_1})</td>
<td>+ single task: Almost all TDSs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task version two</th>
<th>Resource-directing</th>
<th>Resource-dispersing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- few elements: TDS ((d) &amp; (e)_{mod_2})</td>
<td>+/- planning time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- no reasoning: TDS ((d)_{mod_2} &amp; (e))</td>
<td>+ prior knowledge: Almost all TDSs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- here-and-now: TDS ((c)_{mod_2}, (d) &amp; (e))</td>
<td>+ single task: Almost all TDSs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task version three</th>
<th>Resource-directing</th>
<th>Resource-dispersing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- few elements: TDS ((b), (d) &amp; (e))</td>
<td>+/- planning time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- no reasoning: TDS ((b), (d) &amp; (e))</td>
<td>+ prior knowledge: Almost all TDSs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- here-and-now: TDS ((b), (c), (d) &amp; (e))</td>
<td>+ single task: Almost all TDSs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.5.4.2.1.2.1. Sequencing of pedagogical tasks for Kiswahili learners

In relation to the sequencing of pedagogical tasks, Robinson (2010: 525) argues that the first version(s) of pedagogical tasks need to be simple in all dimensions. For example, like Task one, Task three and Task four above, considering version one of the TDSs of Task four, as shown in Table 4:26, on page 293, Table five, with regard to the resource-dispersing dimensions, version one exhibits mainly the [+] features across the dimension. Thus, for learners to perform this task about plans to purchase food items with ease, they are required in the pedagogical context to be provided with sufficient time to plan for the performance. Hence the [+planning time] feature is introduced. In addition, task version one requires Kiswahili novice learners to be equipped with adequate information about the information involved in the purchase of food items [+ prior knowledge].
Lastly, in task version one, learners are expected to perform not more than one task at a time, hence demonstrating the [+ single task] feature.

Like the resource-dispersing dimension, in task version one, all the variables exhibit [+ ] features, hence observing Robinson’s (2010: 525) views that all the least complex task versions need to be simple in all dimensions. Therefore, with respect to the [+ few elements] features, in performing task version one, Kiswahili learners are required to demonstrate proficiency of Kiswahili producing narrations concerning few things or ideas such as the amount of money available for purchasing food items, and the quantity of food items to be bought. Regarding the [+ no reasoning] feature, task version one expects learners to exemplify their Kiswahili commands in narrating expressions about, for example, the costs involved in the purchase of food items without incorporating reasoning elements in them. Lastly, with respect to the [+ here-and-now] feature, this task version requires Kiswahili learners to demonstrate the expressions of events that are happening in the present time and in a shared context. Thus, production of learners includes telling each other about the benefits of buying some food items, as illustrated in TDS (d)\textsuperscript{mod1}.

In order to increase cognitive complexity from version one to version two with regard to the sequencing of pedagogical versions of Task four, attention is first given to resource-dispersing parameters before considering the resource-directing variables. In this regard, like the resource-dispersing features of the task version one, the resource-dispersing variables of task version two exhibit [+ ] features. Therefore, for learners to perform this task version, sufficient time [+ planning time] must be provided to them in the actual pedagogical context so that they can plan, perform and complete the task at a less cognitively complex level. Regarding the [+ prior knowledge] feature, to perform this task, Kiswahili learners are expected to possess sufficient information about, for example, their lunch and other items that are needed during lunch preparation, as illustrated in TDS (c) and (d), respectively. Lastly, considering the [+ single task] feature, in task version two, Kiswahili learners are required to perform only one task at a time, for instance, informing others about the rules regarding taking food and other related items from outside into the zoo, as exemplified in TDS (b).

Taking into account the resource-directing of version two of TDSs of Task four, it is evident that this dimension is more complex than the resource-directing dimension of task version one. This is attributed to the occurrence of the [- ] feature in both the modified and unmodified TDSs of version two which realise cognitive complexity. The [- few elements] feature in this task version requires Kiswahili learners to narrate expressions with more items (than those in the previous version) incorporated in them. To perform task version two, compared to the task version one, Kiswahili
learners are expected to demonstrate their proficiency in producing, for example, narrations about their intentions and personal interests to go to the market, getting a zoo guide and the benefits of guides to the animals and tourists as illustrated in TDS (e)\textsuperscript{mod2} which illustrates the [- few elements] features. Furthermore, regarding the [- no reasoning] feature, to perform this task version, learners are required to exemplify Kiswahili proficiency in explaining about the benefits of buying some food items as illustrated in TDS (d)\textsuperscript{mod2} while incorporating reasoning features, hence exemplifying the [- no reasoning] feature. Lastly, considering the [- here-and-now] feature of task version two, in performing version two, Kiswahili learners are expected to illustrate proficiency in narrating events that are happening elsewhere in an unshared context which depict the [- here-and-now] task feature.

Compared with the task version one and two of Task four, this task version three is the most cognitively complex. This can be attributed to the occurrence of unmodified TDSs of the resource-directing dimension features. Other than the [+ prior knowledge] and [+ single task] features which are present, in task version three, the [+/- planning time] is absent, hence exhibiting the most cognitive complexity towards learners who are to perform it. In relation to the [- planning time], learners are required to perform task version three in the pedagogical context without being given time for planning and preparation. In this case, Kiswahili learners are required to complete performing this task version within the prescribed timeframe as provided by the Kiswahili teacher. In addition, with respect to the [+ prior knowledge] feature, before performing task version three, Kiswahili learners are required to have all the relevant information about the food for lunch. Possessing such information allows Kiswahili learners less cognitive demands in performing task version three. Lastly, considering the [+ single task] features are illustrated in resource-dispersing dimension, this task feature requires Kiswahili learners to perform one task only at a time. The occurrence of the [+ single task] feature provides room for learners to perform this task version sufficiently.

In relation to the [- few elements] feature of resource-directing dimension, to perform task version three, Kiswahili learners are required to demonstrate a more advanced (compared to version two) Kiswahili proficiency in narrations, for example, about the benefits of buying some food items and other items to be used, their quantity, costs, and so on, as illustrated in TDS (d), hence exhibiting the [- few elements]. Furthermore, regarding the [- no reasoning] feature for task version three, compared to version two, task version three requires learners to illustrate more advanced Kiswahili proficiency in giving views about agreeing and disagreeing on the benefits of buying some food items as exemplified in TDS (d), which incorporate reasoning elements hence exhibiting the [- no reasoning] feature. Lastly, considering the [- here-and-now] feature, to perform this task version,
unlike version one and two of Task four, learners are expected in version three to demonstrate proficiency in using Kiswahili in explaining the rules regarding food and other related items from outside into the zoo, such as the law against feeding animals and so forth. Such an expression expects learners to demonstrate the use of present tense, hence, exhibiting the [here-and-now] feature.

4.5.4.3. Syntactic complexity for Task four

This section presents the simulated dialogues for Task four as exhibited in section 4.5.4.3.1, on page 296. Then the syntactic complexity analysis of the simulated task dialogue is done (see section 4.5.4.3.2, on page 300). Thereafter, the subsequent sub-sections illustrate the construction of linguistically less complex dialogues (version two and version one) as learning tasks from the most syntactically complex dialogues (version three). Like in Task one and Task two, the construction is realised through the manipulation of only resource-directing features, as demonstrated in section 4.5.4.4.1 and section 4.5.4.4.2, on pages 302 and 303, respectively.

4.5.4.3.1. Simulated task dialogue for Task four

\[ Nkya: \] \[ b \] \[ b_1 \] Jamani mnakumbuka kuwa | kwenye bustani za wanyama hawaruhusu \[ \text{HAB. PRES. NEG} \] vyakula kutoka nje \[ b_2 \] Na vilevile hawaruhusu \[ \text{HAB. PRES. NEG} \] kuwalisha \[ \text{INF} \] wanyama \[ b_3 \] Endapo utakutwa unamlisha mnyama \[ \text{IND. PRES} \] unachukuliwa hatua \[ b_4 \] Hii yote inatokana na kijana mmoja \[ \text{IND. PT} \] nyani ndizi na nyani akaugua na hatimaye \[ \text{HAB. PRES} \] kufa \[ b_5 \] Kwa maana hiyo, \[ \text{IND. FUT} \] endapo tutashinda huku leo? \[ c \] \[ c_1 \] Kwani tunashinda \[ \text{IND. PRES} \] huku leo? \[ c_2 \] Kwanini tusirudi \[ \text{IND. PRES. NEG} \] hotelini \[ \text{SBJV} \] wakati wa muda wa chakula cha mchana kwa ujumla na baada ya chakula \[ \text{IND. FUT} \] kama kutakuwa na haja ya kuvuka \[ \text{INF} \] turudi \[ \text{SBJV} \] tuendelee \[ \text{INF} \] bustani \[ \text{IND. PRES} \] na kuitembelea \[ \text{INF} \] bustani \\
\[ Lembo: \] \[ c \] \[ c_1 \] But do we spend the whole day here today? \[ c_2 \] Why shouldn’t we return to the hotel during lunch time and if we spend the whole day here today?
Sajile: Nkya, you have said it well. In fact, I had forgotten that they don’t allow food from outside the zoo. In addition, brother Lembo, once you have entered the zoo, you are not allowed to exit and re-enter into it unless you pay again and stand in queue for second time. But the good thing with supervisors of this zoo is that if you come with your food, they give you a place where you can cook from, which is far from animals. The problem of cooking food here is that they don’t allow using firewood due to smoke, which can affect animals.

Majolo: Basi kama ndiyo hivyo hadi pale kwenye mchepuko wa barabara ya Lugard kuna sehemu ambayo tunaweza kununua vyakula na tukaja hapa: kama alivyosema Sajile:

Majolo: If that is the case, let us go back up to the exit of Lugard road, I have seen a place where we can buy food and return here to cook as it has been suggested by Sajile.

Kaganda Mkubwa: Ila sasa kama wamesema hatuwezi kutumia nini? Hapa kwenye bustani naona ni pori kubwa ambapo tungeweza kupata kuni kwa urahisi. Ila kama ndiyo hivyo basi twendeni sokoni kama alivyosema Majolo

Kaganda Mkubwa: But if they say we can’t use firewood, what shall we use? Here at the zoo, I can see it is a big forest, where we could easily collect firewood. But if that is the case, let us go to the market as Majolo said.

Ndunamiwe: Are we going back from where we came from! Why don’t we just draw a list of items we need to buy and then send the driver and about three other people to buy them while some
of us stand in queue to enter the zoo because as we waste time here the queue becomes longer and longer.

Kokubanza: Shosti leo umeongea pointi ya ukweli | Makubwaa

Kokubanza: Buddy, you have given a strong point today. Makubwaa

Wanafunzi: Madogo yana nafuu!

Learners: The less, the better!

Mwalimu Peta: Okay, come and propose what to buy but they should not cost more than one hundred thousand UGX because the money we have been given by school management is about to get finished.

Kalunga: Mwalimu, mimi naporongezwa tununue nusu guna la mkaa, mafuta ya kula, mafuta ya ta, kibiriti, masufuria kama manne, viti vya kukalia, visu, mchere kama kilo kumi, ndizi mbivu na mbichi, nyanya kama kilo, vitunguu kama kilo, chumvi kipaketi kimoja, binzali, viazi vitamuru na viazi mviringo]

Kalunga: Teacher, I propose we buy a half bag of charcoal, cooking oil, kerosene, matchbox, about four pots, chairs, knives, about ten kilograms of rice, green and ripe bananas, about one kilogram of tomatoes, about one kilogram of onions, one small packet of salt, and sweet and Irish potatoes]

Msella: Kalunga ulimsikia mwalimu aliyosema | Kasema | hela aliyopewa na mhasibu wa shule : haitsi : Tukiwa tunapendekeza tununue | nusu guna la mkaa, mafuta ya kula, mafuta ya ta, kibiriti, masufuria kama manne, viti vya kukalia, visu, mchere kama kilo kumi, ndizi mbivu na mbichi, nyanya kama kilo, vitunguu kama kilo, chumvi kipaketi kimoja, binzali, viazi vitamuru na viazi mviringo]

Msella: Kalunga did you hear what the teacher said? She said the money she had been given by the school bursar is not enough. So when we propose things to buy we must also consider the issue of money. For instance, what is the use of chairs while we have just come on a visit? Besides we are in the forest, we can sit on the grass or if you need fresh air you can climb and sit on the tree if it is allowed.

Nantume: Hata kwenye upande wa mafuta ya kula | tununue mafuta ya hapa nyumbani | najua garama zake za chinii | sio kama mafuta yatokayo nje ya nchi | Pili, suala la masufuria | kama ni garama pia | Kwanini tusikodise mafuta ya kula | na baada ya kutumia | tukawarudisha? | Pia,
kama tutumia(IND. FUT) mkaa || | Kalunga hujataja(IND. PRES. NEG) jiko || au majiko hatustahili(IND. PRES. NEG) kununanua(INF) ?]

**Nantume:** d₆ It is true. d₇ Even regarding cooking oil, let us buy local one, I know its price will be cheaper than imported ones. d₈ Also, regarding pots, I see it’s also costly. d₉ Why don’t we just hire them? d₁₀ Again, if we will use charcoal, Kalunga you have not mentioned cookers, are we not supposed to buy them?

**Wanyama:** d₁₁ | Kweli Nantume hapo umenena(IND. PRES) | d₁₂ Pia kwenye suala la masufuria | naona(IND. PRES) kama ni mengi || | ila kwasababu tunapika(IND. PRES) vyakula vya aina tatu || | naona(IND. PRES) tunaweza(IND. PRES) tukayanuua(IND. PRES) | | ili tukimaliza(IND. PRES) kuyapikaia(INF) || | tunaweza(SBJV) tukurudi(IND. PRES) nayo shuleni || | iliyatumwe(IND. PRES) shuleni | | || kuliko kukodisha(INF) kwa gharama | | halafu yote tukayaacha(IND. PRES) | d₁₃ | Suala la viti namimi sikubaliani(IND. PRES. NEG) nalo pia | d₁₄ || Kama kuna mtu atachoka(IND. FUT) kutembea(INF) || | anaweza(IND. PRES) akarudi(IND. PRES) kwenye gari | | na kukaa(INF) | | bahati nzuri gari linaruhusiwa(HAB. PRES) kuininga(INF) getini ||

**Wanyama:** d₁₁ It’s true Nantume, you have said well. d₁₂ In addition, regarding pots, I think they are too much but because we are cooking three different types of food, we can buy them and after we finish using them we can take them to school so that they are used there rather than renting for less costly than leaving them behind afterwards. d₁₃ Regarding chairs, I also don’t agree with it. d₁₄ If someone will get tired, he/she can return to the bus and sit there. Fortunately, the bus is allowed to enter the gate]

**Aimbora:** e₁[ e₁ || Jamani ngingependa(SBJV) niwe(INF) miongoni || | mwa watu watakoenda(IND. FUT) kununanua(INF) vitu vya kupika(INF) ||

**Aimbora:** e₁[ e₁ Guys, I would like to be among those who will go to buy things to be cooked.

**Kayobora:** e₂ Twende(IND. PRES) wote | | na mimi nataka(IND. PRES) nione kama nitapa(SBJV) jezi ya Arsenal || || kwasababu zile nilizoziona(IND.PT) uwanja wa ndege na Kitoro || | zilikiwa gharama sana } e₃ | Angalau hapa tupo nje kidogo ya mji | angalau naweza(IND. PRES) nikapata(IND. PRES) ya bei ya chini | e₄ | Vilevile, jezi za kule zilikiwa(IND. PT) nyekundu na nyeupe |, | mimi ngingependa(SBJV) jezi mpya | {ambayo rangi yake ni nyeusi} || | kama ile waliyovya(IND. PT) juzi || e₅ | Nyeupe zinafubaa(HAB. PRES) haraka | kutokana(INF) na sababu au maji yetu, || ila endapo nitapata(IND. FUT) nyeusi || | inakuwa(INF) ngumu kuitambua(HAB. PRES) kama imefubaa |

**Kayobora:** e₂ Let’s go together, I want to see if I can get an Arsenal jersey because those I have seen at the airport and Kitoro were very expensive. e₃ Where we are a little bit outside town, I can at least be able to get a cheaper one. e₄ Also, jerseys on that side were red and white colours, I would like
new jerseys, which are black like the ones donned by those guys. White jerseys fade fast due to types of soaps or water used to wash but if I get a black jersey, it is difficult to notice if it is dull.

**Chipoli:** Basi kama wale wameenda sokoni || sisi wengine twendeni takapande foleni || iliyweze kabla wanyama hawajarudi kwenye maficho yao || baada ya kutoa kajua la asubuhi | 0774412968

**Chipoli:** Then, if those ones have gone to the market, let’s go to stand on queue so that we can enter before animals return to their hideouts after morning sunrise.

**Silagomi:** Tukishaingia: tumeambiwa tumtafute mhusika mmoja || ili atutembeze wao wanajua mchana | na wengine kama nyani {ambao wanaonekana asubuhi }, | wengine wanaoneka mchana | na wanyama | {ambao wanaonekana} baada ya kuota kajua la asubuhi | 0774412968

**Silagomi:** After we have entered we are told to look for the responsible person who will take us around the zoo, I hear they know which animals are in which areas, at what times. We will spend the whole day because I hear there are animals who are seen in the morning, others during the afternoon, and some, such as monkeys are visible all the time. Therefore, in order that we see all animals we must look for a guide but if we say let us just follow the roads inside here, we might walk the whole day without seeing animals we want to see.

**Kaganda Mkubwa:** Nimesoma kwenye intaneti na nimeona || watalii wengi wanapendekeza tumpate mwangalizi wa hapa hapa | ili waweze kutuelekeza kwa wanyama wa hapa hali nzuri | kwasababu wao wanyama wa hapa hali nzuri | kwasababu wanahudumia ipasavyo | na hawa waangalizi pamoja na walezi wa wanyama wenyewe. Vilevile wanaonesha ya kwamba tukiwa na walezi wenyewe, | wataweza kutufahamisha ni mnyama gani yuko wapi muda upi

**Kaganda Mkubwa:** I have read on the internet and have seen many tourists recommending to get guides from inside the zoo who can direct us because they have experiences of the animals of the zoo. Many people say animals in this zoo are in good condition because they are very well taken care of by the zoo attendants and animal keepers. Also, they show that when we are accompanied by the zookeepers, they are able to tell us where and when certain animals are

4.5.4.3.2. An analysis of the syntactic complexity of Task four
TDS 4.4.2 of Task four, as exhibited in its associated task dialogue 4.4.2, predominantly illustrates complex syntactic sentences. This is evident in several complex sentences that realise cognitive complexity features in the dialogue representing the most complex version, version three, of target language proficiency in Kiswahili. For example, compared to Task one, this dialogue has more monoclausal sentences than Task one. These include sentence \([b_2, c_1, c_3, c_{14}, d_1, d_6, d_{11} & d_{15}]\). In these sentences, there are occurrences of either lexical verb form or auxiliary and lexical form verb in a single sentence, hence the realising syntactically complex sentences. For example, in sentence \([d_1]\), syntactic complexity is realised by the occurrence of indicative past tense lexical verb form \textit{ulimsikia} and another indicative past tense lexical verb form \textit{alivyo sema}, hence realising the \([-\text{here-and-now}]\) feature of cognitive complexity.

In addition, in this task dialogue segment, there is an illustration of the occurrence of sentences with a single independent clause and its associated dependent clause in a single complex sentence. Examples of such sentences include sentence \([b_1, b_3, c_4, c_9, d_3, e_1, & e_{12}]\). In such sentences, the syntactic complexity is mostly demonstrated, for example, in expressions that refer to several things in a single clause, hence realising the \([-\text{few elements}]\) feature of cognitive complexity. For example, sentence \([e_{12}]\), indicative future tense lexical verb form \textit{wataweza} and an infinitive lexical verb form \textit{kutufahamisha} of the main clause, describe nouns that occur in both the independent and dependent clause. Thus, this sentence exemplifies the content of the learner, Kaganda Mkubwa, narrating to fellow students and her teacher about what the internet shows on the advantages of having a zoo guide in relation to directing them (learners) to the appropriate place at the appropriate time to see particular animals. Thus, narrating all these things at once results in such sentences exhibiting the \([-\text{few elements}]\) features of cognitive complexity. In this dialogue segment, other sentences that realise the \([-\text{few elements}]\), include sentence \([b_5, c_6, c_8, c_{10}, c_{11}, c_{17}, d_2, d_7, e_2, e_4 & e_8]\), respectively.

In addition, in this dialogue segment, a sentence such as \([c_7]\), illustrates the occurrence of two coordinated main clauses and an associated dependent clause. In this sentence, the conjunction \textit{kwasababu} coordinates the two independent clauses. One main clause has a negative habitual present tense lexical verb form \textit{hawaruhusu}, while the other independent clause demonstrates the occurrence a subjunctive auxiliary verb form \textit{unaweza} which is preceded by a habitual present tense lexical verb form \textit{ukawaathiri}, and the only dependant clause in sentence \([c_7]\), is realised by an infinitive lexical verb form \textit{kupika}. In this sentence, the conjunction \textit{kwasababu} that coordinates the two independent clauses exhibit features of causal reasoning describing the infinitive lexical verb form \textit{kupika} and negative habitual present tense lexical verb form \textit{hawaruhusu}, as they occur in
their respective clauses, hence realising the [- no reasoning] feature of cognitive complexity. Similar cases with reasoning elements occur in sentences such as \([c_{13}, c_{17}, e_8, e_{10} \& e_{11}]\).

Therefore, considering the analysis of dialogue segment given above, it is evident sentences in this dialogue segment is syntactically complex realising cognitively complex feature, as summarised in Table 4:23, on page 289 and as task version three in Table 4:26 on page 293. Thus, this dialogue version benchmarks the most advanced level of Kiswahili proficiency expected in the performance of Task four. Therefore, to construct the syntactically less complex dialogues for learning task versions, version two and version one, from the most syntactically complex task version three, it is necessary to manipulate some of the complex sentences of version three to yield their respective dialogues, as will be demonstrated in the next section.

4.5.4.4. Pedagogical task versions of Task four in terms of syntactic complexity

To produce a syntactically less complex pedagogical task version, version two, representing a level of communicative adequacy which is syntactically less complex than the syntactic complex associated with communicative proficiency for task version three, as shown in Table 4:23, on page 289. Like Task one and Task two, this task also requires manipulating resource-directing features only.

4.5.4.4.1. Pedagogical task version two of Task four

Thus, in relation to resource-directing dimension as regard to the construction of the dialogues associated with the syntactically less complex task version, version two, from the most syntactically task version three, it is necessary to apply the omission as well as alteration techniques to manipulate the [- few elements] feature that realise sentences in simulated task dialogue (b), (d) and (e). For example, in this task version, it is in order to omit all sentences that are realised in the dialogue segments (b), that demonstrate most syntactically sentences, realising the most cognitively complex feature of the [- few elements] variable. For example, sentences \([b_1 \quad b_4]\), can all be omitted because their content is non-essential to the broad thematic topic of task four in general. Thus, their omission does not affect the intended meaning of this task, as it is realised in the remaining dialogue segment, (d) and \((e)^{mod_2}\), hence realising relatively less syntactically complex sentences exemplifying relatively less cognitively complex features of the [- few elements] variable, as summarised in task version two in Table 4:26 page 293.

Considering the realisation of less syntactically complex task version two with respect to the [- no reasoning] feature of task version three, there is a necessity to manipulate the simulated task
dialogue segment (b), (d) and (e). In this regard, for example, it is necessary to completely omit some clauses with reasoning elements as they occur in sentences of dialogue segment (b). For example, in sentence \( b_3 \) the occurrence of conjunctions with reasoning elements such as *endapo*, as it occurs in a dependent clause with an indicative future tense verb form *utakutwa*, followed by indicative present tense verb form *unamlisha* respectively, qualifies this sentence to be omitted. The omission is in order because these sentences not only increase the syntactic complexity in the dialogue segment (d), also sentence \( b_3 \) is non-essential to the broad thematic topic of Task four, hence by omitting such this sentence, results the remaining task dialogue segments such as \( (b)^{mod_2}, (d)^{mod_2} \), and (e), to exhibit relatively less syntactically complex sentences exemplifying relatively less cognitively complex feature of the [- no reasoning] variable of task version two, as partly summarised in Table 4:26 on page 293.

In regard to the construction of the syntactically less complex version, version two in relation to the [- here-and-now] feature of task version three, it is in order to manipulate some clauses as they occur in dialogue segment (b). For example, in sentence \( b_5 \), it is necessary to modify the indicative future tense lexical verb form *tutashinda*, exemplifying [- here-and-now] feature to result into *tunashinda*, which exhibits the [+ here-and-now] feature. In addition, it is also in order to completely omit the remaining clauses of sentence \( b_5 \), that occur after a relativiser *ambacho*. Hence results in the remaining clauses in sentence \( b_5 \), to exhibit sentences that illustrate relatively less syntactically complex sentences representing a less cognitive complex feature of the [- here-and-now] variable of task version two, as summarised in task version two demonstrated in Table 4:26 on page 293.

4.5.4.4.2. Pedagogical task version one of Task four

In relation to resource-directing dimensions with respect to the construction of the dialogues associated with the syntactically least complex task version, version one, from the less syntactically task version two, it is necessary to manipulate sentences which demonstrate the [- few elements] features. For example, in the simulated task dialogue of segment (d), there are sentences such as \( h_{13} \) and \( h_{14} \) that can be omitted to realise a syntactically least complex version of task one which results to demonstrate relatively syntactic least complex sentences exemplifying relatively least cognitive complex features of the [- few elements] variables. For example, in sentence \( d_{13} \), the learner, Wanyama narrates several ideas that are non-essential to the broad thematic topic of task four. For example, the indicative present tense negative lexical verb for *sikubaliani* as it occurs monoclusal sentence \( d_{13} \), qualifies a subject noun *viti* occurring in the same monoclusal sentences. Therefore, the omission of sentence \( d_{13} \), does not directly affect the intended meaning of Task four, hence
results to dialogue segment \((d)^{mod_1}\), which exhibit relatively least syntactically sentences, demonstrating the least cognitively complex feature, summarised as task version one in Table 4:26, on page 293.

In addition, to realise the least task version with regard to the syntactically \([-\text{no reasoning}]\) complex feature from task version two, as they occur in dialogue segments \((d)^{nob_2}\), and \((e)\). It is possible to manipulate some sentences that exhibit the \([-\text{no reasoning}]\). The manipulation is necessary, for example, to omit sentences that occur in simulated dialogues segment \((e)\). For example, the omission can be applied in sentence \([e_2]\). This sentence has several clauses such as independent, dependent and relative clauses. Nevertheless, all these clauses are linked by the intentional reasoning element \textit{kwasababu} which increases the syntactic complexity of in the clauses it connects yet, as a whole, sentence \([e_2]\), is non-essential to the broad thematic topic of Task four. It is evident that after omitting sentence \([e_2]\), the remaining sentences in dialogue segment \((e)\) still hold the intended meaning that is essential to the broad thematic topic of Task four, hence realising syntactically relatively least complexity sentences exemplifying cognitively least relative complexity of the of the \([-\text{no reasoning}]\) feature, as summarised in Table 4:26, on page 293.

Lastly, to construct the syntactically least complex version, task version one, in relation to the \([-\text{here-and-now}]\) feature of task version two, it is necessary to manipulate some parts of dialogue segments \((d)\) and \((e)\). For example, in sentence \([d_1]\), it is in order to modify the indicative past tense lexical verb forms \textit{ulimsikia} and \textit{alivyosema}, as they occur in the monoclausal of sentence \([d_1]\), from the \([-\text{here-and-now}]\) feature to the \([+\text{here-and-now}]\) feature. The modification results the two-indicative past tense lexical verb forms to demonstrate the indicative present tense lexical verb forms \textit{unamsikia} and \textit{anavyosema}, representing the \([+\text{here-and-now}]\) feature, as illustrated in task version one in Table 4:26, on page 293. Hence, realising relatively least syntactically complex sentence exhibiting cognitively least complex feature of the \([+\text{here-and-now}]\) feature. This suggests that, for example, if other sentences in dialogue segment \((d)\), are modified further, this task version, version one can realise the least syntactically complex sentences demonstrating the least cognitive complex features of the \([+\text{here-and-now}]\) of task version one of Task four.

4.5.5. Task five

Task five is about mainly learners discussing different wild animals and their surroundings. The description of Task five is given in section 4.4.4.4, on page 435 of Appendix (A-i), as summarised in Table 4:27, on page 305. In light of the above, below is a table that exemplifies task description specifications (TDSs) for Task five.
Table 4.27: Task description specifications (TDSs) for Task five

(a) Wewe na wanafunzi wenzako mnazunguzunguka ndani ya bustani.

(b) Wakati mmoja wa wanafunzi wenzako anaelezea woga alionao kutokana na nyani anayemfuata, wewe na mwaliimu wenu mnamwelezwa mwanafunzi huyo pamoja na wengine kuhusu familia za nyani kuwa na urafiki na binadamu.

(c) Kisha, mjulishe mwanafunzi huyo kuhusu wanyama hatari kwa binadamu na unazunguzunguka ndani ya bustani.

(d) Pia, wakati mmoja wa wanafunzi wenzako anaelezea jinsi baadhi ya wanyama hawana kutokana na kifaa kikubwa zilikuwa na usiyo wa binadamu.

(e) As one of your classmates expresses her fear by telling you about the monkey that is following her, you and your teacher explain to her and others about the friendliness the monkey families are towards human beings.

(f) Then, you inform her about the harmful animals and explain to her why such animals are kept in isolation.

(g) In addition, as one of your classmate is asking about some animals, some of your classmates agree by discussing the signposts which show the directions where some animals are and the appropriate time for seeing some animals.

(h) As the same classmates express their disagreements by explaining to each other about the distances they can cover to see some animals before other animals, some of your classmates discuss the food, their movements, body sizes, skins and how such animals can be tamed and killed.

(i) One of your classmates recalls a story of killing a hippopotamus in the village, he explains to you and your classmates about the destructions the animal made, how they were killed and how the people benefitted from its meat plus the health effects that came with it.

(j) While one of your classmates calls you to see how giraffe eat, drink and the differences of their body parts compared to other animals, this same learner explains to you the difficulties guides go through to identify if such animals are sick, other classmates of yours explain to each other about why tourists come to Uganda, the reproduction systems and the behaviours mainly of some of the animals that tourists come to see.

(k) Other classmates of yours remind you and others by informing you about the snakes, explain to you and others the way snakes live, their possible sizes, the times intervals and why the snakes come out during such times.

(l) Finally, your teacher informs you and your classmates that she is tired and she requests you and your classmates to distribute chores so that you and your friends may start cooking.
The above TDSs are summarised in Table 4:28, on page 306. The corresponding STDs of TDS for Task five appear on section 4.4.4.4, on page 503, in Appendix (A-ii). In addition, the same STDs are coded in section 4.5.5.3.1, on page 323, as summarised in Table 4:28, on page 306.

Table 4:28: Summary of TDSs for Task five

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TDS Indicators</th>
<th>Task description specifications (TDSs)</th>
<th>Sentence(s) in a dialogue segment(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(b)</td>
<td>Wakati mmoja wa wanafunzi wenzako anaelezea woga alionakwotokana na nyani anayefuata, wewe na mwaliimi wenu mnaweleza mwanafunzi huyo pamoja na wengine kuhusu famili za nyani kuwa na urafiki na binadamu.</td>
<td>$^{[b_1- b_{11}]}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c)</td>
<td>Kisha, unamjulisha mwanafunzi huyo kuhusu wanyama hatari kwa binadamu na unaeleza kwanini wanyama wa aina hiyo watengwa.</td>
<td>$^{[c_1- c_{4}]}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(d)</td>
<td>Pia, wakati mwanafunzi mmoja akiulizia baadhi ya wanyama, baadhi ya wanafunzi wenzako wakubaliana kwa kujadili mabango yanayonesha mwelekeo wa waliko baadhi ya wanyama na muda mwaafka wa kuwaona baadhi ya wanyama.</td>
<td>$^{[d_1- d_{6}]}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(e)</td>
<td>In addition, as one of your classmate is asking about some animals, some of your classmates agree by discussing the signposts which show the directions where some animals are and the appropriate time for seeing some animals.</td>
<td>$^{[e_1- e_{12}]}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(f)</td>
<td>As the same classmates express their disagreements by explaining to each other about the distances they can cover to see some animals before other animals, some of your classmates discuss the food, their movements, body sizes, skins and how such animals can be tamed and killed.</td>
<td>$^{[f_1- f_{13}]}$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

One of your friends recalls a story of killing a hippopotamus in the village, he explains to you and your classmates about the destructions the animal made, how they were killed and how the people benefitted from its meat.
plus the health effects that came with it.

While one of your classmates calls you to see how giraffe eat, drink and the differences of their body parts compared to other animals, this same learner explains to you the difficulties guides go through to identify if such animals are sick, other classmates of yours explain to each other about why tourists come to Uganda, the reproduction systems and the behaviours mainly of some of the animals that tourists come to see.

Other classmates of yours remind you and others by informing you about the snakes, explain to you and others the way snakes live, their possible sizes, the times intervals and why the snakes come out during such times.

Finally, your teacher informs you and your classmates that she is tired and she requests you and your classmates to distribute chores so that you and your friends may start cooking.

Following the above summary, in the next sections, I will analyse the task complexity of TDSs of Task five with regard to its interactional, cognitive and syntactic complexity, respectively.

4.5.5.1. Interactional complexity for Task five

In relation to the interactant (requester-supplier) relationship, TDSs of Task five demonstrate mostly an equal number of configurations for relationships of both independent and mutual request and suppliance of information. TDSs that exhibit independent interactant relationship is mainly in narrations with references to, for example, opening and closing remarks, explanations of past events, the need for others’ attention and subsequent explanations of certain things that the attention is called for. These configurations illustrate that there is a one-way flow of information (X to Y) due to fixed roles hence causing limited interaction among participants. In sum, the above configurations for independent interactant relationship are important in facilitating additional information for task completion.
The TDSs that exhibit independent interactant relationship includes, for example, TDS (b) As one of your classmates expresses her fear by telling you about the monkey that is following her, you and your teacher explain to her and others about the friendliness the monkey families have towards human beings, TDS (f) One of your friends recalls a story of killing a hippopotamus in the village, he explains to you and your classmates about the destructions the animal made, how they were killed and how the people benefitted from its meat plus the health effects that came with it, TDS (g) While one of your classmates calls you to see how giraffe eat, drink and the differences of their body parts compared to other animals, this same learner explains to you the difficulties guides go through to identify if such animals are sick, other classmates of yours explain to each other about why tourists come to Uganda, the reproduction systems, and the behaviours mainly of some of the animals that tourists come to see, and TDS (i) Finally, your teacher informs you and your classmates that she is tired and she requests you and your classmates to distribute chores so that you and your friends may start cooking. The simulated dialogue segments (see section 4.5.5.3.1, on page 296) that exemplify configurations for independent interactant relationship include, sentence(s), $[b_1 - b_2]$, $[f_8 - g_1]$, $[g_3 - g_8]$, $[g_{10} - g_{19}]$ and $[i_1 - i_4]$, respectively.

Regarding the relationship of the mutual request and suppliance of information, TDSs of Task five exemplify configurations of such relationship in expressions related to, for example, exchange of information known to participants, responses to requests, such as narrations involving agreeing or disagreeing on known ideas as participants express personal opinions. The TDSs that exemplify the relationship of mutual request and suppliance of information, include, TDS (d) In addition, as one of your classmates, is asking about some animals, some of your classmates agree by discussing about the signposts which show the directions where some animals are and the appropriate time for seeing some animals, TDS (e) As the same classmates express their disagreements by explaining to each other about the distances they can cover to see some animals before other animals, some of your classmates discuss about the food, their movements, body sizes, skins and how such animals can be tamed and killed, and TDS (h) Other classmates of yours remind you and others by informing you about the snakes, explain to you and others the way snakes live, their possible sizes, the times intervals and why the snakes come out during such times. The simulated dialogue segments that illustrate the configurations of the mutual request and suppliance of information relationship include sentence(s), $[d_{3} - e_1]$, and $[g_6 - g_7]$, respectively.

In light of the above configurations for TDSs of the mutual request-suppliance relationship of information, the TDSs of Task five illustrate that participants are convergently working towards attaining a common goal and outcome. This calls for obligatory interactional requirements that
cause two-way flow (X to Y and Y to X) of information to occur as a result of unfixed roles among participants. Therefore, considering the configurations for both independent and mutual request – suppliance relationships as exemplified in the analysis of TDSs of Task five, it is evident that the TDSs of Task five moderately exhibit configurations of jigsaw task type. This is in reference to configurations, such as information flow (two-way) and interactional requirement [+ required]. The occurrence of distinctive configurations, that is to say, the fixed roles and one-way flow of information due to independent suppliers of information, it can be concluded that TDSs of Task five qualify to be under information gap task type. This is because it is only information gap tasks that demonstrate these distinct configurations, as summarised in Table 4:1, on page 208.

4.5.5.2. Cognitive complexity for Task five

Considering the [+/- few elements] features of resource-directing dimensions, TDSs of Task five, predominantly, exhibit the [- few elements] feature. This is because the TDSs illustrate narrations that express a variety of entities, such as the provision of abstract and concrete information, temporal expressions, past versus shared contexts and experiences, animals and human beings. The TDSs that exemplify the [- few elements] feature, include TDS (b) *As one of your classmates expresses her fear by telling you about the monkey that is following her, you and your teacher explain to her and others about the friendliness the monkey families have towards human beings*, TDS (c) *Then, you inform her about the harmful animals and explain to her why such animals are kept in isolation*, TDS (g) *While one of your classmates calls you to see how giraffe eat, drink and the differences in their body parts compared to other animals, this same learner explains to you the difficulties guides go through to identify if such animals are sick, other classmates of yours explain to each other about why tourists come to Uganda, the reproduction systems and the behaviours mainly of some of the animals that tourists come to see*, TDS (h) *Other classmates of yours remind you and others by informing you about the snakes, explain to you and others the way snakes live, their possible sizes, the times intervals and why the snakes come out during such times*, and TDS (i) *Finally, your teacher informs you and your classmates that she is tired and she requests you and your friends may start cooking*. The corresponding simulated dialogue segments that illustrate the [- few elements] features are in sentence(s), $[^6_{-}^c_3]$, $[^8_{-}^g_8]$ and $[^8_{-}^i_1]$.

With regard to the [+/- no reasoning] feature, TDSs of Task five predominantly exemplify the [- no reasoning] feature. This feature occurs in narrations with reference to, for example, simple explanations of events that exhibit cause-effect relationships, spatial expressions hence exhibiting the [- no reasoning] feature. TDSs that exemplify the [- no reasoning] feature, include, TDS (c)
Then, you inform her about the harmful animals and explain to her why such animals are kept in isolation, TDS (d) In addition, as one of your classmates is asking about some animals, some of your classmates agree by discussing about the sign posts which show the directions where some animals are and the appropriate time for seeing some animals, TDS (f) One of your friends recalls a story of killing a hippopotamus in the village, he explains to you and your classmates about the destructions the animal made, how they were killed and how the people benefitted from its meat plus the health effects that came with it, and TDS (g) While one of your classmates calls you to see how giraffe eat, drink and the differences in their body parts compared to other animals, this same learner explains to you the difficulties guides go through to identify if such animals are sick, other classmates of yours explain to each other about why tourists come to Uganda, the reproduction systems, and the behaviours mainly of some of the animals that tourists come to see. The simulated dialogue segments that illustrate the [- no reasoning] feature, include sentence(s) indicated, as [t₄–d₆], [f₁₁], [g₇], [g₁₆] and [h₈–h₁₀].

In addition, TDSs of Task five predominantly demonstrate almost similar frequencies for the occurrence of the [+/- here-and-now] features. Since the degree of occurrence of the [- here-and-now] feature is higher, then, it can be concluded that the TDSs of Task five demonstrate the [- here-and-now] features. Such features are illustrated in narrations with reference to, for example, past, present simple and perfect tenses hence exhibiting the [- here-and-now] feature. This feature is exemplified in TDSs, such as TDS (c) Then, you inform her about the harmful animals and explain to her why such animals are kept in isolation, TDS (f) One of your friends recalls a story of killing a hippopotamus in the village, he explains to you and your classmates about the destructions the animal made, how they were killed and how the people benefitted from its meat plus the health effects that came with it, TDS (g) While one of your classmates calls you to see how giraffe eat, drink and the differences in their body parts compared to other animals, this same learner explains to you the difficulties guides go through to identify if such animals are sick, other classmates of yours explain to each other about why tourists come to Uganda, the reproduction systems and the behaviours mainly of some of the animals that tourists come to see, and TDS (h) Other classmates of yours remind you and others by informing you about the snakes, explain to you and others the way snakes live, their possible sizes, the times intervals and why the snakes come out during such times. The corresponding simulated dialogue segments that exemplify the [- here-and-now] features are found in the sentence, [c₃], [f₈–f₁₃], [g₃–g₁₀], [g₁₅–g₁₇] and [h₅].

Lastly, in relation to resource-dispersing features of Robinson’s (2005:8) Triadic Componential Framework, TDSs of Task five predominantly demonstrate the [- prior knowledge] feature. This
feature occurs in narrations that make references to, for example, provision of additional information about somethings, various uncertain expressions and enquiries that require responses hence exhibiting [- prior knowledge] feature. The TDSs that exemplify the [- prior knowledge] feature include TDSs, such as TDS (b) As one of your classmates expresses her fear by telling you about the monkey that is following her, you and your teacher explain to her and others about the friendliness the monkey families have towards human beings, TDS (c) Then, you inform her about the harmful animals and explain to her why such animals are kept in isolation, and TDS (g) While one of your classmates calls you to see how giraffe eat, drink and the differences in their body parts compared to other animals, this same learner explains to you the difficulties guides go through to identify if such animals are sick, other classmates of yours explain to each other about why tourists come to Uganda, the reproduction systems and the behaviours mainly of some of the animals that tourists come to see. The corresponding task dialogue segments that demonstrate the [- prior knowledge] feature are found in sentences indicated, as \([b_3 - b_4], [c_2] \) and \([g_11 - g_{12}]\).

In addition, TDSs of Task five predominantly exhibit the [- single task] feature. This feature happens, for example, in narrations where some of the participants, for instance, need to provide additional information to events, respond to others’ inquiries, explaining past events. All these narrations require participants to first think hence demonstrating [- single task] feature. The TDSs that exemplify the [- single task] feature, include, TDS (b) As one of your classmates expresses her fear by telling you about the monkey that is following her, you and your teacher explain to her and others about the friendliness the monkey families have towards human beings, TDS (d) In addition, as one of your classmate is asking about some animals, some of your classmates agree by discussing about the signposts which show the directions where some animals are and the appropriate time for seeing some animals, and TDS (f) One of your friends recalls a story of killing a hippopotamus in the village, he explains to you and your classmates about the destructions the animal made, how they were killed and how the people benefitted from its meat plus the health effects that came with it. The simulated dialogue segments that exemplify the [- single task] feature include, sentence(s), \([b_{10} - b_{11}]\) and \([f_9 - f_{9}]\), respectively.

In summary, from the above analysis, it is evident that TDSs of Task five as a whole demonstrates a range of cognitively complexity features in both resource-directing and resource-dispersing dimensions, as summarised in Table 4:29, on page 312.
Table 4.29: Summary of TDSs of cognitively complex features of Task five

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource-directing</th>
<th>Resource-dispersing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- few elements: TDS (b), (c), (g), (h) &amp; (i)</td>
<td>+/- planning time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- no reasoning: TDS (c), (d), (f) &amp; (g)</td>
<td>- prior knowledge: TDS (b), (c) &amp; (g)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- here-and-now: TDS (c), (f), (g) &amp; (h)</td>
<td>- single task: TDS (b), (d) &amp; (f)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Therefore, it can be concluded that TDSs for Task five predominantly illustrate features that are categorised in quadrant [4] of Robinson’s (2005:8) Triadic Componential Framework, summarised as Table 3:15, on page 203. This suggests that Task five, on one hand, exhibits high performative complexity, and on the other hand, a high developmental complexity.

4.5.5.2.1. Pedagogical task versions of Task five in terms of cognitive complexity

In relation to Robinson’s (2001a: 31, 2010: 246) views, the features identified above of Task five, as summarised in Table 4.29, on page 312, can be considered as most complex for beginner L2 Kiswahili learners. This is because, like Task three, all TDSs for Task five demonstrate the [-] features. Thus, in order to scale down the complexity of the TDSs for Task five, from the most complex version given above, for grading and sequencing purposes, unlike Task one and Task four, it is necessary to manipulate both the resource-dispersing and resource-directing features, respectively, of Task five as demonstrated in the following paragraphs.

4.5.5.2.1.1. Pedagogical task version two of Task five

Thus, the decomplexification for TDSs of Task five as formulated in Table 4.29, on page 312 (also refer to section 4.4.4.4, on page 435, in Appendix (A-i)), involves manipulating through techniques of omission in conjunction with the altering some parts of its TDSs, as illustrated in the paragraphs below.

In relation to the [-few elements] feature, for the purpose of designing less complex (second) version from the most complex version of Task five, only the omission technique can be employed in designing this version. That is to say, a whole TDS which is considered optional, hence it's omission. That is TDS (i) *Finally, your teacher informs you and your classmates that she is tired and she requests you and your classmates to distribute chores so that you and your friends may start cooking.* The omission of this TDS can be done because, as a whole, this TDS predominately exhibits narrations with optional elements that can be considered as non-essential with regard to the thematic topic of Task five. Similarly, there are few optional elements in TDSs (b) *As one of your classmates expresses her fear by telling you about the monkey that is following her, you and your teacher explain to her and others about the friendliness the monkey families have towards human...*
beings, and TDS (g) While one of your classmates calls you to see how giraffe eat, drink and the differences in their body parts compared to other animals, this same learner explains to you the difficulties guides go through to identify if such animals are sick, other classmates of yours explain to each other about why tourists come to Uganda, the reproduction systems, and the behaviours mainly of some of the animals that tourists come to see., that can as well be omitted. The omission of such elements can be possible given that they demonstrate narrations that make references to, for example, mainly iteration elements and a third person who is visually absent in the interactional task context.

Therefore, for example, the modified TDS (b) is illustrated as follows. TDS (b) [...] weewe na mwalimu wenu mnamweleza [...] kuhusu familia za nyani [...]. [...] you and your teacher explain [...] about the [...] the monkey families [...]). In addition, TDS (g) can be as exemplified as follows. TDS (g) [...] kuwaona twiga jinsi wanavyokula, kunywa, tofauti ya viungo vyao vyamwili [...] mfumo wa uzazi, na tabia [...]. [...] see how giraffes eat, drink and the differences in their body parts [...] the reproduction systems and the behaviours [...].

From the above example, it can be seen that most of the optional elements have been omitted and the few remaining elements can be considered obligatory given that the elements can systematically be specific to the thematic topic of Task five.

In designing version two of Task five, the [- no reasoning] features of TDS (c) Then, you inform her about the harmful animals and explain to her why such animals are kept in isolation., can be manipulated through omission technique. This can be done because the reasoning features of TDS (c) occur, for example, mainly in narrations which can be considered as iteration expressions. Thus, the modified TDS (c) can be illustrated as follow, TDS (c) [...] unamjulisha mwanafunzi huyo [...] wanyama hatari [...]. [...] you inform her [...] the harmful animals [...].

Unlike in TDS (c) above, TDS (d) In addition, as one of your classmate is asking about some animals, some of your classmates agree by discussing about the signposts which show the directions where some animals are and the appropriate time for seeing some animals., can be manipulated by omitting and altering the reasoning features that occurs, for example, in narrations that can be considered as ancillary to the core task description or thematic topic of Task five. Therefore, the modified TDS (d) can be as exemplified as follows, TDS (d) [...] mmoja wa mwanafunzi wenzako ‘anaulizia’ [...] mwelekeo [...] waliko baadhi ya wanyama na muda [...] wa kuwaona [...]. [...] one of your classmates is asking [...] the directions where some animals are and the [...] time for seeing [...] ‘them’.
For the purpose of designing less complex version from the highly complex version of Task five, regarding manipulating the [- here-and-now] feature for Task five, it is possible to use omission technique to manipulate TDS (f). While TDS (f) *One of your classmates recalls a story of killing a hippopotamus in the village, he explains to you and your classmates about the destructions the animal made, how they were killed and how the people benefitted from its meat plus the health effects that came with it.*, exhibits narration with reference to [-here-and-now] features, it is evident that the narration is predominantly in reference to, for example, third persons who are visually absent in the interactional task context and non-constitutive expressions. Such expressions according to Hasan (1985:57-58) are considered as optional in terms of core task description of the thematic topic of Task five. Thus, TDS (f) can be completely omitted from the task description of Task five as a whole.

Furthermore, it is possible to use the omission and alteration techniques, respectively, to manipulate TDS (c) *Then, you inform her about the harmful animals and explain to her why such animals are kept in isolation*. This manipulation is in order because, for example, omission technique can be employed to omit repeated expressions that can be considered as optional in terms of core task description of the thematic topic. Furthermore, the alteration technique can be employed, for example, to convert nouns into verb aspects. Thus, the modified TDS (c), is formulated as follows, TDS (c) *[Kisha, ‘unamjulisha’ mwanafunzi huyo kuhusu wanyama hatari [...] Then, [...] ‘you are telling’ her about the harmful animals [...]]*.

With regard to the [- prior knowledge] feature, the omission technique can be employed in conjunction with the alteration technique to manipulate TDS (b) *As one of your classmates expresses her fear by telling you about the monkey that is following her, you and your teacher explain to her and others about the friendliness the monkey families are towards human beings*. The manipulation is in order, for example, the omission technique can be used to omit expressions that make reference to a single individual rather than task participants, in general as reflected in the thematic topic of task description of Task five. Similarly, the alteration technique can be employed to modify, for example, the subject marker in a Kiswahili verb in order to maintain syntactic cohesion within the TDS. Thus, the modified TDS (b) is formulated as follows, TDS (b) *[…] wewe na mwalimu wenu ‘elezeeni’ [...] kuhusu urafiki wa familia za nyani na binadamu. […] you and your teacher explain [...] about the friendliness the monkey families are towards human beings.*

Like TDS (b) above, TDS (c) *Then, you inform her about the harmful animals and explain to her why such animals are kept in isolation.*, also requires the omission technique in conjunction with alteration technique to manipulate it's [- prior knowledge] features. The manipulation is possible
because, for example, the omission technique can be used to omit features that make reference to, for example, an individual rather than to task participants, in general as reflected in the thematic topic of task description of Task five. Furthermore, the alteration technique can be utilised to modify, for example, an object clause to a verb. Thus, the modified TDS (c) is formulated as follows, TDS (c) [Kisha, ‘zungunzia’ kuhusu wanyama hatari kwa binadamu na [...] kwanini wanyama wa aina hiyo wanatengwa. [Then, you ‘talk’ about the harmful animals and explain [...] why such animals are kept in isolation].

Thus, from the above analysis, it is evident that TDS (b) and (c) demonstrate the [+ prior knowledge] features, as summarised in Table 4:31, on page 319.

Considering the [- single task] features, it is possible to design a less complex version of TDS (b) As one of your classmates expresses her fear by telling you about the monkey that is following her, you and your teacher explain to her and others about the friendliness the monkey families are towards human beings., by the utilising the omission technique. For example, the omission technique can be used to omit expressions that make reference to, for example, repeated narrations that can be considered as optional with regard to the broad thematic topic of Task description for Task five. Thus, the modified TDS (b) is formulated as follows, TDS (b) [...] wewe na mwalamu wenu ‘waelezeeni’ mwanafunzi [...] wengine kuhusu familia za nyani kuwa na urafiki na binadamu]. [...] you and your teacher explain to [...] others about the friendliness the monkey families are towards human beings.

In relation to TDS (d) In addition, as one of your classmate is asking about some animals, some of your classmates agree by discussing about the signposts which show the directions where some animals are and the appropriate time for seeing some animals., unlike TDS (b), TDS (d) requires the omission and alteration techniques to manipulate the [- single task] features. For example, the omission technique can be used to omit expression that make reference to repeated narrations that exhibit the [- single task] features. In addition, the alteration technique can be employed to modify, for example, phrasal noun into a verb. Thus, the modified TDS (d) is formulated as follows, TDS (d) Pia, [...] baadhi ya wanafunzi wenzako [...] ‘kujadiliana kuhusu’ [...] mwelekeo wa waliko baadhii ya wanyama na muda mwafaka wa kwaona baadhii ya wanyama. In addition, [...] some of your classmates [...] ‘discuss’ about the [...] directions where some animals are and the appropriate time for seeing some animals.

From the above analysis, it is evident that after the manipulation of TDS (b) and (d), respectively, both TDSs can be considered to exhibit the [+ single task] features, as summarised in Table 4:31, on page 319.
Table 4:30: Summary of pedagogical version two of Task five

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource-directing</th>
<th>Resource-dispersing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- few elements: TDS (b^{\text{mod}2}), (c), (g^{\text{mod}2}) &amp; (h)</td>
<td>+/- planning time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- no reasoning: TDS (c^{\text{mod}2}), (d^{\text{mod}2}), (f) &amp; (g)</td>
<td>+ prior knowledge: TDS (b^{\text{mod}2}), (c^{\text{mod}2}) &amp; (g)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- here-and-now: TDS (c^{\text{mod}2}), (g) &amp; (h)</td>
<td>+ single task: TDS (b^{\text{mod}2}), (d^{\text{mod}2}) &amp; (f)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.5.5.2.1.2. Pedagogical version one of Task five

Furthermore, in order to design the first version, optional elements with regard to [- few elements] in the remaining TDSs, that its, TDS (c) and (h), can also be omitted the two TDS. For example, TDS (c) *Then, you inform her about the harmful animals and explain to her why such animals are kept in isolation*, demonstrates elements that express the relationship between animals and human beings rather than being specific to animals as provided on the thematic topic of Task five. In addition, the same TDS illustrates optional elements that can be considered as recursive expressions. Thus, the modified TDS (c), can be illustrated as follows, TDS (c) [...] *unamjulisha mwanafunzi huyo kuhusu wanyama hatari [...]*. [...] you inform her about the harmful animals [...]).

Like TDS (c), TDS (h)*Other classmates of yours remind you and others by informing you about the snakes, explain to you and others the way snakes live, their possible sizes, the times intervals and why the snakes come out during such times*, exemplifies optional elements that can be omitted from other elements that can be regarded as obligatory to the TDS. For example, the optional elements in this TDS are those that mainly exhibit iteration expressions. Therefore, TDS (h) can be altered to, for example, TDS (h) [...] *wanafunzi wenzako wanawakumbusheni kuhusu nyoka, [...] ukubwa wao, na kwanini wanatoka nyakati hizo*. [...] classmates of yours remind you [...] about the snakes, [...] their [...] sizes, time intervals [...] the snakes come out [...].

From the above analysis, it is evident that after the manipulation of the [- few elements] features in TDSs of Task five, there are several elements has been reduced and modified to be more specific to aspects in light with the thematic topic of Task five. In addition, the remaining elements of such TDSs still exhibit many elements which can be regarded as, obligatory elements. Hence, demonstrating the [- few elements] feature. This suggests that it is possible to design other less version(s) of cognitively complex [few elements] feature from TDS (b), (c), (g) and (h), as exemplified in Table 4:31, on page 319.
Considering the design of version one for Task five with regard to the [- no reasoning] feature, like TDS (d) above, it is possible to omit and alter reasoning features of TDS (f) One of your friends recalls a story of killing a hippopotamus in the village, he explains to you and your classmates about the destructions the animal made, how they were killed and how the people benefitted from its meat plus the health effects that came with it., that happen in narrations with reference, for example, to motivational and or historical expressions that can be considered as ancillary in reflecting the core task description or the thematic topic of Task five. Thus, the modified TDS (f) can be demonstrated as follows, TDS (d) Mmoja wa wanafunzi wenzako ‘anasimulia’ simulizi ya [...] kiboko [...] na [...] nyama yake [...] [One of your classmates ‘tells’ [...] a story of [...] a hippopotamus [...] and [...] its meat [...]].

Finally, regarding the [- no reasoning] feature of TDSs for Task five, it is possible to manipulate TDS (g) While one of your classmates calls you to see how giraffe eat, drink and the differences of their body parts compared to other animals, this same learner explains to you the difficulties guides go through to identify if such animals are sick, other classmates of yours explain to each other about why tourists come to Uganda, the reproduction systems, and the behaviours mainly of some of the animals that tourists come to see., given that TDS (g) exhibit reasoning elements in narrations which make reference to, for example, third person who is visually absent in the interactional task context and ancillary information which can be considered as optional with regard to the thematic topic of Task five. Thus, the manipulation can be done through omission and alteration techniques as illustrated below, TDS (g) [...] mmoja wenu ‘anawaita’ kuwaona twiga [...] ‘na’ viungo vyao vya mwili [...]]. [...] one of your classmates calls you to see [...] giraffe [...] and [...] their body parts [...]].

Therefore, from the above examples, it can be concluded that the [-no reasoning] features have been manipulated into the [+no reasoning] feature. Hence, Task five can be considered as cognitively least complex for beginners L2 Kiswahili learners, as illustrated in Table 4:31, on page 319.

In order to design the first version of Task five with regard to [- here-and-now] feature, both the omission and alteration techniques can be used to manipulate TDS (g) While one of your classmates calls you to see how giraffe eat, drink and the differences of their body parts compared to other animals, this same learner explains to you the difficulties guides go through to identify if such animals are sick, other classmates of yours explain to each other about why tourists come to Uganda, the reproduction systems and the behaviours mainly of some of the animals that tourists come to see. For example, the omission technique is in order to omit narrations which exemplify the [-here-and-now] features with reference to, for example, expressions on third persons who are
visually absent in the interactional task context and expressions that exhibit motivational elements that Henry and Roseberry (1998:149) consider as optional. Similarly, the alteration technique can be employed mainly in the modification of verb aspects. Thus, TDS (g) is formulated as follows. TDS (g) [...] mmoja wenu ‘anawaita’ kuwaona twiga [...], tofauti ya viungo vyao vya mwili na wanyama wengine [...]. [...] one of your classmates ‘is calling’ you to see [...] giraffe [...] and the differences in their body parts compared to other animals [...].

Finally, in TDS (h) Other classmates of yours remind you and others by informing you about the snakes, explain to you and others the way snakes live, their possible sizes, the time intervals and why the snakes come out during such times. Omission technique can be employed to omit, for example, repeated expressions. Similarly, the alteration technique can be used to modify, for example, verb aspects from the [-here-and-now] feature, to the [+here-and-now] feature. Thus, the modified TDS (h) is formulated as follows. Baadhi ya wanafunzi wenzako ‘wanawasimulia’ kuhusu nyoka [...]. Other classmates of yours [...] ‘are telling’ you about the [...] snakes [...] .

Therefore, based on the above task versions, it is evident that the [-here-and-now] features have been manipulated and modified to exhibit the [+ here-and-now] features and can be considered as least cognitively complex for beginner L2 Kiswahili learners, as summarised in Table 4:31, on page 319.

With regard to the [-prior knowledge] feature of TDS (g) While one of your classmates calls you to see how giraffe eat, drink and the differences of their body parts compared to other animals, this same learner explains to you the difficulties guides go through to identify if such animals are sick, other classmates of yours explain to each other about why tourists come to Uganda, the reproduction systems and the behaviours mainly of some of the animals that tourists come to see., it is possible to manipulate this TDS through omission technique. The technique can be used to omit, for example, the expressions that make reference to thirds persons that are visually absent, and to a specific individual rather than task participants in general as reflected in the broad thematic topic of task description of Task five. Thus, the modified TDS (g) is formulated as follows, TDS (g) Huku mmoja wenu akiwaita kuwaona twiga jinsi wanavyokula, kunywa, tofauti ya viungo vyao vya mwili na wanyama wengine [...] wanafunzi wengine wanaelezana [...] mfumo wa uzazi, na tabia [...] za baadhi ya wanyama [...]. [ While one of your classmates calls you to see how giraffe eat, drink and the differences of their body parts compared to other animals [...] other classmates of yours explain to each other about [...] the reproduction systems and the behaviours [...] of some of the animals [...].
From the above analysis, it is evident that TDS (g) predominantly exhibits the [+ prior knowledge] feature, as illustrated in Table 4:31, on page 319.

Regarding the [- single task], TDS (f) One of your classmates recalls a story of killing a hippopotamus in the village, he explains to you and your classmates about the destructions the animal made, how they were killed and how the people benefitted from its meat plus the health effects that came with it., can be manipulated by using the omission and alteration technique. The omission technique can be employed to omit, for example, repeated expressions and expressions that make reference to third persons who are visually absent. In addition, alteration technique can be used to modify, for example, verbs that make reference to the past. Thus, the modified TDS (f) is formulated as follows, TDS (f) [Mmoja wa wanafunzi wenzako ‘anasimulia’ simulizi ya kuuawa kwa kiboko katika kijiji chao […]]. [One of your classmates ‘narrates’ […] a story of killing a hippopotamus in the village […]].

Thus, from the above analysis, it is evident that TDS (f) can be considered as cognitively least complex hence exhibit the [+ single task] features as summarised in Table 4:31 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource-directing</th>
<th>Resource-dispersing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- few elements: TDS (b)<em>{mod2}, (c)</em>{mod1}, (g)<em>{mod2} &amp; (h)</em>{mod1} &amp; (h)_{mod1}</td>
<td>+/- planning time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+ no reasoning: TDS (c)<em>{mod2}, (d), (f)</em>{mod1} &amp; (g)_{mod1}</td>
<td>+ prior knowledge: TDS (b)<em>{mod2}, (c)</em>{mod2} &amp; (g)_{mod1}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+ here-and-now: TDS (c)<em>{mod2}, (g)</em>{mod1} &amp; (h)_{mod1}</td>
<td>+ single task: TDS (b)<em>{mod2}, (d)</em>{mod2} &amp; (f)_{mod1}</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In general, the above task versions, are summarised as shown in Table 4:32 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource-directing</th>
<th>Resource-dispersing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Task version one</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- few elements: TDSs (b)<em>{mod2}, (c), (g)</em>{mod2} &amp; (h)_{mod1}</td>
<td>+/- planning time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+ no reasoning: TDSs (c)<em>{mod2}, (d), (f)</em>{mod1} &amp; (g)_{mod1}</td>
<td>+ prior knowledge: TDS (b)<em>{mod2}, (c)</em>{mod2} &amp; (g)_{mod1}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+ here-and-now: TDSs (c)<em>{mod2}, (g)</em>{mod1} &amp; (h)_{mod1}</td>
<td>+ single task: TDS (b)<em>{mod2}, (d)</em>{mod2} &amp; (f)_{mod1}</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task version two</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- few elements: TDSs (b)<em>{mod2}, (c), (g)</em>{mod2} &amp; (h)</td>
<td>+/- planning time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- no reasoning: TDSs (c)<em>{mod2}, (d)</em>{mod2}, (f) &amp; (g)</td>
<td>+ prior knowledge: TDS (b)<em>{mod2}, (c)</em>{mod2} &amp; (g)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- here-and-now: TDSs (c)_{mod2}, (g) &amp; (h)</td>
<td>+ single task: TDS (b)<em>{mod2}, (d)</em>{mod2} &amp; (f)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task version three</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
### Resource-directing vs Resource-dispersing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource-directing</th>
<th>Resource-dispersing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- few elements: TDS (b),(c), (g), (h) &amp; (i)</td>
<td>+/- planning time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- no reasoning: TDS (c), (d), (f) &amp; (g)</td>
<td>- prior knowledge: TDS (b), (c) &amp; (g)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- here-and-now: TDS (c), (f), (g) &amp; (h)</td>
<td>- single task: TDS (b), (d) &amp; (f)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 4.5.5.2.1.2.1. Sequencing of pedagogical tasks for Kiswahili learners

In relation to the Robinson’s (2010) SAARC model, the resource-dispersing features of version one of the TDSs for Task five exhibit the least complex version of the TDSs of Task five. This can be attributed to the occurrence of the [+ ] features in the resource-dispersing dimension of task features. In this regard, with respect to the [+/- planning time] feature, learners are expected to be provided with sufficient time for preparation to perform the task during the actual performance of task version one. Provision of time allows learners to save time during their task performance and to finish the task of expressing their narrations about the different wild animals and their surroundings with the least cognitive challenges. On one other hand, in relation to the [+ prior knowledge] feature, this task version entails that learners are required to have sufficient information about wild animals before they perform this task. Thus, task performers exhibit knowledge in Kiswahili content in relation to describing the wild animals, including vocabularies of their names in performing TDSs (b), (c) and (g)\textsuperscript{mod1}. On the other hand, regarding the [+ single task] feature task version one, during the performance of this task version, participants are required to perform only a single task at a time, especially during the performance of TDSs (b), (d) and (f)\textsuperscript{mod1}, as illustrated in Table 4:32, on page 319.

Considering the resource-directing dimension of task version one, while Robinson (2010: 525) emphasises the view that first pedagogical task versions need to be the least complex, in task version one, the [- few elements] contrasts with to Robinson’s proposal. This can be attributed to the occurrence of TDS (b), (c)\textsuperscript{mod1}, (g), and (h)\textsuperscript{mod1}, that necessitate learners to use Kiswahili language in describing about several animals, tourists that come to Uganda, and the ample time for seeing different animals, which entails some degree of cognitive complexity to learners in performing this task version. Nevertheless, if the above TDSs are further manipulated, learners can perform task version one with less cognitive complexity given that the modified task version requires learners to use few ideas and items in expressing about, for example, the monkey that is following one of the task performers. Unlike the [- few elements] feature, the [+ no reasoning] feature of task version one exhibits [+ ] feature. Consequently, learners are expected to demonstrate proficiency in the narration of expressions about harmful animals or the ample time for seeing the
animals, which does not entail any reasoning element, as exemplified in TDS (c), (d), (f)\textsuperscript{mod$_1$} and (g)\textsuperscript{mod$_1$}. Lastly, this task version exemplifies the [+ here-and-now] features, as illustrated in TDS (c), (g)\textsuperscript{mod$_1$} and (h)\textsuperscript{mod$_1$}. The occurrence of the [+\_] features suggests that this task version requires learners to exhibit proficiency in simple Kiswahili narrations of events such as seeing how giraffes eat and drink. In using such expressions, learners employ present tense in narrating events that are in a shared context (see Ellis 2003a: 69; Robinson 2010: 251).

To increase the complexity from version one to version two of TDSs for Task five, the design entails considering the resource-dispersing dimension, and thereafter the resource-directing dimension, respectively. As has been the case in task version one, in task version two, Kiswahili learners are expected to be given sufficient planning time [+ planning time] so that they can perform this task about narrating different wild animals and their surroundings with ease. With regard to the [+ prior knowledge] feature, similarly to task version one, task version two presents the [+ prior knowledge] feature in TDS (b)\textsuperscript{mod$_2$}, (c)\textsuperscript{mod$_2$} and (g). However, it can be observed that some of the TDSs have been manipulated to get the first version of TDSs of Task five. Thus, to perform this type of task version, Kiswahili learners are expected to possess sufficient information in demonstrating proficiency in Kiswahili about, for example, the harmful and friendly animals and their reproduction system of animals. Lastly, in relation to the [+ single task] feature, unlike task version one, task version two necessitates Kiswahili learners to perform few tasks at a time. This is attributed to the occurrence of mainly manipulated TDS (b)\textsuperscript{mod$_2$} and (d)\textsuperscript{mod$_2$}.

With respect to the resource-directing dimensional features of version two for TDSs of Task five, task version two exemplifies the [- few elements] feature. In this version, compared to the previous task version, learners are expected to demonstrate their Kiswahili proficiency in expressing several ideas at a time about, for example, the ailment, eating and drinking behaviours of some animals, and the tourists’ tour guides, in accordance with performing TDS (b)\textsuperscript{mod$_2$}, (c), (g)\textsuperscript{mod$_2$}, and (h). In relation to the [- no reasoning] feature, version two is cognitively more complex than task version one. This suggests that in performing task version two, Kiswahili learners are required to demonstrate proficiency of Kiswahili in reasoning skills in explaining about, for example, the reasons why some animals are kept in isolation, and reaching an agreement on discussing the signposts which show the directions, as demonstrated in TDS (c)\textsuperscript{mod$_2$} and (d)\textsuperscript{mod$_2$}. Lastly, regarding the [- here-and-now] feature, compared task version one, the features in task version two are cognitively more complex to the Kiswahili learners. This is attributed to the occurrence of TDS (c)\textsuperscript{mod$_2$}, (g) and (h). Hence, during the performance of task version two, compared to task version one, task participants are expected to demonstrate a higher level of Kiswahili proficiency, for example, in performing narrations about difficulties guides have to identify when animals are sick.
This narration entails using present simple tense which can be cognitively complex to the learners given that narrations present expression that is taking place somewhere else (unshared context).

With regard to increasing the cognitive complexity of task version three in the resource-dispersing dimension, compared to version three of Task one, like version three of Task two, three, four and five, the version three of TDSs demonstrate the highest degree of complexity. This is attributed to the occurrence of [-] features in both resource-dispersing and resource-directing features as summarised in Table 4:32, on page 319. Thus, to increase cognitive complexity from task version two, it is necessary to first consider features in the resource-dispersing dimension, and then resource-directing dimension (Robinson 2010: 525).

Considering the recourse-dispersing dimension, specifically the [+/- planning time], like all the version three, in this version three too, it is assumed that in the actual performance the planning time feature is not provided to the learners, hence the [- planning time] feature. Thus, to perform task version three, learners are expected to complete the task of different wild animals and their surroundings within the prescribed time as provided for by their teacher in the classroom. Furthermore, in relation to the [- prior knowledge] feature, in performing task version three, learners are required to exemplify the masterly of Kiswahili language in giving narrations that exhibit a high degree of previous knowledge/information, for example, when discussing the social skills of the monkey families towards human beings. Lastly, taking into account the [- single task] feature, task version three requires Kiswahili learners to demonstrate Kiswahili proficiency while performing more than one task at a time within the prescribed time as provided for by the teacher in the classroom. In performing this task version three, for example, learners are required to give narrations by recalling a story of killing a hippopotamus in the village and, the destructions it caused while at the same time explaining it to other classmates, hence demonstrating the [- single task] feature.

In relation to the resource-directing features, as stated before that this dimension of Task two is more complex than version two and one. This is attributed to the occurrence of unmodified TDS (b), (c), (g), (h) and (i), as summarised in Table 4:32, on page 319. Therefore, to perform this task version, Kiswahili learners are require to demonstrate proficiency in Kiswahili using language expressing several characteristics at time about snakes, monkeys and the harmful animals as required by TDS (b), (c) and (h) in Table 4:32, on page 319, hence, exhibiting the [- few elements] features. Similarly, considering the [- no reasoning] feature of task version three demonstrates cognitively high complexity features in terms of reasoning. This, in turn, requires learners to exhibit proficiency of Kiswahili in reasoning skills to support their narrations, for example, in explaining
why some harmful animals are kept in isolation, as exhibited in TDS (c). Lastly, with respect to the [-here-and-now] feature, in performing this task version, Kiswahili leaners are required to employ high proficiency of Kiswahili commands to narrate past or future events that occurred or will occur elsewhere in unshared contexts. In this regard, learners are expected to use, for example, past tense to explain the destruction the hippopotamus caused to the village, as demonstrated in TDS (f) which exhibits the [- here-and-now] features.

4.5.5.3.  Syntactic complexity for Task five

This section presents the STDs for Task five as illustrated in section 4.5.5.3.1, on page 323. Then the syntactic complexity analysis of the simulated task dialogue is done in section 4.5.5.3.2, on page 329. Thereafter, the subsequent sub-sections demonstrate the construction of linguistically less complex dialogues (version two and version one) as learning tasks from the most syntactically complex dialogues (version three). Like Task three, the construction is realised through the manipulation of both resource-dispersing and resource-directing features, as demonstrated in section 4.5.5.4.1 and section 4.5.5.4.2, on pages 330 and 333, respectively.

4.5.5.3.1.  Simulated task dialogue for Task five

Kokubanza: \[b^1\] Tobaahhhhh! \[b^2\] Nyani ananifuata |

Kokubanza: \[b^1\] Heavens! \[b^1\] A monkey is following me

Mwalimu Peta: \[b^3\] Wewe nini tena (NP) ! \[b^4\] Kwanini unatutisha hivyo bwana ? \[b^5\] Yani unawaogopa hata Nyani \[nag\] muda wote tumekuwa (IND. PPT) tukipishana (HAB. PRES) nao ?

Teacher Peta: \[b^3\] What is it now? \[b^4\] Why are you scaring us? \[b^5\] You are even afraid of monkeys yet we have been passing by them all along.

Sajile: \[b^6\] Hata mimi kanishtua (INF) kweli \[b^7\] Hava ni (COP. COV. PRES) marafiki wa binadamu \[nidiyo maana unawaona (IND. PRES) wanatufuata (IND. PRES) \[b^8\] Wasingekuwa (SBJV) na urafiki \[wangekuwa (SBJV) juu ya miti wamejificha (IND. PPT) \[b^9\] Ilia ukiwaona wanakuja (IND. PT) hadi tulipo \[h] huwa wanakuwa \[w] wameshawazoea watu \[b^10\] Isitoshe \[h] hawa sio nyani \[n] nyani ni wale \[tulio kutana (IND. PT) nao getini \[b^11\] Hava ni Sokwe \[e] eheeeee \[h] wale pale ni (COP. COV. PRES) Tumbiri \[h] sema wote ni jamii moja kama ya Nyani \[ila] ila kama nilivyosema (IND. PT) \[h] hawawezia (NEG) kutudhuru (INF) \]
Sajile: She has scared me too. These are friends of human beings that is why they are following us. If they hadn’t that friendship, right now they would be hiding in trees. But when you see them coming up to where we are, it is because they are used to people. Besides, these are not monkeys, monkeys are the ones we have met at the gate. These are gorillas, eenhee, those over there are baboons, but all are just different species of monkeys, but as I said they cannot harm us.

Wanyamwa: Wanyamwa wanaoweza kutudhuru ni kwa mfano Simba, Mamba na wengine kama hao na ndiyo maana wanafungiwa.

Animals which can harm us are like lion and crocodiles, and that is why they are caged.

Kemilembe: Kwani hao Simba wako wapi? Colleague, let us go to see them so that we can go to cook. These monkeys are too common to us.

Nyambibo: Kweli, naona kile kibao kinaonyesha sehemu ambapo tutawaona na wenyewe ili twende tukafanye kazi ya upishi wenzangu. Hawa Nyani tumeshawazo.

Kemilembe: Where are the lions? Colleague, let us go to see them so that we can go to cook. These monkeys are too common to us.

Nyambibo: It’s true! That signpost shows where we will see leopards. I think you see that the leopard picture on that signpost.

Kayobora: Ni kweli picha hata mimi mimeiona ila chini ya picha kunana maneno madogo maneno madogo umbali uliypo hadi kufika sehemu Chui walipo. Na nikilinganisha na picha ile pale ambayo inaonesha Simba walipo, na onaonesha Simba kwanza alafu ndiyo twende kwenye Chui kwasababu Chui ni kama tunarudi nyuma labda kama kutakuwa kuna nja inatuunganisha hadi Simba walipo.

Kayobora: It’s true, me too have seen the picture but below it, there are small words which show a distance from here to a place where leopards are found. And when I compare that picture which shows where lions are found, I can see we could see lion first then go to see leopards because it seems as if we will be going backwards to see the leopards unless there is a way that connects to where lions are.
**Kombe:** d₄ Ni kweli | ila na kale kakibao pale nyumba(NP) || kanaonesha kuwa || fisi hayupo(IND. PRES. NEG) mbali na hapa tulipo(NP) || lakini na Kenyewe kameandika kwamba || | mida mizuri ya kuwaona(INF) fisi ni saa tisa au saa kumi || | wakikwa wanawekewa chakula | d₅|| La sivyo || | huwa(HAB) wamejificha(IND. PPT) ndani ya mapango yao kwasababu ya aibu |

**Kombe:** d₅ It’s true but that small signpost at the back shows that hyena is not far away from where we are. d₆ It has also been shown that a good time to see hyena is at 3 pm or 4 pm when they are given food. Otherwise, they hide inside caves because they are shy

**Mhoma:** e₁ Mhoma: e₁ Mamaaaa! e₂ Oneni(IMP. PRESS) e₃ Tembo walee wanapita(IND. PRES) jamani e₄ | Maskini angali vitoto vyao jamani e₅ | Wanatembea(IND. PRES) polepole sijui wanaenda(IND. PRES) wapi e₆? e₇ Watakwa(SBJV) wanaenda(IND. PRES) kunywa(INF) maji Ziwanji e₈ Mmmmm! e₉ Wana(DES. COP. PRES) limwili likubwa, | angalia(SBJV) ngozi jinsi ilivyokakamaa(IND. PT) | sijui(IND. PRES. NEG) wakinyeshewa(HAB) na mvua ngozi inakuwaje(IND. PRES) |

**Mhoma:** e₁ My goodness! e₂ Guys, look e₃ over there elephants are passing. e₄ Shame, look at their calves. e₅ They walk slowly, I don’t know where they are going. e₆ They must be going to drink water at the lake. e₇ Mmmmm! e₈ They have huge bodies, look how stiff their skin is, I don’t know how their skins look when they get wet with rainwater.

**Chipoli:** e₉ Kweli ndugu yangu wana(DES. COP. PRES) ngozi ngumu || | ndiyo maana wanasema || ukitaka(HAB) kuwaua(INF) ||, ni(COP. COV. HAB) lazima ulenge matundu ya masikio yao || | la sivyo || | lisasi itadunda(IND. FUT) kwenyego ngozi e₁₀ Si(NEG) ni(COP. COV. PRES) kama viboko |, || | japokuwa wanaishi(INF) wanaenda(IND. PRES) kwenyego maji || | lakini nasika(IND. PRES) ngozi yao ni ngumu mno | e₁₁| Lazima wakikwa majini uwasubiri(HAB. PRES) || || wakitoa kichwa juu wakati wa kupumua(INF) || | ndiyo ulenge masikio yao | e₁₂| Ila usipolenga matobyo la masikio || | huwezi kumuua(INF) kiboko |

**Chipoli:** e₉ It’s true my brother they have hard skin that is why it’s said if you want to kill them you must target their earholes, otherwise bullets will bounce on the skin. e₁₀ They are like hippos who although they live in water, I hear their skin is so hard. e₁₁ If you want to kill them you must wait until when they raise their heads out of the water and then target their earholes. e₁₂ Otherwise you’ll never kill them }

**Wanyama:** f₁ Umenikumbusha(IND. PPT) nyama ya kiboko f₂|| Kuna kipindi babu alitusimulia(IND. PT) kuwa hapo zamani || | kijijini kwao kulikuwa(INF) kuna viboko | {ambao walikuwa(INF) wakiishi(HAB) majini } || ila usiku wanakula(INF) hادي kwenyego makazi yao || | kutafuta(INF) chakula || f₃|| Walikuwa(INF) wakitoka(HAB) majini || | wanaharibu(INF) mazingira |, | wanakula(INF)
Wanyama: You have reminded me of hippo’s meat. There was a period grandpa told us once upon a time at their village there were hippos which were living in water but at nights they were coming to their settlements to look for food. Whenever they emerged from the water they were destroying the environment, eat crops and even livestock like chicken. He said there was the time they were fed up with these hippos and decided to report to a police post. For a whole week, police officers slept on pathways which these hippos were using to go to the villages. Throughout the week, hippos never showed up but when they did, grandpa said police officers managed to kill one. The other one which survived ran and returned to the water.

Msella: Naamini asubuhi yake || watu walikusanyika | ilikumuona | huyo kiboko aliye kufa || nakugombani nyama |

Msella: I believe in the morning people gathered to see a dead hippo and scrambled for meat.

Wanyama: Asubuhi haikufika ndugu yangu | yale makelele ya risasi | valikiamsha kijiji kizima | na | watu wakaanza kufuata milio ilipotokea | ndipo wakakuta mapolisi wakimalizia kumuua yule kiboko | Watu walienda na shoka, mikuki, mapanga na visu vya aina mbalimbali | ili kuweza kupata kitoweo | Jambo la kushangaza ni kwamba | babu anasema kutokana na umuwa nyama yake | watu waliipika | kwa takribani siku mbili | ili kuweza kulainika | Eti nyama yake ni nyekundu | na ukiila || lazima utapatwa na mafua | Wanakijiji wote waliyoila mafua pia |

Wanyama: My brother, they didn’t wait for morning to come, the noise of bullets awakened the whole village and people started to follow where the noises were coming from, when they arrived, they found police officers finishing to kill the hippo. People went there with axes, spears, pangs, and knives of different sorts so as to get meat. Interestingly, the grandfather said due to the
stiffness of the meat, it was cooked for up to two days to be soft. It’s alleged that hippo’s meat is red and if you eat you must get flu. All villagers who ate the meat suffered from flu.


Ndunamiwe: §[§1] You guys come this way to see how giraffe eat. §2 They have long necks and they eat leaves of the top tree branches. §3 Now I don’t know what they do when they finish the top tree branches. §4 I think they also struggle when it comes to drinking water. §5 If it is work, then the job of taking care of giraffe isn’t an easy one. §6 Look at their legs. §7 I don’t know if zookeepers know when these animals fall sick, do they sleep while standing or otherwise, because how do they manage to stand up when they lay down, I think it is easy for them to lose balance.


Nantume: §8 Next to the giraffe I can see rhinos resting. §9 I always know that a colour of rhinos is like of other animals. §10 These ones have surprised me for being white. §11 Their origin would be Europe. §12 Or what do you think?

vifaru weupe | **iimaanisha**(IND. PRES) **kuwa** hawa ni**(DES. COP)** wa kipekee, **lakini** wapo pia vifaru wa kawaida kama wale pale | **muwaonaao**(IND. PRES) karibu na punda milia | §18 | Naona **kuwa** hata punda milia **anamazona**(IND. PRES) na vifaru wa kawaida kuliko wale weupe | naona weupe **wanatengwa** nadhani kutokana na rangi zao | §19 | Hii rangi **neyupe** **ni**(COV. PRES) nadra sana **kupatikana**(INF) | §20 | **Inasemekana**(HAB) vifaru weupe **wanauwezo** wa **kuzaa**(INF) vifaru wa rangi ya kwaida || ila wale wa kawaida **hawawezil**(IND. PRES, NEG) **kuzaa**(INF) faru mweupe |

**Sajile**: §13 Of course not! §14 I don’t agree with your idea. §15 I think you have heard, the majority of tourists who want to see rhinos come to Uganda because it is the only country with white rhinos. §16 This means if their origin was Europe, white men wouldn’t travel all the way to Africa only to see them. §17 But most of them come just to see white rhinos because they are peculiar, but there are also common rhinos like those you see over there close to zebra. §18 I can see even zebra are more used to the common rhinos than white rhinos, I can see white rhinos are isolated may be because of their colour. §19 The white colour is rare to be seen. §20 It is alleged white rhino are capable of giving birth to the common rhinos but the common ones cannot give birth to white rhinos]

**Lembo**: §1 | Naona **mmewashangaa**(IND. PPT) sana wanyama || | **mmesahau**(IND. PPT) **kuwa** || | hili banda upande wa kulia **ni**(DES. COP, PRES) banda la nyoka || | **Namelichungulia**(IND. PPT) ndani kwa mbali || | **nikaona**(IND. PT) jinsi **lilivyojengwa**(IND. PT) || | §3 | Kuna jinsi **lilivyounganishwa**(IND. PT) kwenye ardhi || | §4 | ila kuna giza**(NP)** | sasa sijui**(SBJV. NEG) nyoka **tutawezaje** **kuwaona**(INF) |

**Lembo**: §1 | I can see you have been wondering about these animals that you have forgotten that this cage on your right side is of snakes. §2 | I have peeped inside and have seen the way it has been built. §3 | There is a certain way it has been connected to the land. §4 But it is dark inside now I don’t know how we will be able to see the snakes.

**Chipoli**: §5 | **Nadhani**(SBIV) hawa nyoka **watakuwa**(IND. FUT) tofauti na wale **tuliwazoea**(IND. PT) || | §6 | Si **unaona**(IND. PRES) jinsi mbanda yao yalivo makubwa || | basi **inaeleke**(SBIV) na yenye wajija miyoka mikubwa kupita**(INF)** kiasi || | §7 | **Itakuwa**(SBIV) ndiko chato **tunaowasikia** || | §8 | ila nahisi baada ya jua **kuongezeka**(INF) || | **watatoka**(IND. FUT) tu kwenye mapango yao ili waje kuota**(INF)** jua || | §9 | **Siunaona**(IND. PRES, NEG) hapa **wameendika**(IND. PT) **kuwa** || | muda mwafaka wa **kuwaona**(INF) ni kati ya saa sita na tisa mchana || | §10 | **Lakini** **wanatuonya**(IND. PRES) pia tusiwaweke**(IND. PRES, NEG) vidole wala **kuwa**(INF) chakula ||

**Chipoli**: §5 I think these snakes are different from those we are used to. §6 You can see how big the cages are, it seems the snakes are also very huge. §7 They must be pythons we have been hearing. §8
But I think after the sun rays increase, they will come out of the caves to enjoy the sun. You see they have written here that a good time to see snakes is between 12 pm and 3 pm. But they also show that we must not put fingers or give them food.

Mwalimu Peta: I see you have enjoyed so much. But I feel tired, plus I don’t like this weather at all. I would like cooks to go and prepare while others should fetch water for cooking.

Teacher Peta: I can see you have enjoyed so much. But I feel tired, plus I don’t like this weather at all. I would like cooks to go and prepare while others should fetch water for cooking.

4.5.5.3.2. An analysis of the syntactic complexity of Task five

In relation to TDS 4.4.4.4 of Task five, as illustrated in its associated task dialogue 4.4.4.4, largely demonstrates complex syntactic sentences. This is evident in several complex sentences that realise cognitive complexity features in the dialogue representing the most complex version, version three of target language proficiency in Kiswahili. In this dialogue, the occurrences of monoclausal sentences are higher than in all the previously analysed dialogues. Monoclausal sentences include [b2, b4, b6, c4, e2, e3, e5, e6, f1, g6, g10, g11, g12, g14, g19, h5, h7, h10, i1, i2, & i3]. For example, in sentence h5, syntactic complexity is realised by the occurrence of, on one side the auxiliary verb form in indicative future tense watakuwa and on the other hand, lexical verb form in the indicative past tense tuliojua, hence demonstrating the [- here-and-now] feature of cognitive complexity.

In addition, this task dialogue segment exemplifies the occurrence of sentences with one main clause and an associated subordinate clause in a single complex sentence. Examples of such sentences are: [d1, d6, f10, g1, g3, g8, h6, h8, h9, & i4]. In these sentences, the syntactic complexity is mostly manifested, for example, in expressions that refer to several things in a single clause, hence realising the [- few elements] feature of cognitive complexity. For example, sentence f10, the infinitive auxiliary verb form kuweza and the infinitive lexical verb form kupata of the subordinate clause, are qualifying the complex predicate walienda of the main clause. Thus, this sentence demonstrates the content of the leaner, Wanyama, narrating to fellow learners and the teacher about what people carried with them to get the hippo’s meat. Thus, by narrating all these things at once results in such sentences exhibiting the [- few elements] features of cognitive complexity. Similar cases occur, for example, in sentence [d1, d3, f2 & f3], where relative clauses describe nouns in the preceding main clauses.
Furthermore, this dialogue segment demonstrates sentences \([d_5 & c_1]\) consisting of two coordinated main clauses. For example, in sentence \(d_5\), the conjunction \(na\), which precedes an indicative present tense lexical verb form \(unawaogopa\) that occurs in the first main clause, coordinates the first main clause with the indicative present perfect tense auxiliary verb form \(tumekuwa\), and habitual present tense lexical verb form \(tukipishana\) of the second main clause. In addition, in sentence \([c_1]\), the coordinator, \(ndiyo maana\), of the two coordinated clauses; i.e. a clause with an indicative present tense auxiliary verb form \(wanaoweza\), preceded an infinitive lexical verb form \(kutudhuru\), and the clause with an indicative present tense complex predicate form \(wanafungiwa\). In this sentence, the coordinator also the conjunction, \(ndiyo maana\) entails intentional reasoning feature qualifying the infinitive lexical verb form \(kutudhuru\), hence exhibition of the \([-\text{no reasoning}]\) feature of cognitive complexity. In this dialogue, there are reasoning expressions that, for example, in sentences \([c_3, g_{17} & h_4]\), respectively. These include; \(ili, lakini\) and \(ila\), respectively.

Therefore, in view of the analysis of sentences the above, it is evident that this dialogue is syntactically and cognitively complex. In summary, the dialogue segment demonstrates a correlation between the syntactic complexity of sentences and the cognitively complexity features of resource-directing resources, as summarised in Table 4:29, on page 312, and also as task version three in Table 4:32, on page 319. This dialogue version benchmarks the most advanced level of Kiswahili proficiency required in the performance of Task five. Thus, to construct the syntactically less complex dialogues for learning task versions, version two and version one, from the most syntactically complex task version three, it is necessary to manipulate some of the complex sentences of version three to yield their respective dialogues.

4.5.5.4. Pedagogical task versions of Task five in terms of syntactic complexity

Thus, to produce a syntactically less complex pedagogical task version, version two, representing a level of communicative adequacy which is syntactically less complex than the syntactic complex associated with communicative proficiency for task version three, as shown in Table 4:32, on page 319, like Task three, this task requires to manipulate resource dispersing variables first, and then manipulation of resource- directing resources is done.

4.5.5.4.1. Pedagogical task version two of Task five

Considering the \([-\text{prior knowledge}]\) features of cognitive complexity, this task version requires to omit parts of the sentences in the version three dialogue that expresses the content of Sajile referring to narrations based on his previously acquired knowledge, as realised in dialogue segments (b), (c)
and (g), respectively. For example, in sentence \([g_{15}]\), the dependent clause with an indicative present perfect tense lexical verb form *umeshawahi*, preceded by an infinitive lexical verb form *kusikia*, can be omitted. This partial omission is in order because, in the remaining part of the sentence, the previously intended meaning of the whole sentence \([g_{15}]\) still exists, hence resulting sentence \(g_{15}\), to demonstrate the relatively less syntactic complex feature of [+ prior knowledge] of task version two, demonstrated, as (b)\(^{\text{mod}2}\), (c)\(^{\text{mod}2}\), and (g), in Table 4:30, on page 316. As has been the case with dialogue segments (g), the same manipulation technique can be employed to omit some parts of sentences in dialogue segments (b) and (c) to realise relatively less syntactic complex feature of [+ prior knowledge] of task version two, demonstrated, as task version two in Table 4:32, on page 319.

From the above analysis, it is evident that the simulated task dialogue (b)\(^{\text{mod}2}\), (c)\(^{\text{mod}2}\), cannot be manipulated further, except (g). This suggests that to construct a dialogue associated with the syntactically least complex task version, version one of this task, the same clauses that realised sentences in simulated task dialogue \((g)\(^{\text{mod}1}\), respectively, the same procedure that was used to manipulate task version two can be repeated as well to realise the least complex task version of this task, hence realising syntactically least complex sentences realising cognitively least complex features with respect to the [+ prior knowledge] variables as summarised in Table 4:32, on page 319.

Lastly, with regard to resource-dispersing of the [- single task] features in relation to the construction of syntactically less complex task version, version two, from the syntactically most complex task version three, it is necessary to use the omission technique to omit some parts of dialogue segment (b), (d) and (f), respectively that realise syntactically complex sentences realising cognitively complex features, exhibiting the [- single task] variable. For example, in sentence \([d_{3}]\), it is possible to completely omit the main clause with an indicative present perfect lexical verb form *nimeiona*. The omission is possible because, in this clause, Kayobora confirms to what Nyambibo has already expressed in the previous main clause, with a negative indicative present tense lexical verb *unaona*, as it occurs in sentence \([d_{2}]\), hence realising the repetitions of words. Thus, the omission of such a clause from sentence \([d_{3}]\) results sentences \([d_{3}]\) to exhibit relatively less syntactic sentences realising relatively less cognitively complex features of the [+ single task] variable, summarised, as (b)\(^{\text{mod}2}\), (d)\(^{\text{mod}2}\) and (f), of task version two in Table 4:32, on page 319.

In relation to resource-directing dimension as regard to the construction of the dialogues associated with the syntactically less complex task version, version two, from the most syntactically task version three, it is necessary to apply the omission technique to manipulate the [- few elements]
feature that realise sentences in simulated task dialogue (b), (c), (g), (h) and (i). For example, in this task version, it is in order to omit all sentences that are realised in the dialogue segments (i), that demonstrate most syntactically sentences, realising the most cognitively complex feature of the [-few elements] variable. For example, sentences \([i_1 \text{–} i_4]\), can all be omitted because their content is non-essential to the broad thematic topic of Task five in general. Thus, their omission does not affect the intended meaning of this task, as it is realised in the remaining dialogue segment, \((b)^{\text{mod}_2}, (c), (g)^{\text{mod}_2}\) and (h), hence realising relatively less syntactically complex sentences exemplifying relatively less cognitively complex features of the [-few elements] variable, as summarised in task version two in Table 4:32, on page 319.

Considering the realisation of less syntactically complex task version two with respect to the [-no reasoning] feature of task version three, there is a necessity to manipulate the simulated task dialogue segment (c), (d), (f) and (g). In this regard, for example, it is necessary to completely omit parts of the sentences that occur in dialogue segment (c). A possible example is the main clause in sentence \(c_3\) which is introduced by an intentional reasoning element \(ili\), followed by indicative present tense auxiliary verb form \(twende\), which occurs before an indicative present tense lexical verb form \(tukafanye\). It is evident that the content in which the intentional reasoning element \(ili\) occurs, is non-essential to the broad thematic topic of Task five, hence by omitting such a main clause, results the remaining task dialogue segments such as \((b)^{\text{mod}_2}, (f)\) and \((g)\), to exhibit less syntactically complex sentences demonstrating less cognitively complex feature of the [-no reasoning] variable of task version two, as summarised in Table 4:32, on page 319.

In regard to the realisation of the syntactically less complex version, version two in relation to the [-here-and-now] feature of task version three, it is in order to omit all sentences that occur in the task dialogue segment (f). This is in order because this dialogue exhibits sentences that illustrate the occurrences of, for example, the indicative present perfect lexical verb form \(umenikumbusha\) (see \([f_1]\)), an indicative past tense lexical verb form \(alitusimulia\) (see \([f_2]\)), and an indicative past tense lexical verb form \(alisema\) (see \([f_4]\)), which demonstrate the [-here-and-now] feature, yet they are non-essential to the thematic content of Task five. Thus, by omitting the task dialogue segment (f), the remaining task dialogue segments, can also be modified to exhibit dialogue \((c)^{\text{mod}_2}, (g)\) and \((h)\), exhibit sentences that illustrate relatively less syntactically complex sentences demonstrating less cognitive complex feature of the [-here-and-now] variable of task version two, as summarised in task version two demonstrated in Table 4:32, on page 319.
4.5.5.4.2. Pedagogical task version one of Task five

The previous section pointed out that relatively less syntactically complex sentences realising less cognitively complex features of the [+ prior knowledge] variables of Task five could not be modified any further. Therefore, the analysis of least syntactically complex sentences realising least cognitively complex features of the resource-dispersing features of task version one with regard to resource-dispersing features of Task five will only consider the [+/- single task] feature.

Thus, to realise the syntactically least complex sentences of task version one, from relatively less syntactic complex sentences of task version two, in relation the [- single task] variable, it is necessary to manipulate sentences which exhibit relatively [- single task] features as they occur in the dialogue segment (b)$^{mod_2}$, (d)$^{mod_2}$ and (f). For example, in the simulated task dialogue of segment (f), there are clauses that can be omitted to realise a syntactically least complex version of Task one which to exhibit the [+ single task], for example, the main clause that forms sentence f$_1$. In this clause, the indicative present perfect tense lexical verb form umenikumbusha, can be omitted because umenikumbusha cognitively requires the learner, Wanyama, to first remember something before he narrates it to his fellow colleagues and the teacher, hence exhibiting relatively less syntactic complex, realising relatively cognitive complex [+ single task] feature, as summarised in Table 4:32, on page 319. Thus, by omitting the main clause [f$_1$], results in the remaining clauses to exhibit relatively least syntactic complex sentences exemplifying relatively least cognitive complex features of task version one of Task five summarised, as (d), (d) and (f)$^{mod_1}$, in Table 4:32, on page 319.

In relation to resource-directing dimensions with respect to the construction of the dialogues associated with the syntactically least complex task version, version one, from the less syntactically task version two, it is necessary to manipulate sentences which demonstrate the [- few elements] features. For example, in the simulated task dialogue of segment (h), there is a sentence, h$_2$, that can be omitted to realise a syntactically least complex version of Task one which to exhibit relatively syntactic least complex sentences realising relatively least cognitive complex features of the [- few elements] variables. In sentence h$_2$, the learner, Lembo narrates about ideas that are non-essential to the broad thematic topic of task five, as they expressed, for example, by the indicative present perfect tense lexical verb form nimelichungulia, as it occurs in the dependent clause of the main clause with indicative past tense lexical verb form nikaona which is proceeded with an indicative past tense lexical verb form lilivojengwa. Thus, the omission of, for example, sentence [h$_2$], does not directly affect the intended meaning of Task five, hence results as a sentence (h)$^{mod_1}$, which
exhibit least syntactically sentences, exhibiting least cognitively complex feature, as summarised task version one in Table 4:32, on page 319.

Considering the realisation of least task version with regard to the syntactically [- no reasoning] complex feature from task version two as they occur in dialogue segments (c)\textsuperscript{mob}2, (d)\textsuperscript{mob}2, (f) and (g). It is possible to manipulate some sentences that exhibit the [- no reasoning]. The manipulation is necessary, for example, to omit sentences that occur in simulated dialogue segments (f) and (g). For example, in sentence [g17], the omission technique can be applied to a part of the subordinate clause, a conjunction, lakini. Lakini entails elements of intentional reasoning element that qualifies the indicative present tense lexical verb form wanasafriri which occurs in sentence [g16]. Nevertheless, after the omission of the conjunction lakini, the remaining section of the sentence still holds its intended meaning. This suggests that the modification of sentence [g7] results to dialogue segment (g)\textsuperscript{mod}1 to realise syntactically relatively least complexity sentences demonstrating the cognitively least relative complexity of the of the [- no reasoning] feature, as summarised in Table 4:32, on page 319. This means that the dialogue segment (c)\textsuperscript{mod}1 can further be manipulated until it exhibits sentences without reasoning elements, hence realising least syntactically sentences, illustrating a least cognitively complex feature of the [+ no reasoning] variable.

Lastly, to produce the syntactically least complex version, task version one, in relation to the [- here-and-now] feature of task version two, it is in order to modify both auxiliary and lexical verbs forms with the [- here-and-now] features which occur in sentences that constitute dialogue segment (c)\textsuperscript{mod}2, (g) and (h), as illustrated in task version two in Table 4:32, on page 319. For example, in dialogue segment (g), in sentence [gs], there is an independent clause with an indicative present perfect tense lexical verb form wamepumzika exhibiting the [-here-and- now] feature. This verb form can be modified to an indicative present tense lexical verb form wanapumzika, to realise a syntactically least complex sentence exhibiting cognitively least complex feature of the [+ here-and-now] feature of sentence [gs], summarised as task version one in Table 4:32, on page 319. This means that, for example, if other sentences in dialogue segment (c)\textsuperscript{mod}2, and (h)\textsuperscript{mod}1 are modified further, this task version, version one can realise the least syntactically complex sentences demonstrating the least cognitive complex features of the [+ here-and-now] of task version one of Task five.
4.5.6. The grading and sequencing of pedagogical tasks: Correlating cognitive complexity with sentential syntactic complexity

In summary, from section 4.5.1 to section 4.5.4.2, i.e. from page 219 to page 333, I have presented an analysis of cognitive complexity features of the five selected Kiswahili task descriptions. Thereafter, I conducted a syntactic complexity analysis in terms of sentential complexity of the associated dialogue segments of the Kiswahili task descriptions. Thus, in relation to the grading of cognitive complexity features for the Kiswahili task descriptions, the study has posed that the grading of the three levels of task descriptions can be conducted through mainly the exclusion of a whole segment(s) at a time. With regard to the grading of the three levels of simulated segment dialogues in relation to syntactic complexity, the study has posed that it is mainly partial omission through manipulating either sentences or parts of clauses. This means that the three levels of syntactic complexity as shown in the constructed Kiswahili STDs are illustrations of appropriate content associated with specific TDSs from which they were constructed.

Furthermore, the analysis presented above reveals that there is a larger degree of correlation occurring between cognitive complex features and linguistic/syntactic complex sentences as they appear in the associated Kiswahili simulated segments. In fact, the correlations appear more extensive with regard to the [ +/- few elements] and the [ +/- here-and-now] features, than it is in the [ +/- no reasoning] features. The possible justification for this variation relates to the occurrence of mainly conjunctions in the simulated dialogues. Most conjunctions entail reasoning elements that affect a whole segment instead of a specific sentence(s) or clause when manipulated. Subsequently, the pedagogical implication for the above suggests that all task versions with the [ +/- here-and-now] and [ +/- few elements] features, are needed to be introduced to Kiswahili second/additional language learners before learners perform tasks that exhibit the [ +/- no reasoning] features, as advanced by Robinson (2005, 2009b, 2010, 2015).

4.6. Summary

This chapter was concerned with analysing the five purposefully selected TDSs and their respective STDs. The analysis was conducted with respect to three different facets of complexity, i.e. interactional, cognitive and syntactic complexity, respectively.

In respect to the interactional complexity, the analysis aimed at (i) distinguishing the task communication configurations in each TDS, and (ii) categorizing the task types in term of the communication configuration that each TDS exhibited. The cognitive complexity analysis was
aimed to identify cognitive demand features that a particular TDS exhibited. Lastly, the syntactic complexity analysis was aimed to establish the complex sentential structures embedded in the STDs of the five selected TDSs.

Thus, to sufficiently attain the goals of each facet of analysis, specific perspectives and techniques on interactional, cognitive and syntactic complexity (cf. AS-unit), were reviewed and employed to achieve the above purposes.

In regard to the first facet of analysis, that determined the characteristics of interactional complexity of the selected TDSs, the chapter has demonstrated that while three TDSs (Table 4:4, on page 220; Table 4:16, on page 261 & Table 4:22, on page 284) of the five analysed TDSs, exhibited configurations of information gap task types, two TDSs as summarised in Table 4:10, on page 239 and Table 4:28, on page 306, predominantly exhibited configurations of the jigsaw task type. However, I pointed out that in the two TDSs of the jigsaw task type, there were distinct occurrences of configurations of information gap tasks, relating to the fixed roles and one-way flow of information due to independent suppliers of information. Thus, using introspective judgement, I qualified, the two TDSs as information gap tasks. In section 4.2.2, on page 208, it was stated that the information gap tasks entail activities that motivate L2 learners to communicate in the L2s they are learning. This implies that given that Kiswahili learners are required to perform information gap tasks, as predominantly exemplified in the analysed TDSs, learners’ opportunities of participating in the performance of these tasks are high, hence their gradual interlanguage development is realised due to task demand in performative and developmental complexity, as explored in section 3.9.2, on page 193, and summarised in Table 3:15, on page 203.

With regard to cognitive analysis (the second facet of analysis), the first part of the analysis aimed to determine the cognitive developmental and the performative complexity dimensions of the five selected Kiswahili TDSs. In this regard, the chapter concluded that all the resource-directing variables i.e. [+/- few elements], [+/- no reasoning], [+/- here-and-now], of the analysed TDSs exhibited the [-] feature, while the variables of resource-dispersing features demonstrated variances in cognitive complexity among TDSs. For example, the [+/- prior knowledge] and [+/- single task] variables in the TDSs of Task one, Task two and Task four presented the [+] feature, while the same variables in TDSs of Task three and Task five, demonstrated the [-] feature hence being categorised as quadrant [3] in terms of Table 3:15, on page 203, that represents low performative and high developmental complexity.
In relation to the variables on the resource-directing dimensions of the TDSs that exhibited the [-] feature, this indicates that these TDSs demonstrate cognitively complexity features for L2 Kiswahili learners to perform since these TDSs reflect the natural use of Kiswahili language in the real-world situations from which pedagogical (learning) tasks have been derived, as discussed in section 3.5, on page 141. This meant that to construct Kiswahili pedagogical/learning tasks from the natural real-world TDSs, there was a need to manipulate the cognitively demanding features of the analysed TDSs which was the focus of the second part of cognitive complexity analysis.

Thus, to manipulate and decomplexify the resource-directing features of the five analysed TDSs, and the resource-dispersing features of TDSs for Task three and Task Five, respectively, omission or alteration techniques were employed which are in line with the optional and obligatory analysis of move structures of a genre, as discussed in section 4.3.1, on page 212. These two techniques have been used either independently or concurrently, considering the cognitive features as exhibited in a particular TDS(s). Thus, through the manipulation processes, the less complex and the least cognitively complex versions were designed from the most cognitively complex version of the TDSs (or version three of the task).

For example, in constructing and grading the less and least cognitively complex task versions (versions two and one) from the most complex tasks versions (i.e. version three or a TDS), the chapter demonstrated the manipulation of the resource-directing variables of the five selected TDSs. It has been identified that all the resource-directing variables of the analysed TDSs demonstrated the [-] feature. Similarly, given that the [-] occurred in [+/- prior knowledge] and [+/- single task] variables in the TDSs of Task three and Task five, the two techniques of manipulation were employed in the TDSs with the aim of decomplexifying the most complex task version (i.e. task version three or the unaltered TDS). Sequencing of the task versions preceded the grading process. In this respect, by employing the two principles of the SSARC model, as explored in section 4.3.1, on page 212, all the task versions of the analysed TDSs were sequenced from the least cognitively complex versions, i.e. version one, through to version two, i.e. less cognitively complex version, to version three, i.e. the most cognitively complex version (the TDS), as shown in Table 4:8, on page 229, Table 4:14, on page 249, Table 4:20, on page 273, Table 4:26, on page 293 and Table 4:32, on page 319, respectively.

The last facet of the analysis was concerned with the syntactic or linguistics complexity analysis of the respective Kiswahili STDs of the five selected TDSs. This facet of analysis examined the correlation between the syntactic complexity of sentences in the Kiswahili STDs and the cognitively complex features in the TDSs. In this respect, the chapter concluded that as all five
analysed STDs largely exhibited complex Kiswahili syntactic structures, the degree of complexity varied in the series of clauses that constituted particular STDs. Since all the STDs demonstrated the occurrence of monoclausal sentences, it was concluded that only in the STD of TDS for Task three the occurrence of complex clauses is extensive, in that the Kiswahili sentence structures in this STD are composed of sentences exhibiting (i) monoclausal sentences, (ii) independent clauses and associated dependent clauses, and (iii), coordinated main clause and a single or more dependent clauses. Thus, to decomplexify and grade tasks exhibiting this syntactic complexity to less and least complex versions of the STDs, as it was done in decomplexifying the cognitive complexity features, the analysis employed omission and alteration techniques. The different task versions of the syntactic complexity of the analysed STDs were then sequenced based on the degree of syntactic complexity and cognitive complexity in order to be suitable for teaching L2 Kiswahili to learners in the lower secondary schools in Uganda.
CHAPTER FIVE

TASK-BASED METHODOLOGY AND FOCUS ON FORM IN TEACHING KISWAHILI AS A SECOND LANGUAGE FOR BEGINNER LEARNERS

From time to time, a new concept enters the field of language education as an alternative method or approach...rapidly grows in significance to the point where it comes to condition thinking throughout the field. Such was the case with Communicative Language Teaching...rapidly became an axiom of language teaching methodology [...]. As part of this paradigm shift, [t]he return of structures and grammar was perhaps inevitable, but equally inevitable was the fact that these re-emerged in ‘communicative’ guises. – Benson and Voller (1997: 10)

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5.1. Introduction

This chapter mainly addresses views concerning focus on form (FoF) as a continuation of similar perspectives as explored in the previous chapters, mainly in Chapter Two, Three and Four. For example, in Chapter Two, specifically in section 2.4.6, on page 88 and its subsequent subsections, from 2.4.6.1 to 2.4.6.7, i.e. from page 89 to page 100, I discussed some theoretical underpinnings that inform pedagogical practices regarding contemporary views from research in regard to the teaching and learning of L2s. In this chapter, I first present a discussion on mainly three orientations i.e. the cognitive, sociocultural and interactional views that have emerged from theoretical underpinnings, as discussed in the above-mentioned sections and in some sections of Chapter Three (i.e., for example, on cognitive [section 3.9, on page 185], on sociocultural [section 3.4.4.1, on page 132 & section 3.9.1, on page 189], on interactional [section 3.5.2.4.1, on page 150 & section 3.8.4.2, on page 181]). Thus, to contextualise the above perspectives, in section 5.3, on page 342, I invoke Keck and Kim’s (2014) approach which explore views on the contemporary underpinnings in the teaching of L2 grammar. These views are premised on cognitive, sociocultural and interactional aspects. To the present study, such views provide a theoretical background as a basis on which teachers can broadly situate their understanding of issues related to instructed SLA, in general, and grammar acquisition in particular based on different teaching contexts.

Thus, while expanding the investigation of issues addressed in Chapter Two, Chapter Three, and in the previous chapter, i.e. in Chapter Four, among other aspects, I mainly demonstrated the devices of manipulation of interactional (for example, in section 4.5.1.1, on page 221), cognitive (for
example, in section 4.5.1.2, on page 222), as well as syntactic features (for example, in section 4.5.1.3, on page 232) on the examples of Kiswahili pedagogical tasks for learners in Ugandan lower secondary schools. Therefore, to develop these issues further, Chapter Four is also set to offer considerations on views related to methodological principles and pedagogical procedures in adapting and refining further the manipulated designs of learning tasks (see section 5.4, on page 348). Such views are set to sufficiently address learners’ particular needs and interests in relation to the areas where learners need more practice, for example, in speaking, vocabulary extensions and in the provision of more interactional opportunities while they are learning Kiswahili as an L2. Therefore, to situate the above views, in section 5.5, on page 354, I mainly employ Willis and Willis’s (2007) approach which invokes similar views to Long’s (2015a) pedagogical procedures.

For instance, on the one hand, Willis and Willis’s (2007) advance the views on parameters of adapting and refining of pedagogical tasks which provide insights to L2 teachers on how to modify learning tasks to efficiently address learners immediate and long-term needs. On the other hand, Long’s (2015a) approach relates to mainly pedagogical procedures (PPs) and methodological principles (MPs) for consideration in task-based classrooms (see section 5.6, on page 367). In addition, Long’ approach considers a series of previous studies with several examples to illustrate scientific evidence on research done with respect to a particular aspect of MP(s). Thus, the current study argues that, the views advanced in the study of Willis and Willis (2007; cf. Long 2015a) provide Kiswahili teachers with detailed resources on several instructional options that teachers can generally consider in their task-based classrooms, as will be discussed later after the discussion of the views advanced by Keck and Kim (2014). In all this, we see that TBLT teachers as moderators in refining and adapting learning tasks for pedagogical purposes. Basing on this, the chapter briefly paints a picture (see from section 5.7 to section 5.7.1.3, i.e. from page 369 to page 373) on the pedagogical roles/positions that can be employed by L2 teachers in implementing TBLT in their classrooms.

Nevertheless, before I explore Keck and Kim’s (2014) perspectives on theory to practice in instructed L2 grammar acquisition, it is important to briefly consider some views from research on the role of L2 instruction, specifically on grammar teaching and learning, as discussed in some sections of Chapter Two (see, for example, sections 2.4.6.6 & 2.4.6.7, on pages 96 and 100, respectively). This highlight is intended to provide a framework within which theoretical perspectives and arguments of scholars such as Willis and Willis (2007; cf. Long 2015a) and Keck and Kim (2014) can be positioned, as will be explored later.
5.2. The role of instruction in SLA

Despite the frequent emergence of alternative methods or approaches in language education (cf. Musau 1995), Benson and Voller (1997: 10) emphasise the view that the position of grammar in language teaching is often unavoidable. In this respect, Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993: 123) point out that the teaching of grammar in L2 pedagogy dates back to more than 2500 years ago. In this regard, Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993:123) emphasise other scholars’ views that instructed L2 learners could be more advantaged by formal grammar instruction than learners who are learning a language naturally, without focussing on the grammatical forms. In this regard, in his book, introduction to instructed second language acquisition, Loewen (2015: 2) synthesises previous definitions to provide the operational definition regarding instructed second language acquisition (ISLA). He states that:

instructed second language acquisition is a theoretically and empirically based field of academic inquiry that aims to understand how the systematic manipulation of the mechanisms of learning and/or the conditions under which they occur enable or facilitate the development and acquisition of a language other than one’s first.

Similarly, Long (2017: 8) defines instructed L2 acquisition is the learning process of L2s either intentionally or accidentally under the influence of, for example, language teachers, instructional materials or even peer learners (see also Figure 3:1, on page 127). In attempting to address the question of whether there is a particular type of grammar instruction that is more effective than others, Benati (2013: 114) emphasises the view that L2 teaching is about addressing questions of how and what to teach. Developing further the above view, while drawing on empirical and theoretical evidence of L2 research, Benati argues that in L2 teaching, there is a need to determine and teach the type of grammar that can best enhance the internalization of grammatical features of the L2 by the learner.

While referring to the role of instruction and its significance in SLA, Benati and Angelovska (2016: 60-61) emphasise the view that for the last five decades, debates in relation to the role of instruction have been on-going, especially in the acquisition of language properties and aspects of morphology and syntax. In this regard, with reference to Benati and Angelovska (2016: 61), VanPatten and Williams (2015) suggest that the contemporary SLA studies provide two perspectives on the role of instruction in SLA, namely (i) instruction might be beneficial, and (ii) instruction does not make a difference (cf. Benati 2013: 114; VanPatten 2017). In light with these views, while attempting to address the role of instruction in SLA, Benati and Angelovska (2016: 61) aptly emphasise the view that “we do not learn everything we are taught.” This is in order because according to Benati and Angelovska (2016: 59), L2 researchers have consistently considered SLA as, primarily,
unconsciously and implicitly based processes, guided mainly by the interaction that L2 learners encounter with L2 input, as will be discussed in the subsequent sections.

5.3. Keck and Kim’s (2014) perspectives on theory to practice in instructed L2 grammar acquisition

Keck and Kim (2014: 145) are of the view that since the 1980s, several theories of L2 teaching and learning have been redefined, while others emerged within the field of instructed SLA (see further Nassaji & Fotos 2007). Keck and Kim argue that the cognitive, sociocultural, as well as interactional orientations, are the major theories which have emerged and influenced the field of instructed SLA. For example, according to Keck and Kim (2014: 145-146), the sociocultural orientation to instructed SLA investigates the role of learners in interacting socially as they learn L2(s). In particular, this orientation seeks to examine how L2 teachers can foster L2 learners to socially participate with other family members, friends, or classmates through enhancing classroom collaboration(s) such as learner-learner or learner-teacher (cf. section 4.1, on page 206), with regard to the development of competence of the grammatical features of the L2s.

Keck and Kim (2014: 146) furthermore argue that the interactional orientation deals with how L2 learners’ linguistic environment interact with learners’ internally initiated cognitive processes such as noticing. Thus, the interactional orientation calls for L2 teachers’ techniques in nurturing interaction in L2 classrooms as a way of promoting the acquisition of various forms of an L2(s).

Lastly, the cognitive orientation, which is less similar with the first two orientations described above, examines L2 learners’ inner processes of cognition including memory storage, processing of information, attention, awareness, and retrieval of information. According to Keck and Kim, the cognitive orientation relates to question such as; “what role might instruction and practice play in the development of automatic processing and retrieval skills? In what ways do the cognitive demands of a task impact the accuracy, fluency, and complexity of learner language?”

Having briefly explored the three major orientations that inform instructed SLA, it is relevant to directly relate them to the pedagogical concerns and methodological principles that correlate with the three orientations with research-based evidence mainly in relation to the teaching and learning of grammar in L2 classrooms.

5.3.1. Explicit and implicit instruction

Keck and Kim (2014: 146) emphasise that research evidence shows that both explicit and implicit instruction is vital for promoting grammar teaching in L2 classrooms. Nevertheless, the two authors are of the view that explicit and implicit teaching should be viewed as a continuum rather than two
opposing sides, whereby on one end of the continuum instruction, explicit, entails focussing on forms, the latter end which depicts structural syllabuses (see section 2.4.1, on page 66), while in the classrooms, L2 teachers explicitly provide L2 learners with grammar instruction with limited chances for meaningful interaction (cf. Loewen & Sato 2018: 300). The other end of the continuum is an implicit instruction illustrates focus on meaning or features of process syllabuses (see section 2.4.3, on page 79). This implicit instruction allows L2 teachers to focus on meaning while in the L2 classrooms. At this end of the continuum, there are no efforts to direct L2 learners’ attention to L2 forms (see Keck & Kim 2014: 147 for the diagrammatic illustration of the two continuums). Recall that between the two continuums, there are several pedagogical options which provide teachers with choices of drawing L2 learners’ attention to focus on L2 form(s) in the meaning-based interactions with L2 learners (Keck & Kim 2014: 148).

On the one hand, one of the options is that of focus on form (FoF) as proposed by, among others, Long (2000). This is the immediate option close to the end of the continuum of implicit instruction, i.e. focus on meaning. As has been pointed out in section 2.4.6.6, on page 96, while applying FoF in the L2 classrooms, learners’ attention is drawn to focus on a specific linguistic/grammatical form as learners perform a task. Focusing mainly occurs when there is a communication breakdown as learners perform a given task. This suggests that FoF is essential for TBLT given that is organised at the exact time when it is required, not before the lesson commences, but rather during the lesson. Another option relating to FoF is what Keck and Kim (2014: 148) term as Planned Implicit Focus on Form (PIFoF). Unlike FoF, in the application of PIFoF L2 teachers are given opportunities to plan in advance as they design communicative tasks, the linguistics forms that their L2 learners will require to perform communication tasks. According to Keck and Kim, PIFoF is applied in conjunction with another technique known as Corrective Feedback (CF), as discussed in section 2.4.6.7, on page 100. Keck and Kim maintain that CF is envisioned to increase chances for L2 learners that they will attend to a pre-planned grammatical form. In this instance, teachers are required to repeat a given utterance as they raise the intonation, then a recast of the same utterance is provided by a teacher (cf. Leeman 2003).

Closer to the other end of the continuum of teaching Focus on Forms (FonFs) (cf. section 2.4.6.6, on page 96) i.e. the end that relates to structural syllabuses, as explored in section 2.4.1, on page 66, is the approach that L2 teachers have the option of utilising both explicit techniques (FonFs) in addition to techniques which are based on meaning-focused communicative tasks (FoF). In this regard, according to Keck and Kim (2014: 148), L2 teachers are first, required to introduce target forms to their learners. Then, learners are engaged in communicative practices. Thereafter, such
challenging forms/features during task performance, are reviewed by both teacher and learners. In terms of this approach, both FoF is attended to, as well as a shift to FonFs. In summary, the continuum of form-focused instruction provides L2 teachers with flexible opportunities in relation to the teaching of grammar to L2 learners.

5.3.2. Meaning-focused communication tasks

In task-based language teaching and learning, grammar-based communication tasks are designed with the focus mainly on the meaning and then on the grammatical form (Keck & Kim 2014: 149; cf. McDonough, Shaw & Masuhara 2013: 213). Keck and Kim (2014: 149) argue that while L2 learners attempt to understand each other in task performance to achieve a goal, such learners are provided simultaneously with opportunities to attend to their own errors or attend to specific linguistic forms as they promote communication flow (cf. section 5.3.4, on page 346). According to Keck and Kim (2014: 150), the possibility of learners to attend to grammatical form as they perform a communicative task is referred to as task-based interaction. Research studies (Keck, Iberri-Shea, Tracy-Ventura, & Wa-Mbaleka, 2006; Macky & Goo, 2007 as cited in Keck & Kim 2014: 150) support the views that L2 learners who are engaged in task-based interaction(s) largely acquire L2 grammar compared to other learners without formal grammar instruction or those instructed using different approaches. Thus, as a way of promoting L2 grammar acquisition in classrooms, Keck and Kim (2014: 150-151) contend that there are three features that need to be taken into consideration while designing communicative tasks. These include the information gap (see section 4.2.2, on page 208), corrective feedback (see section 2.4.6.7, on page 100), and task-essentialness (see the next paragraph). Therefore, while in the classrooms, as the above three orientations interact, Keck and Kim argue the view that such an interaction increases learners’ chances of acquiring L2 grammar.

In relation to task essentialness, Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993: 132) draw a distinction between three kinds of grammatical structures that can be identified in focus on form in pedagogical tasks. These include task essentialness, task utility and task naturalness structures. Task essential/essentialness refers to a specific task structure that is obligatorily needed to perform/or complete a given task, without which the task cannot be performed/or completed (cf. Loewen 2015: 45). Task utility refers to the easiness at which a given task is performed with the assistance of a specific grammatical form, whereby the absence of such a form leads to challenges in performing and completing a task. Thirdly, task naturalness refers to a situation where a grammatical form naturally occurs while the task is performed. Nevertheless, unlike task utility and task essentialness, the absence of such as a form does not cause challenges in task performance/or completion (see
Loschky & Bley-Vroman 1993: 132-139, for a detailed discussion on the above three task structures).

### 5.3.3. Variations of corrective feedback

While the issue of corrective feedback (CF) has been discussed in Chapter Two, mainly in section 2.4.6.7, on page 100, Keck and Kim (2015: 152) contend that teachers are still in a dilemma with regard to, for example, when and how learners’ errors should be corrected and whether teachers should correct all errors as they occur. Teacher are concerned whether there is a need to explain learners’ errors, or just correct them. In summary, Keck and Kim (2014: 152) are of the view that all the above concerns are necessary given that when applied in the L2 classrooms, they make a difference to L2 learners’ acquisition of target language(s). Keck and Kim discuss several studies that show incorporating oral feedback in communicative tasks as being beneficial compared to when little or no any feedback option is embedded. In other words, classroom teachers have several feedback strategies that are at their disposal. Teachers can use such strategies complementary with an aim of shifting learners’ attention to focus and notice L2 grammatical feature(s), hence leading L2 learners to acquire the grammar of the target language. Keck and Kim are of the view that recast, is an implicit technique of providing L2 learners with feedback. This technique has been intensively researched on in the field of SLA research.

Recasting or recast is a conventional strategy whereby an utterance of a learner is repeated or slightly modified by mainly the teacher. This is in order because the teacher attempts to clarify or highlight that there is an error that the learners have made in the attested utterance. On one hand, according to Keck and Kim (2014: 154), one form of recast entails implicit corrective feedback (ICF) or implicit negative feedback (INF). In this type of recast, a language teacher or a native speaker in the classroom explicitly responds to a grammatical error without informing the speaker (learner) that a grammatical error has been made. At the ICF, learner’s focus is drawn towards a given grammatical form while maintaining the on-going conversation. Keck and Kim state that several studies have given evidence that in language learning, recasts provide for both negative as well the positive evidence in task-based interaction. In this respect, the two scholars argue that different language teachers have different options for addressing recasts in their classrooms. With reference to Keck and Kim (2014: 154), Lyster and Ranta (1997) point out that recast, compared to other explicit forms of feedback, has been found to draw the least attention from learners. Thus, leaving room for learners neither to repeat nor modify the utterance when recast was provided by a teacher. This contrasts with the principle of uptake. According to Keck and Kim (2014: 154),

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uptake occurs where L2 learners notice teacher’s feedback as an indication that the process of facilitating grammar acquisition is in progress.

Incidental feedback (IF) represents another form of feedback. With reference to Keck and Kim (2014: 155), Lyster and Ranta (1997) argue that unlike planned feedback which focuses on specific form, IF occurs while task performance in ongoing (see also Erlam & Pimentel-Hellier 2017). IF is intended to (i) confirm whether comprehension has taken place, or (ii) clarity with regard to the intended meaning as perceived by learners. In summarising, discussion regarding forms of feedback, as discussed above, with reference to Keck and Kim (2014: 155), Ellis et al. (2000) and Loewen (2005) emphasise the view that both planned and incidental feedback facilitate in the grammar acquisition processes. For example, on one hand, planned FoF provides intensive coverage of a specific grammatical form of the target language, one the other hand, incidental focus FoF provide extensive coverage of several grammatical forms of L2s. In this regard, Keck and Kim (2014: 155) suggest that L2 teachers should familiarise themselves with several feedback strategies in terms of the appropriate time and how such strategies are applied in the L2 classrooms.

5.3.4. The role of L2 learners

Keck and Kim (2014: 161) point out that several studies advance the view that providing L2 learners with sufficient opportunities to realise their output and receive feedback in their utterances facilitate in the acquisition of grammar. This is such opportunities allow learners to work together as they perform a given task. In such engagements, L2 learners employ the concept of languaging. With reference to Keck and Kim (2014: 161), Swain (2006) maintains that languaging as a concept refers to a situation whereby L2 learners use language to (i) solve problems, (ii) differentiate between what they do not know and know, and (iii) co-construct knowledge regarding the L2 language they are learning. In this regard, according to Keck and Kim, there is a tool that was developed by Swain and Lapkin, mainly “to capture the extent to which learners talk about language during collaborative tasks.” (Swain & Lapkin 1998, as cited in Keck & Kim 2014: 161).

This tool is the language related episode (LRE). LRE is a part of a dialogue where L2 learners; (i) discuss aspects about the language that they are learning, (ii) interrogate their language usage, and (iii) correct themselves or other L2 learners (cf. Ellis et al. 2001 as cited in Nunan 2004: 81). Keck and Kim (2014: 162) discuss several studies that have researched the amount and types of language-related episodes (LREs), as they occur in the peer interactions and their effects on grammar acquisition. Such studies found out that frequently, L2 learners’ attention is shifted to focus on language form as meaningful communication is ongoing. For example, from Keck and Kim (2014:
162), it is evident that as learners’ levels of proficiency advance, as the number of LREs during interaction increase. In brief, peer interaction provides considerable support among L2 learners with feedbacks as they promote L2 acquisition (see Erlam & Pimentel-Hellier 2017, for a detailed study on LREs).

5.3.5. Learners’ attentional resources

Keck and Kim (2014: 163) posit that when learning new languages, cognitive resources of L2 learners are strained. This is in order because much learners’ attention is extended to remembering and retrieving, for example, words that learners require to realise meaning in their communication. Unlike native languages which involve automatic processing of words and phrases, in L2s, learners are involved in the controlled processing of information. Keck and Kim (2014: 164) state that both controlled and automatic processing is vital in L2 grammar teaching. For example, through practice, a task that once required controlled processing for its completion can be completed automatically. In this context, Keck and Kim emphasise that practice and repetition are critical skills that necessitate L2 language teachers to consider while designing tasks that need to be repeated through the language course.

Thus, to regulate repetitions that may lead learners to focus on form over meaning due to limited cognitive language processing resources, VanPatten (1996, 2004) suggests, with reference to Keck and Kim (2014: 164), that L2 teachers need to facilitate their learners with input processing instructions before such learners are expected to realise output as grammatical forms of the L2. During the input processing instruction, L2 learners do practices and feedback is provided through activities which are based on comprehension, for example, to match a sentence to a picture that illustrates its meaning.

In summary, Keck and Kim (2014: 165) argue that both controlled and automatic processing is central to designing oral communication tasks. In other words, during the performance of such tasks, L2 learners are expected to perform such tasks through controlled processing. Given that learners’ attentional resources are limited, there is a need to opt for choices on distributing such resources, for example, in the provision of task planning time and other features that have been explored in mainly in Chapter Three and Four (see, among others, sections 3.9.1, 3.9.2 & 4.3.2, on pages 189, 193 & 215, respectively). In brief, Keck and Kim (2014: 167) argue that language teachers need to provide the necessary assistance to their learners when they attempt to perform tasks with advanced grammatical forms.
Having demonstrated some of the views that link theory to practice regarding the acquisition of grammar in instructed second language classrooms, the following section offers some considerations that are central to designing pedagogical grammar tasks.

5.4. **Considerations in designing L2 grammar tasks**

Keck and Kim (2014: 171) state that for decades, researchers utilising TBLT approaches have attempted to explore how the design of communicative task is modified so that they accommodate the several dynamics of L2 classrooms. While developing further the above concern, Keck and Kim (2014: 173-174) point out that L2 classroom teachers have several decisions and concerns to consider while “integrating communication tasks into L2 grammar instruction.” In this regard, Keck and Kim argue that one of the core and major concerns of modifying tasks as pedagogical grammar tasks is to examine the purpose of the task. For example, in a situation where a preselection of grammatical forms of the L2, occurs, communication tasks are selected based on their suitability in promoting the selected target form(s). This involves core communicative functions of the form; the contexts in which learners are expected to use the attested form; the possible classroom activities that are envisioned to lead learners to use the selected form(s) in the real-world contexts; classroom arrangements in terms of content, themes, or communicative functions; and the suitable forms needed for learners to complete a given task.

It has been pointed out in section 5.1, on page 339, regarding the three broad approaches i.e. cognitivism, interactionism and the sociocultural approach that are influential in the field of instructed L2 acquisition. Keck and Kim (2014: 174) argue that teachers are expected to consider all the above three orientations as they design tasks. Keck and Kim maintain that teachers need to prioritise the three orientations over each other as they primarily take into consideration the notions of task essentialness and planned feedback in the contexts where the promotion of noticing a grammatical form of L2 is necessary. Similarly, focussing on task planning, task repetitions, and rehearsals are also a key concern as the promotion of fluency is the purpose of instruction. L2 teachers are expected to initiate their personal experience as they design tasks which in turn direct their pedagogical practices. Thus, in the subsequent sections, task design features are explored, as premised on interactionist view, sociocultural perspectives and cognitivist concerns, respectively, as a foundation for the designing of Kiswahili grammar focused pedagogical tasks, are explored.

5.4.1. **The use of information gap tasks in promoting learners’ interaction**

Keck and Kim (2014: 175) contend that in TBLT, learners’ interaction is a primary consideration in task design. In task-based classrooms, L2 learners are required to participate and interact with other
learners to negotiate meaning as discussed in, for example, sections 2.4.6.2, 2.4.6.3, 2.4.6.4, and section 2.4.6.5, on pages 90, 91, 93 and 94, respectively. Keck and Kim suggest that the most appropriate way to facilitate learners’ participation in tasks’ meaning negotiations is by designing jigsaw tasks, as explored in section 4.2.2, on page 208 and, as illustrated in Table 4:1, on page 208. In this regard, as L2 learners engage in task performance and there is the occurrence of communication gap, L2 learners are expected to apply feedback techniques such as confirmation checks, clarification requests and modified output to provide themselves with more opportunities to learners L2. Thus, while designing, for example, jigsaw tasks, Keck and Kim (2014: 178) are of the view L2 teachers are required to attend to the following concerns in relation to (a) interaction of participants: (i) how does the classroom teacher ensure that every learner participates in a task? (ii) How will different roles be assigned to learners/participants? (b) task-essentialness: (i) how is noticing or focus on specific grammatical features be promoted? (ii) the extent to which learners are required to comprehend and produce certain linguistic forms to successfully complete a task. (c) corrective feedback: (i) while performing a task, how are learners provided with form -focused feedbacks? (ii) As a teacher, are you planning to systematically respond to every learner’s errors in a specific manner or promote feedbacks during a communication breakdown? (d) the degree of implicitness: (i) as a teacher, is there a need to employ explicit or implicit techniques of instruction separately or in conjunction? (ii) will grammar instruction be handled prior to or after instruction? (iii) what forms of feedback, will you, as the teacher offer? Those that follow under explicit or implicit domains as discussed in section 2.4.6.7 and section 5.3.1, on pages 100 and 342, respectively.

5.4.2. Focus on form through task-essentialness design and corrective feedback

As previous sections have indicated that in TBLT learners’ interaction is crucial, Keck and Kim (2014: 532) point out that L2 teachers are expected to ensure that learners’ chances of interacting with others are increased through directing their attention to grammatical forms of L2 (cf. Long 2015a: 316-321). In other words, to encourage a focus on form, L2 teachers are expected to design tasks in a way that creates “obligatory contexts for the target feature.” Such tasks are envisioned to be essential whereby without such an obligatory grammatical feature, the task cannot be completely (on task-essential, see section 5.3.2, on page 344). In this regard, Keck and Kim (2014: 180) argue that in a scenario where task-essentialness is challenging to achieve during task performance, L2 teachers need to apply explicit instructions, for example, interactional feedback is task is being performed or focussing on the grammatical form after task performance.
Keck and Kim maintain that to apply the above two mechanisms to every task performer/learners are challenging mainly in big-sized classes. Thus, teachers are advised to give their roles as a teacher to their learners to perform teacher-learner role play while other learners are participating as listeners. This offers a chance for every L2 learner to participate and “receive planned feedback from the teacher.” Recall that in developing TBLT instructional materials, it is necessary for pedagogical tasks to cover specific meanings of L2, usage and developmental levels in relation to learners’ developmental readiness. This is achieved by assessing learners’ levels of development through the diagnostic communication tasks (see also needs analysis in section 2.4.7, on page 104).

5.4.3. The explicit-implicit continuum

In section 5.3.1, on page 342, I mentioned that within the implicit-explicit instructional continuum, various pedagogical options occur to which teachers are exposed, such as options for drawing learners’ attention to grammatical form(s) in the meaningful communicative interaction (see Keck & Kim 2014: 148). Similarly, Keck and Kim (2014: 181) are of the view that views on obligatory contexts and interactional feedback, as discussed in section 5.3.3, on page 345, are closer to the implicit point of the form-focused continuum of instruction as discussed in section 5.3.1, on page 342. In this regard, L2 teachers are supposed to engage L2 learners in implicit types of feedbacks including recasting with an aim of minimising to interrupt the flow of interaction. In scenarios where implicit feedback is insufficient, according to Keck and Kim, L2 learners are expected to request for explicit feedback strategies from their teachers. Such strategies/options include what Keck and Kim refer to as overt corrections. These include informing L2 learners that they have made errors and then the teacher provides corrections there and then. The forms of corrections are, for example, metalinguistic explanations such as grammatical rules/systems of L2 (see section 2.4.1 & 2.4.2, on pages 66 & 69, respectively).

In brief, L2 teachers are advised to incorporate explicit instruction in task design. This is envisioned to increase learners’ opportunities to attend to the intended target form of L2. According to Keck and Kim (2014: 181), one of the ways of incorporating explicit strategies in task design is through consciousness-raising tasks (as proposed by Fotos 1993, 1998, 2002; Fotos & Ellis 1991, 1994 as cited in Keck & Kim 2014: 181). Keck and Kim (2014: 181) argue that consciousness-raising tasks require L2 learners to communicate with an aim of achieving a shared goal (cf. section 4.2.2, on page 208, about the convergent goal(s)), given that the contents of consciousness-raising tasks are the grammatical features themselves (cf. information-gap tasks). In other words, L2 learners collaborate in communication while developing grammar rules of L2, as a result analysing
sentences in L2 as their samples. This provides L2 learners with opportunities to explicitly develop knowledge on how grammatical forms work in each target language.

5.4.4. Collaboration enhancement and the co-construction of knowledge

Up to this level, earlier sections, mainly from section 5.4.1 to section 5.4.3, i.e. from page 348 to page 350, I have exemplified in general how L2 teachers’ role in designing communication tasks provide L2 learners with opportunities to engage in meaningful interaction as they increase on learners’ chances to attend to grammatical forms of L2, their meanings and proper usage (Keck & Kim 2014: 183). Thus, this section addresses issues such as (a) pushed output/languaging to say (i) the extent L2 learners are expected to produce language either in writing or in speaking to successfully complete a task: (ii) the extent L2 learners at which a task encourages L2 learners to talk about while reflecting on the target language that they are producing, (b) collaboration: (i) in which ways do tasks support collaborations among peers themselves and or with their language teachers? (ii) the extent tasks offer opportunities to L2 learners in carrying out more tasks together than as single learners (cf. Willis 2009: 229; Long 2015a: 324-325).

(c) Assistance in the zone of proximal development; (i) the extent at which a task gives opportunities for assisting each learner’s developmental levels; (ii) the type of feedback strategies that are employed to offer the assistance in (i) above. Thus, Keck and Kim are of the view that when teachers promote collaboration among their L2 learners, the learners are expected to discuss while negotiating several linguistic choices, for example, at the syntactic level, morphological and discourse levels. In this regard, FoF is reached as L2 learners use the most suitable needed verb to complete, for example, a jigsaw task (see Table 3:5, on page 144). The design of jigsaw tasks is based on the creation of an information gap where L2 learners share information with their peers. In this way, learners are pushed to co-construct texts in writing or speaking.

5.4.5. Task modelling and task planning options

Keck and Kim (2014: 188) are of the view that during the implementation of instructional tasks in the L2 classrooms, L2 teachers are expected to provide their L2 learners with clear task instructions. This is in order because vague instructions cause confusion and often derail subsequent pedagogical activities hence, affect successful completion of task performance. In relation to cognitive orientations, a clear task instruction attracts learners’ cognitive resources in term of processing as learners prepare to perform a task which decides their productions. Keck and Kim (2014: 188) are of the view that poor task instructions lead L2 learners in endeavouring to concentrate on task
procedures rather than on the need to express meaning in term of accuracy and fluency in L2. Thus, to address the above concerns, Keck and Kim propose two techniques i.e. task modelling and task planning to deal with the above pedagogical issue.

According to Keck and Kim, task modelling demonstrates a task’s procedures before L2 learners engage in actual task performance. This takes place in the pre-task planning time (cf. sections 3.9.2 & 4.3.2, on pages 193 & 215). Task modelling not only provides clarity to learners on what they expect to do in a task ahead of them, but it also promotes learners focus on grammatical forms while performing the task. Task modelling can be in form of showing L2 learners a video. According to Keck and Kim (2014: 188-189), video showing in pre-task modelling can last for two minutes with an aim of demonstrating to learners how to collaborate in a task as well as on how to pay attention to grammatical forms during task performance. Some of the considerations that teacher need to take into account while designing task with attentional resources include;

Keck and Kim maintain that teachers should not dictate to their learners what to say/do in the task performance, rather task modelling shows how learners can engage in tasks such as interacting with peers, use of task materials and the way to talk while asked questions. Task modelling is helpful and can easily be adapted even by L2 learners who are not accustomed to participating in activities that are based on learner-centered approaches (cf. Long 2015a: 325-326). This is in order because task modelling is both engaging and accessible compared to traditionally “lengthy directions on task worksheets.” In brief, according to Keck and Kim, the basic concerns of task modelling include; (i) the prime purpose of the task modelling phase, and; (ii) the possibilities that L2 learners will observe task modelling prior to their real-task performance.

In relation to task planning, Keck and Kim (2014: 189) refer to task planning as a situation where L2 teachers provide their L2 learners with a clear understanding on the intended goals and task procedures to achieve the goals. Also known as “guided planning phase”, task planning occurs prior to the actual task performance. Keck and Kim emphasise that the main purpose of task planning is to allow learners to contemplate demands that the tasks pose to them. Such demands include (i) the role of the task: (ii) its communicative goal(s): (iii) the grammatical form(s) that are needed to achieve the attested goals, as pointed out, for example, in sections 3.3.2, 3.4, 3.4.3, 3.5.2, 3.8.3.4, and section 3.9.2, on pages 120, 121, 130, 144, 176 and 193, respectively. According to Keck and Kim (2014: 190), task planning has an impact in real task performance because it provides rooms for L2 learners to understand the requirements of the tasks they are yet to perform. In brief, to address the task planning issues, Keck and Kim (2014: 189) recommends L2 teachers to be concerned with (i) availability of opportunities for L2 learners to plan and rehearsal ahead of real
task performance, and (ii) how L2 teachers can offer guided planning in term of explicitly providing information to their learners on grammatical forms and vocabularies.

5.4.6. Considerations on cognitive dimensions of task difficulty/complexity

In the previous chapters, some sections, for instance, sections 3.7.1, 3.8.3.1, 3.9.1 and 4.3.2, on pages 161, 171, 189 and 215, respectively, explored several complexities in relation to, for example, task demands towards a single goal and L2 learners’ familiarity with a task. Specifically, in section 3.9.2, on page 193, Peter Robinson draws a distinction between the two notions of task difficulty and task complexity. In brief, task difficulty involves ability abilities and affective variables that L2 learners bring to the task (cf. Long 2015a: 323-324). On one hand, ability factors include issues such as learners’ intelligence and aptitude, on the other hand, affective factors include learners’ confidence and motivation. In addition, task complexity is cognitive features that a given task imposes to L2 learners. These are categorised into resource-dispersing factors such as prior-knowledge and the planning time before task performance, and resource-directing factors including several types of reasoning and a range of elements in a task (see further, for example, section 3.9.1, on page 193).

While Keck and Kim (2014: 191) advance the view that L2 teachers need to take into account both task complexity and task difficulty variable in lesson planning, with reference to Keck and Kim, Robinson (2011) is of the view that for meditation purposes with regard to learning processes that focus on drawing L2 learners’ attention to grammatical form(s), L2 teachers need to consider task complexity features. This is in order because the manipulation of resource directing features, as was done in several sections of Chapter Four, facilitate in directing L2 learners to focus on grammatical forms of L2 in both simple and complex sentences. Nevertheless, Keck and Kim (2014: 189) emphasise the view that in order to address the above issues, L2 teachers should be concerns about, for example, (i) the types of reasoning that the task impose to L2 learners; (ii) the possible sources of information that L2 learners need to consult to successfully complete a given task.

Lastly, Keck and Kim (192-194) discuss studies that suggest that unlike information gap tasks, decision-making tasks (as discussed in section 4.2.2, on page 208 or, as summarised in Table 3:7, on page 150) that are grounded in a set of criteria that facilitate in drawing L2 learners’ attention to L2 forms. This is in order because in performing decision-making tasks, the tasks require L2 learners to make such forms to justify several decisions they are making. In this regard, given that most complex tasks impose demands on L2 learners, the Keck and Kim (2014: 194) propose that L2 teachers should simultaneously employ several techniques that have been discussed in this section.
and those in the earlier sections including guided task planning and modelling of tasks. Furthermore, in relation to the reduction of cognitive demands on L2 learners, teachers are required to decrease task complexity in areas such as the introduction of a topic that is familiar to L2 learners. In addition, Keck and Kim suggest that if possible, the teacher should translate tasks to L2 learners’ L1, as it has been done in this study (see Appendix (A), Appendix (A-i), & Appendix (A-ii), on pages 418, 419 and 444, respectively). In brief, all techniques, as discussed above, facilitate in leading L2 learners to acquire L2 grammar.

5.5. Willis and Willis’s (2007) perspectives on the parameters of adaptation and refining of pedagogical tasks

Willis and Willis (2007: 153) assert that the parameters to be discussed can be considered at various levels and can easily be altered at every stage (i.e. from planning stage to the task performance stage in the classroom) for effective realisations of task performance and L2 development among learners (cf. Ellis 2006). Thus, the first parameter is that of forming a set of specific interim goals.

5.5.1. Set of specific interim goals

This parameter refers to the outcome of the task. In other words, whether the task closed or open. According to Willis and Willis (2007: 156), on one hand, an open task is the type of task with several outcomes (other outcomes being unpredictable). On the other hand, a closed task is that with a correct outcome (cf. sections 3.5.1 & 3.5.2, on pages 142 & 144, about task types ). In brief, Willis and Willis (2007: 157) contend that unlike closed tasks, open tasks are ambiguous and considered challenging for L2 beginner learners. Subsequently, Wills and Willis conclude that while open tasks are performed in the classrooms; they often led to poor classroom management hence a discredit to task-based language teaching (cf. Zhang & Hung 2013; McDonough 2015 on large classes).

Therefore, to adapt and redefine open-ended tasks so that L2 learners can be confident while performing such tasks, Willis and Willis (2007: 158-159) advance the following aspects of considerations. Namely, (i) teachers need to inform learners exactly what they are required to do before they perform a task (see, for example, TDSs (c), (c), (e) and (c) as they occur in Task one, two, three and five, respectively). According to Willis and Willis (2007: 158), given that learners are provided with the exact information that they need to perform the task, such learners can easily contemplate the information to sufficiently understand it in detail, such as by listening to the teacher.
or reading the instructions more than once. In this way, L2 learners tend to gain in-depth information about the task, hence the ability to perform the task satisfactorily.

Additionally, (ii) teachers where necessary, are required to provide key phrases of clues to their learners with the aim of, for example, making listening tasks easier. For instance, in relation to simulated task dialogue \[^{3}\], as it occurs in Task one, a teacher can inform the learners to only listen to the number of ministries that learners were supposed to visit that day. Furthermore, (iii), a teacher can as well task the L2 learners to add some writing in their books so that learners can be engaged in something productive other than doing something else. For instance, the teacher can task learners to list down all the ministries that they were supposed to visit that day as they occur in simulated task dialogue \[^{3}\]. Lastly, (iv), the teacher needs to provide L2 learners with more precise instructions to clarify what is necessary for completion of the task by the learners. For example, the teacher can inform L2 learners that by the time the task is completed, each learner is required to mention, for example, (i) the total number of thermoses on the breakfast table, (ii) types of tea served and lastly, (iii) the types of bites served, as illustrated in the simulated task dialogue of Task two (see section 4.5.2.3.1, on page 252). Thus, given that learners will be able to accomplish the above tasks, they will be sure that they have successfully and sufficiently accomplished something that is done in their casual conversations. Thus, by frequent alterations of the above aspects of the first parameter, it is envisioned that learners gain confidence to successfully accomplish a given task.

5.5.2. The starting point of Tasks: input and timing at the priming stage

The second parameter is what Willis and Willis (2007: 159-160) refer to stating points for tasks: input and timing at the priming stage. In other words, these are initial things that teachers need to consider when introducing a task to the learners. These should be lensed from both teachers’ and learners’ perspectives. Aspects to consider from learners’ perspectives include; learners’ experience (cf. sections 2.4.7 & 3.9.2, on pages 104 & 193), learners’ research skills and previous –learners’ work. On the side of the teacher, the following need to be considered; the teacher telling a story, teacher-led brainstorming, questionnaire and quiz administration, and the existence or written or recorded texts.

In developing further on the starting points from learners’ perspectives, Willis and Willis (2007: 159) argue that learners can be presented by a picture (cf. sentences \[^{3}\] and \[^{2}-^{4}\], as they occur in STDs 4.5.1.3.1 & 4.5.5.3.1, on pages 233 & 323, respectively), which should be associated with their past experiences. In addition, the teacher can play a recorded text for learners to listen to. In
this context, learners are obliged to make a connection between, the picture and the recorded text by using their past experiences. In this way, learners are prepared to perform a spoken task. Alternatively, a teacher can tell the learners to do research on a particular topic (see, for example, the second paragraph in Appendix (A)). In most case, learners will use their L1s (see also Shintani 2014: 286) but in reporting/performing the task, they will use their L2 (in this case, Kiswahili language), see also the use of L2 among the young Japanese learners of English, as reported in Shintani’s (2014: 288) study. While reporting, learners will start thinking for themselves as they employ their own experiences or by the shared experiences of their colleagues.

According to Willis and Willis (2007: 160), the starting points for tasks are divided further into the timing of the priming stage and input at priming. On one hand, in relation to the later, i.e. input at priming, Willis and Willis contend that input can take several forms (cf. Long 2015a: 306-307). These include that a teacher can give a straightforward introduction to the learners of a given topic and its associated explanations. Similarly, either the teacher or the learner can demonstrate a parallel task to other learners. This task can have slightly different items with the real task to be performed, or listen to a recording or watch a video with slightly similar elements of the task that was performed in the previous lesson. Lastly, in relation to another form of input are the written resources mainly those read outside the classroom (see, for example, the first sentence of in the second paragraph of Muhoma’s narrations as they occur in simulated task dialogue 4.4.3, on page 499, in Appendix (A-ii)).

On the other hand, in relation to the timing of priming stage, Willis and Willis (2007: 160) are of the view that this starting point is often introduced in the same lesson in which the task is to be performed. Nevertheless, Willis and Willis contend that time priming can as well be introduced in the previous lessons (for example, see the last sentence in the first paragraph of the overarching task as illustrated in Appendix (A), on page 418). In this regard, this ensures that L2 learners are provided with sufficient time for preparations before the actual lesson in which the task is to be performed.

5.5.3. Pre-task preparation and planning

According to Willis and Willis (2007: 160-161), the third parameter is the pre-task preparation and planning. Drawing from previous studies, Willis and Willis are of the view that by providing learners with sufficient time before they perform tasks has proved to enhance interactions in lighter and linguistically richer tasks. Nevertheless, Willis and Willis maintain that giving learners a task to perform without providing them with pre-preparation time assist these learners to cope up with what
Willis and Willis refer to as “real-time interaction.” This is a skill that learners will need throughout their real-life as they speak L2, in this case, Kiswahili language. In brief, Willis and Willis argue that teachers should provide learners with both alternatives. For instance, when performing a task for the first time, learners should be given sufficient time. When learners are asked to repeatedly perform the same task in the future, there is no need for preparation time. In this respect, Willis and Willis (2007: 160-161) advance the types of preparations. These include free or guided planning and the number of written preparations.

**Free or learner-led planning** is a situation where L2 learners are provided with a specific time to think about the task they have been primed. This involves, for example, learners writing their own words/sentences or searches for words that they need to use (cf. Willis 2009: 229). In contrast, **guided or handout planning** is a situation where teachers make suggestions for their learners with regard to the useful language tips or idea they can write on the primed task. With reference to Willis and Willis (2005: 160-161), Djapoura (2005) argues that teacher-led planning is more likely to lead L2 learners to use less accurate language in a task given that these learners tend to use complex language structures that are beyond their abilities or grammatical patterns that are not in line with their daily repertoire. In other words, Willis and Willis (2007: 161) contend that while this stage of preparation provides for learners to benefit from their own degree of autonomy (on language learning autonomy see, for example, Benson & Voller 1997), the two authors emphasise that this is a situation where L2 learners use the least personal efforts to push their outputs, they recommend the use of teacher-led planning even though there are possibilities of making mistakes at the beginning.

With respect to the **amount of written preparation** i.e. in full or notes form, Willis and Willis (2007: 161) argue that L2 learners benefit more when they are provided with time to write what they were to say before task performance. This provides learners with opportunities to sufficiently practice their writing by looking for the right words or sentences to use. Nevertheless, Willis and Willis are of the view that some of the disadvantages of this approach are that in most cases, learners may want to speak the written form of the L2 they are learning. In addition, they may be distracted by noise in the classroom given that each learner may end up reading aloud the written texts. Lastly, some if not all learners may memorise such words or sentences. Thus, according to Willis and Willis, to control such challenges, the teacher should advise their learners to reduce the full amount of written words to notes that they can easily refer to during task performance. This can be done by reducing the number of phases that have been written (see the concepts of Obligatory and Optional move structures, as discussed in section 4.3.1, on page 212).
5.5.4. Control of ‘agenda’ and task structure

According to Willis and Willis (2007: 161), the fourth parameter is what they refer to as control of ‘agenda’ and task structure. The two authors assert that agenda is related to the structuring of a task. The structure includes; explicit steps that L2 learners need to follow, formats, time frame, the setting of word limits, provision of deadlines, the provision of specific materials such as reference books and so on. The two scholars are of the view that a well-structured and controlled task agenda is an advantage to the low motivated L2 learners. For example, introducing aspects that were discussed earlier as the first parameter to L2 learners is to their own advantage during task performances. Nevertheless, in a situation that the task is quite complex or when the teacher is dealing with learners considered as highly motivated, there is a need to fairly employ free-learner-led planning, for them to select and decide their own procedures. Willis and Willis emphasise that a task without explicit agenda controls at all is generally not “so conducive to generate rich interaction and opportunities for language learning”.

In relation to formats, Wills and Wills assert that one of the motivational aspects in language learning is the ability to provide L2 learners with specific formats, such as tables to complete or diagrams for an interim goal. For example, spaces left blank in the tables for learners to fill ensures there is equal participation.

Relatedly, with regard to time limits, deadlines and word limits, Willis and Willis (2007: 162) argue that given there is a set of the time limit for a task (or a step in a task), facilitate learners to complete the task while focusing on a task goal. For example, L2 teachers find it that shorter time limit engages learners in full concentration. Nevertheless, Willis and Willis advise that this should not be strictly adhered to in a situation where every learner is engaged and task performance is going on well. On deadlines, Willis and Willis maintain that such measures should be involved in setting a specific number of this to be achieved. For example, a teacher may request only learners who might have finished writing two possible reasons on a given topic to raise their hands up. In this regard, a teacher has the mandate to control the time for the learners to engage in this exercise. Similarly, where time is set for learners to report back what they have been preoccupied with is also another advantage to the learners. The teacher can ask L2 learners to plan for a talk or report back session of roughly 10 minutes. This will engage learners to use more time in preparations than in the real task performance which Willis and Willis maintain that it is an effective time for learning.

Another aspect is that of setting a word limit which is tight to the learners in giving reports or in summarising written texts. This engages learners in choosing carefully expressions while tussling
with L2 grammar to summarise the needed information. One of the tips to accomplish this is, for example, when L2 teachers ask learners to write summaries afterwards, learners are asked to count their words with the aim of ensuring “realistic word limit”. On mid-task interventions, with reference to Willis and Willis (2007: 162), Skehan (1988) is of the view that the notion of mid-task intervention involves the increase in challenges to the learners by providing or introducing something new while the task is being performed. For example, learners can be asked to make cooking decisions for an unexpected guest who is a vegetarian. Such decisions are included during the lesson as a teacher monitors the flow of task performance.

In relation to the degree of reference support, Willis and Willis emphasise the view that in the real-life communication it is possible that the use of dictionaries, making reference to notes might not be present for L2 learners. Nevertheless, in a speaking task while in the classroom, this could be possible. In most cases, this can prove to be time-consuming. In this respect, Willis and Willis (2007: 163) argue that this should be encouraged before and after task performance. However, in the reading task, this is avoidable but can be controlled by allowing L2 learners to look up to only three words. Such a limitation allows L2 learners to engage in thinking more in several meanings as they explore clues for different contexts by using their existing knowledge (cf. sections 3.7.1 & 3.9, on pages 161 & 185). The last aspect is that of learners setting their own agenda. This is a situation where both teachers and learners discuss the task before it is performed. Afterwards, learners are encouraged to decide for themselves how to deal with the task in terms of procedures and strategies agenda as the teacher guides them, e.g. the use of L1 or reference materials such as dictionaries and so on. In general, this situation encourages learner-learner discussion and participation in lessons (cf. section 5.3.4, on page 346).

5.5.5. Interaction patterns and participation roles

Willis and Willis (2007: 163-165), refer to the fifth parameter as the interaction patterns and participation roles. Willis and Willis (2007: 163) are of the view that in most cases when learners are individually asked to reflect on a given idea, then tasked to share it with another learner (cf. Long 2015a: 324-325). Given that learners have had sufficient time to work individually when given a recording to listen to on something similar to the idea that he/she has been working on, they often tend to have something to listen out and share it with other learners. It is in this respect that on the participation roles, Willis and Willis maintain that if a task is given to a group of four learners, and each learner plays a different role, this can lead to not only learner’s full participation in the task, but also the chances of the task to get out of hand is minimised. For example, in a group of let us say more than two participants; one learner can be a group secretary/reporter or writer.
According to Willis and Willis (2007: 164), the main role of the secretary is writing or record what is being discussed. Another member can act as a language consultant for the group. The role of the consultant is to search for unknown phrases or words from the dictionary.

Similarly, another member may become a chairperson or a leader of the group. The role of the leader is to make sure that every group member is assigned a chance to talk. Willis and Willis advise that the position of the leaders should be given to a person who generally talks a lot. There is also the role of the spokesman/reporter of the group who reports to the classroom about a given performance. It has now a norm that L2 teachers do give their L2 learners the above roles. Nevertheless, in a situation where there is a need to generate more interaction among participants, Willis and Willis emphasise the view that L2 learners should be free to choose their own roles. In addition, Willis and Willis contend that L2 teachers possibly identify a learner which may act as an observer with the role of noting down the participants who e.g. speaks a lot and how much or in a situation where L1 has been used during task performance (see also Shintani 2014: 286).

In relation to one-way/two-way information flow or short or long turns, Willis and Willis argue that initially, when L2 learners do report to their partners, their turns are likely to be longer and in most cases one-way information flow (see, for example, the simulated task dialogue of Task three (i.e. section 4.5.3, on page 260) as it appears as section 4.2.4.3, on page 469, in Appendix (A-ii)). Nonetheless, when there is interaction between two or more learners, the information flow becomes two-way flow with shorter turns (see, for example, sentences [d1] & [f1], [c14 – c16] and [f8] as they occur in simulated task dialogue 4.5.1.3.1, 4.5.4.3.1 & 4.5.5.3.1, on pages 233, 296 & 323, respectively). The two-way information flow tasks are those where a teacher splits information for each participant to have what to talk about to other partners. In contrast, the one-way information task is a situation where one participant is given all the information and explicitly passes it to other participants, as it has been illustrated in Task three i.e. section 4.5.3 (see also STDs 1.1.1, 2.1.1, 3.1.1 & 4.1.1, on pages 419, 420 & 421, respectively, as they occur in Appendix (A-ii), on page 444-539). It has been argued earlier that one-way information flow can turn to be a two-way given that one participant (information receiver) asks clarification and information questions from the information supplier (see section 2.4.6.3 & section 3.8.3.2, on pages 91 & 173, respectively; cf. section 2.4.6.7, on page 100). In summary, Willis and Willis (2007: 165) emphasise that it is very important for teachers to highly consider the degree of language that task participants gain in a task cycle rather than the turns a participant takes.
5.5.6. Pressure on language production: “pushing” output to achieve accuracy

The sixth parameter is what Willis and Willis (2007: 165) refer to as pressure on language production: “pushing” output to achieve accuracy. The two scholars are of the view that with the need to enhance L2 learners’ production to achieve both accuracy and fluency (as discussed in sections 3.4.4.3 & 3.8.4.1.1, on pages 139 & 180) requires careful considerations. According to Willis and Willis (2007: 166) when L2 learners are using their L1 in their real-life conversations and chats, they spontaneously use different registers. Nevertheless, when such learners are tasked to give a public presentation or in a job interview, they tend to use the prestigious form of their L1 (cf. Shintani 2014: 286). In this respect, Willis and Willis are of the view that it is quite challenging for such learners to achieve both accuracy and fluency simultaneously in L2s. Thus, to address this dilemma, Willis and Wills content that L2 teachers need to make L2 learners aware of both formal and other registers of the L2 they are learning so that learners can use them in their real-life communication. For example, learners should know that in a public presentation, there is a need to plan ahead but in a real-life talk, unfinished sentences or short forms are appropriately considered based on the speaker’s audience. Relatedly, Nassaji and Fotos (2007: 15) argue that to develop fluency and accuracy, there is a need to integrate meaningful activities with form-focused ones especially those that require output.

Thus, to reflect the above observations in the classroom situations where L2 learners have little confidence and probably not good at public speaking, L2 teachers need to ask such learners to at least say anything they can and be encouraged to so do rather than correcting errors as they arise. In addition, Willis and Willis (2007: 167) contend that such L2 learners can be paired with others with similar or roughly equal status. The two scholars argue that given that there is little pressure from the teacher, such learners tend to use a language that is appropriate to their peers in the same group. In this way, shy learners are encouraged to improve their shyness and be more fluent that they are often.

With regard to L2 learners who are confidently fluent but inaccurate while speaking, Willis and Willis (2007: 167) advise that teachers should make such learners think harder about their choices of words. This can be enhanced by (i) encouraging such learners to give formal presentations in front of a class; (ii) such learners can record themselves for the classroom to listen to their recordings and identify areas they need to improve accuracy; (iii) They can also record or write something for public displaying, for example, a poster. In addition, other activities may include, learners’ initiative in transcribing and reformulating; recording their interaction; and L2 teacher’s feedback.
Thus, on one hand, on recording L2 learners’ interactions, Willis and Willis encourage L2 teachers to fluently make their learners record themselves. Afterwards, these learners should listen to their recordings while at home. This helps L2 learners to identify errors, words that they could have wrongly used. These learners need to write down such observations for sharing with other members of the class, teacher inclusive in the next lesson. On the other hand, in relation to learners’ transcribing and reformulation of their tasks, Willis and Willis argue that L2 learners should be tasked to record their interactions. While at home, they should transcribe, for example, a one-minute session of the recording. This helps such learners to enhance their accuracy in L2. Will and Wills contend that while transcribing is time-consuming, learners should be encouraged to do it occasionally or in turns among learners in the same group.

In addition, Willis and Willis (2007: 167) maintain that another way to push for accuracy is through giving feedback to the learners at the priming/ planning stages (cf. Long 2015a: 321-322). This is done before learners have recorded themselves or given a public presentation (report) to other learners. Willis and Willis (2007: 167-168) content that is should be remembered in the above two situations are scenarios at which learners aim at using prestigious language with both fluency and accuracy. Similarly, it is at this time that other learners may want to note down the mistakes or to do recast (on recasting, see section 2.4.6.7, on page 100). Thus, cooperative drafting should be encouraged whereby a given member of the group is given the role of being an editor to attempt pushing for accuracy where necessary. Nevertheless, is a situation that L2 learners get right was they were asked to do; the teacher or other learners should provide a positive reward also known as positive feedback (PF) to such a group or learner. In such a situation, the learners obviously will feel good to even attempt similar trials in the future, hence encouraging the learning and teaching of L2 languages.

To Willis and Willis (2007: 168), in the long run, positive feedback (PF) is helpful. PF encourages experimentation of more complex structures or new words. In this respect, PF can be used in its own session where a teacher asks learners to provide alternative ways of expressing ideas or words that go hand in hand with certain words, sentence structures etc. In response to learners’ input, teachers are required to positively reward such learners. Willis and Willis emphasise that, while PF is helpful in pushing for accuracy, also a Negative feedback (NF) is beneficial especially in providing corrective input (see section 2.4.6.7, on page 100, for the detailed discussion on negative feedback as a teaching technique).
5.5.7. Post-task activities

According to Willis and Willis (2007: 157), *post-task activities* constitute the seventh parameter for adapting and refining learning tasks. This parameter involves activities such as (i) follow-up tasks for recycling texts, (ii) reporting stage, (iii) task repetition, (iv) post-task language work, and (v) evaluation and reflection, as discussed below.

In relation to follow-up tasks for recycling texts, Willis and Willis (2007: 168) argue that there are several ways of recycling texts. They include retelling or rewriting a sentence from a different point of view, filling the puzzles and quizzes, reconstruction of texts, as elaborated by Willis and Willis (2007: 51-56). According to Willis and Willis (2007: 168), the benefits of the above modes of text recycling is to allow L2 learners to process the L2 they are learning from a slightly different way which provides more opportunities for such learners to engage with the same text in different situations. Willis and Willis contend that L2 learners can apply the above modes when they are encouraged to read a text several times or listening to a given record for more than once. Such opportunities provide L2 learners with chances of noticing linguistic forms that their teacher can incorporate in the subsequent speaking or writing lessons.

Regarding the *reporting stage* as a constituent of *post-task activity*, Willis and Willis (2007: 169) argue that the audience to which L2 learners are required to report their ideas can be unknown or known to the learners, larger or small one, public or private audience. In a situation where L2 learners are not confident due to the speaking problem, instructions from textbooks suggest that such learners should report to the private audience. Furthermore, Willis and Wills are of the view that the textbook instructions can be changed so that L2 learners are demanded to increase their pressure on fluency and accuracy in speaking. It is in this respect that it is advisable for two pairs to report to another group and vice versa. After this exercise, each group selects a spokesman for the group to report to the rest of the class members about their opinions. This move makes reporting more public. In addition, given that any of the group members are provided with a planning stage prior to reporting (cf. sections 3.9.2 & 4.3.2, on pages 193 & 215), the whole group would be tasked to assist their spokesman in the preparation of the presentation (as discussed in section 5.5.3, on page 356).

In general, Willis and Willis contend that when L2 learners are tasked to perform before a bigger audience, more pressure is inserted to such learners for successful performance and reporting. In a situation where there is the presence of shy learners without speaking confidence, as an interim measure, the teacher needs to ask one of the learners to report to the next group. This can be done
by dividing the class into smaller groups for learners to report to. In addition, before reporting, the
preparation of the report between two or more learners facilitates in correcting each other’s
contributions, examination of grammatical forms as well as collocations (cf. Long 2015a: 307-316)
of the L2. With reference to Willis and Willis (2007: 169), Storch (2002) asserts that this is one way
of scaffolding learners’ learning as they building on their specific confidences.

Similarly, Willis and Willis are of the view that in a situation where the learner is reporting to the
audience with higher language status or is unfamiliar, there is more pressure that is created for
reporters to use a more prestigious language, as discussed in section 5.5.6, on page 361. This is in
order in the classrooms where L2 teachers invite, for example, other teachers or language specialists
in their classroom to listen to certain language views that are important to them which are being
reported by L2 learners. Thus, according to Willis and Willis (2007: 170), in such circumstances,
L2 teachers need to raise the expectations of their learners in terms of the quality of their
presentations, i.e. either written or oral. In this respect, L2 learners will be forced to focus more on
accuracy.

With regard to teacher’s role as a chair in a report-back stage, Willis and Willis propose that
teachers should often react to the content of the presentation at the initial stage with the aim of
summarizing the main points. Similarly, the teacher can only pick interesting details for commenting on. Given that there are some unclear messages in the presentation in relation to learners’ utterances, there is a need for occasional recasts and clarification. Willis and Willis are of the view that it is always advantageous to give learners sufficient time for form-focused activities (see section 2.4.6.7, on page 100) after the reporting-back stage, as it builds on the “principle of meaning first and form-focused work later.”

In summary, Willis and Willis argue that in a situation where the teacher is satisfied that the
reporting stage is inappropriate especially while doing task repetition (cf. section 3.9.2, on page
193) or series of task, the teacher is allowed to do a general report at the end of all task series or at
the end of each series. Similarly, as a teacher, you may request your learners to report their own
records as a homework and be presented to the whole class at the subsequent lessons. This provides
learners with more time to reflect on the L2. Lastly, Willis and Willis are of the view that given a
task has not been performed to its satisfaction, the teacher can switch to teacher-lead summary and
introduce something different or new to learners.

With respect to task repetition, while citing the previous body of research done on task repetition,
Willis and Willis (2007: 170) support the view that when L2 learners repeat a given task with
different partners, such learners are cognitively driven to use (i) richer vocabularies and (ii) higher
degrees of grammatical complexity as well as accuracy (see also Saeedi & Kazerooni 2014: 126 on
similar findings). Willis and Willis (2007: 171) contend that the time lag between tasks real task
performance and its repetitions series is very crucial. For example, a task repetition “can vary with
different speaking partners in the same lessons.”, or sometimes after a day since the performance of
the first task version, three or even seven days. Similarly, task repetition can be carried out as a
preparation of mid-term tests or end of year examination.

In this situation, a teacher has to inform L2 learners to expect some of the task(s) that they have
been performing. In this respect, learners are bound to expand their vocabulary knowledge by trying
new grammatical structures as they make their contributions more detailed than usual. Lastly, Willis
and Willis advise that after task repetition, the teacher should require their L2 learners to note down,
for example, the most interesting ideas that learners have come across as they were performing the
task. In this regard, learners tend to recall important words, ask about them and finally note down
the points for future purposes.

On post-task language work, while attempting to elaborate on post-task language work, Willis and
Willis (2007: 171-172) draw a distinction between language focus and focus on form (FoF). On one
hand, according to Willis and Willis, the former involves a situation where L2 learners focus on
language taking into consideration the meaning that learners want to put across (cf. Long 2015a:
316-321). This occurs mainly at the (i) pre-task planning stage (ii) or at the interval between task
reporting stages as learners are moulding what they want to express to others in the classroom. In
this context, the teacher plays the role of being an adviser on linguistic forms and the learner
becomes an overall leader.

On the other hand, FoF is predominantly teacher-led where learners are drawn to focus particular
language forms such as the Kiswahili verbs that end with “-aa” in the present tense, as they exist in
the recordings or written texts in language lessons (Willis & Willis 2007: 172). As it has been
discussed in Chapter Two, and in some sections of this chapter, FoF lessons are planned in advance
and they constitute the L2 syllabus with an aim of supporting L2 learners to systematically
synthesize what they already “know to expand their conscious knowledge of words and patterns.”
For example, after listening to a given recording or task performance, the learner can be tasked to
write down, for example, possible verbs that can be used before or after certain phrases that learners
had been asked to look out for. In this respect, L2 learners gain a lot from, for example, recorded
texts and subsequently, such learners tend to find such phrases useful while using them in real-
world circumstances.
Other than the above, Willis and Willis propose other impromptu ways that facilitate towards focusing on language that has been used by L2 learners. These include: (i) analysing task recording and (ii) teacher collecting examples. On teacher collecting example, Wills and Willis point out that during, for example, task performance or task reporting stage, teacher are required to note down useful expressions, collocations some recurring errors or words that learners need but did not use them in the actual performance or reporting that teacher can provide for their alternatives immediately or in the subsequent lesson (cf. the fifth parameter as discussed in section 5.5.5, on page 359). Nevertheless, while addressing the about, Willis and Willis are of the view that it is always advisable to end the task on a positive note rather than predominantly on correcting learners’ errors.

With regard to analysing task recording, Willis and Willis argue teachers to make their learners record themselves while reporting back or performing a given task. The learners need to transcribe a small section of the recording as their homework. Learners should be left to compare their transcribed interactions with those of other learners who are more fluent in performing the same task. In this regard, Willis and Wills (2007: 173) contend that during the comparisons, L2 learners often notice more linguistic forms and features, useful expressions which they use to expand their conversational tactics and repertoire in L2.

With regard to evaluation and reflection, Willis and Willis argue that many teachers tend to ask their L2 learners about the task cycle that they have completed. In this, teachers ask their learners to write something about the task on the piece of paper and anonymously hand them to their teachers. Nevertheless, Willis and Willis are of the view that teachers need to be specific. For example, the teacher may ask their learners to write down things that they liked and those that they did not like, and that learners should suggest ways for improvement. Similarly, teachers may have an informal session for feedback after a task cycle. In this session, teachers may interview their learners if possible by using learners’ L1 (cf. section 2.4.7, on page 104) in relation to how learners feel about the task. While the interview goes on, the teacher needs to take note of all the insightful messages from the learners.

Lastly, Willis and Willis contend that getting feedback from learners should not be a cumbersome process. The two scholars argue that teachers should give their learners sufficient time (roughly four minutes) to think so that learners can write down some delightful information which can provide teachers with basis on how to refine better learning tasks for future use and purposes.
5.6. Long’s (2015a) perspectives on pedagogical procedures and methodological principles

Long (2015a: 300) argues that in the field of language teaching (LT), debates on LT; (i) techniques, (ii) approaches and; (iii) procedures, have often been treated as though similar and or different in various contexts. This situation has led classroom teachers to either employ them in an overlapping manner or most times use them for a limited period. It is in this regard that Long (2015a: 301) draws a distinction between (i) pedagogical procedures; and (ii) methodological principles (cf. Long 2009a).

Long (2015a: 301) states that methodological principles (MPs) are instructional designs that are underpinned by the universal SLA interdisciplinary theories. Such theories are mainly associated with fields in education that include curriculum design, philosophy and psychology (for similar views, see sections 2.2, 3.9 & 3.9.2, on pages 33, 185 & 193). The contribution of the above fields towards the central field of SLA is supported by research findings that are either necessary or play a facilitative role in SLA. It is in this spirit that in the next section discusses three MPs associated with TBLT as advanced by Long (2015a).

Accordingly, Long (2015a: 301) argues that pedagogical procedures (PPs) are several options that substantiate/instantiate MPs in classrooms. While MPs specify the learning content, PPs define the process of achieving MPs. Long argues that the variation between PPs and MPs is the consideration of a suitable instruction design that takes into account, for example, learners’ age, their cognitive abilities and the learners’ levels of proficiency in L1 and L2. In addition, Long (2015a: 302-303) argues that as learning unfolds, it is the task of the classroom teachers to choose relevant PPs to a particular classroom based on their teaching experience and supported by research findings if available, as has been mainly demonstrated in the previous sections in discussing Willis and Willis (2007) perspectives on the parameters of adaptation and refining of pedagogical tasks. Thus, the subsequent section is set to summarise two of Long’s (2015a) ten MPs.

It should be recalled that eight of Long’s (2015) views on ten methodological principles of TBLT have been referenced to similar pedagogical and methodological perspectives as primarily advanced by Willis and Willis (2007) and Kick and Kim (2014) in this chapter. Therefore, this section discusses only two of Long’s (ibid) MPs which have been given insufficient exploration in the earlier sections of this chapter.
5.6.1. Using task, not text, as the unit of analysis

To begin exploring the two MPs, it is important to start with recapitulating task as a unit of analysis, which is also the first MP among the ten MPs that Long (2015a) advances. Thus, it should be recalled that most sections in the previous chapters, justified the advantages of using as a central unit in TBLT. In this regard, Long (2015a: 305) emphasises the view that at the methodological level, a task as the first MP, qualifies to address all the requirements of analytical approaches to syllabus design and classroom considerations. This is in order because, for example, a task as the first MP, provides L2 learners with experiences of using exactly what they expect to do while they are in the outside the classroom (in the real-world situations). In addition, Long maintains that for L2 learners to listen to others, for example, as they read a given passage or watching them perform a given task is different from when the same learners learn to read or perform that same tasks (cf. sections 5.5.2 & 5.5.5, on pages 355 & 359). In this respect, Long (2015a: 305-306) is of the view that L2 learners need to learn, for example, how to make requests, respond to questions in the language that is generally spoken.

This can be accomplished when learners are performing simplest tasks/ least complex, as illustrated in sections 4.5.1.2.1.2 and 4.5.1.4.2, on pages 227 and 237; sections 4.5.2.2.1.2 and 4.5.2.4.2, on pages 247 and 258; sections 4.5.3.2.1.2 and 4.5.3.4.2, on pages 271 and 282; sections 4.5.4.2.1.2 and 4.5.4.4.2, on pages 291 and 303; sections 4.5.5.2.1.2 and 4.5.5.4.2, on pages 316 and 333 of cognitively and syntactically least task versions of Task one, two, three, four and five, respectively. Then learners should perform less complex tasks, as demonstrated in sections 4.5.1.2.1.2 and 4.5.1.4.2, on pages 227 and 237, respectively; sections 4.5.2.2.1.2 and 4.5.2.4.2, on pages 247 and 258, respectively; sections 4.5.3.2.1.2 and 4.5.3.4.2, on pages 271 and 282, respectively; sections 4.5.4.2.1.2 and 4.5.4.4.2, on pages 291 and 303; sections 4.5.5.2.1.2 & 4.5.5.4.2, on pages 316 and 333, of cognitively and syntactically least task versions of Task one, two, three, four and five, respectively. Later on, learners need to perform the most complex tasks. In this study, realisations of full complexity in respect to both cognitive and syntactic complexity features of the above task versions are summarised in Table 4:5, Table 4:11, Table 4:17, Table 4:23, and Table 4:29, on pages 224, 244, 266, 289 and 312, respectively. Or in table-sections presented as task version three of Task one, two, three, four and five, respectively, in Table 4:8, Table 4:14, Table 4:20, Table 4:26, and Table 4:32, on pages 229, 249, 273, 293 and 319, respectively.
5.6.2. Promote learning by doing

According to Long (2015a: 306), promotion of learning by doing is considered as the second MP. Learning by doing is naturally associated with choosing a task as the unit of analysis. Long (2015a: 67) points out that personal experiences lead learners to learn to perform the best way. This is done when learners perform practically hands-on assignments by using real-world tasks. This corresponds to what Long terms as “what is learned is better understood, better remembered, and more easily retrieved if tied to real-world activities or tasks” because in this way, according to Long, abstract concepts and their related theories are made alive when learners make them visible in their daily lives. Thus, in relation to classroom MPs, learning by doing, unlike in other traditional methodological principles when L2 is learnt as an object, in learning by doing, L2 learners learn the target language through performing classroom tasks (Long 2015a: 68). Given that learning takes place in the L2, Long is of the view that both incidental (as discussed mainly in sections 2.4.6.6 & 3.8.3.4, on pages 96 & 176) and implicit (as explored mainly in section 5.3.1, on page 342) techniques are considered in facilitating the acquisition processes of L2 learners in all ages.

5.7. The role of the teacher in task-based language teaching

In section 5.3.4, on page 346, I discussed the role of learners in language learning. Thus, this section and its subsections briefly explore the position of the teacher in TBLT (cf. Van Avermaet et al. 2006). Nevertheless, before, I expound on the role of the teacher, as a mediator in TBLT, it is important to note Van den Branden’s (2016: 165) views that there have been studies that have attempted to distinguish between “expert teachers (i.e. teachers who consistently achieve higher-than-average learning gains with their students) from experienced and novice teachers” (cf. Van den Branden 2006a: 217; Higgins & Ponte 2017: 16). It is from such research that frameworks have been established that describe the qualities of an expert teacher. In his study, Van den Branden (2016: 165) employs Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation’s (2010) framework (see Table 5:1, on page 370), which collates the underpinnings of other frameworks that exist.
Table 5:1: The 7 C’s describing effective teacher behaviour as advanced by the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation (2010)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>7 C’s</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Care</td>
<td>The teacher gives the students the feeling that she or he really cares about them. The teacher tries to understand how students feel about things.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenge</td>
<td>The teacher tries to make sure that the students learn a lot and expects full effort from the students. The teacher asks the students to explain about the answers they give. The teacher doesn’t let students give up when the work gets hard. The teacher wants the students to learn from their mistakes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clarify</td>
<td>The teacher explains difficult things clearly. The teacher has several good ways of explaining each topic that is covered in class. When students don’t understand something, the teacher explains it another way.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Captivate</td>
<td>The teacher introduces topics and content that captivate the students’ interests. The teacher makes lessons enjoyable. The teacher tries to make sure that students do not get bored.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confer</td>
<td>The teacher gives the students ample opportunity to share their ideas and express their thoughts. Students have a say in how things are done in class. The teacher respects the students’ suggestions and ideas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consolidate</td>
<td>The teacher checks to make sure the students understand what she or he is teaching. The teacher gives feedback and useful comments on students’ work and helps the students understand how they improve their work and correct their mistakes. At the end of the day or lesson, the teacher summarizes what the students have learned.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>The teacher makes sure the class stays busy and doesn’t waste time. Students treat each other and the teacher with respect.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Modified from Van den Branden (2016: 166)

In this regard, while taking into consideration the 7 C’s as summarised in Table 5:1, on page 370 the proceeding sections, respectively, review the roles of teachers in TBLE. Van den Branden (2016: 167) is of the view that in the last two or so decades, classroom teachers have implemented TBLT in a way they see it practical as well as being consistent with L2 learning theories and particular pedagogical guidelines. According to Andon and Eckert (2009), as cited in Van den Branden (2016: 167), differences in the pedagogical realisation of TBLT is based on the assumption that teachers operate in and from different contexts (cf. Long 2016: 6). Therefore, it is important to reflect this view as we examine the roles of teachers (see also sections 6.2.1.1 & 6.2.1.2, on pages 378 & 380, respectively) in TBLT.

5.7.1. Teachers as mediators in language learning

In discussing the potential role of the teacher as a mediator (cf. Van den Branden 2006a: 217; Shintani 2014: 282) in the TBLT classrooms (cf. Pica 2008), Van den Branden (2016: 167) organises such roles in three phases (Reinders & Benson 2017). These are (i) pre-task, (ii) during-task, and (iii) post-task (cf. from section 5.5 to section 5.5.7, i.e. from page 354 to page 363).
5.7.1.1. Pre-task phase

These are activities/actions that are done by the teacher either before entering the classroom or prior to teaching a given lesson. For example, before entering the L2 classroom, teachers often select the learning content that is relevant to focus on the lesson (cf. Kubanyiova & Crookes 2016: 118). In most case, the selected content is formally issued by institutions’ management or government (see sections 2.3 & 2.3.2.1, on pages 39 & 51; cf. Figure 2:1, on page 38). Van den Branden (2016: 167) states that given most teachers follow, for example, syllabuses and commercial books, most of them work in a certain degree of autonomy. To reflect this autonomy, Van den Branden content that teachers decide the tasks and their associated exercises that learners will perform in the classroom, the materials that will be relevant to the lesson, and the choice of teachers’ input to be extended to the learners. Above all, it is the teacher to set the timeframe for all activities in the classroom. These include assigning time for task performance as well as time for a whole-class discussion. In relation to the content distribution, it the teacher who decides the balancing of focus on form (FoF) and focus on meaning (FoM), particular form(s) to be highlighted, and whether the form(s) will be explicitly or implicitly practised. In another word, the above activities summarise what, Breen (1989) as cited in Van den Branden (2016: 167), refers to as task-as-work plan. In addition, with reference to Van den Branden, Long (2015) of the view that all the teacher activities above need to be drawn from the analysis of L2 learners’ needs (on needs analysis, see section 2.4.7, on page 104). See Van den Branden (2016: 168), for an illustration of the teachers’ prior plans for a task-based lesson.

5.7.1.2. During-task-phase

This phase involves activities that task-based language teachers do while in the language classrooms. According to Van den Branden, such activities bring life to a planned task. With reference to Van den Branden (2016: 168), Breen (1989) argues that it is during this phase that, task-as-workplan is turned into task-in-action or into task-in-interaction.

Therefore, with reference to Van den Branden (2016: 168), Van den Branden (2009b) is of the view that tasks determine to learn in a situation when there is quality and intensity of (i) learners’ mental engagement while working on tasks, (ii) interaction, verbally, that is exhibited between L2 learners and their teachers. In this respect, for L2 teachers to balance (i) and (ii) above, Van den Branden (2009b: 284) states that such teachers need to crucially play the following three roles.
**Being a motivator**, with reference to Van den Branden (2016: 169), Dörnyei (2009) suggests that for L2 learners to be motivated, their teachers should introduce tasks that are interesting to the L2 learners, should be relevant to learners’ needs, above all, these tasks need to be challenging yet performable. In this respect, Van den Branden (2016: 169) argues that there are several ways to uphold the motivational strategies advanced by Dörnyei (2009). These include, for example, the issues of teachers to highlight the goals of different lessons, the usefulness of the lesson to the L2 learners’ needs/ real-life should be emphasised, questions that are interesting should be raised, or topics that have been suggested/ introduced by the L2 learners, need to be pursued. In brief, as Van den Branden (2016: 169) put it “…the fact that learning is something that teachers cannot do for learners and learners must actively invest energy in their own learning process…” (Cf. Larsen-Freeman 2015: 497), Van den Branden (2016: 169) contends that motivating and activating L2 learners is a crucial role to be done by L2 teachers (for similar views, see Guilloteaux & Dörnyei [2008]; Samuda [2015], as cited in Van den Branden 2016: 168).

**As organisers**, Van den Branden argues that teachers need a sufficient amount of time planning/organisational purposes (cf. McDonough & Chaikitmongkol 2007: 124). In this regard, for example, L2 teachers require ample time in giving learners task instructions (see section 5.5.1, on page 354). The same learners are required to be organised in groups by the teacher. L2 teachers need to see that the sequenced activities are incoherent, logically and built up in a manner that L2 learners can continuously enjoy performing yet they are challenging. In this respect, the teacher is expected to determine the time for turn-taking among the task participants or in the discussion period. Above all, It the teacher that is expected to manage the class in terms of, for example, noise and learners’ movements in the classroom. In brief, with reference to Van den Branden (2016: 169), Devlieger & Goossens (2007) and Willis and Willis (2007) contend that all these activities are required to be done by a teacher from the beginning to the end of the lesson (see Van den Branden 2016: 169-170, for an example of sequencing of pedagogical activities).

**Teachers as a conversational partner/supporter.** According to Van den Branden (2016: 170), teacher as a supporter or an interactional partner involves activities that are associated with series of actions that L2 teachers perform with an aim of enhancing the quality and quantity of interaction between task participants (see Van den Branden 2016: 170-171 for series of studies that have reported teachers’ role in interaction with respect to learners’ developments in L2).

Thus, drawing from the cited studies, Van den Branden summarises five actions that teachers are supposed to engage in to enhance classroom interaction. These include:
The teacher should engage in the *negotiation of meaning* while the students try to deal with the input and output demand raised by the task (clarity in the 7 C’s). The teacher should produce a wide variety of *questions, cues, and prompts* to elicit learner output. The teacher should provide *feedback* on students’ written and oral output. Feedback may come in different shapes, including explicit corrections, recasts, confirmation and clarification requests, metalinguistic comments, extensions, and elaborations (consolidate in the 7 C’s). The teacher should incorporate a *focus on form* in the meaning-oriented work the students are doing. The teacher should ample *input* and should *model or practice* the performance of a task or the use of a certain strategy. (2016: 170-171)

Thus, from the example of sequencing pedagogical activities (see Van den Branden 2016: 169-170), Van den Branden (2016: 171) contends that the five quoted actions above can assist L2 teachers in carrying out the pedagogical practices. In return, this enriches the environment from which language learning takes place that L2 learners are exposed to. In addition, through the use of the above actions, learners’ performance is motivated as well as the provision of time-to-time feedback is possible (see consolidate in Table 5:1, on page 370; cf. section 2.4.6.7, on page 100, on explicit and implicit feedback).

In all this, with reference to Van den Branden (2016: 171), Devlieger and Goossens (2007) advise L2 teachers to provide L2 learners with socioemotional and interactional support (see care in Table 5:1, on page 370). In this regard, L2 teacher is expected to equally respect all learners, motivate them, provide positive feedback to facilitate learners’ self-confidence and wellbeing. Teachers are asked to encourage the learners when the task is difficult for them. This should be done while taking into consideration learners’ learning differences (see, for example, section 3.9.2, on page 193; Ellis 2004; Révész 2011). This allows the teacher to attempt monitoring such differences in their learners during task performance, input provision and offer support to the learners’ urgent needs.

### 5.7.1.3. Post-task phase

In relation to pedagogical practices, these are activities that L2 teachers do after L2 learners have performed a task (cf. Van den Branden *et al.* 2007: 1). In this stage, the teacher can lead learners in discussing about learning strategies as employed by learners while performing a task. In addition, teachers can attempt to solve some questions and issues that could still be challenging to their learners as well as concluding the lesson drawing from the previous performance. It is still at this stage that teachers do assess their learners’ task performance in term of language development. The possible ways to assess learners is by using either an official/standardised test from the syllabuses or the teacher can develop a task-based test (Van den Branden 2016: 171). Similarly, Van den Branden (2016: 172) argues that teachers can as well consider the previous observations on regular learners’ performances during the classroom hours to determine learners’ modes of assessment.

According to Van den Branden, the overall aim of assessment is to toil and fine-tune future
interactional support to the learners’ specific needs for consideration purposes in improving a course plan or curriculum issues (see Norris 2009, 2015; Van Avermaet et al. 2006, as cited in Van den Branden 2016: 172).

5.8. Summary

This chapter has argued that in pedagogical and methodological innovations in L2 pedagogies, the role of grammar is a vital consideration. In respect to the methodological considerations of communicative grammar in TBLT, the chapter has discussed the need to adapt and redefine the graded and sequenced pedagogical Kiswahili tasks, demonstrated in several sections of the previous chapter. The chapter has explored several techniques that can be taken into considerations in redefining the pedagogical tasks before (planning stage), during (online stage) and after (post-task stage) they have been performed by L2 Kiswahili learners in the class. It was proposed that in redefining the tasks, L2 learners’ input is important as they work together in extending the nature of tasks they can perform and advance on their existing proficiency. Thus, the chapter has proposed various pedagogical activities that L2 learners and their teachers can perform. These pedagogical activities have purposely been organised in a way to be suitably facilitative to Kiswahili teachers in their pedagogical practices.
CHAPTER SIX
THE IMPLEMENTATION OF TASK-BASED LANGUAGE TEACHING IN LOWER SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF UGANDA

..., if educational innovations are to diffuse successfully, language teaching professionals must not only understand the variety and complexity of social roles played by various stakeholders, but they must also ensure that the different interests of these stakeholders are taken into account and accommodated. – Markee (1997: 83)

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6.1. Introduction

As the previous chapter was generally concerned with activities that occur before, during and after the actual performance of Kiswahili pedagogical tasks, this chapter, Chapter Six, generally aims at discussing views, as mainly advanced by Markee (1993), on how TBLT can be diffused in the existing education systems, e.g. that of Uganda. To demonstrate the diffusion processes, partly the chapter devotes two subsections i.e. sections 6.2.1.1 and 6.2.1.2 on pages 378 and 380, respectively, (see section 5.7.1, on page 370, on the discussion of the role of the teacher as a mediator in TBLT classrooms), to highlight the positions of teachers as change agents and researchers with regard to TBLT in the Ugandan context.

It should be recalled that in Chapter One (see section 1.1, on page 1), I mentioned that TBLT and its related principles are considered to be an innovation in language education, for example, with particular attention to Kiswahili pedagogies in lower secondary schools in Uganda. Thus, to diffuse such an innovation into the education context, there is a need to provide some theoretical discussions on how sufficiently this diffusion can be considered by not only Kiswahili teachers, but also by other practitioners in the field of language education mainly in Ugandan education systems.

Therefore, to attain the purpose of this chapter, in general, the whole chapter draws its views from Markee’s (1993) study while taking into consideration Markee’s (1997: 83) viewpoints that constitute the epigraph of the current chapter. It should be born in mind that while there is a considerate literature on diffusion of language innovation into educational systems, most of these studies are general in that Markee (1993) draws from such studies to constitute his unified framework for developing and evaluating innovation in language teaching (Markee 1993: 229).
Relatedly, Markee’s (1993) study (framework) clearly stipulates the different stages in form of questions that can easily be followed and taken into account upon the implementation of TBLT in any education system, as will be discussed in the subsequent sections.

6.2. **Diffusion of innovation in language teaching**

With reference to Grgurović (2014: 156), Rogers (2003: 12) defines an innovation as an object, idea or practice that is considered as new by individuals to adopt it. In this regard, Markee (1993: 229) contends that educational innovations with particular attention to language teaching have evolved for centuries. With such evolutions, there are still few applied linguists that have shown interest in exploring problems associated while implementing such innovations (cf. Grgurović 2014: 157). Markee argues that as applied linguists, there is a need to develop interests in addressing the two concerns of mainly why and how innovations diffuse. He adds that in general, there is limited literature that has attempted to address the above-two concerns. Martel (2017: 431) is of the view that when in regard to change, L2 fares poorly.

With reference to Paesani (2017: 433), Miñana (n.d) contends that there are several ways of adapting and implementing changes. According to Paesani, one of these ways is to emphasise the local pedagogical practices which have been derived from the global scale, such as the future use of tasks in the education systems of Uganda (see also section 1.7.4, on page 395). Therefore, in relation to innovation diffusion in language teaching, Markee cites Kennedy’s (1988) and Beretta’s (1990) studies, as frameworks of diffusion-of-innovation. According to Markee (1993: 229), the above-two studies provide systematic sets of guiding principles for not only developing language syllabuses and teaching materials, as has been demonstrated in this study, but also as frameworks for implementing innovations in language teaching. In addition, Markee emphasises the view that the studies of Kennedy (1988) and Beretta (1990) demonstrate how retrospectively the implementation of innovation in language teaching can be evaluated. In other words, the two studies above provide relevant information from syllabus design procedures to their evaluation-related processes (see also Richards’s [2013] approaches to curriculum development, as discussed in section 2.3, on page 39, and summarised, as Figure 2:3, on page 46).

It is in this regard that Markee advances the view that there is a need for language teaching specialists to embrace the benefits associated with Kennedy’s (1988) and Beretta’s (1990) frameworks for sustainability purposes of the field of language teaching (see Grgurović’s (2014) views on Rogers’s [2003] model “innovation-decision process”). Thus, to sustain the field, Paesani (2017: 434) asserts that it is through innovations that SLA/pedagogy specialists in curriculum
models as well as instructional approaches can largely contribute. Although it is challenging, it can highlight their relevance locally and internationally.

Thus, to demonstrate his argument as pointed in the above paragraph, Markee (1993: 229) draws on views from earlier studies on educational innovation such as language planning and sociology to design what he refers to as a multi-disciplinary framework. Relatedly, Paesani (2017: 434) advises that there is a need for continuation of engagements in cross-disciplinary research e.g. in computer science in which studies in languages are extended beyond and local context. Therefore, according to Markee (1993: 230), his framework is constituted by composite questions of “who adopts what, where, when, why and how”, as advanced in Cooper’s (1989) study (cf. Grgurović 2014: 156). Markee is of the view that each of the questions above has a response(s) that define a basic concern of language teaching practitioners. In fact, Markee states that his framework sufficiently encompasses information for all practitioners who are willing to engage in any innovation with particular attention to language education, as will be discussed in the subsequent sections.

6.2.1. In defining innovation: The notion “WHO”

With reference with Paesani (2017: 433-434), Bernhardt (2017: 433-434) points out that as specialists, we need to lead in the development of pedagogical approaches and curriculums across programmes in educational systems nationally and globally. In addition, Markee (1993: 230) emphasises the view that while language teachers are leading players in the processes of promoting syllabus related innovations, there are other key players who are involved in such processes (cf. Figure 2:1, on page 38). These are players with decisions whether a given innovation should be adopted, how, when and where in particular (see also Paesani 2017: 443). To address the above who-questions, Markee is of the view that the above players assume different social roles that define a particular relationship among the players. With reference to Markee (1993: 230, 1997: 82), Lambright and Flynn (1980) have labelled the players in such a relationship as, adopters, implementers, clients suppliers, or change agents.

To contextualise the above labels, Markee (1993: 230) uses Kennedy’s (1988) study to situate the roles within Tunisia’s education system of administration. In this regard, (i) officials from the Ministry of Education, Heads of Departments and Deans, act as adopters, (ii) teachers as implementers, (iii) learners/students, as clients; (iv) curriculum and material designers, as suppliers and lastly, (v) ‘expatriate’ curriculum experts as change agents. Kennedy (1988) is of the view that the above “roles are not mutually exclusive”. In that, a player can have several roles simultaneously at varying degrees in the implementation process of an innovation. Additionally, Kennedy contends
that it is possible that other than change agents, as mentioned earlier in this paragraph, other players may adopt or oppose the innovation. It should be recalled that the adopters or opposers often share the same views as they participate in the designing and implementation of language innovations (see, for example, the implementation of Kiswahili curriculum for secondary schools in Uganda, as summarised section 1.1, on page 1; cf. Jjingo & Visser’s [2017: 4] study).

In relation to teachers as key players in the promotion of language innovation (cf. Foster 2009: 248), in his annual review article, Long (2016: 28) concludes that TBLT is still considered as a recent innovation. Thus, the adoption of TBLT requires mainly classroom teachers to be with expertise as course designers and in pedagogical practices (as noted in section 7.3). This should be complemented by investing sufficient efforts and time for the innovation to be successful in the learning institutions (cf. Pica et al. 1993: 9; Carless 2012: 352). To advance Long’s views further, Van den Branden (2016) discusses three perspectives with regard to the roles/positions of the teacher in task-based language education (TBLE). These include; being an (i) L2 learners’ mediator, (ii) change agent of the TBLE innovation, and (iii) a researcher to develop further TBLT as a researched pedagogy (Van den Branden 2016: 164). It is in this respect that the subsequent section will explore roles (ii) and (iii) above, given that teachers’ role on (i), has been discussed in section 5.7, on page 369, and its subsections in Chapter Five

6.2.1.1. Teachers as change agents

According to Van den Branden (2016: 172; cf. Van den Branden 2009) for over two decades, teachers from several learning institutions in several continents have been advised to adopt their specific roles within the framework of TBLT. This is because TBLT as an approach has been preferred as pedagogically informed in relation to language education (see, for example, Steenkamp & Visser 2011: 25). While has been an increase on research with regard to teachers’ reactions on adopting TBLT approaches, Van den Branden (2016: 172) argues that such studies show a clear tension between TBLT as an approach and its realisation in the L2 classrooms. In other words, with reference to Van den Branden (2016: 173), Andon and Eckert (2009) point out it that, in general, teachers do implement TBLT approaches not as it is exactly supposed to be (cf. Ogilvie & Dunn 2010: 161). For example, in several educational settings, L2 teachers often modify TBLT approaches such as tasks that have been developed by professional in order to suit their learners’ needs, teachers’ beliefs in relation to good language education while taking into account the contexts from which such teachers do operate their pedagogical practices.
Van den Branden (2016: 173) contends that these modifications on TBLT approaches and their related elements offer to divert from the conventional guidelines of task-based language teaching and learning (TBLT&L). For example, teachers often replace a group work or a task for a pair of learners to be a classroom discussion for a whole class or relegating task-based lesson into task-supported (see Ellis 2003b: 16 or section 3.5.2, on page 144, on the difference between task-supported language teaching and task-based language teaching) pedagogical practices. Van den Branden (2016: 173) points out that the above divergencies are, for example, based on the teacher’s educational beliefs (see, Borg 2006; Van den Branden 2009a, as cited in Van den Branden 2016: 173, for similar observations). In brief, the above views leave L2 teachers with mixed views about TBLT in general, although some L2 teachers who have attempted to ‘fully’ implement TBLT have experienced some benefits of it. For example, the provision of extensive opportunities in language practising which leads to the creation of communication skills. This aspect leads learners in the creation of self-confidence in using the target language freely.

Nevertheless, there are studies that have reported the clashes that TBLT has caused with regard to, for example, standardised, official form-focused tests. Given that TBLT approaches primarily focus on meaning, the learner-learner interaction can lead to noise making in the classroom and the increase of L1 use in the L2 classroom. In addition, it is quite challenging to implement TBLT in classes with a bigger number of learners (cf. The Republic of Uganda 2015: 27-30 in relation to an average number of learners in classrooms of Ugandan primary schools). In brief, the above views suggest that TBLT is a complex endeavour that needs a gradual approach towards its implementation in learning institutions across the globe even when the government directs its implementation (cf. Van den Branden 2016: 172).

In this regard, according to Van den Branden (2016: 174), for TBLT to spread in learning institutions as an innovation, teachers need to have a personal value which should be associated with the development of L2 learners’ proficiency skills in an L2. Therefore, to attain the above, L2 teachers need guidance and support to develop confidence and expertise in order to overcome some of the above-discussed challenges/ issues in relation to TBLT&T. Van den Branden (2016: 175) proposes that such support can be facilitated by teachers mainly when they are still in teacher training institutions (e.g. at the School of Education, Makerere University, Uganda, as mentioned in section 1.5, on page 12, with regard to the motivation of undertaking the current study; cf. section 1.8.1, on page 17).

As I summarise this subsection, it is important to point out the following main views with reference to Savage (1997: 285-286), Woods (1988: 179) argues that local personnel are suitably positioned
to initiate changes given that it requires commitments from bottom-up rather than top-down views of development. The commitment can be attained if language-and-development practitioners, such as when teachers act as change-agents who can take into considerations the effects and how their pedagogical practices are affected at different institutions (workplaces) and in wider contexts (outside their workplaces).

6.2.1.2. Teachers as researchers

On a theoretical ground, educational policies and on a research basis, as Van den Branden (2016: 175) argues that TBLT has been advanced as a viable approach for SLA, raising three important concerns including: whether TBLT has an impact on peoples’ lives (‘teachers & learners’?); whether it is really applicable in the real (other than laboratories) classrooms; whether TBLT enhances learners’ language learning.

In an attempt to address the above three issues, Van den Branden states that while TBLT has existed for more than three decades, the above three basic concerns have received limited attention from the researchers. According to Van den Branden (2016: 176), this is because primarily SLA research is characterised by how researchers conduct their businesses in laboratories (cf. Long 2009b: 4; Ellis 2017: 522), under the control of professional teachers (not regular L2 teachers), mainly in higher institutions of learning (see, for example, Saeedi & Kazerooni 2014; cf. Benmamoun & Albirini 2018: 41). Therefore, this suggests that TBLT research on adolescent learners or low-educated adults is limited (see, for example, Shintani 2014). In addition, the researchers work on a limited number of tasks (Ellis 2017: 522) within a restricted timeframe and above all their focus is narrow, i.e. more on performance than development (see, for example, sections 3.8.4.1 & 3.8.4.1.1, on pages 180 & 180). According to Van den Branden, the above research characteristics suggest that is still unclear how L2 students in the laboratories contexts can be relevant in regular L2 learners’ classrooms such as those across Uganda.

Therefore, given that there is limited research conducted in regular classrooms by regular teachers, Van den Branden (2016: 176) maintains that “there are very few, if any, teachers in the real world who implement a rigorous, task-based approach in each of their lessons all the time.” In other words, Van den Branden argues that most L2 teachers often employ eclectic approaches while teaching given that they combine personal experiences, educational decisions alongside TBLT principles. Van den Branden asserts that while employing eclectic approaches, L2 teachers take into account several issues including, the contexts in which they operate, their learners’ needs and the goals of the lessons/topics they intend to achieve. Subsequently, this results in variations not only
between classroom activities but also in terms of teachers’ beliefs and practices about TBLT. Hence, making the implementation of TBLT a nightmare more so in convincing L2 teachers from regular classrooms the potentials of TBLT.

Van den Branden argues that there is a way TBLT as a researched pedagogy can attempt addressing the above issues. This depends on different ways in which TBLT can be research based on SLA recommendations that are consistent with methodological principles (MPs) (see section 5.6, on page 367; or Long 2015a, on a detailed discussion about MPs) that have so far been published. According to Van den Branden (2016: 177), even in such contexts, in the field of SLA. There are several theoretical paradigms competing without a clear unifying theory. In addition, the issue of context-sensitivity is largely still a dilemma. For example, the existing literature predominantly omits reference to SLA studies done in authentic classrooms. Thus, from the teachers’ perspective, the above situation leaves teachers at the crossroads. Thus, Van den Branden argues that there is a need to adhere to the “descriptive reading of a “researched pedagogy” where decisions and actions from the authentic classrooms in which tasks are being performed are taken into consideration other than, primarily, laboratory-based research. For this to realise the intended goals, from the onset, task-based works should be distinguished from other classroom exercises. Regular teachers and their learners are actively involved in these processes. Thus, according to Van den Branden (2016: 177-178), such work can lead to the investigation of the research areas, either in combination or as separate studies. They include;

(i) Which beliefs do teachers hold about the tasks they are (supposed to be) working with? What do they think about their potential learning and about possible ways to raise their learning potential? (ii) What drives teachers to work with particular tasks, and holds them back? (iii) How do teachers make use of tasks in their classrooms? (iv) How do teachers build task-based (task-supported) lessons? Why do they do so? How do they build a task-based course? How do they sequence tasks, and why do they do so? (v) How do students react to teachers’ approach to classroom-based work with tasks? (vi) Which variables influence the students’ and teachers’ perceptions about tasks and their motivations to work with tasks? (vii) Which interaction patterns (between students, and between student and teachers) unfold in an authentic classroom depending on the way tasks are used? (viii) What is the impact of the particular sequence of task-based activities, or a particular implementation of tasks (over a longer period) on the SLA of the students in the classroom involved? (ix) Which types of task-based work do students consider the most effective? Which actions of their teachers (during task-based work) do they consider the most effective? (x) Which types of learners profit most from particular types of classroom-based work with tasks? (xi) How do the results of the above-mentioned studies feed the theory of instructed (task-based) language learning? (Van den Branden 2016: 177-178)

In light of the above, teachers ought to perform the following roles (cf. sections 5.7.1 & 6.2.1.1, on pages 370 & 378) in research to attain their targets. Paesani (2017: 434) puts it that, as our
discipline often evolves, we need also to change along which nurtures our general understanding in relation to advancing, for example, processes in language learning. Thus, with reference to Van den Branden (2016: 178), Burns (2009) and Pollard (2014) contend that, in research, teachers can either be reflective practitioners or action researchers (see Nassaji & Fotos 2007: 7, on constructivist approach to research and Tarone & Swierzbin [2009] & Avineri [2017] as cited in Martel [2017: 432], on exploratory practice projects). For example, Martel (2017: 432) states that teachers who have completed their preparation short-term programmes can offer so much in research, such as graduate teacher-trainees at the School of Education, Makerere University.

In addition, with reference to Van den Branden (2016: 178), Burns (2009) and Pollard (2014) are of the view that teachers can be involved in data gathering and analysis. Afterwards, be able to share their findings with, for example, University-based researchers or applied linguists. The, in turn, provides for theoretical implications of TBLT with other teachers within and outside a given learning context. In addition, researching-teacher can audiotape or video record their pedagogical practices to show to others the levels/rates of their learners’ interaction in the authentic classrooms. Still, teachers can ask the L2 learners to fill tasks’ evaluation surveys as sued in their classrooms. Also, learners can be tasked to do curriculum-independent tests or standard sized tests in which their results can increase on teachers’ databases as the basis of research, as summarised in Table 5:1, on page 370 (cf. Thompson 2013).

In summary, Van den Branden (2016: 178) argues that as L2 teachers, we need both descriptive and prescriptive research strands given that that are not mutually exclusive. He adds that classroom-based research is important to contribute to TBLT research discourse from several contexts with different types of L2 learners.

6.2.2. In defining innovation: The notion “ADOPTS”

The notion of adoption is characterised in relation to institutions or particular individuals who participate in decision-making processes. With reference to Markee (1993: 231), Rogers (1983), an informed scholar on diffusion innovations (see Grgurović 2014), contends that decision-making processes are divided into five steps. These involve potential adopters 1) gaining knowledge about an innovation, 2) being persuaded of its value, 3) making a preliminary decision to adopt the innovation, 4) implementing their decisions to adopt, and 5) confirming their decision to continue using the innovations.

In contrast with the above steps, with reference to Markee (1993: 231), Fullan (1982) instead suggests four steps in their sequential order. These include: (i) initiation, (ii) implementation, (iii)
continuation, and (iv), outcome. Similarly, Markee (1993: 231) advances the conceptualisation of adoption as a notion from an evaluator’s viewpoint. In that adoption can be taken as a level of implementation. It can be considered as a measure to ascertain the depth at which a given change has taken place. Such a measure relates to what Rogers’s (2003), as cited in Grgurović (2014: 156), refers to as factors that are influential in attributing whether the innovation can be rejected or diffused. They include (i) relative advantage; this involves the advantages that the innovation has compared to the existing one; (ii) compatibility takes into account the issues such as experience (either similar or different) that the adopters are likely to encounter with regard to the innovation; (iii) complexity refers to how easy or difficult is the innovation compared to the existing one; (iv) trialability involves a degree at which new users can attempt trying out the innovation; (v) observability is the situation in which an innovation can be observed before it is being adopted.

Therefore, drawing from Baretta’s (1990) findings on evaluating Prabhu’s (1987) procedure syllabuses by the teacher in implementing the task-based methodology, Markee (1993: 231) concludes that it is quite challenging at a fundamental level to promote an innovation. In other words, Markee argues that educational innovations tend to fail because they are hardly fully adopted into the educational system or failure to reflect then the fifth step of the decision-making processes, as advanced by Rogers (1983) at the beginning of this section.

6.2.3. On defining innovation: The notion “WHAT”

This refers to the innovation itself, which in this case is the TBS for teaching and learning Kiswahili as an L2 in the Ugandan secondary schools. With reference to Markee (1993: 231), Nicholls (1983: 4) outlines the basic characteristics of an innovation (s). Thus, Nicholls regards an innovation to be an idea(s), an object(s) or practices that are considered by an individual(s) as new. These need to foster some changes with regard to the someone’s desired objectives. These ideas need to be deliberately planned and fundamental in nature. Nevertheless, according to Markee, Nicholls’s basic characteristics with regard to an innovation is somewhat ambiguous. Therefore, Markee (1993: 231) defines an innovation as “proposals for qualitative change in pedagogical materials, approaches, and values that are perceived as new by an individual who comprises a formal (language) education system.” Therefore, through this chapter, an innovation is predominantly considered as defined above by Markee (1993: 231). Nevertheless, see Markee (1993: 232-233) for a detailed analysis and contextualisation of Nicholls’s definition of an innovation.
6.2.4. In defining innovation: The notion “WHERE”

With reference to Markee (1993: 233), Cooper (1989) argues that sociocultural terms are conceived as a determinant in relation to the question(s) where an innovation is implemented. This involves mainly specifying not only the geographical location(s) where the innovation to be implemented, rather the sociocultural contexts. Thus, according to Markee (1993: 233-234), there is a need for practitioners (as noted in section 6.2, on page 376) to recognise both negative and positive impacts of several sociocultural constraints in implementing, for example, TBSs in the Ugandan educational systems. To illustrate his submission, Markee makes reference to his previous studies (i.e. Markee 1986a, 1986b) in which he identified factors that affect mainly the implementation of projects based on funded-aids. The factors include sociolinguistics, culture, institutions, ideological, political, administrative, historical and those economically oriented (see Markee 1993: 234, for the list of other scholars in support of the above factors).

For example, to develop further on the above list of factors, as advanced by Markee, with reference to Markee (1993: 234), Kennedy (1988) establishes the relative importance of these factors on an innovation. In this regard, Kennedy notes that classroom/educational innovations are constrained by a series of systems. According to Kennedy, cultural factors take the leading role in shaping a certain behaviour. Then, political conventions, followed by administrative practices and so on, as illustrated in Figure 6:1, on page 385; cf. Figure 2:1, on page 38.
Therefore, to address the above concern, Markee (1993: 234) is of the view that scholars (such as Munby 1978, 1984; Holliday & Cooke 1982) have made attempts to solve these gaps. These attempts need to be considered when dealing with sociocultural constraints during the syllabus design processes. For example, in their studies, the above scholars agree with the view that the above factors as advanced by Markee in the first paragraph of this section, vary from one context to another, as an innovation is being implemented. In addition, such constraints have an effect on the entire process i.e. from syllabus design, through implementation, to the evaluation stages.

6.2.5. In defining innovation: The notion “WHEN”

Markee (1993: 235) contends that not all adopters (as discussed in section 6.2.1, on page 377) have to implement the innovation at the same rate. Nevertheless, according to Markee, it is possible to determine the rate of diffusion the same innovation if the time for each adopter to implement the innovation is known or specified. This can further assist to identify the types/categories of adopters as noted in section 6.2.1, on page 377. Nevertheless, with reference to Markee (1993: 235), Rogers (1983) is of the view that diffusion can be explained in terms of a given period of time that has been taken by adopters to implement an innovation, as illustrated in an S-shaped diffusion curve in Figure 6:2, on page 386.
From Figure 6:2 above, the lazy slope at the toe of the curve illustrates that adoption occurs very slowly at first. This is in order because, for example, 25% of the possible adopters accept the innovation to take off. Then, if the rate of adoption accelerates, the mid-section of the curve deepens which suggests that there are more adopters joining the bandwagon. Finally, plateaus occur to suggest that either the innovation has been stalled or fully adopted.

Thus, with regard to diffusion rate, Huberman (1973) and Rogers (1983) as cited in Markee (1993: 235), identify five categories of adopters. They include (i) innovators, (ii) early adopters, (iii) early majority, (iv) late majority, (v) and laggards (cf. section 6.2.1, on page 377), without forgetting those who do not adopt the innovations (resistors). Therefore, with regard to the S-shaped diffusion curve summarised in Figure 6:2, on page 386, both innovators and early adopters of the innovation occupy 25% of the curve. These are followed by the early and late majority occupying the steepest part of the curve. Lastly, the last part of the curve that flattens out to formulate a plateau is occupied by the laggards.

Markee (1993: 236) states that the above information, as summarised in Figure 6:2, on page 386, has two major potential applications. First, it gives syllabus designers a framework to focus on language teachers that are seen to be the most receptive to the innovation. According to Markee (1993: 236), this is in the order given that the categories of adopters (as discussed in section 6.2.1, on page 377) “tend to be associated with personal characteristics which are either conducive or not conducive to innovation, recognition of early adopters would be important to the innovation
process.” Secondly, the above information can be used by the language programme evaluators to ascertain how quickly and successfully an innovation has spread across its potential adopters.

### 6.2.6. In defining innovation: The notion “WHY”

In section 6.2.4, on page 384, several sociocultural constraints that come into play for an innovation to be rejected or accepted were discussed. In this section, Markee (1993: 236) adds the other two factors. These include (i) individual psychological profile, and (ii) that of innovation themselves that do pose attributes that in one way or another influence their adoption or rejection.

Thus, with regard to (i) above, Markee cited Rogers (1983) who notes that specific adoption behaviours are often displayed by particular individuals with a certain psychological profile. For example, according to Rogers, well-educated people are often the early adopters. The contacts of such people with other individuals tend to be extensive. In most cases, such people can tolerate uncertainties as they occur. In contrast, the profiles of the laggards are the opposite of the early adopters. Lastly, the individuals between the early adopters and the laggards tend to demonstrate traits which are intermediary.

In relation to (ii) above, while acknowledging other scholars, Markee (1993: 236), employs, for example, Rogers’s (1983) proposals on attributes to innovations themselves. According to Markee (1993: 236), Rogers’s (1983) attributes are derived from a broad range of theoretically and empirically based studies. These include:

… the relative advantage to potential adopters of adopting an innovation (i.e., the cost or benefits); the accountability of the innovation with previous practice (i.e., how different or similar the innovation is to what the potential adopter already uses); the complexity of the innovation (i.e., how difficult the innovation is to understand or use); the triallability of the innovation (i.e., how easy it is to try out in stages); and the observability of the innovation (i.e., how visible the innovation is).

### 6.2.7. In defining innovation: The notion “HOW”

With reference to Markee (1993: 237), Henrichsen (1989) argues that there are several theories that influence the occurrence of changes. Such theories include conflict theory, diffusion theory, equilibrium theory, rise and fall theory and evolution theory. According to Henrichsen, diffusion theory is directly relevant to language teaching. In addition, while citing Havelock (1971), Markee (1993: 237) notes that there are three basic innovative models including problem-solving model, Research, Development and Diffusion model (RD&D), and lastly, the social interaction model. These three models are synthesised to constitute what Havelock (1971) refers to as a linkage model. Furthermore, in addition to the above models, with reference to Markee (1993: 237), Chin and
Benne (1976) also identify three related innovation strategies which include: normative-re-educative, empirical-rational, and power-coercive strategies. According to Markee (1993: 237), the above strategies and models are used unconsciously in language teaching innovations by various practitioners.

To contextualise the above views, Markee argues that empirical-rational strategies to innovation are underpinned on grounds that “people are rational and will, therefore, be persuaded to adopt an innovation it can be demonstrated that it is their rational self-interest to do so.” Thus, he argues that people who subscribe to the RD&D model tend to use this form of strategy. According to Markee an example of the combination of RD&D model in conjunction with empirical-rational strategy was applied by scholars under the Council of Europe in the development of notional/functional syllabuses (see section 2.3.2.1, on page 51, in relation to Council of Europe).

The RD&D model is a systematic, rational as well as a theory-driven. It involves long-term planning which is done by highly trained personnel with roles in accomplishing different phrases of the entire project. This mode of planning is often linear though with some feedback loops in the process. It is assumed that rational consumers who are passive are the users of the end product. In all this, some basic research is needed to initiate the planning processes, then applied research follows with regard to, for example, mass production before dissemination to potential users is finally done. With reference to Markee (1993: 237), Havelock (1971) is of the view that “the high development costs will be offset by the long-term benefits of efficiency and the anticipated high quality of the innovation.” (Cf. Stockman 2016 as cited in De Costa & Norton 2017 on financial support on educational institutions).

Markee (1993: 237) contends that in conjunction with RD&D model, a power-coercive innovation strategy can also be used to solve a given problem. In this approach, the application of administrative, political as well as economic power are involved (cf. Larsen-Freeman & Anderson 2011: 165-166). The application of this approach occurs, for example, in times when the Ministry of Education decides to designs and disseminates a given syllabus in the country.

Furthermore, according to Markee (1993: 238), normative-re-educative strategies which are underpinned “on the assumptions that users’ decisions are not exclusively based on rational criteria.” Instead, personal values and sociocultural systems play an equal role in determining a given behaviour, see, for example, Shi’s (2017) study. People who believe in the problem-solving model, tend to make use of these strategies. In fact, with reference to Markee (1993: 238), Havelock
(1971) puts it that problem-solving model has extensively been favoured in the educational innovations in Britain and United States of America on process syllabuses.

Thus, to draw a distinction between RD&D model and problem-solving model, the letter is premised on qualitatively approaches to planning. Users of this model first apply action research to ascertain a given problem and to determine how they want it to be solved. Then, the search for relevant information to help them “formulate and/or select an appropriate innovation”, follows. Thereafter, systematically processes from the adopting steps to evaluation procedures are undertaken. Finally, there is the assessment with regard to the suitability of the solution to the problem. In this case, if the solution is unsuitable, the process is redone until when the desired solutions are attained.

In relation to normative-re-educative strategy, Markee (1993: 238) argues that such strategies are often employed social interaction models of innovations. This is in order because of the importance attached to social relationships, as emphasised by this model. In addition to such relationships, there are also other factors that include:

1) the position of potential adopters in their social network (i.e., how connected or disconnected they are from peers who might influence their decision); 2) the role of information about innovations; 3) the importance of group membership and reference-group identification as predators of individual adoptions; and 4) the typically S-shaped pattern-of-diffusion curve (see section 6.2.5, on page 385).

According to Havelock (1971) as cited in Markee (1993: 238), in the educational contexts, this model takes into account how communication plays a role in inhibiting or promoting the diffusion of a curriculum which is innovative.

To summarise the above discussion on models, while citing Havelock (1971), Rogers and Shoemaker (1971), Markee notes the existence of the linkage models. Such models are hybrids from the three models as discussed above. The linkage models consider the existing connection that is linked by the user of the innovation on one hand and change agents on the other hand (cf. Zeid, Assadi & Murad 2017: 1168). In such connections, participants are enabled to interact both collaboratively and reciprocally (cf. Byrnes 2015: 220).

6.3. Summary

This chapter has argued that to address the need to implement language innovation assuming TBLT approaches in Uganda’s education systems, various stakeholders need to play different roles in the diffusion process. Thus, the chapter has explored the questions that constitute Markee’s (1993)
framework on which the chapter has been based. In this regard, the chapter has identified various stakeholders who are involved in different stages of implementing a language innovation. There are various reasons that have been advanced such as why, where, how and when a particular stakeholder(s) should adopt a language innovation such as TBLT in the Ugandan context.

The chapter has outlined several steps that the chapter with regard to the implementation process of an innovation, proposing that the language classroom pedagogies, as well as research procedures as carried out by the L2 teachers, are primary in diffusing such innovation. This is the case since, in any innovation, language teachers act as agents of change and are the end users of such innovations. Thus, in order for teachers to sufficiently utilise and implement innovation, the chapter discussed the need for L2 teachers to be knowledgeable in a particular innovation. Field knowledge can be gained through being reflective practitioners of TBLT and through being action researchers who can be involved in gathering, analysing data and sharing their findings of the innovation. Through sharing their findings with, for example, teacher training institutions that the innovations can be adopted and gradually defused in the educational systems of Uganda.
CHAPTER SEVEN
CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE STUDY

Uganda has made attempts to mainstream the teaching of Kiswahili over the years albeit with little success...[m]ost recommendations to teach Kiswahili have remained on paper. – Uganda National Curriculum Development Centre (2012: 9)

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7.1. Introduction

The primary aim of this chapter is to consolidate major findings, from the previous chapters of this study, to generally constitute a broad summary and conclusions of the current study. Therefore, to attain the above aim, the chapter is divided into three sections namely; a summary of the study, followed by an explication of its contribution to the field and some perspectives in future research.

7.2. Summary of the study

This study has been informed by theoretical perspectives (cf. section 1.8.3, on page 19) from a broad range of mainly contemporary studies in instructed second language acquisition and syllabus designs. This suggests that the current study is among those that have employed and utilised the contemporary views with regard to SLA and syllabus designs in general, as will be summarised below.

To begin with, it should be recalled that in section 1.5, on page 12 (cf. section 1.2, on page 10), I pointed out that the need for personal development in search for knowledge with respect to pedagogical approaches and methods that I could extend to Kiswahili teacher-trainees at the School of Education, Makerere University, served as a point of departure for the current study. Through an extensive review of the literature on teaching and learning of second languages such as Kiswahili in Uganda, it was revealed that in Uganda, Kiswahili is still being taught using what scholars have referred to as traditional methods of teaching and learning second languages as shown in the Kiswahili teaching syllabus for lower secondary schools (see The Republic of Uganda 2008).

On one hand, while the reviewed literature suggested that traditional methods and approaches are being widely used in L2 pedagogies across the globe, the current study also observed that such teaching methods and approaches are largely criticised given that they are considered as inefficient with respect to leading L2 learners to fully acquire the L2s they are learning. On the other hand, to
address the above inefficiency the examined literature also showed that, instead of traditional approaches, scholars are increasingly employing contemporary approaches and methods for teaching and learning L2s. Therefore, based on the above justifications, while this study acknowledges the use of traditional approaches, its design has been based on the contemporary views with regard to L2 teaching and learning, specifically, task-based language teaching and learning.

It should be reemphasised that while teaching methods and approaches are mainly used in the classrooms, the reviewed literature indicated that such pedagogical practices are derived from the L2 syllabuses. In brief, a syllabus has been defined as a tool that teachers use to facilitate their pedagogies in the classrooms. This is because it is in the syllabus that the learning content, as well as the teaching strategies, are provided for the teachers to employ while in their classrooms. This provides for a syllabus as a vital tool with regard to the teaching and learning, especially of L2s.

Therefore, for the study to advance further the use of contemporary syllabuses, specifically task-based syllabuses for teaching Kiswahili in lower secondary schools in Uganda, it reviewed syllabus design principles for both traditional as well as contemporary syllabuses, as advanced by Breen (1987a, b; 2001). The review of both categories of principles was in order because the reviewed literature suggested that the contemporary principles to syllabus design have been modified from the traditional principles. Traditionally, there were four principles, i.e. (i) unit of analysis, (ii) selection of learning content, (iii) grading and (iv) sequencing of learning content. Thus, with the advent of communicative language teaching and learning with their associated process syllabuses, such as task-based syllabuses, it became necessary for L2 learners to determine their own learning content, learning preferences and choices, as derived from their current and future needs within which they will be using the L2s they want to learn (or they are learning). It is in this regard that the fifth principle, i.e. analysis of learner’ needs, was added to the existing four principles.

Relatedly, the literature showed that while the above principles can be clustered as above, in syllabus designing processes, these principles are treated as a system (an entity) because they define what a syllabus is. Therefore, to situate and contextualise the contemporary syllabuses principles, the study explored specific principles, models and relevant perspectives from which task-based syllabuses are derived. This exploration has been done in conjunction with the Long’s (2005a) perspectives that constituted the methodology design of the current study. In brief, views of Long (2005a), have been employed in the constructing of the overarching task theme of the study from which several other task descriptions and their respective simulated task dialogues have been developed.
Subsequently, the study conducted three facets of analysis by employing logically selected specific frameworks and perspectives as advanced by their respective advocates. For example, on one hand, as the framework by Pica et al. (1993, 2009) was used in analysing the interactional complexity of the developed task descriptions, on the other hand, the Triadic Componential Framework (Robinson 2005) has been used in analysing the cognitive complexity of the developed task descriptions. Additionally, the use of omission and alteration (optional & obligatory move structures) techniques, as advanced by Hasan (1985) and Henry and Roseberry (1998), in conjunction with Robinson’s (2010) SSARC model, have been useful in the grading and sequencing of the task descriptions to constitute the Kiswahili learning/pedagogical tasks of the study. Lastly, the study employed the AS-Unit of Foster et al. (2000), in analysing the syntactic complexity of the simulated task dialogues.

From the three facets of analysis, i.e. interactional complexity analysis, cognitive complexity analysis, and the syntactic complexity analysis, the study made the following findings. On interactional complex analysis, all the analysed TDSs predominantly demonstrated configurations of information gap tasks which provide for activities that motivate L2 learners to communicate in the L2s they are learning.

On the analysis of cognitive as well as syntactic complexity, it was found out that as all the resource-directing features of the analysed TDSs and STDs demonstrated the [-] feature, other than TDSs and STDs for Task one, Task two and task four, the resource-dispersing features of TDSs and STDs of Task Three and Task five exhibited the [-] feature in the [+- prior knowledge] and the [+- single task] variables, hence qualified for decomplexification using the omission and the alteration techniques to realise least and less cognitively and syntactically complex task versions which were then sequenced from least to the most cognitively and syntactically complex task versions, respectively, as summarised in Table 4:8, Table 4:14, Table 4:20, Table 4:26 and in Table 4:32, on pages 229, 249, 273, 293 and 319, respectively.

Therefore, in light of the above, the three facets of analysis have sufficiently been informative with regard to addressing the research questions of the current study. In general, the study has demonstrated the designing processes of task-based syllabuses that another L2 language teachers can draw from in designing similar studies for the general language courses in different teaching and learning contexts.
7.3. The contribution of the study

The present study has aimed to make the following contributions to the field of task-based teaching and learning and syllabus design.

Theoretically, this study makes a contribution to the existing body of literature in relation to mainly theories of instructed second language teaching and learning on one hand and contemporary perspectives with respect to syllabus design decisions, specifically, task-based syllabuses, on the other hand. Given that this study has traced with least evidence on the existing studies in relation to task-based syllabuses for teaching Kiswahili as an L2, it makes the current study to be among the first ones in this line of thought. In fact, the theorisation that has been demonstrated in this study suggests an increase in the number of African languages (see, section 1.7, on page 15, section 1.8, on page 16, section 2.4.9, on page, 110 & section 3.9.2, on page 193) that have utilised the contemporary syllabus design decisions i.e., task-based theories and their associated approaches.

At the policy level, this study has explored contemporary perspectives that can inform decisions (as input), for example, in establishing, reforming or in the reviewing processes of language-in-education policies. In particular, the study has mainly advanced the viability of a language-in-education policy which is driven by task-based syllabuses over the one based on traditional syllabuses in relation to leading L2 learners to fully acquire the L2s they are learning for general purposes, i.e. in both public/government or private secondary schools. Nevertheless, to reflect this contribution, there is a need to emphasise the development of teacher education in training colleges and institutions that address different syllabus design perspectives, with a specific focus on task-based syllabuses. This, in turn, will prepare teachers to have sufficient knowledge of task-based syllabuses and their respective pedagogical practices which are considered as contemporary approaches in facilitating the teaching and learning of L2s.

At the level of instructional materials, the study has offered a demonstration to mainly syllabus designers (mainly classroom teachers). This demonstration has shown possible processes and procedures of utilising task-based perspectives in designing Kiswahili learning tasks for generic courses for secondary schools. In addition, the current study offers knowledge to other developers of instructional materials such as writers of school textbooks and other reference materials. Therefore, in order for task-based syllabuses to have relevance in schools, book writers need also to know the underpinnings of task-based syllabuses, specifically, their pedagogical realisations as have been elaborated in this study so that the aims and objectives of the instructional materials (textbooks
and reference books) that writers develop can conform to such underpinnings in relation to instructed L2 learning and teaching.

7.4. **Recommendations for further research**

This study investigated how task-based theories and its related approaches can be utilised in designing Kiswahili pedagogical tasks in a task-based syllabus for lower secondary schools’ leaners in Uganda. Thus, the study has provided a framework for research on other languages (especially, African languages) to attempt similar studies in different educational settings within and outside the African continent.

However, given that the scope of the current study has been at the lower secondary school level, a need exists for more studies particularly in Uganda, for example, in issues of grading and sequencing learning tasks for the teaching of Kiswahili as an L2 for primary schools, upper secondary schools and tertiary institutions. Such research can facilitate the gradual replacement of formal syllabuses with task-based syllabuses in different levels of the education system in the country. Lastly, it has been mentioned in section 1.10, on page 28, that issues related to task-based assessment/tests procedures and teacher education development have not been addressed since studying issues in this sub-fields is estimated to entail complex research which can be addressed in appropriate scope in future studies in task-based for teaching and learning of Kiswahili as an L2. Hence, there is a need to investigate further these two aspects among others in continuing with theoretical and empirical task-based research that the current study has advanced.
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APPENDIX (A)

THE OVERARCHING TASK THEME

A table showing a description of the overarching task theme titled: Discussion on proposals in class on school excursion during the short holiday making preparations, planning to tour various destinations.

Mwalimu wenu wa somo la Kiswahili amewatangazia kuwa amepata ruhusu kutoka kwa mkuu wa shule, kwapeleka wanafunzi wa somo la Kiswahili kwenye ziara ya mafunzo ya juma moja wakati wa likizo fupi ijayo. Mwalimu amewaomba wanafunzi wa somo la Kiswahili kupendekeza sehemu wanazopenda kutembelea wakati wa ziara hii ya mafunzo kwa kueleza maisha za kielimu ambazo wanafunzi watapata kutoekana na ziara husika. Pia, wanafunzi waoneshe namna ya kupa fedha za kuugharimia usafiri (wa basi) na malazi wakati wa ziara hii. Wewe na wanafunzi wenzako watatu mnaandaa wasilisho mnaandaa wa somo la Kiswahili kwenye ziara. Wewe na wanafunzi wenzako watatu mnaandaa wasilisho mnaandaa wa somo la Kiswahili kwenye ziara. Wewe na wanafunzi wenzako watatu mnaandaa wasilisho mnaandaa wa somo la Kiswahili kwenye ziara.

Your Kiswahili teacher has announced that she has received permission from the head teacher to take the learners in the Kiswahili class on a week excursion over the upcoming short school holiday. She has asked the learners in the Kiswahili class to make proposals about the places they wish to visit during this excursion, giving reasons about the educational benefits it may have for the learners, and the possibilities of fundraising to pay for the transport (bus) and accommodation costs. You and your three class friends are preparing your presentation that you intend to give to the teacher in the next Kiswahili class.

Mjadiliane kuhusu vivutio mbalimbali vya utalii mnavyodhani vinafaa kutembelewa na kupa fedha za Kiswahili kwenye shule za sekondari. Wewe na wanafunzi wenzako mnaandaa wasilisho mnaandaa wa somo la Kiswahili kwenye ziara. Wewe na wanafunzi wenzako mnaandaa wasilisho mnaandaa wa somo la Kiswahili kwenye ziara.

You discuss the various tourist destinations that you think will be interesting to visit and have particular educational benefits to secondary school learners, giving reasons for your opinions from brochures that you have studies of various destinations and the means of travel available to get there. You and your friends agree about some proposals but disagree about others, giving reasons for your views. You explain to each other what the purpose of the visit to various destinations will be, how far, and by what means you have to travel to get there, how long it will take you to get there, how many days will be necessary to stay at each destination and what specific activities you will do at each destination.

In the end, you agree on a full tour plan of destinations you want to propose to your teacher in the Kiswahili class, provide the reason for your choice and the purpose of visiting the destination, you also agree on the proposals on fundraising that you will present to your teacher.
APPENDIX (A-i)

TASK DESCRIPTIONS

A table showing four task descriptions derived from the overarching task description theme

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1.1.</th>
<th><strong>Maelezo ya jukumu la Ndunamiwe</strong></th>
<th>1.1.</th>
<th><strong>A task description for Ndunamiwe</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1.1.1. La kutembelea Hifadhi ya Taifa ya Mburo</strong></td>
<td><strong>1.1.1. On visiting Mburow National Park</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Umo darasani umesimama mbele ya mwalimu wenu na wanafunzi wengine. Wasalimie watu wote waliomo darasani. Waeleze kuhusu pendekezo unalotaka kuliwasilisha. Watajie wanafunzi wenzako jina la kivutio cha utalii unachokipendekeza. Waeleze mahali kilipo, umbali kwa kuzingatia saa za kusafiri hadi kwenye kivutio, kufikika kwake, na wanyama na ndege ambao wanafunzi watarajie kuwaona kwenye hifadhi. Kisha, waeleze wanafunzi wenzako kuhusu manufaa yanayopatikana kwa kutembelea Hifadhi hiyo na viingilio na upatikanaji wa malazi ndani ya Hifadhi. Mwisho, unapowaeleza wanafunzi wenzako kuhusu sababu za kutokubaliana na mapendekizo ya kutembelea sehemu zingine za vivutio vya utalii, wape wanafunzi wenzako mbadala wa mahali ambako ungelpenda mtambalee ipapo wanafunzi wenzako na mwalimu wenu watalikataa pendekezo lako la kutembelea Hifadhi ya Taifa ya Mburo. Waeleze kwanini ni muhimu wakubaliane na pendekizo lako.</td>
<td>You are in the classroom, standing in front of your teacher and other students. Greet all the people in the classroom, inform them about the proposal that you want to address them. Tell your classmates the name of the tourist destination (park) that you are proposing to them, its location, distance in terms on hours, its accessibility and the animals and birds that they should expect to see while in that park. Then, Explain to your classmates about the benefits of being a student in terms of entry fee and availability of accommodation facilities at the Park. Finally, as you explain to your classmates the reasons as to why you are disagreeing on proposals of visiting other tourist destinations, tell your classmates another option you would wish them to visit in case your classmates and tour teacher reject your proposal to visit Mburow National, explain to them why they should accept your second option.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
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<tr>
<th>2.1.</th>
<th><strong>Maelezo ya jukumu la Nnamusoke</strong></th>
<th>2.1.</th>
<th><strong>A task description for Nnamusoke</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>2.1.1. La kutembelea Maporomoko ya Murchison</strong></td>
<td><strong>2.1.1. On visiting Murchison Falls</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Umo darasani, umesimama mbele ya mwalimu wenu na wanafunzi wenzako. Wasalimu wenu wote waliomo darasani. Waeleze kuhusu pendekezo unalotaka kuliwasilisha. Watajie wanafunzi wenzako jina la mahali unachokipendekeza. Waeleze wanafunzi wenzako aina ya wanyama ambao watajie kuwaona ambao hawapo kwenye Hifadhi na mbuga zingine. Waeleze wanafunzi wenzako na mwalimu wenu kuhusu maporomoko ya maji, kama vile langu la maporomoko, sehemu nzuri ya kuangalia maporomoko, na hali nzuri ya hewa</td>
<td>You are in the classroom, standing in front of your teacher and other students. Greet all the people in the classroom, inform them about the proposal that you want to address them. Tell your classmates the name of the destination that you are proposing to them. Inform your classmates about the types of animals that your classmate should expect to see that are not in other animal parks and conservations. Explain to your classmates and teacher about the waterfalls, for example, the mouth of the falls, the suitable spot to view the falls as well as the favourable climate around the spot. In</td>
<td></td>
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katika eneo husika. Pia, waeleze mambo wanayoweza kuwaani ikiwa ni pamoja na miradi ya ujenzi wa bwawa la umeme, wakandarasi wa kigeni, na mitambo ya ujenzi inayotumika. Aidha, waeleze wanafunzi wenzako na mwalimu wenu historia ya uhusiano kati ya Daraja la Karuma na vita vya Kaskazini mwa Uganda.

Kisha, wakati ukiwaambia kuwa hukubaliani na pendekazo la mwasilishaji wa kwanza, waeleze sababu za kutokubaliana na pendekazo husika. Mwismo, waeleze kuhusu mbadala iwapo pendekazo lako litakataliwa. Waeleze sababu za kuchagua mbadala husika.

3.1. Maelezo ya jukumu la Kirumira

3.1.1. La kutembelea Mt. Rwenzori


Pia, waeleze kuhusu kimo cha milima, wanyama na miteza inayopatikana milimani, halikadhaliika mabadiliko ya hali ya hewa wanyopawana kuyatarafia wakati watakapokuwa wanapanda milima, nakadhaliika. Wajulishe kuhusu vibanda katika njia ya kupandia na kushukia milima pamoja na wanyama wanaoaweza kuwa rafigi kwa wakati addition, explain to them the projects that they are likely to see along the way including, the constructions of electricity dam, its foreign contractors and the construction material that are used. Furthermore, briefly, tell your classmates and your teacher the historical association between the famous Karuma Bridge and the war in the Northern parts of Uganda.

3.1. A task description for Kirumira

3.1.1. On visiting Mount Rwenzori

You are in the classroom, standing in front of your teacher and other students. Greet all them, while informing them the name of the destination that you are proposing to visit, state to them the height of Mt. Rwenzori and why you think it is the among the highest mountains in the region, state the countries that share this mountain, and in which district is the mountain found in Uganda. Then, inform them about other the domestic as well as economic activities that take place in Kasese district, such as fishing and so on.

Describe to your classmates the routes that can lead them to the Mountain, the accessibility of the routes. Suggest for them the shorter route and explain to them why their shorter compared to the other. Furthermore, as you tell them things they will see along the road, such as bridges, water channel and the equator line, inform them what exactly happened when you arrive at the main gate to the Mountain. Then, explain to them the work of the luggage assistants, how much they are paid, what they carry as tourists climb the mountain.

Similarly, state to your classmates the number of days that are used to climb and descend the mountain, the hours per day and the height, the animals and vegetation/climate change they will experience while climbing and so forth. Inform them about the hats and the animals that are likely to befrend them while in or outside the hats. Explain to them the advantages of

Kisha, wakati ukipendekeza njia unayodhani mtatumia kutemeriwa kutoka mlimi, waeleze wanafunzi wenzako, kwani unadhani njia hiyo inawafaa. Mwisho, wakati unawaeleza wanafunzi wenzako kwanini kuhukubaliani na baadhi ya mawazo yaliyomala na sehemu yaliyotangulia, eliza mbadala wa sehemu yaliyohusisha unayodhani wanawezu kutembeleza ipapo pendekezo lako litakataliwa. Waeleze kwanini wanapaswa kufika kwa njia lako na pendekezo lako la pili.

4.1. Maelo ya jukumu la Sajile

4.1.1. La kutembelea Mji wa Entebbe linafanyika siku ya Jumapili


4.1.2. Wanafunzi na Mwalimu wao wanawasili hotelini mjini Entebbe


4.1.2. Students and their teacher arriving at the Hotel in Entebbe

You and your classmates have arrived at the hotel. Tell them the name of the hotel and explain to them why you have chosen that particular hotel in terms of costs, the time you will spend and so forth. Inform your classmates about the rooms and sleeping arrangements. Tell them where they can put their bags before and after taking a shower. Tell them about signs that serve as the directions to the restaurant where dinner will be served. Explain to them the benefits of coming earlier for dinner. Similarly, tell them that there are hotel...
4.1.3. Mwalimu na Wanafunzi wake wakijihudumia chakula hotelini


4.1.3. A teacher and her students serving dinner at the hotel

You, your classmates and your teacher are sitting at the dining table ready for dinner. Welcome them to dinner. Explain to them the various dishes and the soft drinks that are on the table. You bless the food by saying the prayer. As you, your classmates and your teacher discuss the benefits of choosing some foods, drinks and fruits over the others, one of your classmates informs you and your classmates not to select one of the dishes. Similarly, another classmate of yours also expresses his concern and explains to you the serving tips in order to improve table manners amongst you.

4.2.1. Wanaafunzi na Mwalimu wao wanapata kifunguakinywa hotelini

Unawaaleza wanafunzi wenzako kuhusu muda na kisha unawaalimu. Kisha, waalike wanafunzi wenzako na mwalimu wenu mezani ili kupata kifunguakinywaji. Waaeleza vyakula vilivyopendaliwa kwa ajili ya kifunguakinywa. Wakati baadhi ya wanafunzi wenzako wakijadiliana kuhusu muda wa kupata kifunguakinywa pamoja na vyakula wanavyopenda na wasivyopenda kwenye orodha ya vyakula vya kifunguakinywa, vyakula ambavyo vilivyochwa, viwango vya idadi ya virutubisho vilivyomo, mmoja wa wanafunzi anasema anataka kuondoa kifunguakinywa chake ili aweze kuogelea wakati nyinyi mkie deleka kupata kifunguakinywaji. Huku majadiliano kuhusu wahudumu wa hoteli yakiaendelea, mmoja wa wanafunzi wenzako anasema anataka kutazama assistants who are willing to give them assistance in a variety of ways.

4.2.1. Students and their teacher eating breakfast at the hotel

You inform your classmates about the time and greet them all. Then, you invite your classmates and your teacher to the breakfast table. Explain to them what has been served as breakfast. As some of your classmates have a discussion about the time of taking breakfast, their likes/dislikes and their choices on the breakfast menu, the dishes that have been left out, the levels and quantities of ingredients, one of your classmate says she wants to take away her breakfast so that she can swim while you and others take your breakfast. As the discussion about the hotel attendants continues, one of your classmates says that she wants to watch television while he is having breakfast. Then, your teacher tells all the learners to finish taking your breakfast because you still have a long day ahead of you.
4.2.2. Touring the outskirts of Entebbe town

You, your teacher and your classmates have finished taking your breakfast. Your teacher informs you and your classmates about the day’s programme. She tells you about the time slot for resting and for all the places you will visit. Furthermore, she shows you by explaining to you and your classmates the types of activities, goods and services, offices, you and your friends should expect from the places you will visit. She further tells you and your friends the names of the roads that the driver will drive on to and from your destinations. She explains to you and your classmates the brief history of such roads. She also explains to you about the history, functions and gives detailed information on some of the buildings that you find on the way, for examples, the tower, the defence zone, and schools.

4.2.3. A tour to the site of Christian Missionaries

As you, your teacher and your classmates are travelling on a particular road, your teacher talks to you about the name of the road, and she informs you that you will later use that particular road. She further informs you and your classmates that there is a need to visit one of the historical sites where the first missionaries of the Catholic Church in Uganda visited. She explains to you and your classmates how she obtained the news about the missionaries, the year, and the reasons for their coming to Uganda, other places the two missionaries had visited in Africa.

In addition, during their stay in Uganda, your teacher further explains the reasons as to why the King was not only happy to receive the two missionaries, but also about the behaviours the missionaries exhibited in the communities they lived. Your teacher describes to you and your friends the two statues of the two missionaries and the reasons for the existence of the church at the Kigungu landing site.
4.2.4. Ziara katika soko la Nakiwogo


Aidha, wewe waambie wanafunzi wenzako sababu kuhusu saa za kazi za soko, mahali soko lilipo na kuwafanyia kazi. Zaidi ya hayo, wewe na mmoja wa wanafunzi wenzako gaanajiiano kuhusu aina za samaki wanaouzwa katika Soko la Nakiwogo, sifa mahususi za samaki hao, aina ya maji ambayo samaki hao hustawi, nakadhalika. Mwisho, anawaeliwa kuhusu basi wabili kusaidia na kuhusu shughulya za kufikia kwa soko. Mmoja wa wanafunzi wenzako akipata na maji mahususi na usafiri wa soko.

4.2.4.2. Ziara katika Bandari ya Nakiwogo

Wewe, wanafunzi wenzako na mwalimu wenu mmewasili Bandariini. Watajitekeleza wanafunzi wenzako wamaanajiiano kuhusu nchi la bandari huu. Waa kufuata kazi la bandari huu na kufanya kazi la bandari huu. Mmoja wa wanafunzi wenzako anaweza kuhusu kwa wanao akipata sehemu inayofuata. Mwalimu wenu anawaeliwa kuhusu basi wabili kusaidia. Aidha, wanafunzi wenzako wakumbuka na kuwa la taarifa mbalimbali kuhusu soko. 4.2.4.2. At Nakiwogo landing site

In addition, you inform your classmates about the reasons regarding the working hours of the market, its locations, and its accessibility. Furthermore, you and one of your classmates discuss the types of fish sold at the market, the unique features of such fish, the water bodies that such fish come from and so forth. Finally, you request the bus driver to drive you to your next destination, the Nakiwogo fish Factory.

4.2.4.1. Touring the Nakiwogo fish processing factory

Wewe na wanafunzi wenzako mnatembelea moja ya viwanda vya samaki mjini Entebbe. Watajitekeleza wanafunzi wenzako jina la bandari. Waa kufuata kazi la bandari huu na kufanya kazi la bandari huu. Mwalimu wenyewe anawaeliwa kuhusu basi wabili kusaidia. 4.2.4.2. At Nakiwogo landing site

You and your classmates have visited one of the fish processing factories in Entebbe. Inform your classmates about the name of the factory. Explain to them the processing procedures that take place at the factory. Based on the activities that take place at the factory, some of your classmates have a discussion about human labour and the machines that are found in the factory. Similarly, you explain to your classmates about the benefits of using both the machines and human labour mainly at the Nakiwogo fish Factory. Inform them about your views about the income, the values of education, working conditions, the time and the way when workers leave and arrive at the factory. Finally, request your classmates to return to the bus so that the driver can drive you to your next destination.

You, your teacher and your friends have arrived at a landing site. Tell your teacher and your classmates the name of the landing site. Explain to them the size, the number, the name and the destinations of the ship that lands on this landing site. Explain to them why the ship is called M.V Kalangala. Inform them about the origin of the name Ssese islands, the effects
ya Mbung’o kwa binadamu wanaoishi katika Visiwa vya Ssese. Baadhi ya wanafunzi wenzako wanajadiliana kuhusu muda wa kuwasili na kuondoka kwa meli, sehemu inayotaka, kiasi cha muda kinaochotumika majini, aina za shehena inayobebwa ikilinganishwa na mali zingine, na kanuni zinazotumika wakati na baada ya kupanda melini.

Mmoja wa wanafunzi wenzako anakumbuka uzoefu wa watu wengine na anaeleza kuhusu Visiwa vya Ssese. Baadhi ya wanafunzi wenzako wanajadiliana kuhusu muda wa kuwasili na kuondoka kwa meli, sehemu iendako, kiasi cha muda kinachotumika majini, aina za shehena inayobebwa ikilinganishwa na meli zingine, na kanuni zinazotumika wakati na baada ya kupanda melini.

Mmoja wa wanafunzi wenzako anakumbuka uzoefu wa watu wengine na anaeleza kuhusu Visiwa vya Ssese. Baadhi ya wanafunzi wenzako wanajadiliana kuhusu muda wa kuwasili na kuondoka kwa meli, sehemu iendako, kiasi cha muda kinachotumika majini, aina za shehena inayobebwa ikilinganishwa na meli zingine, na kanuni zinazotumika wakati na baada ya kupanda melini.

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### 4.3. linafanyika siku ya Jumanne

#### 4.3.1. Wanafunzi na Mwalimu wao wanajadiliana kuhusu Ikulu ya Rais


#### 4.3.2. Ziara ya Wanafunzi na Mwalimu wao katika Uwanja wa Ndege wa Kimataifa wa Entebbe


### 4.3. taking place on Tuesday

#### 4.3.1. Students and their teacher have a discussion about presidential State Houses

You and your classmates are sitting in one of the shades at the hotel. Your teacher joins you and greets you all. She then informs you about the places that you were supposed to visit that day. Your teacher and one of your classmates agree and tell you and your classmates that the day was a national holiday. Your teacher and one of your classmates agree and tell you and your classmates that the day was a national holiday. This classmate further tells you that she talked to her parents and she informs you of what her parents told her about their programme for this holiday.

#### 4.3.2. Students and their teacher travelling to Entebbe International Airport

You and your classmates have concluded your discussion about the State Houses. As your teacher emphasises the fact that today is a holiday, she informs you about the two places you are to visit on that day and that your hosts in those two places are waiting to welcome you. She further asks you and your classmates about the places you wish to visit first. As you and one of your classmates disagree on a spending the whole day in one place, your teacher requests you as a leader to walk with your classmates to the bus ready to depart to the airport.

As the teacher directs the driver to use a particular road to the airport, one of your classmates affirms and restates the teacher’s directive to the driver. This classmate explains to you and the other students that she is using her cell phone to determine the distance and different names of the road to the airport and she then tells you and others of her ignorance about different names for a single road. Similarly, some classmates then express their surprise and say that they agree with the
wanakubaliana na mtazamo wa mwanafunzi aliyetangulia kuongea kuhusu kutofahamu ni jinsi gani barabara moja inaweza ikawa na majina tofauti.

Mwanafunzi mwingine anathibitisha suala hili na anawaaambi kuwa anafahamu barabara moja yenye majina mawili tofauti na anawajulisha kutofahamu kuhusu jinsi gani barabara moja inaweza ikawa na majina tofauti. Lijapokuwa baadhi ya wanadarasa wanasema wanakubaliana na mtazamo wa mjomba kama ilivyoelezwa na mmoja wa wanaafunzi wenyayo, mwanaafunzi huyohuyo uhalali wa kujumisha majina haya yasiyo rasmi kwenye i ntaneti na sababu za kuziita barabara majina tofauti. Vilevile, wanaafunzi wengine wanakuambia wewe na wanafunzi wengine majina rasmi na taarifa zingine zinazohusika kuhusu barabara mnayotumia.

4.3.2.1. Wanaafunzi na Mwalimu wao wanakaribishwa katika Uwanja wa Ndege


4.3.2.1. Students and their teacher are welcomed at the Airport

Your teacher informs you and your classmates about the presence of your host, asking you and other students whether you still remember him. You and others agree and state that you remember him, and then, you, your host and your classmates greet each other. The host introduces himself to you and your classmates, especially, the students who do not know him, he tells about the subjects he used to teach at your schools, the time he spent at your schools, the time he has so far spent at the airport, how he got this job, finally, his responsibilities at the airport.

Aidha, mwenyeji wenu anaeleza mtazamo wake kuhusu faida ya lugha ya Kiswahili. Wakati mwalimu wenu akimshukuru mwenyeji wenu kwa kukuwali ziara yenu pale uwanjani, mwenyeji wenu anamwambia mwalimu wenu kuhusu muda ambao maweza kutumia kuzuru hapa uwanjani. Mwenyeji wenu anawaelizeni taratibu ambazo wageni wanaafuata wanapokuwa uwanjani kama vile kutopia kelele, kutunza vitu vyenu mlivyobea, mahali walipo wenzenu.
In addition, your host read out important numbers in case you and your classmates happen to get any emergency during the tour. He then explains to you, your teacher and other classmates about the structure of the airport, such as the arrivals and departure areas, the running ways and so forth. Finally, your host informs you and your classmates about asking him in case one of you needs clarifications on certain issues.

### 4.3.2.2. Students and their teacher touring the Airport

You, your teacher, your classmates and your host have begun touring the airport. Your host and some of your classmates have a discussion about the sounds of the aeroplane engines, the names of the aeroplanes, the companies that own aeroplanes, either private or government-owned, the capacity of the airport fields to accommodate a given number of flights, the routes the flight takes and so forth. One of your classmates explains to you and other classmates the reasons the construction of the Entebbe airport with such a capacity, its constructors, increase and reduction of passengers.

Then, this classmate of yours informs you about the reasons for the decrease of aeroplane passengers in 2009, the increase in flight tickets, the withdrawal of flight from aviation business and so forth. In addition, another classmate of yours says that she agrees with the views of the previous student. She explains to you and other students about the effects of the 2009 economic crisis she saw from a report, such as the laying down of workers as a result of the closure of companies and businesses, the reduction of aeroplane passengers due to increase in the prices of flight tickets and so on.

### 4.3.2.3. Students, teacher and their host at the departures section

You, your teacher, your host and other students are at the departure section. One of your classmates informs you and other classmates about the passengers who are leaving the country. Then, you and some of your classmates discuss the security measures and other related procedures that passengers go through before they board the plane, such procedures include, for example, weighing and
Masuala hayo ni pamoja na kupima na kuweka mizigo mkanda wa kugeuka mizigo, kuwaoneisha moafisa husika tiketi, pasi za kusafiria, na kadi ya changa ya homa ya manjano.

Kuhusiana na taratibu zingine za kiusalama, unawaelezea wanafunzi wenzako kuhusu kishuhudia mwanamke mmoja akikagulisha na moafisa usalama kwa muda mrefu kabla hajaruhusiwa kupanda ndege. Pia, unawaeleza faida za ukaguzi wa kiusalama, nakadhalika. Mwino, mwenyeji wenu anaweza kuhusu unawasandikia kuhusu mchanga ya homa ya manjano, kwa kudhibiti kwa kutoa kufahamisha ujumla wa kufanya wao.

Finally, mwenyeji wenu anawashukuru kwa kumwambia mwalimu wenu kuwa amefurahishwa na mjadala wenu unaoendelea kuhusu masuala mbalimbali yanayohusiana na Uwanja wa ndege.

4.3.2.4. **Wanafunzi wakiwa kwenye maduka yenye msamaha wa kodi**


4.3.2.5. **Wanafunzi wanajadiliana kuhusu kununua fedha za kigeni**

Wewe na wanafunzi wenzako mnapangia kununua chakula cha mchana halafu mfanje manunuzi ya vitu vingine. Unawashauri wenzako wabadilishe fedha za kigeni iliyotapatlaya kwenye fedha za kigeni na kusafiria kwa fedha za kigeni.

4.3.2.4. **Students at the duty-free shops**

You and your classmates are in the duty-free area. Some of your classmates discuss buying items, such as clothes, dolls and so on, the costs of each and the people for whom they intend to buy gifts from the tour. Some of your classmates disagree with the others by stating that they cannot buy items from duty-free shops. To support their disagreements, the two classmates explain reasons, such as goods being expensive compared to other places, and the items are sold in foreign currencies and so on. In addition, these two express their intentions by discussing about their need to buy the items that are on promotions, such as beers.

Furthermore, as one of the two classmates asks the other about the direction of the toilet facilities, her classmate shows her signs that signifies toilet facilities. He further explains to her the advantages of various international signs for different facilities and services that are present and offered in different places, such as hospitals, roads and so forth. Lastly, you suggest to your classmates by telling them to first eat lunch, then other activities like shopping can be done later.
4.3.2.6. Students are having a discussion about conducive restaurants

You and your classmates are having a discussion about where to have your lunch from. One of your classmates informs you and others about what he heard when your host at the airport explaining to your teacher about different restaurants at the airport, the working hours and schedules, the costs of meals, the availability of other services for a particular restaurant in the airport. While still informing you and your friends about the talk between your host and the teacher, furthermore, he tells you about the choice of a restaurant over the other in terms of the types of meals served, the benefits of such foods to your bodies, the eating atmosphere surrounding a particular restaurant and so on. In addition, one of your friends suggests to you and your friend by telling you to visit a restaurant that serves local foods, he then explains to you and your friends about the reasons for his suggestion.

Additionally, the same classmate of yours talks to you and your friends about time management as he explains to you and others about his other intentions when he returns to the hotel. Then, your classmates hear about his intentions and start to discuss their favourite sports, and the two explain to each other how their boyfriends connected them to such sports. One of them recalls the communication she had with her boyfriend the day before today. As they are still discussing, another classmate of yours intervenes and informs you and your friends that the teacher is calling you so that you and others go and finish the last part of your airport tour.
4.3.2.7. **Wanafunzi na mwenyewe wao wanajadili kuhusu Ndege ya Rais**


**4.3.3. **Wanafunzi wenzako nyingine wanaumbuli kuhusu Ndege ya Rais

Amidst all these, some of your classmates agree at once and express their interests by informing you and others about their desire to work with the president, such as in the State House, Motorcade, flight and jets wings and so forth. While some of your classmates explain to you and your classmates the comparison between the presidential jet and other planes, for example, smoke-free zone and so forth. Then, some of your classmates recall the media reports and inform you and others about the controversial purchase of this presidential jet. They explain to you reasons that led to the sale of the previous presidential jet, such as high fuel consumption and so on.

**4.3.2.7. **Students and their host have a discussion about the presidential jet

You, your classmates, your teacher and your airport host have finished having lunch. Your host requests you and your classmates to go to the nearby aeroplane of the army of Uganda. He describes to you the sitting capacity as well as the capacity of the soldiers that plane carries. Then, he informs you that his main intention is to show you and others the presidential jet rather than the arm one. He describes to you the number of pilots the jet has, the other passengers that travel in the jet, such as presidential doctors, cooks, the members of the president’s family and so on. Furthermore, he explains to you and your classmates the disadvantages of the same matter, for example being a pilot. Finally, one of your classmates informs you and your classmates that your host has been called to his office which marks the end of your airport tour.

**4.3.3. Students have a discussion about the refugee camps**

You, your classmates and your teacher are on the bus heading to the United Nations offices in Entebbe. Your teacher informs you and your classmates that the journey to the UN has been cancelled. She explains to you and your classmates the reasons for cancelling the UN tour. Having heard such news from your teacher, you and most of your classmates express your concerns by telling each other about being exhausted to visit any other place other than returning to the hotel, rest and fulfil other intentions like watching soccer. Similarly, some of your classmates agree with your teacher’s view on cancelling the visit to
It is the UN offices, they explain to you and your classmates about their expectations at the UN offices, such as finding relief trucks full of maize, cooking oil for refugees.

In addition, some of your classmates discuss one of the largest refugee camps in Uganda. For instance, the year it began, its location, number of refugees it accommodates, the country of origins of these refugees, the services including, education and health that the refugee camp offers to both refugees and the surrounding communities. Furthermore, some of your classmates recall their childhood stories and discuss the stories with you and your other classmates. They explain to you and others their childhood fear e.g. being sold to the refugees, the different languages the refugees spoke and so on.

Lastly, your teacher thanks your driver for driving you and your classmates safely to the hotel. She requests you and your classmates to carry on with your other intentions while at the hotel. In addition, she tells you about the places that you will visit the next day and she states that in case she has any other information she will communicate it to you and your classmates during supper time.

4.4.1. A student giving directions to the Entebbe zoo

You and your classmates are sitting under the tree shade waiting for your teacher. Then, your teacher joins you and you greet each other. Your teacher reminds you and your classmates once again by telling you about the programme of the day. In addition, your teacher asks one of your classmates to voluntarily direct the driver to Entebbe zoo. As one of your classmates accepts your teacher’s request for volunteering, your classmate discusses with your driver the routes the driver is likely to use to go to the zoo.

This same classmate of yours explains to your driver about, the names and the length of the routes in terms of kilometres and the time each route takes and what you are your classmates
4.4.2. Wanafunzi na mwalimu wao wanajadili lana kuhusu ununuzi wa vitu vya kupika

4.4.4. Students planning on touring the zoo using a guide

You and your classmates are in the zoo, one of your classmates suggests to get a guide to take you around the zoo. She and others classmates explain to you the benefits of having a guide, such as that of saving time as a result of their experience in what they do. In addition, your classmates discuss the number of guides you would need, the costs involved and other related information about the guides.

Then, you disagree with some of their views, and you explain to your classmates the high costs of hiring zoo guides. Instead, you propose to your classmates other people who are at the zoo who can take you around the zoo at much lower costs, unfortunately, you and your classmates are unable to locate such people. Finally, after your discussion, you and some classmates decide that because of your experience at the zoo, you take your classmates around the zoo as their guide.

4.4.4.1. A student is guiding fellow students around the zoo

You and your classmates have agreed that you will guide them as you and others tour the zoo. Some of your classmates have a discussion about some trees and animal species, exchanging information about, for example, the trees, the origin of the tree, the number of years the trees have been planted, and the benefits of such trees to humans.

Similarly, your classmates explain to each other similar information regarding some of the animals, such as the birthplace of the animals, dates of birth among other information. Then, your classmates discuss about grazing types of animals and so forth. Finally, one of your classmates expresses her concerns and says to you and other about her surprises when she learnt that that most of the trees were planted by human beings and that the trees have medicinal benefits to human beings.

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4.4.4.2. *Wanafunzi na dereva wanaungana na wanafunzi wengine ndani ya bustani*  


Kisha, unawaomba wanafunzi wenzako waliotoka sokoni kujumuika nanyi ili muendelee kuzuru bustani. Uliwaahidi utawapeleka sehemu ambazo wewe na wengine mlishawahi kutembelea. Mwioso, wakati mmjoo wa wanafunzi wenzako akieendelea kusisitiza kumpata mwongozo watalii, wanafunzi wenzako mwingine anawaambieni mundelee na ziara na anawashauri labda mumtafute mwongozo watalii baada ya chakula cha mchana.

4.4.4.3. *Wanafunzi wanajadiliana kuhusu aina mbalimbali za aina za ndege*  


4.4.4.4. *Wanafunzi na mwalimu wao wanajadiliana kuhusu aina mbalimbali za wanyama*  

Wakati mmjoo wa wanafunzi wenzako anaelezea woga alionao kutokana na nyani

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<td>You and your classmates are touring the zoo, then, your classmates who had gone to the market return to the zoo and join you. Some of your classmates explain to you and others about their coming back earlier than expected. Some of your classmates express their intentions to you and others by explaining their need to go and prepare food.</td>
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<td>You and your classmates are still touring the zoo. You ask your classmates to cross the bridge so that you can tour the other part of the zoo. Then, you explain to your classmates about the food, the mating periods of the crocodiles that live under the bridge. Furthermore, you inform your classmates about the source and mouth of the water underneath the bridge. In addition, some of your friends discuss about the different birds that are in the zoo. Your classmates explain to each other about the seeing such birds for the first time, the eggs the birds lay, birds being unfriends to humans. Finally, your classmates explain to each other differences among birds and some birds with human beings, such as color, body parts, and their movements.</td>
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anayemfuata, wewe na mwalimu wenu mnamweleza mwanafunzi huyo pamoja na wengine kuhusu familia za nyani kwani aina hilo hatari kwa binadamu. Kisha, unamjulisha mwanafunzi huyo kuhusu wanyama hatari kwa binadamu na unaweza kwanza wanyama wa aina hiyo wanatengwa.


One of your friends recalls a story about killing a hippopotamus in the village, he explains to you and your classmates about the destructions the animal made, how they were killed and how the people benefitted from its meat plus the health effects that came with it. While one of your classmates calls you to see how giraffe eat, drink and the differences of their body parts compared to other animals, this same student explains to you the difficulties guides go through to identify if such animals are sick, other classmates of yours explain to each other about why tourists come to Uganda, the reproduction systems and the behaviours mainly of some of the animals that tourists come to see.

Finally, your teacher informs you and your classmates that she is tired and she requests you and your friends to distribute chores so that you and your friends may start cooking.

4.4.4.5. Students and their teacher planning for lunch preparations

You, your teacher and your classmates are in still in the zoo, and it’s almost time for lunch break. Your teacher inquiries from one of your classmates whether all the items meant for lunch were in place. One of your classmates
ajili ya chakula cha mchana vipo. Mmoja wa wanafunzi wenzako wanaulisiza chanzo cha maji pamoja na vyombo vingine vitakavyotumika kwenye upishi.

Vilevile, baadhi ya wanafunzi wenzako wanaulisiza jinsi juusi iliyoandaliwa iliuyo tamu na wanajadiliana jinsi itakavyohadhira kabla ya kutumika wakati wa chakula. Mwisho, wakati chakula kina karibu, baadhi ya wanafunzi wenzako wanaulisiza jinsi kila mmoja kwenye msafara wataalamia katika upishi wa chakula. Wakati wanaharibiwa, baadhi ya wanafunzi wenzako wanaelezana jinsi juisi iliyoandaliwa ilivyo la kawaida matumboni mwao, wanafunzi wenzako wanaulisiza jinsi kuogelea wakati wa kuwaaambwa kwa wakati wa kuogelea wajibisho. Wanafunzi hao hawakukubaliana kwa danisho wanaandika dawa wanafunzi wenzako na kwa danisho wa wanafunzi wenzako wanaonekana wakati ukiwabidishwa, wanafunzi wenzako wanaelezana jinsi tulikuwa muhimu kwa kuwa mmoja wa wanafunzi wenzako wanaandika dawa wanafunzi wenzako na kwa danisho wa wanafunzi wenzako wanaonekana wakati ukiwabidishwa.

4.4.5. Students at the hospital for first aid services

You, your teacher and your classmates are almost finishing having lunch. While some of your classmates discuss the horrible feelings in their stomachs, some of your classmates are seen vomiting. Your teacher asks you to request the driver to drive your classmates who are unwell to the hospital. You discuss with the driver the routes the driver is to follow up to the hospital and the task he has ahead of clearing the bus. While you arrive at the hospital, the nurses express sympathy about the tragedy that fell on your classmates. While the nurses inform you about the availability of enough doctors to assist your classmates, one of the nurses requests to assist your classmates who are badly off.

Then, one of your classmates enters a doctor’s room for cross-examination and diagnostic related issues. While you explain to the nurses the possible causes of your classmates’ ailment, the nurses agree with you and explain to you other similar cases that have happened before at the zoo. Then, the nurse prescribes the medications to your classmates as well as telling you and your classmates the precautions to consider in the future if you are to visit the...
wakati mwingine mtakapokuwa ndani ya bustani. Wakati mwalimu pamoja na dereva wenu wakielezea shukrani zao zao kwa wafanyakazi wa hospitali, mnamuomba dereva awarudishe hoteli ili mkapumzike. Mwisho, unamweleza dereva wenu kuhusu masuala mengine yatakayofanywa mtakapofika hotelini.

4.5. linafanyika Alhamisi

4.5.1. Wanafunzi na mwalimu wao wanaelekea eneo la Samaki la Kasenyi


4.5.1.1. Ziara katika eneo la Samaki la Kasenyi

Wewe, wanafunzi wenzako, na mwalimu wenu mmewasili eneo la uuvuvi. Wakati mmoja wa wanafunzi wenzako anakubaliana na mwalimu wenu kuwa hakuna haja ya kuwa na mwongozaji, eye na wanafunzi wengine wanapendekea njia zingine za kupata taarifa zinazohusiana na eneo hilo la uuvuvi kama vile zoo again. While your teacher and the driver express their appreciation to the medical personnel at the hospital, you request the driver to drive you and your classmates to the hotel so that you and others can rest. Finally, you explain to the driver about other things to be done while you and your classmates arrive at the hotel.

4.5. taking place on Thursday

4.5.1. Students and their teacher heading to Kasenyi fishing site

You and some of your classmates have finished taking breakfast. Then, your teacher asks about the whereabouts of other classmates. While your teacher explains to you and your classmates the reasons for finishing all the breakfast on the table, she informs you that the driver has requested one of your classmates to direct him to the destination you are to visit on that day. While one of your classmates accepts to direct the driver, the same classmate asks for collective assistance to direct the driver. Then, he informs the driver of the distance from the hotel to the destination. While he is showing the driver different buildings on the right, left as well as ahead of the bus, other classmates of yours discuss about the magnitudes of filling stations, churches, banking malls that are all over the road that you are travelling on. While your classmates request the driver to reduce speed so that the driver can turn right to leave the main road and follow the road that leads you directly to your destinations, some of your classmates discuss about the university that you were to visit but the programme changed. They explain to each other the reasons why the programme was changed. Finally, as the bus reaches its final destination, your teacher requests you and your classmates to get out of the bus, she explains to you and your classmates the need not to have a guide. Furthermore, she informs you and your classmates about the presence of other students from different schools at the site too.

4.5.1.1. The tour around Kasenyi fishing site

You, your teacher and your classmates have arrived at the fishing site. While one of your classmates agrees with your teacher that there is no need to have a guide, she also suggests with her fellow classmates on possible ways to get information about the site, such as the district the site belongs to, the population size,
wilaya ambamo eneo hilo imo, idadi ya watu ndani ya eneo husika, mwaka na namna eneo hilo lilivyooanzishwa, shughuli za kiuchumi zinazofanyika katika eneo hilo, nk. Pia, baadhi ya wanafunzi wenzako wanaeleeza sababu za wanafunzi wa shule zingine kutembelea eneo hilo la uuvu. Wanaeleeza faida zingine mbalimbali na zile wanazopata wanafunzi wa jiografia kutoka shule zingine. 

Wakati huohuo, mmoja wa wanafunzi wenzako wanaelezea mshangao wake kuhusu aina tofautiza vyombo vya majini katika eneo hilo, hususani ukubwa wake, ratiba za safari, aina za bidhaa zinazobebwa, na uwezo tofauti wa vyombo hivyo. Aidha, wakati mmoja wa wanafunzi wenzako wanaelezea wasiwasi wao kuhusu afya na hali ya maisha ya jamii ya Kasenyi. 

Sambamba na hilo, baadhi ya wanafunzi wenzako wanaeleeza wasiwasii wao kuhusu afya na hali ya maisha ya jamii ya Kasenyi. Wanajadiliana na kuelezana kuweza kupungukiza na kupata uwezo tofauti wa vyombo vya majini katika eneo hilo. Mwisho, mwalimu wenu anatambua faida ambazo mmezipata kwa jamii katika eneo hilo. 

While, one of your classmates explains her surprises about different marine vessels at the site in relation to their sizes, their operational schedules, types of items that are carried and the varying capacities of such vessels. Furthermore, as one of your classmates is explaining to you about the market, the origin and the types of fish compared to other fish that she has seen elsewhere, the preservation measures of the fish, she also informs you and your classmates the petroleum products business and its related side effects to the community at the site.

Similarly, some classmates of yours are expressing their concern about the healthy leaving condition for the Kasenyi community. They discuss and explain on issues to do with poor sanitation/hygiene, high level of HIV/AIDS, prostitution and alcoholism and the availability of health facilities and other NGOs that provide assistance to various communities in and outside the Kasenyi fishing site. Finally, your teacher acknowledges the benefits you and your classmates have achieved while touring the site, she explains to you the reason why you could not take a boat trip to the island, she, however, promises to bring you and others in the future for a boat trip to the nearby islands. As she asks the driver to drive you to the hotel so that you and others prepare for a beach trip, you and one of your classmate disagree on going to the beach direct before reaching the hotel.

4.5.2. Wanafunzi wakiwa ufukeni

Wewe, wanafunzi wenzako, na mwalimu wenu mko hotelini mnapanga kwenda ufukeni. Wakati baadhi ya wanafunzi wenzako wakijadili kuhusu shauku ya kula chakula cha mchana ufukeni, wewe hukubaliani nao kwa kigezo cha gharama. Wakati baadhi ya wanafunzi wenzako wakijadili kuhusu mavazi yao ya ufukeni na ya michezo mingine, wanafunzi wengine wanaeleeza the year and how the site was established, the economic activities that take place at the site and so on. In addition, some of your classmates explain to you and your classmates the reasons about other schools also visiting the site, explain the advantages and other benefits of the site not only to geography students from other schools but also to you and your classmates too.

4.5.2. Students at the beach

You, your classmates and your teacher are in the hotel planning to go to the beach. As some of your classmates express their interest in having their lunch at the beach, you disagree with them on the grounds, such as costs. While some of your classmates are having a discussion about their beach costumes and other sports kits, others are also explaining to each other the beach that you are likely to visit.
kuhusu ufukwe mnaotarajia kutembelea siku hiyo, aina mbalimbali za watu mtakao changamana nao wa kati mko ufukweni, viingilio, na aina ya ufukwe wenyewe. Huku wanafunzi wenzako wakielezea shauku yao ya kupiga picha ufukweni, mmoja wa wanafunzi anakumomba rafiki yake amsaidie kuchagua nguo ya michezo ya bei nafuu lakini yenye rangi nzuri na ukubwa unaomtoshaji.

Kisha, baadhi ya wanafunzi wenzako wanaelezana kuhusu shughuli zinazofanyika ufukweni, ikiwa ni pamoja na kuokota magamba ya konokono wa ziwani, ulinzi wa ufukwe, nk. Kwa upande nzuri, mtindo wa ufukweni, viingilio, na aina ya ufukwe wenyewe. Huku wanafunzi wenzako wakielezea shauku yao ya kupiga picha ufukweni, mmoja wa wanafunzi anakumomba rafiki yake amsaidie kuchagua nguo ya michezo ya bei nafuu lakini yenye rangi nzuri na ukubwa unaomtoshaji.

Then, some of your classmates explain to each other activities that people do at the beach, including, collecting cowry shells, and guarding the beach and so forth. On the other hand, one of your classmates requests you and others to come together so that you may play some games, he then, agrees with others on the suggestion of playing some games over others and explains the reasons for his suggestion. Furthermore, as some of your classmates are having a discussion of kinds of foods and drinks they can have while at the beach, comparing the costs with other places they have visited before, one of your classmates informs you and your classmates his intentions to play a certain game and explains to you and others why others are playing different sports.

Finally, while one of you classmates requests you and others to conclude the different activities that you have been doing at the beach so that you return to the hotel, she then informs you and others the need to come back other time to the same beach. In addition, you also explain to your classmates what your teacher had requested to inform them, for example, the programme for the next day and so forth.

4.6. linafanyika siku ya Ijumaa

4.6.1. Wanafunzi na mwalimu wao wanatembelewa Chuo Kikuu

You, your classmates and your teacher are on the bus ready to travel to the city. Your teacher greets you all, she asks you and your classmates whether you packed all your luggage and other personal belongings, she then requests the driver to switch on the bus and start your journey. While you are explaining to the driver the road he should use, some of your classmates are having a discussion about expectation at the university in terms of, describing the lifestyles of the university professors, how students select the course they study and the general freedom of
the students at the university.

4.6.1.1. Touring various University premises

You, your classmates, your teacher and your host are now inside, touring the university buildings. One of your classmates informs your host that with the use of technology you already know the history of the university, then, this student requests another student to tell you and others about the history of the University. While some of your classmates explain to you and others about the university in terms of, its founders, the year it was established, how it evolved from a nursery school to a fully-fledged University, the student populations, its ownership and affiliation, the number of lectures as well as its serving Chancellor, your host expresses her satisfaction and gratitude on explanations your classmates have provided about the university.

She then informs you and others that her role will be to answer the questions asked of her since much of the information has been provided by your classmates. She then explains to you and your classmates about the bookshop, the available books, the possible publishers, books costs and so forth. In relation to the university library, some of your classmates are having a discussion about students who are entering as well as exiting the library, the searching of students at the library doors, the functions of the TV that as seen around the library vicinity and so forth.

Zaidi, ikiwa ni Ijumaa, mmoja wa wanafunzi wenzako anaona misikiti mkiwa njiani na anaamua kuelezea uzuri wa kuwa muumini wa dini ya Kiislamu kwa kuzingatia imani na manufaa mengine ya kiuchumi ambayo waumini wanayapata kutoka kwa waumini kulingana kote duniani. Sambamba na hilo, mwanafunzi mwingine anakubaliana na taarifa nzuri zinazohusiana na imani ya dini ya Kiislamu na anaahidi kuwa siku moja atawaambia kuhusu Imani ya dini ya Ukimwi. Huku mmoja wa wanafunzi wenzako inaruhusu wapi moja wa wapata makambani kwa Kiislamu na anaahidi kuwa siku moja ataiteeza kuhusu Imani ya dini ya Ukristu. Huku mmoja wa wanafunzi wenzako inaruhusu wapi moja wa wapata makambani kwa Kiislamu na anaahidi kuwa siku moja ataiteeza kuhusu Imani ya dini ya Uhindua. Huku mmoja wa wanafunzi wenzako inaruhusu wapi moja wa wapata makambani kwa Kiislamu na anaahidi kuwa siku moja ataiteeza kuhusu Imani ya dini ya Uhindua.
Wanafunzi wengine wanajadiliana kuhusu mabwalo ya chakula pamoja na muda wa kazi, kazi za majengo ya utawala, viwanja vya michezo pamoja na muda uliotengwa kwa ajili ya michezo, pamoja na mabweno ya wanafunzi. Zaidi, mmoja wa wanafunzi wenzako anaelezea shauku yake kuhusu halii ya lugha chuo ni kwa hususani kozu za Kiswahili pamoja na wanafunzi wanaosoma Kiswahili. Mwisho, mwenyeji wenu anawashukuru nyote kwa kutembelea chuo hicho siku zijazo.

4.6.2. Wanafunzi wanaelekeza Jumba la Sanaa la Taifa Uganda


4.6.2. Students heading to the Uganda National theatre

You, your classmates and your teacher are in the bus, as your teacher asks you and your classmates whether you are tired, the requests the driver to drive heading to Kampala City, at the National theatre where you will spend the night. On the way, some of your classmates have a discussion about the National Theatre in terms of, its functions, the year it was established, its location within the city and its various stakeholders. Then, other classmates of yours discuss to each other various building on the way, for example, the Kajjansi clay factory, the clock tower, the Uganda railways offices and the famous Nasser Street.


4.6.2.1. Wanafunzi wanaeleza uimbaji/uchezaji, nyimbo

Wewe na wanafunzi wenzako mmesimama nje ya Jumba la Sanaa la Taifa tayari kutazama maonyesho ya nyimbo. Mmoja wa wanafunzi wenzako anaweza kuhusu dhima, shughuli, wadawu, na bidhaa mbalimbali kuhusiana na majengo pamoja na mtaa huo.

4.6.2.1. Student watching a singing/dancing performance

You and your classmates are standing outside the National Theatre ready to watch a musical performance. One of your classmates explains to you and the others about the tickets that he was given by your teacher, the duration of the performance and the general setting inside the


4.7. linafanyika siku ya Jumamosi

4.7.1. Wanafunzi na mwali mu wao wanasafiri kurejea shuleni


4.7. taking place on Saturday

4.7.1. Students and their teacher travelling back to school

You, your classmates and your teacher are ready to start your journey back to school. Your teacher checks whether all of you are well, your luggage and other personal belongings. She informs you of some buildings and places you are likely to visit along the way. Unfortunately, it starts raining and she requests the driver to drive directly to school. She explains to you and your classmates why you will not visit the places she said before. Finally, she promises you to visit the said places next time and she wishes you a safe journey back to school as she writes her report about the journey to and from Entebbe.

Mwisho.

The end.
APPENDIX (A-ii)

SIMULATED TASK DIALOGUES

A table showing STDs derived from the four task descriptions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1.1.1. Juu ya matembezi ya Hifadhi ya Taifa ya Mburo</th>
<th>1.1.1. On visiting Mburo National Park</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>


**Ndunamiwe:** I respect you, teacher! What’s up, guys? On my side, I would propose to visit Mburo National Park, which is close to our school. I mean it’s located in Mbarara district and it is only two hours drive if we use our own school bus. The road is tarred so it doesn’t have potholes. Also, ways inside the park are easily passable due to rocks available in the park. Besides, this park has almost all animals. I read in The Monitor newspaper of Saturday, 18th July 2015 that animals, such as giraffes, which are said to extinct about 50 years ago due to poaching, their number have started to increase. Increase in a number of giraffes is due to the 1983 government’s decision to stop various human activities in the park as well as buying 15 giraffes from neighbouring Kenya.

The newspaper also wrote that the park currently has more than 300 hippos. Interesting thing is that this park has unique zebras, which are not found in any other national parks except Mburo and Kidepo National Parks. Besides, it’s in Mburo National Park where we will be able to see impala, which in the world are only found in our country. Animals like antelopes, monkeys, buffaloes, lions, hyenas, leopards, and crocodiles we will also see. We will also see various species of birds while in the water searching for fish or in savannah hunting grasshoppers for their meal. It is said that we will be able to see even cautious animals and those which are afraid of noise if we will go there in the afternoon when they normally look for food.

Regarding entrance fees, Mburo is one of the national parks that do not charge students a single cent. They only charge tourists from overseas and local tourists, who are not students. In addition, the park’s guards often give tourists tents. Their tents are nice, which can accommodate a large number of people, though they have small holes which can easily...
I wouldn’t like to go to Queen Elizabeth National Park for two main reasons. The first reason is that animals in that park live in water like hippos and crocodiles. Therefore, even if we go there is a possibility we won’t see these animals especially in the afternoon. The second reason is that this national park is close to the line that divides the earth into two spheres, I mean equator. Therefore, during this season weather close to the park becomes very hot to the extent that you can even be unable to sleep at nights. Yesterday I heard on the radio that such weather will continue until the end of July or beginning of August.

Similarly, I don’t propose to visit Murchison Falls because first, it is very far from here. We can spend up to three days going and returning while we have been given only one week. This means we will spend most of the time on the road. Also, whether at the Murchison Falls is cold, which can harm our chests, especially for some of us who have asthma.

In case you do not agree with me, then, I suggest we go to Entebbe zoo because there is a big possibility to see animals even those which are rare which live in water and land, such as hyenas, lions, and baboons. Also, the zoo is close to the Entebbe International Airport therefore while at the zoo we will also be able to see aeroplanes when taking off and landing at the airport. Again, the zoo is close to the Lake Victoria, which is the largest in the African continent.

2.1.1. On visiting Murchison Falls

Nnamusoke: Shikamoo teacher! How are you guys? I propose this holiday we go to Murchison Falls. To differ with Ndunamiiwe a little bit, at the falls there is a big possibility to see animals, wild animals, such as chimpanzees, monkeys, pythons, leopards, and miraculous snakes. But at parks, such as Mbuoro, you can’t see waterfalls or all the
nedere, chatu, chui, nyoka wa ajabu nakadhalika. Ila kwenye mbuga kama vile Mbuuro, huwezi kuona maporomoko ya maji au wanyama wote niliowataja hapo juu. Mnajua kabisa haya maporomoko ni mkondo wa maji ulelekaao nchini Misiru ambapo unamwaga maji yake kwenywe bahari ya mediterenia. Ukifika sehemu itwayo Karuma ambapo ndio unapata picha nzuri ya haya maporomoko, unaaweza ukajisikia kama upo nchi za Ulaya au bari la Amerika, kwasababu hali ya hewa wote mtoto mchungunikafi upepo hufanya nyenyana na mifupa. Isitoshe, pembeni ya maporomoko, unaaweza kuona ujenzi wa bwawa jipya la kufulia umeme wa maji liulikana kama Karuma Falls Dam.

Japokuwa ujenzi bado unaendelea, ni vizuri tukashuhudia jinsi wahanzidi kutoka China na wengine wa hapa kwetu wanavyotumia ujuzi wao kujenga kuta ambazo zitakaa kwenywe maji zaidi ya miaka mia mbili. Mfano nzuri ni ule Owen Falls Dam pale Jinja, ilijengwa na ukajisikia kama upo nchi za Ulaya au bara la Amerika, kwasababu hali ya hewa wote ndiyo unamwaga maji. Isitoshe, pembeni ya maporomoko ni upepo wenye unyevunyevu ambayo tunaweza kuulinganisha na nyakati za summer kwenywe hizo nchi.

Also, the road to the falls is good, it doesn’t have potholes and besides while en route we can pass and see the longest bridge in our country, that is the Karuma Bridge. This is the historical bridge especially when we refer to Joseph Kony's war in the north of our country. It was on this very bridge where Konny torched civilian buses and tracks. Since that year until today the bridge is guarded by the Uganda People’s Defence Force (UPDF). I think the main reason is to ensure peace in the country.

Furthermore, Mbuuro National Park is very close to the school. We have often been visiting it. Even though they don’t charge anything students like us, it is very rare to see anything attractive en route except hawkers of charcoal, skewered barbecues, tomatoes, onions, vegetables, oranges, and mangoes. We can be able to see all these things while in our homes, we don’t need to go to Mbuuro to see them. Besides, while we are at Murchison we can get into boats from one side of the Nile River to the other. While we are in the water there is a large possibility to see Nile peach fish, hippos, and other wild animals. Isitoshe, pembeni ya maporomoko, unaaweza kuona ujenzi wa bwawa jipya la kufulia umeme wa maji liulikana kama Karuma Falls Dam.
448

On another side, I would support the idea of visiting the Entebbe Zoo because according to the history of Entebbe town, it was supposed to be the capital city of our nation. Also, many ministries like health and education are still in Entebbe. I also hear that the way streets are planned and houses built is like the capital city of England. In addition, Entebbe town is just a few kilometres from our capital city, Kampala. We can sleep in Entebbe and go to visit Kampala or it’s vice-versa. Also, when in Entebbe we will be able to see Entebbe presidential state house, luxurious hotels like Entebbe Resort, Botanical Resort, schools built by colonialists, such as Entebbe Secondary School, old airport, war offices, United Nations Offices, et cetera.

3.1.1. On visiting Mountain Rwenzori

*Kirumira:* Shikamoo teacher! How are you, my beloved? Today I’m in front of you to present attraction I have chosen, which is Mount Rwenzori. All of us know and it’s known that Rwenzori is 5,109 meters high and it’s the tallest mountain in Uganda. Within East African countries, Rwenzori is the third after Mount Kenya, which is 5,199 high and Mount Kilimanjaro, which is 5,895 high, which makes it be the tallest mountain in the African continent. Like Mount Kilimanjaro which is located on the border of Kenya and Tanzania so is Mount Rwenzori which is on the border of Uganda and DRC, which was known as Zaire.
For those who don’t know, Mountain Rwenzori is located western part of our nation. It’s in Kasese district, which is famous for mining activities, agriculture, fishing, and animal husbandry. Regarding mining, Kasese produces minerals, such as copper and cobalt. On agriculture, Kasese is well known for the production of crops like millet, sorghum, cassava, maize, groundnuts, beans, and Irish potatoes. Regarding fishing, Kasese is famous for having many rivers and lakes. Some of the lakes found in the district are Lake Albert, Lake Edward, Lake George, et cetera. Fishes from these lakes include carp, mudfish, catfish, et cetera. On animal husbandry, cattle, goats, pigs, and chickens are produced in big quantities.


Na njia ya pili ambayo kwa upande wangu nadhani ndiyo ya kari, ni ile ya kutoka Mbarara mjini kupitia wilaya ya Bushenyi hadi tunapofika wilayani Kasese. Nasema njia hii ni ya kari kwa sababu kuu mbili. Sababu ya kwanza, ni njia ambayo tutatamia takribani saa tatu kufika Kasese. Pili, njia nzima ni ya lami, na ambayo ningeweza kuwata kama sababu ya tatu ni kwamba, kwenye njia hii hakuna msongamano wo magari kama ilivyo kwenye njia nyinyi zenyi rami haswa mijini. Endapo tutatamia njia hii ni Bushenyi ambayo ndiyo pendekazo langu, tutaona vitu kemkem njiani. Baadhi ya hiivy vitu kwa mfano daraja la Kazinga jujulekana kama Kazinga channel, linalo unguisha maziwa ya Albert na Edward, 

The second way which on my side I think is shorter is the one from Mbarara town through Bushenyi district up until Kasese district. I believe it is shorter for two main reasons. The first reason is that we will use almost three hours to reach Kasese. Secondly, the whole road is tarmac. What I can say is the third reason is that there is no traffic jam on this road like other tarmacked roads, especially in towns. If we will use the Bushenyi way, which I propose, we will see various things while on our way. Some of them are Kazinga Bridge, which is known as Kazinga Channel, which connects Albert and Edward lakes. We will also stop at an area where the Equator crosses,
We will be inspected as one of the ways to ensure safety in the mountain area. Responsible persons will tell us by laws and regulations to be observed while at the mountain. For example, not to insult each other, violence, shoving each other, plays which are against the purpose of our hiking. We will also be informed of a number of days we will use to climb and descend the mountain.

Due to weather changes, while climbing the mountain, we will be given porters, who will help us carry our luggage, such as our bags of clothing, food. We must pay these porters according to the weight of the luggage of each student. Often these porters are paid between 50-100USD. Also, these porters will carry our luggage while climbing only, but during descending, everyone will carry his/her own luggage because they say during descending, the weight of luggage isn’t the same as during climbing. Days we will use to climb the mountain are between four and five. For those who are fast and experienced in hiking they use four days but for those who are inexperienced spend five to six days. But in descending majority use between two and three days.

It’s said that the first day of hiking, hikers use about five hours to reach the first resting point. The mountain has many interesting things, which we as students can see and enhance knowledge. For instance, after each several kilometres between 100-600 meters when climbing the mountain, you will see small mud huts as resting points for hikers. In these points, there are monkeys and wolves, which most of them are used to human beings and are friendly
History shows that many people who fail to continue hiking, take a rest here at Elena point, which is 4540 meters up the mountain. Those who fail to continue waiting for their colleagues for ten hours and when they return they continue to descend together. Those who manage to continue hiking to so for about seven hours to reach the mountain summit. While at the summit, climbers take memorial photos, cross the border and enter DRC and then return to begin descending, a journey of about two to three days. Also, during the return, after descending I would suggest we use central route or Kamwenge from Fort Portal, where we will be able to see important places like Kirembe Mines, and the only cement factory in the Western region, which is different from the one located in the east of our country.

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Within five hours, hikers climb about 1200 meters. During hiking, hikers see animals like elephants, gazelles, baboons, monkeys, et cetera. Second-day hikers climb about 915 meters for at least seven hours. A large portion of the second day is hikers pass through bamboo trees. Before reaching the resting point, hikers cross a bridge known as Mabuku. The third day is just like the first day, where hikers spend about five hours to walk between 500 and 560 meters. It’s within the third day where hikers begin to see from distant snow frozen on the mountain. The cold condition increases as they climb the mountain and breathing becomes difficult because experts say oxygen decreases as one climbs up the mountain.

Ndani ya masaa matano wapandaji hupanda takribani mita 1200. Wakati wakupanda, wapandaji huwasubiri wenzao kwa muda wa masaa 10 na wakirudi wanaendelea na safari ya kuushuka mlima wakiwa pamoja. Wale wanaowezua kuendelea na safari ya kupanda mlima huendelea kwa muda wa saa kama saba hadi wanapofika kwenye kilele cha mlima. Wakiwa kileleni, wapandaji hupiga picha sa ukumbusho, huvuka mpaka sa kuwinga upande wa Kongo, na hatimaye huyeza kuanza tena safari ya kushuka mlima ambayo ni muda wa takribani kati ya siku mbili hadi tatu. Pia wakati wa kurudi baada ya kushuka mlima ningepekezea tupite njia ya katii au Kamwenge kutokea Fort portal ambapo tutabahatika pia kuona sehemu muhimu kama migodi ya Kirembe, Kiwanda pekee cha sementi mkoa wa magharibi, tofauti na kile cha Tororo kilichopo mashariki mwa nchi yetu.


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I wouldn’t propose to visit Murchison due to rebels, who are said to live in Karuma forests and they can abduct us any time as we visit the falls. Also, a trip to Karuma begins at 6 PM, which suggests that we won’t be able to see any attraction for the whole night when we will be on our way. For instance, we won’t be able to see Nakasongora Military Base, where bullets are manufactured. I also don’t recommend to visit Lake Queen Elizabeth because this area also the Allied Democratic Forces rebels are at large and they can ambush and harm us.

The idea of Entebbe is good because there are no rebels like other places mentioned above. First of all, while we are going to Entebbe, even before reaching Kampala we must see Katonga Bridge. Historically, it is said if the current government couldn’t have seized the bridge, it shouldn’t have managed to overthrow the government of that time. This is the bridge that separates Ugandan capital, Kampala from the south and some western parts of the country. Also, while in Kampala it will be easy for us to visit the Buganda Kingdom cemetery, where the ‘Kabakas are buried’, which is known as Kasubi Tombs. There is also a possibility to go visit and if there will be enough time at least to see from outside Ugandan National Assembly building. Just to add to what my colleagues have said earlier, if we go to Entebbe, while on Lake Victoria shore we will be able to see from distant Ssese islands including the largest island of Bugala.

4.1.1. Juu ya matembezi ya Mji wa Entebbe

Sajile: Shikamoo mwalimu, mambo vipi jamani? Leo nipo mbele yenu kuwaelzea juu ya mji mkongwe wa Entebbe. Ninatambua ya kwamba wenzangu waliotangulia wamependekeza sehemu mbalimbali ambazo tunaweza kutembelea wakati wa likizo fupi. Wote wamependekeza twende tukatembe kwenye sehemu nzuri na za kuvutia nchini mwetu, kama vile kwenye mbuga za wanayama na kwingeiko. Ila nikishawasilimulia kuhusu mji wa Entebbe, naamini, mwalimu pamoja nasi sote tutakubaliana twende kutembelea mji huu.

Kuna sababu nyingi zilizonivutia kuuchagua mji wa Entebbe kama sehemu mojawapo I wouldn’t propose to visit Murchison due to rebels, who are said to live in Karuma forests and they can abduct us any time as we visit the falls. Also, a trip to Karuma begins at 6 PM, which suggests that we won’t be able to see any attraction for the whole night when we will be on our way. For instance, we won’t be able to see Nakasongora Military Base, where bullets are manufactured. I also don’t recommend to visit Lake Queen Elizabeth because this area also the Allied Democratic Forces rebels are at large and they can ambush and harm us.

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4.1.1. On visiting Entebbe town

Sajile: I respect you, teacher, what’s up everyone? Today, I am in front of you to tell you about the ancient town of Entebbe. I know pretty well that those who spoke before me have proposed various places where we can visit during our short holiday. All have suggested we visit beautiful and attractive sites in our country, such as national parks and other places. But, after I tell you about the Town of Entebbe, I believe, the teacher and all of us will agree to visit this amazing town.

There are so many reasons that have convinced me to choose the Town of Entebbe as one of

Leo ni siku ya pili ya juma, nikimaanisha Jumapili. Wanafunzi wenzangu leo mida ya adhuhuri tunaanza safari yetu kuelekea mji mkongwe wa Entebbe. Tukiondoka hapa saa sita za mchana, ninatumaini kufika jijini Kampala baada ya mwendo wa saa tatu, yaani, tutafika Kampala kwenye majira ya saa tisa za alasiri. Tutakapofika Kampala, sote hatutashuka kwenywe basi, mwalimu atawachagua wananfunzi watatu ambao nitaongozana nayo kufika kwa vitu tutakavyokuwa tununifaa kama vile maji ya kunywa naka dhalika.

Mwalimu atawaomba wanafunzi hawa wasitumie muda mwingi katika kununua vitu hivyvo. Nadhani hapa hutatumia tena takribani dakiwa hali ili tuweze kuanza tena safari yetu. Safari itanza kati ya saa tisa na kumi ili tuweze kufika Entebbe baada ya mwendo wa saa moja, yaani tufika Entebbe kati ya saa 11:00 au 11:30 jioni.

Sasa tumefika Entebbe na hii ndiyo hoteli ya Protea ambayo tutakaa kwa wiki nzima hadi tutukaborudi shule. Nameichagua hoteli hii kwasababu kuu mbili. Sababu ya kwanza inahusu gharama. Ukilinganisha na hoteli nyingine kama vile, Gorilla African Guest house, Lake Victoria hotel, Elephant Safaris Village, Entebbe Traveller Inn na zingine. Protea Hotel has the lowest cost in terms of accommodation and food. For instance, while other hotels charge between USD 57-100 per night for bed, supper, and breakfast, Protea Hotel has offered to charge USD 50 for the same services at a student rate.

Kwenye dola 50, hotel inatoa dola 30 kwa ajili ya malazi na chakula cha usiku. Dola nyingine 20 zinaenda kwenye chakula cha mchana na maji au juisi ya kunywa baada ya kula. Isitoshe, hotel imekubali tuturudisha hela zetu endapo hatutakula hapa hoteli chakula cha mchana.
They have agreed to this proposal because I told them that during the daytime if we will be far from the hotel we will have our lunch where we will be. Fortunately, almost anywhere we will be visiting we will be able to eat food that will cost us not more than USD 3 or Ugandan Shillings 1000.

4.1.2. Learners and their teacher arriving at the Hotel in Entebbe

Would everyone please carry their bags and enter the rooms that will be shown to you by the relevant hotel attendant? Girls please the take rooms that are on the right-hand side of the reception. Boys will occupy the rooms that are on the left-hand side of the reception. Girls, please choose two rooms among Kenya, Malawi, Mozambique and Somalia.

For boys, we will occupy two rooms, which are South Africa and Egypt. I would like all of us to use the room Nigeria to keep our bags that will not befit in our rooms. Make sure you spend less time when you enter your rooms to have some shower and change clothes. After that, everyone should come to the restaurant, known as Zanzibar. Zanzibar hall is on the first ground floor, next to the swimming pool. You will find me and the waiters there waiting for you so that they can serve us supper.

If you will not be able to see the Zanzibar hall, ask for assistance from any waiter who will be closer to you. If you come early, you will be able to see Afrigo Band entertaining guests of the hotel, especially those from overseas, such as United Kingdom, Italy, Spain, Russia, Japan, et cetera.

4.1.3. A teacher and her learners serving dinner at the hotel

You are all welcome for supper. Everyone, please sit on the chair in front of you. On our first night, the hotel has prepared for us the following. Regarding meal, you will have rice, ugali, yams, cassava, bananas, and sweet and round potatoes.
Kwenye upande wa mboga, kuna, karanga za kusagwa, maharage mabichi, nyama ya ng’ombe, mbuzi, kuku, sungura pamoja na samaki wabichi na samaki wakavu kutoka ziwa Victoria. Upande wa mboga za majani, tumachungua, kabeji, kisamvu. Isitoshe, kwenye upande wa matunda, tuna maparachichi, ndizi mbivu, mapapai, machungwa, machenza, maembe na mananasi.


Kwa jina la baba na la mwana na la roho mtakatifu amina. Mungu baba tubariki sisi na chakula chetu tunachokula ili tupate nguvu za kukutumikia vyema, amina.


Msella: Jamani, naona watu mmechota chakula kama hamtokula tena kesho. Kwanini msiwe wastaarabu kwa wiki hii. Choteni chakula kidogokidogo halafu kikiihsa kwenywe sahani mnachota tena kama mwimali na wale kule walivyofanya. Chakula chote ni chetu hakuna haja ya kujilimbikizia chakula kana kwamba kitiasha baada ya sekunde. Naona wote macho yameelekeza kwenye hii bendi ya zamani. Endapo mtasikiliza nyimbo zao, wakina nani watasikiliza nyimbo kama za Chameleon, Good Lyfe na wasanii wengine wa kizazi hiki. Mwenzenu nipo kwenywe runinga naangalia 'movie' ya vichekesho nadhani itakuwa ya Msellazo. Ni watafurahi imezaliwa kwenye hii bendi ya zamani. Msaana wana kufanya maeneo ya kusema kiwanda kwa moto baada ya sekunde. Be careful not to eat until we rush some of you to a nearest hospital or dispensary. I can see all of you have directed your eyes to this old band. If you listen to their songs, who will listen to modern songs of musicians like Chameleon, Good Lyfe and other contemporary artists. Myself I am on TV watching a comedy movie, I think it is Nigerian. If it wasn't noisy, we could listen to words and follow actions.

Aimbora: Guys, the food is delicious. I wish we always eat this way so that we leave here while we are fat. Look at how Kemilembe has filled the dish with food, I don't know if she will be able to finish it, my God! This is the beginning of someone to feel bloated. Their cooks know how to cook. That is why they employ professional cooks, not just any person who can cook. I can see even those white men are enjoying African foods. Look at that guy the way he licks his fingers as well as his plate. Please lend me your phone I want to take a photo of my food and send it home so that they see what the hotel has prepared for us. If it wasn’t noisy, we could listen to music later on so that after they have been cut into, pierces provide an attraction to eat. Eheeeeh, listen to that song ‘Obangaina’. I like when they insert Soga words. Earlier, I thought Soga and Ganda were one language but they are two different languages. However, if you cannot differentiate you may think they are one. It is like Nyamwezi and Sukuma languages in our neighbouring Tanzania.

Majolo: This band was supposed to perform music later on so that after the meal we can first rest then we get the energy to dance like those fellow guys. But most of the songs are classic, are not for us students. I think most of their guests are adults. I don’t know if they will can see their avocados are different from the ones we are used to. These ones their yellowish is very bright, they are big, and besides the way they have been cut into, pierces provide an attraction to eat. Eheeeeh, listen to that song ‘Obangaina’. I like when they insert Soga words. Earlier, I thought Soga and Ganda were one language but they are two different languages. However, if you cannot differentiate you may think they are one. It is like Nyamwezi and Sukuma languages in our neighbouring Tanzania.
Sijui tukiomba nyimbo za vizazi vyetu watatukulia, nyie mnaonaje?

Kokubanza: Ule mziki sio kama ni kwa ajili yetu tu, hapana ni kwa ajili ya kilwa mgeni wa hapa hotelini inamaana ukijisikia unacheza sasa hivi au baadaye. Ila kuna muda maaluumu utazima na watu wataenda kulala. Nimeona pale ya kwamba mziki unapiga siku za wikiendi tu ikiwemo na Ijumaa.


Wanafunzi: Pole jamani Wanyama.


Teacher Peta: After we have eaten everyone should go to their rooms so we sleep and be able to wake up early to begin our tour of the Town of Entebbe tomorrow. I would like to request everyone to be here at 6 AM so that we can have our breakfast and plan on how we will spend our day tomorrow. I wish you all a good night.

4.2.1. Wanafunzi na Mwalimu wao wanapata kifunguakinywa hotelini


Lawrence: What’s up my friends? My watch shows it is 6:10 AM. I hope we are all well. Please welcome to the table to have our breakfast. Thermos which are in front of you have the following beverages. The green thermos has milk shake, a blue thermos contains corn porridge, a red one has milk tea, and white one has plain tea. Also, inside the yellow jug, there is mango and berries juice blend. Students: What’s up my friends? My watch shows it is 6:10 AM. I hope we are all well. Please welcome to the table to have our breakfast. Thermos which are in front of you have the following beverages. The green thermos has milk shake, a blue thermos contains corn porridge, a red one has milk tea, and white one has plain tea. Also, inside the yellow jug, there is mango and berries juice blend.

Regarding bites, there are boiled and fried eggs, bread, chapatti, smoked potatoes, Stellenbosch University https://scholar.sun.ac.za
chapati, viazi vilivyopikwa kwa mvuke, vitumbua, karanga za kuchemsha, mhogo ya kukaanga, mhogo ya kuchemsha pamoja na matunda kama maembe na machungwa, karibuni.

**Kombe:** Hii hoteli inawafanyakazi wengi. Naona kuna wengine ndiyo kwanza wanawasili wakati wengine wamekesha wanatuhudumia. Angalia wale wanapiga deki kwa kutumia mashine. Hawana muda wa kuinama yetu tukiwa tunapiga deki. Ndugu yangu naona kina pamoja na vitumbua, boiled ground nuts, fried cassava, boiled cassava, as well as fruits, such as mangoes and oranges, please welcome.

**Kombe:** This hotel has many attendants. I can see others are just arriving while others have been serving us throughout the night. Look at those ones they are cleaning the floor using machines. They do not bend as we normally do when we mop. My sister, can I have that thermos of black tea? I don't know why they didn't bring us a bottle of hot water. I can see there is everything except hot water. Others are not used to drink tea this early.

**Kaganda Mkubwa:** It's true my brother Kombe. I also see it is too early to have tea now. If it is possible I will take away my tea and bites so that I have them later on the journey. I have a desire to go to the swimming pool so that I swim but I am afraid to water would be too cold now. At least it would be a little bit sunny, one could jump in for a few seconds.


**Silagomi:** Nilivyona jagi la juisi limenikumbusha juisi ya ukwaku. Natamani ingekuwepo pia. Nyie watu mnaokunywa chai mida hii mnawezaje na hili joto?

**Lembo:** Wewe acha tu hujui ni jinsi gani ninavyojiskia chai ikiingia mwiliini, muda kama huu. Wataalamu wanawenda nia bora kupata kiumsha kinywa kuliko mlo mwengine wowote. Ila kwasababu hivi za ziarani, pia tunashauriwa kula chakula cha mchana na kushiba.

**Kemilembe:** Ni kweli Lembo, lakini chai ni ya moto mno. Mwenyewe naipenda niyewe ya moto ila hii imezidi. Sijui ni kwasababu ya tangawizi iliyowekwa! Halafu naona kina chai ya maziwa inaelekea kuisha, je tunaruhusiwa kuomba chupa nyingine? Kwasababu nasa juu kidogo kunywa zaidi ya kikombe kimoja kutokana na wete kuchemsha, vitumbua, karanga za kuchemsha, mhogo ya kukaanga, mhogo ya kuchemsha pamoja na matunda kama maembe na machungwa,
ya kwamba sitokula vitafunwa. more than one cup since I’ll not eat bites. 


Kalunga: Then we’re many who do not eat these bites. I very much like bites like bread, and maybe chapatti which I don’t see on the table. I think I will eat boiled eggs but not fried ones. I can see fried eggs are too much full of fat. We are always advised not to consume too many fats. The fats we consumed in a meat yesterday night is enough in my body. Please pass me two eggs.


Kayobora: Well said! I can also see on the side of the drinks they said they forgot to bring us coffee. But I have asked that sister and she said she will bring it. I like coffee too much because it keeps my vigil, and besides coffee is a drink that can be taken at any time of the day even at midnight. If there were bread, I would eat something like two blue band toast.


Chipoli: Guys, please pass me a jug of juice and a sugar container. I can see their preparations are good and I also have loved their tea. I am packing this juice into my bottle, I will drink it on our way when I feel thirst. I add sugar in everything I drink because I did not wash my mouth properly when I brushed my teeth so toothpaste remained in my mouth which has caused a loss of taste on anything I put in my mouth.


Nkya: I am used to eating sugarcane or drinking its juice for breakfast. I can see now is too early to drink tea. At home, we are used to drinking tea at 10:00 or 11:00 am. But because I don’t have a choice, please pass me that green thermos so that I can have tea as you do. I wish these people could come to switch on TV for us so that we watch cartoons. I know the teacher would like to watch the news this time around as my dad does. He won’t rest until he watches news about what has happened the previous night on TV stations like Aljazeera, BBC, and CNN.


Teacher Peta: My children, please finish your tea. We have many things to do today. I can see the driver has already parked the bus and is waiting for us. But before we get on the bus, I would like to remind ourselves about today’s tour. What do you think? I believe all of us have drunk, eaten and are satisfied. And we have acquired energy that will enable us to walk safely until we will eat our lunch.
### 4.2.2. Touring the outskirts of Entebbe town

**Teacher Peta:** Our schedule today is divided into two main parts. While the first part starts at 8 AM until 12 PM, the second part begins at 2 PM and ends at 5 PM. Between 12-2 PM is break, the time we will use to have our lunch.

Na baada ya matembezi ya saa kumi na moja, tutarejea hotelini kwetu ili tuweze, kusafisha miili yetu, watakafashe asubuhi ya saa moja ili hapa. My watch tells me it is 7:45 AM already. Before we get on our bus, please lend me your ears so that I can tell you about where we are heading to this morning. In order to know where we are, our morning and afternoon tour will visit various places of Entebbe.

This means that we will visit suburbs that are close and surrounding Kitoro town. Kitoro is like CBD/the heart of Entebbe. It has a bus terminal for minibuses travelling to Kampala and other places in Entebbe. Also, Kitoro is a popular place for wholesale and retail businesses.

### 4.2.2. Kutmbelea viunga vya Mji wa Entebbe

**Mwalimu Peta:** Ratiba yetu ya leo imegawanyika katika sehemu kuu mbili. Sehemu ya kwanza inaanza saa mbili asubuhitumika kwa saa kumi na moja. Kati ya saa ni nane ni muda wa kupumzika tukiwa tunakula chakula cha mchana. Na baada ya matembezi ya saa kumi na moja, tutarejea hotelini kwetu ili tuweze, kusafisha miili yetu, watakafashe asubuhi ya saa moja ili hapa. My watch tells me it is 7:45 AM already. Before we get on our bus, please lend me your ears so that I can tell you about where we are heading to this morning. In order to know where we are, our morning and afternoon tour will visit various places of Entebbe.

This means that we will visit suburbs that are close and surrounding Kitoro town. Kitoro is like CBD/the heart of Entebbe. It has a bus terminal for minibuses travelling to Kampala and other places in Entebbe. Also, Kitoro is a popular place for wholesale and retail businesses. Many people who reside in the outskirts of Entebbe flock to this area to buy goods and other needs for their homes. The goods include clothes, cups, plates, knives, spoons, and table and chair mats. Other goods are beds, cupboards, and stools.


- Vyombo vya jikoni yakiwemo masufuria, majiko ya udongo na chuma, mkaa nakadhalika. Vifaa vya ujenzi kama vile, seruji, misumari, misumeno, randa, milango, madirisha, mageti nakadhalika. Isitoshe tukiwa Kitoro pia tutaweza kuona ofisi mbalimbali za mashirika ya simu kama vile Mtn, Airtel, Mango na UTL.
Baada ya Kitoro, dereva atatuendesha kuelekea kwenyé kitongoji cha Kigungu. Kuna njia kuu mbili zinazoweza kutufikisha Kigungu. Kuna njia ya upande wa kushoto wa Uwanja wa ndege wa kimataifa wa Entebbe ijuikanayo kama barabara ya Tunnel. Na njia nyingine ni ya upande wa kulia wa Uwanja wa ndege, ijuikanayo kama barabara ya Buku. Ila kwasababu tupo tayari Kitoro, tutatumia njia ya Buku wakati wa kwenda, na wakati wa kurudi tutatumia barabara ya Tunnel.

Barabara ya Buku ilijengwa miaka ya zamani wakati wa ujenzi wa Uwanja wa ndege. Ule mnara muuonao ni mnara wa kusasa na kurushia mawasiliano ya radio na televisheni za taifa. Hapo awali ulikuwa kwa ajili ya radio tu, ila kadri idadi ya watumiaji ilipoongezeka serikali ilijulikanayo kama barabara ya Tunnel. Na njia nyingine ni ya upande wa kushoto wa Uwanja wa ndege, ijuikanayo kama barabara ya Buku. Ila kwasababu tupo tayari Kitoro, tutatumia njia ya Buku wakati wa kwenda, na wakati wa kurudi tutatumia barabara ya Tunnel.

Buku Road was constructed many years ago when the Airport was being built. That tower you see is a broadcast tower for the national radio and television. In the beginning, it was for radio broadcast only, but later the government decided to improve it to include television broadcast so as to cater to the increased demand for the television services among people.

The same tower is used by different communication companies, especially mobile telephone companies to operate mobile networks for local and international telecommunications among people.

Next to the fence that demarcates the tower area is Airport Defence Zone. The soldiers you see are tasked with ensuring the airport remains safe all the time. Their main duty is to ensure the security of the inside and outside the airport. They use different equipment including highly advanced technological equipment to enable them to perform their duties effectively and efficiently.

We could ask for permission to get it but military laws do not allow them to let us in the zone. This is because this is one of the areas that secure/protect the secrets of our nation’s aviation. That being the case, even if you have a relative who works here, he/she will not allow you get in there unless you are a member of the national defence force.

Ile mnayoiona mfono wa kulia ni shule ya MARRYLAND High School. Shule hii ilifunguliwa mwaka 2001. Ni Makao Makuu ya shule za MARRYLAND. Tawi lao jingine lipo Katabi accounts will enter and send their relatives and friends. We will spend about two hours to tour Kitoro town.

Shule hii ipo pembezoni mwa ziwa Victoria ambapo kuna upepo mzuri utokao ziwani unaochangia utengenezaji wa mazingira bora ya kujisomea kwa wa na wanafunzi. This school is located along Lake Victoria shore, where there is a cool breeze from the lake, which contributes to making students’ learning environment very conducive.

4.2.3. Ziara katika eneo la Wamisionari wa Kikristo

4.2.3. A tour to the site of Christian Missionaries

Pale mbele ndiyo mwisho wa barabara ya Buku na pia ni mwanzo wa barabara tutakayoitumia wakati wa kurudi hotelin. Ila kabla ya kurudi hotelini, ningependa tufike sehemu ijulikanayo kama Kigungu landing site ambayo ndiyo hapa tunapokaribia. Hii ni sehemu ya kihistoria kwa upande wa dini ya Kikatoliki.

Ni sehemu hii ambapo wamishonari wawili wa kwanza waliposhushwa na merikebu yao. Padre, Simeon Lourdel na Mfawu Delmas walifika hapa tarehe 17 Februari 1879 baada ya safari ya maji ya Ziwa Victoria wakito kea Bukoba, nchini Tanzania.

It is in this place where first two missionaries landed from their boat. Pastor Simeon Lourdel and Brother Amans Delmas arrived here on 17 February 1879 after sailing through Lake Victoria from Bukoba, Tanzania.

Gazeti la Jumanne ya tarehe 24 Aprili 2012 liliandika ya kuwa wamishonari hawa wakitokea nchini Ufaransa Bara la Ulaya. Walikuja na Meli ambazo iliwashusha kwenye ukanda wa bahari ya Hindi kabla ya kusafiri hadi Bukoba.

One newspaper published on Tuesday 24 April 2012 reported that these two missionaries came from France. They came by boat up to the Indian Ocean coast before travelling up to Bukoba.

Inasemekana wakililo Bukoba walisikia habari za mfalme wa Buganda yaani Kabaka ndipo wakaamua kuja nchini Uganda pia na waliikuta Kabaka akiwasubiria hapa hapa tuliposimama muda huu.

It is alleged that while in Bukoba they heard about King of Buganda, that is Kabaka and they decided to come to Uganda where they found Kabaka waiting for them right here where we are standing now.


Furthermore, the same newspaper reported that one of these missionaries had also lived in other African countries, such as Algeria and the Central Africa Republic, for at least two years. Kabaka was very happy to see them and he welcomed them to his Mengo Palace.
Inasemekama Kabaka alivutiwa zaidi na tabia ya hawa wamishonari. Gazeti liliandika yatakiwa wamishonari na za wazungu waliotangulia, tabia za wamisheni zilikuwa ni tofauti sana na za wale wengine.


It is further recounted that Kabaka was impressed by the attitude of these missionaries. The newspaper tells that compared to other earlier white men, the behaviours of these missionaries were very different.

For instance, these two gave people various gifts, such as pencils and exercise books. In addition, these missionaries did not involve themselves in any trade that was going on in Uganda. They were involved neither in sexual intercourse nor alcoholism. They were often involved in preaching the word of God to people. These two statues you see there are of those two missionaries for their remembrance.


**Chipoli:** Thank you Sajile! But today I do not feel like eating. I think it is because of fatigue as a result of a tour we had since morning. I have a headache and if possible, you can get me some painkillers. If a headache persists, I will remain in the hotel resting when you will be starting the afternoon tour. Msella, please pass me the jug of juice so that I can quench thirst.
Sajile: Pole sana Chipoli. Jitahidi ule angalau kidogo ili uweze kupata nguvu. Nahisi kichwa kinakuuza kwasababu hujazoea kutembea kwa muda mrefu. Hata mimi kilianza kuniuma tulipokuwa tunapita shule ya Marryland High School. Kwa bahati nzuri nilikuwa na maji ya kiasi ya kunywa ndiyo yaliyonisaidia kutuliza kichwa. Ila jikaze ule angalau mchicha na juisi kidogo uweze kuongeza damu mwili labda na chenyewe kitapona. Pia, ningeusishi unywe maji mengi kwanza kabla ya kunywa dawa kisha upumzike kidogo kuona maendeleo yame. Even myself I had a headache when we were passing Marryland High School. Fortunately, I had some drinking water that helped me release the pain. But try to eat at least some spinach and drink a little bit of juice to increase blood in your body maybe it might release a headache. I would also advise you to drink a lot of water before you decide to take painkillers then take a short rest to see how you will be feeling. After all, doctors do not advise taking medication randomly. I still believe it is just fatigue, so after you have rested a little bit, your body energy will resuscitate and you will be able to go with us on our afternoon tour.

4.2.4. Ziara katika soko la Nakiwogo


Nkya: Sajile, nakumbuka tukiwa darasa la sita mwalimu wa Jiografia, Mwalimu Ndawula, aliwahi kulizungumziza hili soko. Alisema ni kati ya masoko ambayo yanafanya kazi saa ishirini na manne. Isitoshe alisema pia ni soko ambalo wateja wake wengi wanaokuwa safarini wakikuto kwa kuwa hubora kutokana na usafi uliopo hapo soko. Sajile: It is true Nkya. This market is never closed for two reasons. First and foremost, the market is located near to the Landing Site of Nakiwogo, which we will see later ahead of us. Second, this market is visited by tourists, especially those who are waiting for their flights. Instead of sitting at the airport, tourists come to the market to see some few things which they did not see when they visited other markets located in other parts of the country. Additionally, this is the only market closer to the lake. While buying your goods here, you will be blown by a cool breeze from the lake, something you will not experience in other markets which are located far away from the lake.

Sajile: I am so sorry Chipoli. Please try to eat a little bit so you can get energy. I think you have a headache because you are not used to walking for an extended period of time. Even myself I had a headache when we were passing Marryland High School. Fortunately, I had some drinking water that helped me release the pain. But try to eat at least some spinach and drink a little bit of juice to increase blood in your body maybe it might release a headache. I would also advise you to drink a lot of water before you decide to take painkillers then take a short rest to see how you will be feeling. After all, doctors do not advise taking medication randomly. I still believe it is just fatigue, so after you have rested a little bit, your body energy will resuscitate and you will be able to go with us on our afternoon tour.

4.2.4. Visiting the Nakiwongo market

Teacher Peta: Colleagues, I can see we have rested for enough time let us now get ready for our afternoon tour. Please let us get into the vehicle so that the driver can take us to Nakiwogo. Driver, I request we use Kiwafu Road when we are going so that we use Nakiwogo Main Road when we come back to the hotel. Look at your left-hand side that is the main market of Nakiwogo.

Nkya: Sajile, I remember when we were in grade six, our geography teacher, Mr Ndawula, once spoke about this market. He said this is one of the markets that work for twenty-four hours daily. He also said it is the market whose most customers are white men and women because of the hygiene surrounding the market.


You might recall that the teacher told us that fish that are found close to river stream are normally different from those found away from it. If you look at Ssese islands, River Nile stream pass there that is why you will recognize the fish from Ssese like these ones are different from the ones from here. The driver, please let us continue our journey so that we reach Nakiwogo Fish Factory before it is closed.

4.2.4.1. Ziara katika kiwanda cha Samaki cha Nakiwogo


Kokubanza: Mdogo wangu Kaganda Mkubwa, sikubaliani na wewe jua la kujifunza chakiri watu wengi kuto kana na kazi zindeshwazo hapa Kiwandani. Hebu angalia jinsi masihi ziliyoyojaa ambazo zinahudimiwa na mtu mmoja.
Kwa mfano tangu tufike hapa kiwandani nimemuna yule baba akihudhurye mashine mbili kwa wakati mmoja. Inamaanisha kata kama shughuli ni nyingi uwepo wa mashine unarahisisha kazi na kupunguza idadi ya wafanyakazi sio hapa kiwandani tu hata kwenye sehemu nyingine ndani na nje ya nchi.


Na pia ni njia moja wapo ya kuoneza vipato kwa kuwaa jiria wananchi. Kwa upande wa vipato vyao hapa sidhani kuwa ni vya juu sana. Kwa mfano ukiangalia kazi zinazohitaji elimu ya juu. Kazi nyingi zinahitaji ujuzi wa kuhudumia mashine husika.

Hata kwenye kufyeka kunahitaji zaidi nguvu za mwili wako. Ila kwenye upande wa wafanyakazi ngazi za utawala lazima mishahara yao itakuwa mizuri na ya kuvutia kwa sababu wengi wao ni wale waliomaliza angalau shahada ya kwanza.

*Sajile:* Kokubanza, you have said it all. Availability of too much work especially in factories does not necessarily imply the need for a big number of workers. At the same time, we should not conclude that the factory has few workers because of machines. For example, in the factory, there are some works that can be done by machines while others cannot.

Look through the windows you will see workers slashing grass on the factory yards. I do not think the factory do not have money to buy a tractor to cut grass. But I think it is one of the ways to cut cost in terms of buying fuel, which is now very expensive.

It is also a way of increasing income of the local people by employing them. Regarding their income, I do not think it is too high. For instance, if you look at the activities that continue in this factory, you will see that they do not need higher education. Most jobs require only skills to operate the respective machines.

For instance, cutting grass mostly requires manual skills. Nevertheless, in relation to management workers, their salaries must be attractive because most of them are those who possess at least first degrees.

Their work do not only requires manual skills but also education, knowledge, and specialized work skills. I would myself like to reach that level so that I can get a salary that will be enough to sustain my family. I hope you can see workers starting to get on the bus. When you see that then you should know that their time to go home has arrived. They always go home at 4:30 pm. The company bus takes them to Kitoro, where everyone looks for another means of transport to get where they want to go.

For instance, since we have come to the factory, I only see that man operating two machines at the same time. This means that even if there is a lot of work, availability of machines simplifies work and reduce the number of workers. And this is not only in this factory but also in other places within and outside the country.
samaki. Naamini macho yetu yameona mambo mbalimbali hapa kwanjani. Turudi kwenyewe basi letu ili twende kwenyewe sehemu ya mwisho ya matembezi yetu ya leo ambayo ni Nakiwogo landing site.

4.2.4.2. Ziara katika Bandari ya Nakiwogo


Inasemekena miaka ya zamani kwenyewe visiwa hivi kubakaliwa na Mbung’o wengi ambo waliwashabuliza na kuwa watu wengi kiasi cha kwanjani visiwa inaunganishia ulifika muda wakati idadi ya nyani kwenyewe visiwa hivi ilizidi idadi ya watu waliwashabuliwa kwenyewe visiwa. Kama namna moja ya kuwakumbuka waahidihi hao visiwa vilianza kwa kisiwa cha Bugala.


*Mhoma*: Mhoma, nadhani kaka Sajile aliyesemekana kuwa bandari ndogo hakamaa mihangana ndogo kwa urefu au upanda wake kutoka nchi kavu. Nadhani alimamishia kwamba kulingana na bandari tulizonazo ncini mwenu au nje ya nchi, hii bandari ni ndogo kwa maana ya at the factory. Let us return to our bus so that we can go to the last destination of our tour for today, which is Nakiwogo Landing Site.

4.2.4.2. At Nakiwogo landing site

*Sajile*: This is the place known as Nakiwogo Landing Site. It is a small marine dock. Different from other small docks, this port is used by only one boat called M.V Kalangala. It is so called because it carries passengers from here where we are to Lutoboka, a small port located in Kalangala district. I hope you still recall our teacher Ndawula, taught us that Kalangala is the headquarters of Kalangala district, which includes several villages of the Bugala island.

Furthermore, teacher Ndawula said Bugala is the largest island among more than eighty islands forming the Ssese islands in Lake Victoria in Ugandan side. Our neighbour told us the name Ssese originates from an insect’s name that causes sleeping sickness (African trypanosomiasis). In Kiswahili, this insect is called ‘mbung’o’ but in English is called ‘tsetse fly’.

It is alleged that in the past, in these islands there were a lot of tsetse flies who bit and killed many people to the extent that it reached a point where a number of monkeys in the island were bigger than that of the human beings lived in the island. As one way of remembering those people killed by tsetse, the islands came to be known as Ssese.

*Mhoma*: Why do you say this port is small? It looks quite big in width and length from the lakeshore. Also, since I was born I haven’t heard about the disease that makes people sleep and eventually die. Where is the boat right now? How big is it? If it were here, would we be allowed to board and see its different sections inside it?

*Kaganda Mdogo*: Mhoma, I think brother Sajile when he said small port did not refer to its length and width from the lakeshore. I think he meant according to the number of ports we have within or outside our country, this port is
small in a sense that not more than one ship can park here compared to other ports with the capacity to park more than one hundred ships. Also, in other ports, in addition to ships, there are also boats of different sizes.

And when we take into consideration activities carried out here and those done in other ports, there is the huge and obvious difference. For instance, since we have arrived here I have not seen heavy tracks loading and unloading cargo in the port as it is done in other ports, where tracks go and leave the port from morning to night. Vivid examples are Dar es Salaam and Mombasa ports.

Regarding the question of your knowledge about sleeping sickness (African trypanosomiasis), that has something to do with history. If you read, for instance, social studies book for grade five, you will learn that this disease has been stamped out from the country.

But, in the past, the disease was prevalent throughout the African continent. However, I do not believe that it was extinct. No, I think it is still prevalent in some African countries which engage in large animal husbandry like goats, sheep, or cattle. This is because tsetse flies feed in sucking the blood of such animals which eventually they transmit these animals with a disease called nagana. Are we together, Mhoma?

Sajile: Thank you Kaganda Mdogo for explaining it to your comrade. May be just to add to the issue of the ship, this ship must be on its way to the islands. The ship always begins its journey to the islands at 12:00 PM daily.

And it takes between two and a half or three hours to reach Lutoboka. The good thing for this ship is that it can carry a large amount of cargo, and big and small cars, something which cannot be done by other ships from other ferries or ports in the same islands.

For example, at the Bukakata or Lambu ferry, its boat cannot carry more than twenty cars. And if it does, then containers of cargo will not be ferried to the islands because space, where these containers would be placed, is occupied by the cars.
Ndiyo maana watu wengi wenye mizigo hupenda kuja hapa kupanda meli kwenda visiwani kuliko kwende kupanda pantoni ya Lambu ingawa bei yake ni nafuu kuliko ya kwenye meli.

*Kayobora*: Kwa kumsaidia kaka Sajile kujibu swali alilouliza Mhoma juu ya kuruhusiwa kwetu kupanda na kuanjaria Meli. Ndugu yangu Mhoma, sidhani kama inaruhusiwa kupanda Meli ya serikali ikiwaimetia nanga hapa ziwani. Ni kama mali ningine za serikali kama vile magari au pikipiki ukipikata yamegeshwa sehemu hairuhusiwi kuyapanda hadi upate kibali meli. Meli yameegeshwa na dhahabu ya kwenye meli. Kayobora: Just to help brother Sajile to answer the question asked by Mhoma regarding us to be permitted to board and see the ship, my comrade Mhoma, I do not think it is allowed to board the government ship while it has anchored here at the lake. Just like for other government properties, such as cars or motorcycles, when they are parked somewhere no one is allowed to board unless a special permission from the relevant person who in most cases happens to be a driver of such properties is given.

Labda tofauti iliyopo kati ya meli na magari mengine ni kwamba kabla meli haia ondoka, wakati wa abiria wanapanda ili kuanza safari yao abiria yeyote anaruhusiwa kuzunguka kwenye sehemu mbalimbali ya daraja ya kwanza ya kuzunguka kwenye meli, hadi upate kibali meli. Meli yameegeshwa na dhahabu ya kwenye meli. Kayobora: Just to help brother Sajile to answer the question asked by Mhoma regarding us to be permitted to board and see the ship, my comrade Mhoma, I do not think it is allowed to board the government ship while it has anchored here at the lake. Just like for other government properties, such as cars or motorcycles, when they are parked somewhere no one is allowed to board unless a special permission from the relevant person who in most cases happens to be a driver of such properties is given.

Tofauti ya haya madaraja ni kiasi cha fedha abiria anacholipia nauli yake na pili starehe mbalimbali ya kwanza ya kwanza ya kwenye sehemu mbalimbali ya kwanza. Kayobora: Just to help brother Sajile to answer the question asked by Mhoma regarding us to be permitted to board and see the ship, my comrade Mhoma, I do not think it is allowed to board the government ship while it has anchored here at the lake. Just like for other government properties, such as cars or motorcycles, when they are parked somewhere no one is allowed to board unless a special permission from the relevant person who in most cases happens to be a driver of such properties is given.

Chakula au chai inayonyewa na abiria wa dalaja la kwanza ya kwenye sehemu mbalimbali ya kwanza ya kwenye sehemu mbalimbali ya kwanza. Kayobora: Just to help brother Sajile to answer the question asked by Mhoma regarding us to be permitted to board and see the ship, my comrade Mhoma, I do not think it is allowed to board the government ship while it has anchored here at the lake. Just like for other government properties, such as cars or motorcycles, when they are parked somewhere no one is allowed to board unless a special permission from the relevant person who in most cases happens to be a driver of such properties is given.

Nakumbuka Mwalimu alitueleza ya kwamba wasafiri wa daraja la tatu huambukizana magonjwa mbalimbali haswa yanayosambaza na hewa kutoka kwa mtu mmoja kwenda kwa mwingine. Nakumbuka Mwalimu alitueleza ya kwamba wasafiri wa daraja la tatu huambukizana magonjwa mbalimbali haswa yanayosambaza na hewa kutoka kwa mtu mmoja kwenda kwa mwingine. Na inasemekana hali ya hewa hubadilika mara kwa mara kutokana na majasho ya watu mbalimbali. Kayobora: Just to help brother Sajile to answer the question asked by Mhoma regarding us to be permitted to board and see the ship, my comrade Mhoma, I do not think it is allowed to board the government ship while it has anchored here at the lake. Just like for other government properties, such as cars or motorcycles, when they are parked somewhere no one is allowed to board unless a special permission from the relevant person who in most cases happens to be a driver of such properties is given.

That is why many people with cargo/loads prefer to come here to board the ship rather than going to board the Lambu ferry boat even if its fare is cheaper than that of the ship.
Isitoshe vyoo vyao sio visafi kama vyoo vya madaraja mengine kwasababu watumiaji hutumia kadri watakavyo wao bila kuzingatia usafi wa watumiaji wengine. Mama mdogo alitusimulia kuwa wao hupendelea kutumia kadri watakavyo wao bila kuzin gatia usafi wa watumiaji wengine. Mama mdogo alitusimulia kwa kama kwao kwa nafuu kuliko daraja la kwanza na halina msongamano mkubwa na abiria kama kwa daraja la tatu.


4.2.4.3. Mwanafunzi anaelezea shughuli za kiuchumi katika Visiwa vya Ssese

Kama nilivyogusia hapa awali kuwa mwalimu Ndawula alisema visiwa vya Ssese viko zaidi ya visiwa themanini. Lakini usafi wa watumiaji wengine wanaoishi basi ili turudii hotelini. Tukiwa kwenye visiwa vya Ssese, yote wanaoishi ni vichache ambavyo miongoni mwavyo ni Kisiwa cha Bugala ambacho pia dio kuna makao makuu ya wilaya ya Kalangala.


Kwa upande mwengine. Mwalimu Ndawula alisema kuwa baada ya mwaka 2006, zaidi ya kilimo cha mazao, chakula kwa kuvunjika, ya nyumbani wakulima wiswitu humo waliwa na wakulima wazi visiwa katika visiwa vya Ssese.

4.2.4.3. A learner explaining the economic activities in Ssese islands

Kama nilivyogusia hapa awali kuwa mwalimu Ndawula alisema visiwa vya Ssese viko zaidi ya visiwa themanini. Lakini usafi wa watumiaji wengine wanaoishi basi ili turudii hotelini. Tukiwa kwenye visiwa vya Ssese, yote wanaoishi ni vichache ambavyo miongoni mwavyo ni Kisiwa cha Bugala ambacho pia dio kuna makao makuu ya wilaya ya Kalangala.


Kwa upande mwengine. Mwalimu Ndawula alisema kuwa baada ya mwaka 2006, zaidi ya kilimo cha mazao, chakula kwa kuvunjika, ya nyumbani wakulima wiswitu humo waliwa na wakulima wazi visiwa katika visiwa vya Ssese.
hadi tano za shamba kwa ajili ya kilimo.

Kwa mujibu wa gazeti la The Independent la tarehe 22/11/2013, Meneja msimamizi wa maradi unaonunua mbegu za mawese kutoka kwa wakulima akiojiwa na mwa

According to The Independent newspaper of 22/11/2013, the manager of the project which buys palm from the farmers when he was being interviewed by the newspaper reporter said the project was overseen by the government. He continued to say that the main reason to start the palm agriculture on the island was the availability of land which was not in use. For that reason, the government signed an agreement to lease 6500 hectares of land on the island for cultivating plantations and small farms of palm. However, until now, investors who entered into the agreement with the government have managed to cultivate only 3860 hectares of land.

Meneja aliendelea kusema ya kuwa faida ya kilimo hi ni kuendeleza shughuli za kilimo visiwani ambazo zilikuwa duni hapo awali.

The manager continued by saying that the advantage of this kind of agriculture is to promote farming activities in the islands, which were poor before the project.

Pia ni kuwawezesha pia wananchi wa Kalangala kujiongezea kipato na nchi ya Uganda kuweza kuzuzumua kama mafuta ya kula, sabuni nakadhalika ili kuongeza pato la kigeni nchini.

Another advantage is to enable people of Kalangala to raise their income and to enable Uganda to produce commodities, such as cooking oil, soap, et cetera. in order to increase national foreign income.

I can see we have already arrived at the hotel. But in short, that is what I have prepared for you regarding Ssese islands. I request you to get out of the bus so that we can go to rest in our rooms until when we will meet again for supper.

4.3.1. Learners and their teacher have a discussion about presidential State Houses

Teacher Peta: How are you, learners?

Learners: We are a fine teacher, we respect you, teacher.

Teacher Peta: Today we were supposed to visit different places that we did not manage yesterday. Our schedule shows that we had to begin our tour by visiting the State House here in Entebbe. Then, visit few ministries based here, such as the Ministry of Agriculture and Ministry of Health. Then in the afternoon, we would complete our tour by visiting the airport and the United Nations offices, which are located adjacent to the airport. But as you all know, today is 3/6/2015, a national holiday in our country.
**Ndunamiwe:** Ni kweli mwalimu Peta. Leo ni sikuku ya mashahidi wa Uganda. Jana usiku niliongea na baba na mama na walinfahamisha kuwa leo wataenda Namugongo ili na wao waungane na waumini wengine kusheherekea sikuku hii.


**Msella:** La hasha! Sidhani kama Rais atakuwepo. Isitoshe mwaka majuzi tukiwa bado shule ya msingi tulitembelea Ikulu ya Kampala ila haikumaanisha kuwa tulimuona Rais. Japokuwa ni ofisi na makazi yake haimaanishi kuwa anakuwepo kila mara Ikulu. Kwa mfano, mwaka huo wakati sisi tunaingia Ikulu yeye ndo alikuwa anatoka kuelekea Uwanjawa ndege wa Entebbe akiwa safarini kuelekea kwenye mkutano wa Umoja wa Afrika nchini Ethiopia. Ila tulitembezwa maeneo mbalimbali za Ikulu na maofisa wengine wanaofanyakazi ndani ya Ikulu.

**Kombo:** Ndunamiwe, uliulizia kuhusu idadi za Ikulu zilizopo nchini mwetu. Sina uhakika sana ila nadhani nilishawahi kusoma kwenye kitabu fulani kwaikhu hapa awali Rais alikuwa na Ikulu mbili yani hii ya Entebbe na ile ya Kampala ujulikanayo na wengi. Hii ya Entebbe ndiyo kongwe zaifunzwa kwenye mwili la Rais. Watu hawawezi kwa wakoloni kuelekea kwenye Mwalimu Peta: Asanteni sana kwa mazungumzo mazuri kama hayo.
4.3.2. Learners and their teacher travelling to Entebbe International Airport

**Teacher Peta:** Today’s schedule will be as follows. We will leave here on our bus as usual. I have already spoken to two people. The first one is the Marketing Manager of the Airport and the other one is the Chief Spokesperson of the United Nations, Ugandan branch and they have said that even though today is a national holiday, their offices are open for 24 hours. So, today we will spend our day in these two places. Where would you like us to begin our tour? Because both places are waiting for us any time and they did not ask me for the time we would like to visit the respective place.

**Majolo:** Teacher, for me I would prefer to spend the day at the airport because it is very wide such that even if we are given two days we will not be able to go around it and finish.

**Sajile:** Aaaaaahha: My sister Majolo, do not make me laugh. When the teacher says we should visit the airport it does not mean we are going to measure its size or to know the number of workers at the airport. Instead, she implies to go and get information on various issues pertaining to the airport and its operations, as well as to visit a few important sections, in which visitors are allowed. I do not think even if we are allowed to visit all sections, we will be permitted to board a plane.

**Majolo:** Not at all! I did not mean that. I meant that because yesterday we visited many places in a short period of time, today we have more time but few places to visit. It is better we spend the whole day at the airport so we can know it better and even have our lunch there because there is no point for us to come back here at the hotel for lunch. Unless if we will be forced but for me, I would rather remain at the airport to see passengers coming and leaving our country.

**Teacher Peta:** Sajile, please lead your fellow students to the bus, you can continue with your discussion while inside the bus. The driver, please use the main road that goes to the airport.


Kokubanza: Eheeeeh! Ni kweli hata mimi sijawahi isikia hiyo ila ninajua daima barabara ni moja sema inakuwa na majina mawili yasiyo rasmi. Nilishawahi kumuuliza mjomba wangu ambaye pia ni mkandarasi wa barabara kuhusu hili suala. Yeye alisitiza ya kuwa endapo unatoka sehemu zote mbili. Ni barabara moja lakini inamajina matatu tofauti. Sijui kwanini hali kama hii hutokea?

Wanyama: What!! One road with three names? I have never heard something like that.

Kokubanza: Eheeeeh! It is true, even myself have never heard such a thing. I always know a road is the same but has two informal names. I had once asked my uncle, who is a road constructor about this issue. He told me that during road construction, each road is given one name only. But, road users tend to give those roads names they prefer based on reasons they know.

In order to make me understand, he used the road that we used when coming to Kampala from Masaka as an example. He said that road has one name only, which is Masaka Road. But the users of the road decided to add other names, which are more popular than the previous one. He insisted that if you are moving from one place to another, you will call the road by the name of the place where the road will take or direct you.

For instance, he told me that if you are travelling from Masaka to Kampala, and another person is moving from Kampala to Masaka using the same road, these two people will call the same road by different names. The one travelling from Masaka to Kampala will call this road Kampala Road, while the one travelling from Kampala to Masaka will call this road Masaka Road simply because it leads them to Masaka.

Sajile: Ooooooh. Kumbii! Kama mjomba wako alisema hiyo itakuwa ni sawa ila kama hayo majina ya barabara sio rasmi. Inakuwaje kwa mfano, Kalunga anayaona kwenye mtandao wakati mtandao unaandika mambo rasmi?

Kalunga: Ni kweli Sajile, nimeendelea kuchunguza na kubofya zaidi nikagundua ni kwanini kwa mfano hii barabara inamajina
zaidi ya moja. Sababu alizozitoa Kokubanza kwamba watu huzipa majina kutokana na pahali ambapo barabara husika humwongoza au humpeleka.

Hiyo sababu na yenyewe inajidhihirisha hapa kwenywe simu yangu, kwa mfano, hii barabara tunayoitimia sasa inaitwa airport road kwasababu inatupeleka Uwanja wa ndege lakini vilevile inaitwa Kampala road watarumihi wake hadi Kampala. Ila nimegundia kuwa jina rasmi la hii barabara halijulikani na wengi kama alivyosema mjomba wake Kokubanza kuwa barabara ya Masaka-Kampala au Kampala-Masaka jina lake rasmi ni Kabaka Road, na hii pia jina lake rasmi ni Portal road ambalo halijulikani pia.

That reason is demonstrated here on my phone. For instance, this road we are travelling now is called Airport Road because it takes us to the airport but at the same time it is called Kampala Road because it ends or it takes its users to Kampala. But I have noticed that the official name of the road is not known to many people. This corresponds to the explanation given by Kokubanza’s uncle that while the road is commonly known as Masaka-Kampala or Kampala-Masaka, its official name is Kabaka Road. Likewise, while the official name for the road we are travelling now is Portal Road, this name is not known to many.


Kome: Then, I am with you, Kalunga. I have found myself reading this Wikipedia website so that I learn more about the official name of the Portal Road. It is true that the official name of this road is Portal. The website shows that the name, Portal has its origin from the British diplomat named Sir. Gerald Portal.


Portal is the person who raised the British flag known as Union Jack to signal the fall of Uganda under the British rule. Portal was born in Britain on 13/03/1858 and died on 25/01/1894 when he was thirty-six years old. The website further reports that to remember him, the town of Fort Portal was also named after him. I assume all of you will recall this town, whom Kirumira spoke about when she was presenting her proposal to visit Mount Rwenzori.

Mwalimu Peta: Sasa tumefika Uwanja wa ndege wakimataifa wa Entebbe. Naombeni mshuke kwenywe basi na msimae kwenywe makundi wawili ili tuanze kufanya kilichotuleta.

Mwalimu Peta: Bahati nzuri mwejeji wetu huyu hapa ameshafaka kutukaribishwa hapa uwanjani. Je! Niwangapi nnakumbuka mwenyeji wetu?

Mwalimu Peta: Sasa tumefika Uwanja wa ndege wakimataifa wa Entebbe. Naombeni mshuke kwenywe basi na msimae kwenywe makundi wawili ili tuanze kufanya kilichotuleta.

Teacher Peta: Now we have arrived at the Entebbe International Airport. Would you please get out of the bus and split into two groups so that we begin what has brought us here.

4.3.2.1. Learners and their teacher are welcomed at the Airport

Teacher Peta: Luckily our host has already come to welcome us here at the airport. How many still do remember our host?
Wanafunzi: Mimiii, mimii, mimii....ehheeee.

Mwalimu Etonuuuuu. Shikamoo Mwalimu.

Mwalimu Etonu: Marahabaa wanafunzi, mambo vipi?

Wanafunzi: Poa mwalimu.

Mwalimu Etonu: Ahahahahahahaha oohhhhhooo.


For those who remember and do not remember me, I am a teacher Etonu. Before I got a job here at the airport, I was teaching Kiswahili at your school. Apart from teaching Kiswahili, I was also a sports teacher, especially football. I worked at your school for almost ten years before being employed here. It is last year when I started working here and tomorrow will be one year since I started working here at the airport. My main job here at the airport is to tell the public on behalf of the airport authority about all aspects that concern the airport.

It is not an easy job but as time goes, I become more competent on the job, not like before when I was becoming tired if we receive different assignments or groups of tourists in need of various information about the airport. My important job is to take around the airport tourists and other visitors from different countries inside and outside East Africa, especially those that speak Kiswahili as the language of wider communication and as ethnic language.

The main qualification that enabled me to win the interview last year and eventually get the job was my proficiency in Kiswahili. During the interview, many interviewees had good Kiswahili proficiency but not all had competence in writing, reading, listening, and speaking at the highest level as me. That is why when I received a letter from the head teacher of your school about your visit to the airport, I did not hesitate even for a single minute. I

Sio kazi rahisi ila kadri muda unayokwenda ninapata umahiri wa kazi hii, sio kama kipindi cha nyuma ambapo nilikuwa nchoka endapo napata kazi au makundi mbalimbali ya watalii yanayotaka kujua habari mbalimbali zinazohusiana na uwanja huu. Kazi yangu muhimi ni kuwazunguzusha haswa watalii na wagoni kutoka nchi mbalimbali nje na ndani ya Afrika Mashariki hasa zile zinazotumia Kiswahili kama lugha ya mawasiliano mapana na madogo.

The main qualification that enabled me to win the interview last year and eventually get the job was my proficiency in Kiswahili. During the interview, many interviewees had good Kiswahili proficiency but not all had competence in writing, reading, listening, and speaking at the highest level as me. That is why when I received a letter from the head teacher of your school about your visit to the airport, I did not hesitate even for a single minute. I

**Mwalimu Peta:** Mmmmmm!! Mwalimu tunakushukuru kwa hayo maneno yako machache, wanafunzi nadhani wote tunamuelewa mhusika wetu. Sikutaka kumtaja jina lake kabla ya kufika hapa uwanjani iwe ‘surprise’ kwenye kama msimavyo wenyeewe siku hizi. Mwalimu Etonu tunashukuru kwa kutukaribisha nadhani sasa tunaweza kuanza matembezi yetu. Kwasababu tupo wengi tumemuelewa tujigawa kwenye makundi mawili, mimi nitaongezana kundi hili na wewe utaongezana kundi la lile. Au unaonaje mwalimu?

**Teacher Peta:** Mmmmmm! Teacher, we thank you so much for a few words. I think all the learners have understood our host. I did not want to mention his name before we came here to the airport so that it becomes a surprise to you, as you say it nowadays. Teacher Etonu, we thank you for welcoming us and I think we now begin our tour. Because we are many, we have decided to split ourselves into two groups. I will lead this group and you will lead that group. Or do you have other ideas?

**Mwalimu Etonu:** Mwalimu mwenzangu hata usipate shida, daima naongoza makundi ya wageni haswa wanafunzi wa shule za msingi ambayo ni makuba mara tatu ya hili. Nyie ni wachache sana na isitoshe tunaweza kutumia dakika therathinii kumaliza ziara yetu. Wageni wengine hulujua kwa kutokana na wingi wao pamoja na maswali ambayo yanaulizwa. Naamini nikiwa na hawa kwasababu ni wachache maswali yataayo ulizwa hayatojirudia.

Ili matembezi yetu yawe ya amani, sharti tufuate masharti ya hapa uwanjani. Kiwanja kina masharti mengi na nikisema niwaseomee yote mwanawezu mkakata tamaa na kumuomba mwalimu awarudishie hotelini. Ila kubwa ya yote ni kutopiga makelele au kutupatupa takataka hovo.

**Teacher Etonu:** My fellow teacher, don’t be bothered. I always guide groups of visitors, especially primary school pupils that are as big as three times as this. You are very few and after all, we can use thirty minutes to finish our tour. Some other visitors can spend up to six hours to complete the tour because of their big numbers and type of questions they ask. I believe with these learners because they are few, questions that will be asked will not be repeated.

Jambo jingine ambalo linaweza lisewe la muhimu kwa sasa ila likutusaidia hapa baadaye endapo mmoja weto amepotea au kitu cha mtu kama vile begi, simu, saa nakadhalika vimepotea, ni kunukuu namba zifuatavo. Naomba kila mmoja weto akiwizia kalamu na karatasi ili andike namba zifuatavo.

**For our visit to be peaceful, we are obliged to follow the rules of this airport. The airport has many rules and if I were to read to you all of them you might be discouraged and ask your teacher to take you back to the hotel. But the most important is keeping silence and maintaining cleanliness.**

Namba zipo nyingi na zenyewe ila hizi tatu ni muhimu sana kwenu wanafunzi. Namba ya Kwanza ni ya Kitu cha Maelezo (+256414353000). Namba ya pili ni ya Kitu cha Polisi (+256414321901) na namba ya tatu ni namba ya Uwanja wa Ndeje ambayo na nyinye ni (+256414343000).

**Another thing which would not be important now but could be of helpful later in the events, such as of one of us or our belongings like backpacks, cell phones, and watches getting lost is to write down the following numbers. I would request everyone to take their pens and papers and write the following numbers.**

Likewise, the numbers are many but the following three are most important for you as learners. The first number is for the Information Centre (+256414353000). The second number is for Police Post (+256414321901), and the third number is for the Airport (+256414343000). If you do not see

Kwa ujumla, kama muonoyawanda ni wa ghorofa mbili, juu na chini. Hapa chini ni sehemu ya wanaowasilia na juu ni sehemu ya wanaotokana je ya nchi na kule nyuma ni sehemu ambako ndege zinapaki na kule pembezo au kushoto mwa uwanja ndipo ndege zinapofanyiwa murekebisho. Na kule mbili ya mkono wangu wa kulia ni barabara ya ndege yani kwa kimombo ni ‘running way’. Sasa tupande ngazi twende juu na tutashukia mkono wa kulia kurudi tena chini. Ukiwa unawasilia wengine kuuliza...mmm huo milio miaouzukiwa sasa ni milio wa injini inayozunguka mwa kutoka hapa moja kwa moja na nyingi kwa kufanya maandishi yake ya kujita cha ndege wa kushoto mwa uwanja wetu. Sasa tupande ngazi twende juu na tutashukia mkono wa kulia kurudi tena kuanza kuchungua majina ya ndege na basi tunakuja niliangalia kwenye laptop yangu juu ya mlio wa ndege. Wakati tupo tangu uwanja huu unaweza umuonezi wa injini. Isitoshe, uwanja wetu unauwezo unauwaoni wenzako, tafadhali toa taarifa...mmm, the one you hear is a sound of an aeroplane that has just landed and it is engine’s sound which awaits to cool down before being switched off and thereafter you will not hear it again.

### 4.3.2.2. Learners and their teacher touring the Airport

**Wanyama:** Teacher Etonu, you have spoken about the sound of an aeroplane. When we were on the bus on our way to here I looked into my laptop to study the names of aeroplanes and various companies that own them. I learned that even though our country has an airport, but it does not own a single aeroplane. In addition, our airport has a big capacity to land a variety of aeroplanes. For example, I saw the airport can land the aeroplanes of the sizes of Boeing 373, 777, and more than twenty other types. I learned that there are big aeroplanes that fly from here straight to countries like Britain, the United States, and Russia without stopping over in Dubai as many other aeroplanes do. Also, I was surprised to know that there are ordinary Ugandan citizens, just like your teacher, who own private jets, but Uganda as a nation does have one, very strange!

**Msella:** Brother Wanyama, what you are saying is true. Our airport is big and nice. I think when Israelis were building, they knew that the number of people travelling by aeroplanes would increase that is why they built while the back is where aeroplanes are maintained. And that far on my right-hand side is aeroplane running ways. Now, let us go upstairs and we will come down using the right-hand side. If you have questions, do not hesitate to ask...mmm, the one you hear is a sound of an aeroplane that has just landed and it is engine’s sound which awaits to cool down before being switched off and thereafter you will not hear it again.

instance, the internet shows that between 2007 and 2013, there has been an increase of twelve per cent in travellers. Furthermore, it is shown that in 2009 the number of travellers decreased due to world’s economic crisis or recession, which caused many people in the world to be unable to afford flight tickets from one country to another. Also, there were airlines that withdrew from entire aviation operations, something which undermined operations of the respective airlines.

**Kokubanza:** It is true Brother Msella and my young brother Wanyama. During the world economic crisis, I remember many commercial sectors, not only in the aviation industry but also in other areas like banking, industries, and in various companies, the situation was not right. Many workers were retrenched, companies faced liquidation and were eventually shut down.

Companies with many branches, some of them were closed down and the workers retrenched sometimes without even being paid their salaries, et cetera. But when we turn to the airport, I remember various television stations showed how aeroplanes were being parked here at the airport. There were three consecutive day flights without passengers.

One television station conducted a research and reported that regional airlines, such as Ethiopian Airline, Fastjet, Rwanda Air, South African Airways, Kenyan Airways na zile kutoka nje ya Afrika, kama vile, British Airways, Brussels Air, Emirates, Etihad, KLM, Turkish Air navyotaka hata yote na ndege yaliwala kwambwa hata daima ni British Airways ambayo daima bei zake huwa juu zilishuka lakini pia watu walishindwa kulipa hata baadaya kupunguzwa kwa bei ya tiketi.

There were times airlines merged and started sharing customers when departure time for the certain plane has approached but passengers are few. Through this approach, airlines showed cooperation in one way or another until when the economy had stabilized.
4.3.2.3. Wanafunzi, Mwalimu na mwenyeji wao wakiwa katika sehemu ya abiria wanaondoka

**Aimbora:** Hawa watakuwa wanaondoka kwasababu naona wanapima mabegi pamoja na vifurushi vingine kwenye umevito wa kubwa. Si unaona yule mhudumu anawasaidia kuweka alama kwenye mizigo yao ili isipotee wakati wanaoondoka. Mchakato mzuri, kwa sababu naona wanaombwa tiketi zao, pasipoti pamoja na kakanishwa hawawezi kwenye ndege husika. Sijui kwanini wanafanyiwa vile, angalia yule alivyopendeza jamani alafu anaambiwa avuwe urembo wake. Jamani!

**Sajile:** Ndugu yangu Nyambibo, bora leo ila kuna siku nimeona mwana mama anavuliwa kila kitu. Alikuwa kilala akipita kwenywe ile mashine ya ulizi inapiga king’ora. Watu wa usalama wakawa wanawabaha kuna kitu anacho mwili mwake. Ila mama akawa anabisha basi kilala alikuwa akipita kwenywe ile mashine na yenye uenapo king’ora baada ya dakika kama 45, ndiyo baadaye wakagundua kumbe kwenywe nywele zake kibilika na kibanio cha chuma. Na kibanio chenyewe kilikuwa kidogo sana na cheusi kana nywele zake ndiyo maana ili wakakumbuka kwa usalama. Na nasikia zaizidani ile mashine, kwa kule ndani ambapo haturuhusiwi kifika kama kuna zile tatu nyegine. Na ni

**Nyangumbo:** You who are staring at them, look over there where there are passengers who are stripped of from their caps to shoes. I do not know why they are treated like that. Look at that how she looks nice but she is told to remove her ornaments. Ooh my goodness! This is what people say travel so that you can see many things.
lazima kila abiria azipitie kwa ukaguzi. Kwa namna hii serikali inajaribu kupunguza ongezeko la biasha haramu kama vile mihadarati.


Na kwa hapa Uganda makampuni hayo yapo Kampala. Inamaana kama wewe ni mkazi wa Entebbe, ilikubidi uende Kampala kwenye shirika la ndege, umunue tiketi ndiyo uje moja kwa moja kupanda ndege la kuenzeka na safari yako. Hivi vyombo vya masaliano vilivyopo kama televisheni, kazi yake muhimu ni kuonesha ndege inayopakia, inayokaribia kuondoka na hata ndege zilizowasili au zinazokaribia kutuwa hapa uwanjani. Machine hizi nazo kipindi hicho havatisa kwa usalama, kwa kiasi kiafungwa na uwezo wa kuonesha ndege za chache sana sio kama ilivyosasa hivi kila sekunde kinabadilisha malelezo.

*Kombe:* Kama halu nдиyo ilivyokuwa, hata hapa tunapopita sasa hivi yani kwenye ‘duty free’ kwa kundinyo kama ildiyo uje moja kwa moja kupanda ndege na kuendeleza na safari yako. Hivi vyombo vya masaliano vilivyopo kama televisheni, kazi yake muhimu ni kuonesha ndege inayopakia, inayokaribia kuondoka na hata ndege zilizowasili au zinazokaribia kutuwa hapa uwanjani. Machine hizi nazo kipindi hicho havatisa kwa usalama, kwa kiasi kiafungwa na uwezo wa kuonesha ndege za chache sana sio kama ilivyosasa hivi kila sekunde kinabadilisha malelezo.

*Teacher Etonu:* Teacher Peta, I have been impressed with your learners’ conversation. There are issues they have discussed that had happened even before I started working here. But all are true and I think the internet has enabled them to know many issues in a short period of time. To extend your 2009 discussion, it is alleged that even these airline agents’ offices you see here were also closed. Many workers were retrenched. During that time, if someone wanted a flight ticket, you were supposed to purchase it either online or from the airline’s headquarters.

And for here in Uganda, those offices are located in Kampala. This means that if you are an Entebbe resident, you were forced to go to Kampala at the respective airline offices, purchase the ticket and return to the airport to catch your flight. The main functions of these information facilities you see here, such as television is to display flight information, such as planes that are loading, the ones that are about to depart, and even those which have arrived or are about to arrive at the airport. During the recession, even these machines had no much work to do because for the whole day, they displayed only a few flight information not like now when on each second new information is displayed.

*Kombe:* If the situation was so, I think even here where we are now passing, that is duty-free shops, the number of customers decreased as a result of a decrease in a number of travellers. Also, if airline agents had to reduce flight ticket prices, then even owners of these shops I think they also lowered the prices of their goods. But I do not think rent for the outlets dropped as well. I think that was the time when at least the government managed to get big income through tax even though taxpayers did not get income compared to what they paid.

But I believe if all owners of these shops were Chaga tribe of Tanzania, all would have demonstrated to the Executive Director of the airport to present their complaints. And if they wouldn’t listen, they would forward their complaints to the higher authorities so that they could listen. They would even go to the
president or they would wait for her here at the airport while he was going or come from overseas so that he can reduce tax. But, I can see the majority of these businessmen are Indians and whites I do not think they could march like Chaga should they be the owners of these duty-free shops.

4.3.2.4. Learners at the duty-free shops

Kalunga: Ndunamiwe, I like that dress, how much do you think will cost? Eheeeh, look at that sunglass and sun hat, they are beautiful. Umbrellas with colours of different countries, look at that dolly if I had enough money I would buy my cousins many things here. But let me buy my dad and mum these tourist t-shirts, especially these ones with Kiswahili words. Please help me choose one for my dad.

Ndunamiwe: Anna Kalunga, are you mentally ok? Myself I have been attracted to many things since we started our tour of this duty-free section. I have seen many things, which are very nice but as you know my dad is an entrepreneur. He always tells us that areas like these even if are called duty free, often things are more expensive than those outside the airport. For instance, look at those umbrellas with colours of different nations. Outside here, they are sold for 3000UKS but in here the same umbrella is sold for USD5. Don’t you see if you are outside here, the same USD5 can buy two umbrellas and still remain with change? Don’t be stupid, forget about those things. We have at least seen and be attracted to them but let us continue our tour. Our colleagues have reached far, we may lose them.

Kombe: Of course, not Nduna! I have been following your conversation for quite some time now. Those ones even if they continue their journey, just let them, we will find them downstairs waiting for us. Have heard you discussing prices of things here at the duty-free shops, and I am interested. Areas like these ones are not good for people like us to buy things. This is a special place for travellers. Because of limited time, travellers do not have the opportunity to go around towns they are from or going. Therefore, these shops are here to enable them to buy various things when are waiting for their flights and leave the country.
Mara nyingi bidhaa izuwazo hapa hazitozwi ushuru kama zilivyo bisha nyinge ambazo utawasili nazo kutoka nje ya nehi kama vile magari na vinigeyo ambayo ni lazima selikali inavitoza ushuru kadi viingiapo nchini. Vitu vya hapa vinazwa kwa dola za kimarekanji kwasababu ni pesa ambayo atawasili nazo kutoka nje ya nchi kama vile magari na vinginevyo ambavyo ni lazima selikali inavitokaa ushuru kama hela yetu mwasho wake wa kutumika ni humu humu nchini mwetu.

In addition, most visitors arrive when foreign exchange shops are closed so they are forced to use the dollar if they are attracted to certain things at any time. Also, prices in here are similar to those outside here at the airport but it is very rare that you may find prices here are higher than that outside airport because of let say transport costs that may arise for one reason or the other.

Ina ngekuwasi ili wapande na kuondoka au wakiwasi hapa nchini mwetu. Most often, goods sold here are not taxed like others which you come with them when arriving from overseas like cars and other things which the government must charge customs duties as they enter the country. Goods found in this place are sold in terms of US dollar because it is the currency used worldwide contrary to ours which can only be used inside the country.

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Nitamuuliza mwalimu Kilumba tukifika.

Kombe: Wewe Kalunga mbona tumevipita vyoo vingi tu ndugu yangu angalia kingine kile pale. Tatizo lako ni hampendi kujifunza zaidi ya darasani. Kwenye sehemu kama hizi za kimataifa kwasababu watu wanaotokana na kuingia nchini ni wamataifa mbalimbali, vile vile siyo wasafili wote wanajua kusoma Kiigereza, endapo kila lugha ya msafiri itatumika kuandikia matangazo hapa uwanjani basi uwanja mzima utachafuka na matangazo ya lugha kadhaa, kwa mantiki hiyo kuna shehemu nyiingi za uwanja ambazo hutumia alama za inasha ni ujina la kitu huu hapa kwa mfano, angalia ile alama, inamaanisha usivute sigara, ile ni ya choo cha kike, na ile ni ya choo cha kiume, ile inaoresha ngazi za kushuka chini, ile inaoresha mgahawa, ile za imia endapo utakupa kupiga simu, ile ni ya chumba cha maelezo, ile ni inasha iria eskaleta au ngazi ya umeme, ile ni ya hatari endapo hatari imetokea tukiwa hapa, sote inatupasa kufuata alama ile inakoelekea, na hii pemberi yetu inaoyesha kuwa sana kufuata ile pale. Inamaanisa endapo Nairobi barabara zao zinaelekezo kama hivi, hata kwenye miji mikubwa kama hizi tu tofauti sio kubwa sana na nikienda hospitali kwa mama alama zilizopo mimi mwenyewe nilikuwa sizijui ila daima wasiojua maana ya alama kama hizi. Hapa ili kuweza pia kuwasaidia wasafiri Kiswahili. Ndiyo maana mila hili lugha rasmi ya nchi yetu yaani, Kiingereza na tofauti wasiojua lugha asilia za nchi yetu so as to direct people of different nationalities and who do not understand the meaning of these signs.

Mimi mwenyewe nilikuwa sizijui ila daima nikienda hospitali kwa mama alama zilizopo kule ni kama hizi tu tofauti sio kuwapa sana na hata kwenye miji mikubwa kama miji wa Nairobi barabara zao zinakielezeo kama hivi. Ehee, ona ile pale. Inamaanisha endapo umepeletewa na mzigizo, kifurushi au kitu chako chochote unaelekea upande ule ndiko kuna ofisi maalumu ambazo zinashughulikia where it is. I will ask Teacher Etonu when we reach there.

Kombe: Kalunga, but we have just passed many toilets, and the other one is over there. Your problem is you do not want to learn beyond the classroom. In international areas like these ones, since people who arrive and depart are of different nationalities, and since not all travellers can read in English, then if languages of each traveller had to be used on issuing information and notices here at the airport, then the whole airport would be overcrowded with signboards. Therefore, to avoid that signs and symbols are used in most parts of the airport to convey specific information and messages. For instance, look at that sign, it means ‘do not spit’, that one signals ‘female toilet’, the other one implies ‘male toilet’, that one over there signals ‘downstairs’, the other one shows ‘restaurant’, that one signals ‘telephone’, that one is for ‘information centre’, that one is for ‘escalator’, the other one is for ‘danger’ if something dangerous happens, all of us must follow the direction of the sign, this one besides us shows the floor is wet so we must walk carefully, cleaners are cleaning, and that over there indicates that if you are not attendant of this area, you are not allowed to enter that door. That small sign shows it is a special place for resting if you are tired, that sign of glass of spilling beer signals a bar, and a sign of knife and a folk signals restaurant or hotel. You can see those people standing, I think it is eating time. That sign shows elevators/lifts, and that one shows gate number one that is used to board planes. That big sign and ‘H’ letter stand for the dispensary/hospital. These are some of the signs found on this floor, but the whole airport must have more signs so as to direct people of different nationalities who do not understand our native languages and official languages of our nation, which are English and Kiswahili. This is why Teacher Etonu is here so that he can help travellers, who do not understand the meaning of these signs.
masuala hayo kama vile ‘DAS Handling’ pamoja na ‘Entebbe Handling Services’ ambayo kifupi chake kile ENHAS.

Sajile: Jamani tumewasubiri hadi tumehochoka, naona wengi milivutiwa zaidi na bidhaa za kwenyewe duty free. Nimewaona wengine wameshuka ghorofa la chini ili waweze kubadilisha hela na wao waende kununua vichache kwenyewe haya maduka. Ila kwa upande wangu ningependa tule kwanza alafu ndo tununue kila mtu anachokitaka na baada ya hapo tushuke chini ili waweze kubadilisha hela na waende kununua vichache kwenyewe haya maduka. Ila kwa upande wangu ningependa tule kwanza alafu ndo tununue kila mtu anachokitaka na baada ya hapo tushuke chini ili waweze kubadilisha hela na waende kununua vichache kwenyewe haya maduka. Ila kwa upande wangu ningependa tule kwanza alafu ndo tununue kila mtu anachokitaka na baada ya hapo tushuke chini ili waweze kubadilisha hela na waende kununua vichache kwenyewe haya maduka.

4.3.2.5. **Wanafunzi wanajadiliana kuhusu kununua fedha za kigeni**

Sajile: Nanyie basi kama mnataka nendeni mkabadilishes pesa ili tuweza kuzungumzia suala la chakula. Naona wengi wameenda kubadilishia chini pesa zao. Nyie mneenda pale Norfrax Forex Bureau naona hakuna wateja kiongozi la tuweze kuokoa muda. Na ngewahi Norfrax kwasababu ipo sehemu ya kuondokea inamaana abiria wakiitwa wale ambao wanaondoka na wanahitaji pesa za kigeni watafurika muda wowote. Nkya: Hapana Sajile, Norfrax’s exchange rates are very low. If we change there, they will underpay us and we will end up getting a loss by getting less foreign currencies, which will not enable us, for example, to eat lunch and buy gifts in these shops. It is better for us also to go Jetset Forex Bureau. Internet shows that this bureau has better exchange rates than Norfrax.

Nkya: No Sajile, Norfrax’s exchange rates are very low. If we change there, they will underpay us and we will end up getting a loss by getting less foreign currencies, which will not enable us, for example, to eat lunch and buy gifts in these shops. It is better for us also to go Jetset Forex Bureau. Internet shows that this bureau has better exchange rates than Norfrax.

4.3.2.5. **Learners have a discussion about buying foreign currency**

Sajile: So, if you also want, just go to change your money so that we can discuss the issue of lunch. I can see most people have gone downstairs to change their money. You can go to Norfrax Forex Bureau because I can see there are not many customers. That can help us save the time. You need to be quick at the Norfrax because it is located in the Departures Section, where if passengers are called to board the plane, those who need foreign currencies can flock there anytime.

Nkya: No Sajile, Norfrax’s exchange rates are very low. If we change there, they will underpay us and we will end up getting a loss by getting less foreign currencies, which will not enable us, for example, to eat lunch and buy gifts in these shops. It is better for us also to go Jetset Forex Bureau. Internet shows that this bureau has better exchange rates than Norfrax.

In addition, Jetset has more than seven workers who serve customers fast knowing that most of them are already tired of long flights.

Kwasababu Jetset ipo kwenyewe ghorofa ya wanoafwasi, inaonyeshia hapa kuwa mbali na kubalisha pesa, pia Jetset wanatoa huduma za kutumia na kupokea pesa dunia nzima kwa muda wa saa 24. Jetset wanatoa huduma za Western Union, MoneyGram pamoja na Xpress Money Transfer. Eheee! Angalia, Jetset pia wanatuma na kupokea pesa kwa simu yako. Huduma zao za simu ni kwenyewe mitandao kama Mtn, Airtel, Warid na Mango Pesa. Ina maana endapo unawasilili na huna pesa za kutoshaka kukodi tekisi, unaweza ukaifamishwa Since Jetset is on the departures floor, it shows here that in addition to foreign exchange, they also deal with international money transfers 24 hours a day. They offer Western Union, MoneyGram and Xpress Money Transfer services. Eheee! Look, Jetset also enables you to send and receive money using your mobile phone. Their mobile money services are through MTN, Airtel, Warid and Mango Pesa. This means that if you have arrived and you do not have enough money to hire a taxi cab, you can inform your colleague, who can send you


Kiggundu: You have said it true comrade because even when I look at the signs described by this Ugandan Chaga, I can see that if we go downstairs we will still find banks. I think we can enter one bank and be able to see how banks in here operate compared to those we are used to at our places. I believe banks in this place provide deposit and withdraw services for more of foreign currencies than our local shilling.

Silagomi: Not really my brother Kiggundu! Myself I have just come from downstairs. It is true that sign shows at downstairs there are banks, but when you get there it is not that you will find banks, no; some are banks and others are automated teller machines (ATMs) of various banks. For example, when I was downstairs I saw banks like Barclays and Stanbic. These banks are just like other normal banks but their advantage is that they have ATMs. Also, there are banks, such as Ecobank and Orient which do not have ATMs. And the last one is Crane Bank which has ATMs only. But it would be better if you go downstairs to Jetset because their services are fast and when they are serving they also give sweets or biscuits and drinks, such as soda, juice, or water.

4.3.2.6. Wanafunzi wanajadiliana kuhusu migahawa inayofaa

But a restaurant section of Voyager closes at 9:30 PM but bar section remains open for 24 hours daily. He also added that if we choose to go to Karibu Lounge, we must also know that it is more expensive than other restaurants because Karibu Lounge customers are those travelling on business class. I have also heard him saying that apart from high cost, the services are many and good compared to other restaurants.

The services he has mentioned are resting for two to three hours is 15 USD, there are air conditioners, smoking and drinking area, conference hall, various newspapers are offered, telephone, Wi-Fi, internet connection, fax services, bathrooms, and special bathrooms for disabled. Teacher Etonu advised Teacher Peta we should not attempt to go to the other one because it sells fast foods which are harmful to our bodies. It is alleged it even was closed down for two months last year because of health concerns.

Entebbe Municipality Council suspended their services pending improvements on their service provision. He said, if our pockets were well loaded, he would advise having our lunch at the Voyager Restaurant. When you are at this restaurant, you can see everything going on at the airport, because it is on the upper floor and its walls are glass. You can even see Lake Victoria from behind the restaurant. Even on food, the restaurant tries to prepare African cuisines, such as Nigerian, Egyptian, Senegalese, Mozambican, and South African.

Kayobora: If that is the case, then I think we must go to that restaurant so that we eat local foods. We should not fake we know too much and start ordering foods we do not know. We may end up at that ‘H’ sign, meaning at the dispensary. The reason being our intestines would not recognise the foods put in our stomachs. Sajile and Ndunamiwe, I think you still recall what happened last year when at school, the incident of greediness for rice and beef. Colleagues, I can see we are running short of time, let us look for that restaurant so we eat and continue with our other stuff.
Bahati nuri kila mtu anajua chakula anachotaka kutokana na uzito wa mfuko wake, ningeshauri sisi tulio hapa kwa sasa twende tukale na wale wengine wakimaliza kubadilisha hela watatukuta. Unaweza kusikia wengine wameshafika kweneyle ule mghawa wa kitajili bila kujua hata bei ya vyakula. Nitacheka sana wakiletewa bili ambayo hawajawahi kuiona maishani mwaao...ahahahahahaha. Leo nataka nikifika tu hoteliini nioge nipumzike kidogo ili niweze kuanagia game la Arsenal na vibonde wetu.


**Aimbora:** Ahahahahah, khaa! You Kayobora have strange words nowadays. We are on tour, let us enjoy life, after all, life is too short. Allooooooohh!! And it is true you have spoken about today’s game, what time does the game take place and they play against which team? I didn’t know you are an Arsenal fan like me. I was taught about football by my boyfriend Baraka. Since we were in primary school, he liked me to accompany him to watch soccer in different halls showing soccer games. But he himself can’t play soccer. After we broke up, I continued supporting his team, Arsenal until today. But if you ask me to name our squad players, I can’t name a single one apart from the team coach, Arsene Wenger. And I think I know him only because he has been coaching the team for a long time.


**Kokubanza:** Then, you are just like me. But for me, it wasn’t soccer, it was riding a bicycle. I think you know that I got this scar on my thigh when he was teaching me how to ride a bicycle. I thank God until today when I go to my village I fetch water using my grandfather’s bicycle. Men, when they are in love, they can do whatever it takes to satisfy you but when love fades you won’t g

**Kemilembe:** Stori gani tena hio wenzetu. Naona mmevimiwa maakuli ya Uwanja wa ndege hadi mmeanza tena kuwakumbuka wapenzi wa miaka nenda rudi. Ahaaaaa, kazi ipo mwaka

**Kemilembe:** What kind of stories are they colleagues? I can see you have overeaten the airport meals to the extent you have started thinking about your old boyfriend. There is a
4.3.2.7. **Wanafunzi na mwenyewe wao wanajadili kuhusu Ndege ya Rais**

**Mwalimu Etonu:** Naamini mmetembea na mmeweza na angalau asilimia 90 ya uwanja. Uwanja wenu ni pana kidogo ila kutokana na muda mwalimu amaniombwa tumalizie hapana kwa leo. Ila kabla hamiapanda basi ningepeenda twende kwa utulivu tuwingie kwenye ile geti namba 6 na tunyooshe moja kwa moja hapa kwenye ile ndege ya kijani yenye maandishi makubwa UPDF. Tukishafika chini kwenye ngazi zake tuweze kusababisha kupanda kwenye ile ndege ya kijani yenye maandishi makubwa UPDF. Tukishafika chini kwenye ngazi zake tuweze kusababisha kupanda kwenye ile ndege ya kijani yenye maandishi makubwa UPDF. Tukishafika.

**Hii UPDF ni ndege ya jeshi la Uganda. Kama mnayoyiana kwa ndani ina viti viwili tu vyarubani. Inamaana wanajeshi ambao ndiyo kama abiria husimama kwanzisha mwanzo hapa. Mwachao wa safari wakiwa wamejishikilia kwenye kijani yenye maandishi makubwa UPDF. Tukishafika chini kwenye ngazi zake tuweze kusababisha kupanda kwenye ile ndege ya kijani yenye maandishi makubwa UPDF. Tukishafika chini kwenye ngazi zake tuweze kusababisha kupanda kwenye ile ndege ya kijani yenye maandishi makubwa UPDF. Tukishafika.

4.3.2.7. **Wanafunzi na mwenyewe**

**Teacher Etonu:** I believe you have visited and you have seen at least 90% of the airport. Our airport is a little bit wide but because of time, your teacher has asked me we stop here for today. But before you get into your bus, I would like we carefully enter gate number six and go straight to that green plane which has large script ‘UPDF’. When we reach down to the stairways, we must stop and wait for instructions. I trust everyone is already here. UPDF is a Ugandan military plane.

As you can see, inside there are two pilot seats only. This means that soldiers who are the passengers stand from beginning to the end of a journey while holding their hands on these hanging loops. In the estimate, this plane has a capacity to carry more than 80 soldiers with their luggage. But our aim is not to see this UPDF plane but to show you the plane parked beside this one.

This is a presidential jet. As for others, this plane has two pilots who sit here while here at the back is where passengers, who normally are president’s assistants sit. These assistants include cooks, doctors, secretaries, as well as his family members if he travels with them when he goes overseas. The difference between this plane and others, this one does not have seats arranged in lines. This plane has rooms which are demarcated with these walls of modern woods. Each assistant has his/her room which has all the important tools that enable them to fulfil their duties when the plane is on air. Each room has a lounge, dining room, study room, and resting room, et cetera. Only the president’s and family member’s rooms which have special places for smoking.
Ni chumba cha Rais na kile cha familia yake ambavyo vina sehemu maalimu za kuvutia sigara.

**Lembo:** Mwalimu Kama ndiyo hivyo, basi hii ndege inahistoria nedefu tangu ilipotaka kununuliwa. Nakumbuka vyombo vya habari viliandika sana juu ya hii ndege. Utata ulianzia bungeni wakuwa ti muhusika mkuu wa usafiri wa Rais alipokuwa anahojiwa na Kamati ya Bunge ya ununuzi wa hii ndege. Wabunge hawakutaka ndege inunuliwa kwasababu ghalama zake zingeweza kwa mfano kujenga shule mbili na zaathati tatu kwenywe kila wilaya. Vilevile wabunge hawakuwa hii ndege inunuliwa kwa bungeni wakuchukua ti muhusika mkuu wa usafiri wa Rais alipokuwa anahojiwa na Kamati ya Bunge, yule mama alisema ya kwamba eti ile iliuza ili waweze kununua hii ilikuwa inatumia mafuta mengi zaidi kuliko hii. Pia aliongezea kwamba hata gharama za utengenezaji za ile ndege ya zamani zilikuwa juu sana kuliko gharama za kutengeneza hii hapa.

**Kaganda Mkubwa:** Eheeeeh! Kweli kaka Lembo uumenikumbusha, kumbe ndege yenyewe ndo hii. Eheeeeh!!

**Ndunamiwe:** Kweli Lembo, nakumbuka sababu alizozitoa akiwa anahojiwa na Kamati ya Bunge, yule mama alisema ya kwamba eti ile iliuza ili waweze kununua hii ilikuwa inatumia mafuta mengi zaidi kuliko hii. Pia aliongezea kwamba hata gharama za utengenezaji za ile ndege ya zamani zilikuwa juu sana kuliko gharama za kutengeneza hii hapa.

**Msella:** Ila tukubali ile ya zamani ilikuwa imeshapitwa na nakati. Rais wetu anahitaji kwenda sawa na marahisi wengine. Nakumbuka wakati wa mikutano ya Marais, Marais kama vile wa Nigeria, Zimbabwe, Moroko, Misri, Afrika Kusini huwa wanakuja na ndege za zuri zanafanya juu sana kuliko gharama za kutengeneza hii kwa kiasi.

**Silagomi:** Msella unanolisema ni sawa ila tuangalia hasara ambazo serikali na nchi kwa kwa ujumla iliilijitumika kwa kununua ndege nyingine kabila ile ya zamani hijaraharibika au kushindwa kabisa kufanya kazi. Isitoshe Raisi sio kwamba huenda njega nchi kila siku. Unaweza ukakuta kwa mwaka anatumia sio zaaidi ya mara Shirini au na chini ya hapa.

**Mhoma:** Nyie bishaneni mkimaliza mnambie ila kwa kweli hii ndege ni nzuri na inavutia.

**Lembo:** Teacher, if that is the case, then this jet has a long history since it was bought. I remember media had reported a lot about the jet. Problems started in the parliament when a person responsible for president’s transport issues was questioned by the parliamentary committee which was inquiring about the procedures followed to purchase the jet. Members of Parliament did not want this jet purchased because its cost could build for instance two schools and three dispensaries in each district in the country. Also, they did not understand why the government wanted to sell previous presidential jet cheaper than the price paid to purchase it just to enable the government to buy the new jet, which has number N908GA52008 kutoka Marekani ijuilikanayo kama Gulf Stream V yenye uwezo wakuchukua abilia 18.

**Kaganda Mkubwa:** Eheeeeh! It is true Brother Lembo, you have reminded me. So, the jet is this one. Eheeeeh!

**Ndunamiwe:** It is true Lembo, I remember reasons he cited when he was being questioned by the Parliamentary Committee. The lady said the previous jet was sold because it was high fuel consumption compared to this one. He also added that even the maintenance cost of the previous jet was higher compared to the new one.

**Msella:** But we need to accept that the previous one was outdated. Our president needs to go concurrently with other presidents. I remember during presidents’ meetings, presidents, such as of Nigeria, Zimbabwe, Morocco, Egypt, South Africa fly in their very nice presidential jets than this one.

**Silagomi:** Msella, what you say is right but let us look at losses the government and nation incurred in its entirety by purchasing another plane before the previous one is broken or completely fail to operate. After all, it is not like the president goes overseas everyday. You may find that annually, he uses it not more than twenty times or even less than that.

**Mhoma:** You can argue the way you like and when you finish you will tell me but this jet is
Ningeuwa: Ningeuwa wewe Mhoma, ningeombwe niwe dereva wake wa kwenye gari analotumia kila siku kwasababu nasikia lile gari hallingii risasi. Isitoshe sijawahi kusikia ajari ila ndege za siku hizi kila kikicho kirimuendeshwa kwenye gari kariko kwenye ndege?

Kemilembe: Au mnaonaje sote kama tulivyovu hapa ndiyo baadaye baada ya kuhiitumitsa vyo vikuu sote tunapata kazi kwenye ofisi ya Rais wengine kama ndiyo hivyo mnakuwa kwenye kuzikwa kasi kwenye nyumba yake binafsi isiyo ya serikali. Itakuwa raha sana kwa siku hizi kila kukicha unasikia ndege imepotea ikiwa angani, mara rubani kaigonga ndege kwa makusudi. Unaonaje ukimuendesha kwenye gari kariko kwenye ndege?

Nantume: Sio hivyo Aimbora, nimemsikia mwalimu Etonu akimnong’oneza Kuwa wanaufunzi wako wana mawazo mazuri ambayo hayaendani na rika lao. Ila baada ya hapo Mwalimu Etonu alitumiwa ujumbe mafunzi wao mwenye simu yake kuwa anahitajika ofisini kune mtu anataka kuondoka. Ndiyo maana wakaza kuondoka na mwalimu huku wakijadiliana mambo yao wenyewe. Vile vile mwalimu Peta kamwambia Sajile atawambie kuwa muda wetu wa kuiangalia ndege ya Rais umeisha turudi kwenye basi ili tuendelee na safari yetu kama ilivyovu ratiba yetu ya leo.

Teacher Peta: Guys, I have been sent an SMS by our host at the United Nations offices that there is a power outage in their offices and all offices have been closed. He is apologizing and asks us to arrange another day so that we can take us to the offices. Is there anyone with an alternative opinion? Or what do you say?
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<th>Section</th>
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<td>4.3.3. Wanafunzi wanajadiliana kuhusu kambizi za wakimbizi</td>
<td><strong>Sajile:</strong> Kwa mara ya kwanza na mimi leo najisikia kuchoka. Sina hata hamu ya kwenda kwenyeye ofisi za Umoja wa Mataifa sidhani kama kuna jipya ambalo tutaliona zaidi ya magunia ya mahindi, maharage, sukari, chumvi, unga pamoja na mafuta ya kula ambavyo ni misaada ya wakimbizi kwenyeye kambizi zilizomo nchini kama vile Nakavale, Kyangwali nakadhaliika.</td>
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<td>4.3.3. Learners have a discussion about the refugee camps.</td>
<td><strong>Sajile:</strong> For the first time today, I also feel tired. I do not even have the desire to go to the United Nations’ offices. I do not think there is something new that we will see apart from bags of maize, beans, sugar, salt, flour, and cooking oil, which are aids for refugees at the camps found in the country like Nakavale and Kyangwali, et cetera.</td>
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<td>Kayobora: Hata mimi nimechoka. Natamani tukifika tunakoelekea nibaki kwenye basi nisinzie nyie mkatembee ili nikifika hotelini nyie mkiwa mmpemuzika mimi niende nikaangalie mpira. Leo tuna game ambalo nimekuwa nikilisubiria kwa hamu.</td>
<td><strong>Kayobora:</strong> Even myself I am tired. I wish when we arrive where we are going I would remain in the bus and have a nap while you would go around the place so that when we arrive at the hotel while you would be resting I could go to watch soccer. Today we have a game I have been waiting impatiently.</td>
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<td>Majolo: Huo ujumbe tosha kabisa mwalimu. Kwasababu naona kil a mtu humu anasinzia sasa sijui hata kama asingetuma ujumbe hawa wawezaje kutembea wakimbizi. Na isitosehe wakimbizi wameshaanza kupakejeli eti zaidi ya magunia ya vyakula vyaa misaada hakuna jipya wakimbizi waguna jipya wakimbizi. Wengine kama Kayobora yeye mmpemuzika mimi niende nikaangalie mpira. Leo tuna game ambalo nimekuwa nikilisubiria kwa hamu.</td>
<td><strong>Majolo:</strong> Teacher that is a complete message. Because I can see everyone in here is dosing now even if he shouldn’t have sent that message, I don’t know how they would be able to walk around while dosing. Besides, they had already started ridiculing the place that apart from sacks of food for refugees’ aids, there was nothing new they would see. Others like Kayobora had already said he would remain inside the bus so that the doses in order that he watches soccer match when we arrive at the hotel.</td>
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<td>Kaganda Mkubwa: People are a disaster! What made them think the United Nations Offices only deal with distributing food assistance to refugees only? Aren’t there any other services offered by such a big office?</td>
<td><strong>Kaganda Mkubwa:</strong> People are a disaster! What made them think the United Nations Offices only deal with distributing food assistance to refugees only? Aren’t there any other services offered by such a big office?</td>
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<td>Wanyama: Wanyama inaitwa Nakivale. Ni kambi ya wakimbizi na ni yazamani sana kama nadhani miaka ya 1958 hivi. Nakumbuka wakati bado tunaishii Isinjiro, babu na bibi wakimbizi wakisha yamebeba magunia ya vyakula kwa ajili ya ile kambi iliyoone mbele kidogo na mji wa Mbarara?</td>
<td><strong>Wanyama:</strong> Wanyama, that camp is called Nakivale. It is refugees’ camp and it is very old since I think 1958. I remember while still living in Isinjiro, my grandfather and grandmother they were going to teach refugees how to grow mushroom and how to make flip-flops. They were going every Thursday afternoon and return at night.</td>
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haswa ulimaji wa uyoga, upandaji miti, mahindi. Utengenezaji wa sabuni, mikate, tandambili, mkaa, pamoja na majiko ya kupikia huwasaidia wakimbizi kwa namna moja au nyingine kujiongea kipato.

Kemilembe: Wote mliochangia juu ya hii kambi ni sawa ila kuna kitu kimoja hakuna hata mmoja wenu ambaye amebekashwa. Nani anaweza akaotea ni kitu gani hicho?

Chipoli: Umeme

Kemilembe: Hapana, sio umeme.

Nantume: Nikiotea utanipa nini?

Kemilembe: Kesho nitakununulia zawadi yeyote utakayochagua.

Kiggundu: Mimi sitaki zawadi ila ngingependa kuwafanya kuwepunguza Kemilembe kuwa, Kambi ya Nakivale ni ya tano kwa ukubwa Afrika na ya nane dunia nzima. Inasemekana ukubwa wa Nakivale ni sawasawa na mji mkongwe uliojulikana kama Calcutta nchini India.


Teacher Peta: I can see we have arrived at the hotel, thank you, driver. Guys, go and have rest. Those who are going to watch a soccer match I wish you all the best. Don’t forget time for supper. Before I forget, tomorrow we will visit the Uganda Wildlife Education Centre, which was formerly known as the Entebbe Zoo. I think if I have other issues, we will discuss them at the dining table. Bye Bye!

4.4.1. Mwanafunzi anatoka maelekezo ya jinsi ya kufika Bustani ya Wanyama ya Entebbe

Mwalimu Peta: Hamjambo wanafunzini?

Wanafunzini: Hatujambo Mwalimu, shikamoo mwalimu.


Ndunamiwe: Si uende tu na wewe maneno mengi ya nini tena!! Eeeheeee.

Mzee Kakembo: Kijana njoo basi ili tuzane safari mapema kabla ya magari kwanza. Si unajua jana ilikuwa sikukuu hakukuwa na foleni ila leo ni siku na kazi foleni inaweza ikaanza na tukajikuta tunachelewa kufika tunakokwenda.


**Mwanafunzi:** Hhahaha… Nyambibooooo.

**Nyambibo:** Aaaaah… Nyie wehu eheeee!


4.4.2. Wanafunzi na mwalimu wao wanajadiliana kuhusu ununuzi wa vitu vya kupika

**Nkya:** Jamani mnakumbuka kuwa kwenye bustani za wanyama hawaruhusu vyakula kutoka nje. Na vilevile hawaruhusu kuwalisha wanyama. Endapo utakutwa unamilisha mnyama unachukuliwa hatua. Hii yote inatokana na kijana mmoja alimlisha nyani ndizi na nyani akiwemo na hatimaye kufa. Kwa maana hiyo, endapo tutashinda huku siku nzima, sharti turudi sokoni tuhepata chakula ambacho tutajipikia wenye baadaya kuwaona wanyama mida ya asubuhi.

**Lembo:** Kwani tunashinda huku leo? Kwanini tusirudi hotelini waata na muda wa chakula cha mchana na baada ya chakula kama kutakuwa na haja ya kurudi turudi tuendelee na kuitembelea bustani.

**Sajile:** Nkya hapo umenena. Kwa kweli nifikuwa nimeshahua kuwa hawaruhusu vyakula kutoka nje. Pili, kaka Lembo ukishaingia kwenye bustani huruhusiwa kutoka alafu ukaingia tena labda kama utalipa tena na itabidi upange foleni Mara mbili. Ila uzuri wa

**Learners:** Ahahah… Nyambibooooo!

**Nyambibo:** Aaaaahhha… You are crazy eenhee!

**Nyambibo:** Okay, I have understood Mr Kakembo. I think we should use the long one maybe we will see things we will not if we are to use those short ones. After we get outside the main entrance, let us head south of the hotel as if we are heading to Portal Road then drive for 36 meters until you reach the roundabout. Now turn left and follow this road for a distance of 350 meters. Go slowly because we will turn right just ahead of us and enter Apollo Square Road. From there go straight for 170 meters more. I can see we are approaching Hill Road. Very good! Now go for 350 meters more. The good thing about Lugard Road it starts as a straight and later it slowly bends as it turns right, a point where it changes the name to Johnson Road. Now, this is Johnson Road. Here we will go for 400 meters and we will see the zoo’s main entrance. It is that one over there on your right. I can see there are learners from different schools waiting to enter.

4.4.2. Learners and their teacher having a discussion about buying cooking items

**Nyka:** Guys, you should remember that at the zoo they don’t allow food from outside. In addition, they don’t allow to feed animals. If caught feeding animal, you will be punished. All this is because certain young man fed a monkey with a banana, the monkey subsequently fell sick and died. Therefore, if we are to spend the whole day here, we must go back to the market to buy food which we will cook for ourselves after we have seen the animals in the morning hours.

**Lembo:** But do we spend the whole day here today? Why shouldn’t we return to the hotel during lunch time and if there will be a need we come back here to continue seeing animals in the zoo?

**Sajile:** Nkya, you have said it well. In fact, I had forgotten that they don’t allow food from outside the zoo. In addition, brother Lembo, once you have entered the zoo, you are not allowed to exit and re-enter into it unless you pay again and stand in queue for the second
wasimamizi wa hapa, mkija na vyakula vyenu mnapewa sehemu ambayo ni mbali kigogo na wanyama na kuweza kupika. Ubaya wa kupikia hapa ni kwamba hawaruhusu kuni kwasababu ya moshi unaweza ukawaathiri wanyama.

**Majolo:** Basi kama ndiyo hivyv turudi hadi pale kwenywe mchepuko wa barabara ya Lugard nimeona kuna sehemu ambayo tunaweza kununua vyakula na tukaja kuvipikia hapa kama alivyosema Sajile.

**Kaganda Mkubwa:** Ila sasa kama wamesema hatuwezi kutumia kuni tutatumia nini? Hapa kwenywe bustani naona ni pori kubwa ambapo tunganweza kupata kuni kwa urahisi. Ila kama ndiyo hivyv basi twendeni sokini kama alivyosema Majolo.

**Ndunamiwe:** Tunarudi tena tulikotoka! Kwanini tusiorodheshe vitu vya kununua ila visizid vya pesa laki moja kwa kuweza kupika hapa alafu wakaenda wakavifuata ili sisi wengine tupange foleni inavyoongezeka.

**Kokubanza:** Shosti leo umeongea pointi ya ukweli. Makubwaa

**Wanafunzi:** Madogo yana nafuu!

**Mwalimu Peta:** Haya mje mpendekeza vitu vya kununua ila visizid vya pesa laki moja kwa kuweza kupika hapa mchere kama kilo, mchere kama kilo, viti vya kukalia, visu, mchere kama kilo, ndizi mbivu na mbichi, nyanya kama kilo, vitunguu kama kilo, chumvi kipaketi kimoja, binzali, viazi vitamu na viazi mvingo.

**Kalunga:** Teacher, I propose we buy a half bag of charcoal, cooking oil, kerosene, matchbox, about four pots, chairs, knives, about ten kilograms of rice, green and ripe bananas, about one kilogram of tomatoes, about one kilogram of onions, one small packet of salt, and sweet and Irish potatoes.

**Msella:** Kalunga ulimsikia mwalimu alivyosema. Kasema hela aliyopewa na mhasibu wa shule haitoshi. Tukiwa tunapendekeza tuzingatia suala la hela pia. Kwa mfano viti vya kukalia vya nini wakati tumekuja matembezini? Isitoshe hapa tupo porini tunaweza kukaa kwenye nyasi au kama unataka kaupedo unaweza ukakaa juu ya mti kama unaruhusiwa.
Nantume: Ni kweli. Hata kwenye upande wa mafuta ya kula tununue mafuta ya hapa nyumbani najua gharama zake zitakuwa za chini sio kama mafuta yatokayo nje ya nchi. Pili, suala la masufuria naona kama ni gharama pia. Wanyama: It’s true Nantume, you have said well. In addition, regarding pots, I think they are too much but because we are cooking three different types of food, we can buy them and after we finish using them we can take them to school so that they are used there rather than renting for less costly but leaving them behind afterwards. Regarding chairs, I also don’t agree with it. If someone will get tired, he/she can return to the bus and sit there. Fortunately, the bus is allowed to enter the gate.

Wanyama: Hata kwenye upande wa mafuta ya kula tununue mafuta ya hapa nyumbani najua gharama zake zitakuwa za chini sio kama mafuta yatokayo nje ya nchi. Pili, suala la masufuria naona kama ni gharama pia. Kwanini tusikodishe na baada ya kutumia tukawarudishia? Pia, kama tutatumia mkaa, Ka lunga hujataja jiko au majiko hatustahili kununua?

Wanyama: Kweli Nantume hapo umenena. Pia kwenye suala la masufuria naona kama nimengi ila kwasababu tunapika vyakula vyaaina tatu naona tunaweza tukyanunua ili tkulturaliza kuyapikia tunaweza tukarudi nayoshuleni ili yatumiwe shuleni kuliko kudishaima kwa gharama halafu yote tukayaacha. Suala la viti namimi sikubaliani nalo pia, kama kuna mtu atachoka kutembea anaweza akarudi kwenye gari na kufanya bahati nzuri gari linaruhusiwa kuingia baada.

Aimbora: Jamani ningependa niwe miongoni mwa watu watakoenda kununua vitu vya kupika.

Kayobora: Twende wote na mimi nataka nione kama nitapata jezi ya Arsenal kwa benzababu zile nilizoziona Uwanja wa Kitoro zilikiwa gharama sana. Angalau hapa tupo nje kidogo ya mji angalau naweza nikuwa na bei ya chini. Vilevile, jezi za kule zilikiwa nyekundu na nyeupe, mimi ningependa jezi mpya ambayo rangi yake ni nyeusi kama ile waliyovya juzi. Nyeupe zinafubaa haraka kutokana na sababi au majo yetu, ila endapo nitapata ngumu kuitambua kama imefubaa.

Aimbora: Guys, I would like to be among those who will go to buy things to be cooked.

Kayobora: Let’s go together, I want to see if I can get an Arsenal jersey because those I have seen at the airport and Kitoro were very expensive. Where we are, is a little bit outside town, I can at least be able to get a cheaper one. Also, the jerseys on that side were red and white colours, I would like new jerseys, which are black like the ones donned by those guys. White jerseys fade fast due to types of soaps or water used to wash but if I get a black jersey, it is difficult to notice if it is dull.

Chipoli: Basi kama wale wameenda sokoni sisi wengine twendeni tutapange foleni ili tuweze kuingia kabla wanyama hawajarudi kwenye maficho yao baada ya kuota kajua la asubuhi.

Chipoli: Then, if those ones have gone to the market, let’s go to stand on queue so that we can enter before animals return to their hideouts after morning sunrise.
Kaganda Mkubwa: Nimesoma kwenye intaneti na nimeona watalii wengi wanapendekeza tumpate mwavangali wa hapa hapa ili waweze kutuelekeza kwasababu wao wanauzofu na wayama wa hapa. Wengi wanasema wanyama wa hapa wanaahali nzuri kwasababu wanahudumiwa ipasavyo na hawa wa waangalizi pamaja na walezi wa wanyama wenye. Vilevile wanaonesha ya kwamba tukiwa na walezi wenyewe, wataweza kutufahimisha ni mnyama gani yuko wapi muda upi.

4.4.3. Wanaafunzi wanajadiliana kuhusu historia ya bustani ya wanyama

Sajile: Silagomi umeongea mambo ya muhumu. Ila kabla ya kumpata mhusika. Naona hapa mapokezi wameandika historia fupi ya hii bustani. Ingekuwa bora mmoja wengine wamechachea kwenye makazi ya binadamu kama vile mbwa, paka, ng’ombe, mbuzi, nguruwe, farasi, without seeing animals we want to see.

Kaganda Mkubwa: I have read on the internet and have seen many tourists recommending to get guides from inside the zoo who can direct us because they have experiences of the animals of the zoo. Many people say animals in this zoo are in good condition because they are very well taken care of by the zoo attendants and animal keepers. Also, they show that when we are accompanied by the zookeepers, they are able to tell us where and when certain animals are.

4.4.3. Learners have a discussion about the history of the zoo

Sajile: Silagomi has spoken about important issues. But before we get a guide, I can see here at the reception, there is a short history of the zoo. It would be better is one of us can read it so that even those standing far from this wall as well as those wearing glasses can hear.

Kiggundu: Naamini haya maneno makubwa wote mnawaweza kuyasa na kuyao na ila endapo tutakupa na kipofu kati yetu, basi maneno yameandikwa kama ifuatavyo; Uganda Wildlife Education Centre. Hili ni jina lilojulikana kama Entebbe zoo. Sasa hivi ni kitu cha elimu ya wanawake ambavyo ambayo iliyopiliwa na kutunza kama bustani kwa ng’ombe kama vile mafua, virusi vya Ukimwi nakadhalika.

Kiggundu: I believe those words written in large font all can see and read but if there is a blind person among us then the words have been written as follows. Uganda Wildlife Education Centre. This is a new name of this zoo, which formerly was known as Entebbe Zoo. Currently, it is the centre offering wildlife education, and it was established in 1994 as one of the ways to revive the zoo, which started to be dilapidated, rather than being cared as other zoos in the world. The centre was resuscitated for the following main reasons: (i) To show importance of preserving and conserving living organisms (ii) to save life of wild animals by enabling them live longer (iii) to offer animal health services (iv) to breed and conserve endangered wild animals (v) to conduct general wild animal research (vi) developing and disseminating animal studies to the public (vii) to offer conservation moral education to the youth.

Kemilembe: You have spoken about animal doctors then I remembered about science subject where it was said that animals are like human beings they are tested and receive vaccination against diseases like flu and HIV/AIDS.

Kemilembe: Umezungumzia juu ya kuwaganga wanyama nikakumbuka kwenye somo la sayansi kuwa na wanyama kama ni watu wanaopata chanzo na kipimwa pia dhidi ya magonjwa kama vile mafua, virusi vya Ukimwi nakadhalika.

Chiploli: Inamaana hata wanyama wanaoishi kwenye makazi ya binadamu kama vile mbwa, paka, ng’ombe, mbuzi, nguruwe, farasi,
Msella: I can hear this attendant telling foreigners to show their yellow fever vaccination cards so that he knows whether they have got important vaccinations that prevent from contracting the zoo’s animals with various diseases. I can see if they do not have cards he shows them where to go and drink medicines that kill viruses, which they might have brought with them from abroad.

Lembo: I see that is a special area for college and university students, who want to take practical training after they have finished studying wild animal theories and development of respective living organisms.

Mhoma: Even here on my tablet I see they show that inside the zoo there are accommodation services offered in cottages. But it is very expensive when considering the money, we have paid for the hotel. But they show that those who sleep here, maybe are those who might want to see semi-aquatic animals, such as hippopotamus. I hear this zoo’s hippo’s emerge from the water at nights and spend on land looking for food, which mainly is chickens. They further show that hippos like to play with pigs without hurting them. Every day around 12 AM hippos emerge from the water after people have switched off lights and slept because the hippos do not like light. It is said that sometimes when there are bright moonlight hippos also may not come out of the water. Always when they come out of the water, they remain on land for almost two or three hours before returning to the water again. Female hippos walk with their calves everywhere they go.

4.4.4. Learners planning on touring the zoo using a guide

Chipoli: If we have decided to be guided by the zookeepers we must go to that room to get instructions, such as how many guides are available now because I can see others are over there leaving with those groups. We have to know how many guides we would need and how much is paid per guide. We also need to know if we pay per hour or per the whole tour. We have to know if we are responsible for his food and drinks or not.

Silagomi: Sajile, network ya hapa sio nzuri labda ukasimame kwenye kile kichuguu karibu na geti. Si unaota jinsi tuluvyo bondeni.

Sajile: It is true my brother. However, his phone is not reachable, maybe he is somewhere where there is no network coverage. In order to save time, let us go as we are, instead of splitting ourselves into groups so I can guide you. But don’t ask me many questions because I won’t be able to answer.

4.4.4.1. A learner is guiding fellow learners around the zoo

Nkya: Sioni haja ya kukuuliza kwasababu kila mtu au mmea niuona unakipande ambacho kionaonesha jina la mtu, aina ya mbegu, ulipotele hadi kupandwa pahali ulipo, muda au miaka ya la mtu, umuhimu wa mtu kwa binadamu kama vile dawa nakadhalika. Sasa sijui kama na kwenye wanyama kuna vibao kama hivi.

Wanyama: Do you expect hippo to emerge from the water at night with a tag on its neck showing the year of birth or number of calves it has? I think on animals we might not get descriptions as these ones on the trees/plants.

Nantume: Nimeipenda ile miti ambayo ni muhimu kwa binadamu. Wakati tupo nje nilidhani hii sehemu ni pori tangu zamani kumbe miti mingi imepandwa na binadamu. Na mingi ni kwa ajili ya dawa za miti shamba ambazo nyingi zimetoweka kwenye makazi ya binadamu.

4.4.4.2. Wanafunzi na dereva wanaungana na wanafunzi wengine ndani ya bustani

Kemilembe: Wataka wamepata kilo miti endapo havaja kwa kusababu na wanununzi wengi bado wanafunyana kazi za majumbani mwa. Lakini mita na nje aliye ya dawa za miti shamba ambazo wamezimweza kwenye makazi ya binadamu.


4.4.4.2. Learners and the driver join others in the zoo


Sajile: Bora mmerudi tulikuwa hatujatembea kwenda mbali. Mnawezo mkajiunanganasi tukeendelea na matembezi ila wakati wa kurudi nitawaonesha sehemu ambazo tumeeza kwa.

Kiggundu: Hapo tulipo naona kina network nzuri kwanini usijaribu kumpiga huyo rafiki
yako ili akaja kuuongoza naamini tukiwa naye tutaweza kujifunza mengi zaidi, unaonaje?


*Majolo:* Guys, let’s continue so that we save time. Remember we have to prepare lunch. If you get, I think to ask him to guide us in our second round, which is after lunch. And it would be better if comes and have lunch with us.

*Sajile:* Guys, I advise now we go to see birds, trees on another side, and some of the animals so that when we return here in the afternoon we see animals which would remain. This bridge we are crossing underneath is crocodile pool. Always, there are two crocodiles, a male and a female but today I can see there is only female. You may find out that these animals which would remain have been sent out for mating female crocodiles in other reserves. The main food of the crocodile is goats and pigs. And they eat only one meal a day. This pool’s water enters and drifts out to enter a lake, where you see those pelicans. Pelicans are those birds you see over there with hanging bags of food under their necks.

4.4.4.3. **Wanafunzi wanajadiliana kuhusu aina mbalimbali za aina za ndege**


*Majolo:* Kalunga, angalia na wale Mbuga. Angaia shingo na miguu yao. Wana shingo ndege na shingo kwa ajili yake. Angalia pia friend so that he can come and guide us? I believe we will learn a lot when we are with him. How do you think about it?

*Majolo:* Kalunga, angalia na wale Mbuga. Angaia shingo na miguu yao. Wana shingo ndege na shingo kwa ajili yake. Angalia pia friend so that he can come and guide us? I believe we will learn a lot when we are with him. How do you think about it?

*Majolo:* Kalunga, angalia na wale Mbuga. Angaia shingo na miguu yao. Wana shingo ndege na shingo kwa ajili yake. Angalia pia friend so that he can come and guide us? I believe we will learn a lot when we are with him. How do you think about it?
vidole vyao, wanavidole viwili ambayo
vinawasaidia kukimbia kwa kasi. Upana wa
mabawa yao nasikia ndiyo unaowasaidia
kupata balansi ya upepo wakiwa wanakibia.

Silagomi: Usinambie miguu yao ni kama ya
flamingo? Kwasababu na wao flamingo
wanaminguu mirefu, shingo ndefu, midomo
mirefu sema naona wao flamingo wana kama
rangy ndu vile.

Kaganda Mkubwa: Hapana, wewe huoni kuwa
mwili wa Mbuni ni tofauti na mwili wa
Flamingo. Kwanza hata rangi zao, mwangalie
yule Mbuni, yeye ana rangi nyeupe na nyeusi
ila Flamingo ni mwekundu. Isnitoshe, ingawa
wanamiguu mirefu, wanatofautia kwenyeye
vidole. Naona vidole vya Flamingo ni kama
vya bata, vimenasana na ni zaidi ya viwili ila
Mbuni ana vidole viwili tu na vimeachiana
kama vya binadamu.

4.4.4.4. Learners and their teacher are
having a discussion about different animals

Kokubanza: Tobaahhhhh! Nyani ananifuata.

Mwalimu Peta: Wewe nini tena! Kwanini
unatutisha hivyo bwana? Yani unawaogopa
hata Nyani na muda wote tukipishana nao?

Sajile: Hata mimi kanishtua kweli. Hawa ni
marafiki wa binadamu ndiyo maana unawaona
wanatufuata. Wasingekuwa na urafiki
wangekuwa juu ya miti wamejificha ila
ukiwaona wanakuja hadi tulipo huwa
wanakuwa wameshawazoea watu. Isnitoshe,
hawa sio nyani, nyani ni wale tulioikutana nao
getini. Hawa ni Sokwe, eheeee, wale pale ni
Tumbiri sema wote ni jamii moja kama ya
Nyani ila kama nilivyosema hawawezi
kutudhuru. Wanyamwa wanaowezza kutudhuru
ni kwa mfano Simba, Mamba na wengineo
kama hao na ndiyo maana wanafungiwa.

Kemilembe: Kwani hao Simba wapi. Tungeenda huko
walipo twaone na wenyewe
ili twende tukafanye kazi ya upishi wenzangu.
Hawa Nyani tumesha wazoea.

Nyambibo: Kweli, naona kilie kibao
kinaonyesha sehenu amapafutawaona Chui.
Si unaona ile picha ya Chui kwenye kilie kibao.
**Kayobora:** Ni kweli picha hata mimi nimeiona ila chini ya picha kuna maneno madogo ambayo yanaonesha umbali uliyopo hadi kufika sehemu Chui walipo. Na nikilinganisha na picha ile pale ambayo yanaonesha Simba walipo, naona tungewa Simba kwanza alafu ndio twende kwenda kwanza. La sivyo huwa wamejificha ndani ya mapango yake kwa au kama tunarudi nyuma labda kama kutakuwa kuna njia inatuunganisha hadi Simba walipo.

**Kombe:** Ni kweli ila na kale hakikao pale nyumba kanaonesha kuwa fisi hayupo mbali na hapa hapana l牺牲 kwenye kinyozi za kuuza. Watakuwa wanaenda kunywa maji Ziwani. Mmmm! Wanalimwili likubwa, angalia ngozi jinsi ilivyokakamaa si ji wa wakinyeshewa na mvua ngozi inaikwaje.

**Kombe:** It’s true, I too have seen the picture but below it, there are small words which show a distance from here to a place where leopards are found. And when I compare that picture which shows where lions are found, I can see we could see lion first then go to see leopards because it seems as if we will be going back to see the leopards unless there is a way that connects to where lions are.


**Mhoma:** My goodness! Guys, look over there elephants are passing. Shame, look at their calves. They walk slowly, I don't know where they are going. They must be going to drink water at the lake. Mmmm! They have huge bodies, look how stiff their skin is, I don’t know how their skin looks like when they get wet with rainwater.

**Chipoli:** Kweli ndugu yangu wanangozi ngumu ndio maana wanasa ukitaka kuwa. Ni lazima ulenge matundu ya masiko yao la sivyo lisasi atudanda kwena ngozi. Si nia kama viboko, japo kuwa wanaishi kwena maji lakini nasikia ngozi yao ni ngumu mno. Lazima wakiba majini uwasubiri wakitoa kichwa juu wakati wa kupumua ndio ulenge maskio yao. Ila usipolenga matobo ya masiko huwezi kumua viboko.

**Chipoli:** It’s true my brother they have hard skin that is why it’s said if you want to kill them you must target their earholes, otherwise bullets will bounce on the skin. They are like hippos, who although they live in water, I hear their skin is so hard. If you want to kill them you must wait until when they raise their heads out of the water and then target their earholes. Otherwise, you’ll never kill them.


**Wanyama:** You have reminded me of hippo’s meat. There was a period grandpa told us once upon a time in their village there were hippos which were living in water but at nights they were coming to their settlements to look for food. Whenever they emerged from the water they were destroying the environment, eat crops and even livestock like chicken. He said there was the time they were fed up with these hippos and decided to report to a police post. For a whole week, police officers slept on pathways which these hippos were using to go to the villages. Throughout the week, hippos never showed up but when they did, grandpa said police officers managed to kill one. The other one which survived ran and returned to the water.
Msella: Naamini asubuhi yake watu walikusanyika ili kumuona huyo kiboko aliye kufa na kugombania nyama.

Wanyama: Asubuhi haikufikia ndugu yangu yale makelele ya risasi yaliyamsha kiji kizima na watu wakaanza kufuta milio ilipotokea ndipo wakakuta mapolisi wakamiliza kumuu yule kiboko. Watu walienda na shoka, mikuki, mapanga na visu vya aina mbalimbali ili kuweza kupata kitowo. Jambo la kushangaza ni kwamba babu vya aina walienda na shoka.


Sajile: La hasha! Sikubaliani la hilo wazo lako. Kama umeshawahi kusikia, watalii wengi wanaopende kuwaona vifaru mara nyingi huja Uganda kwasababu ni nchi pekee yenye vifaru weupe. Ina maana endepo wangekuwa wanatoka Ulaya wazungu wapingekuwa wanaweke hali Afrika kwasababu hiyo tu. Lakini wengi wao hueli kusikia kuwa wamekuka ili kuwaona vifaru weupe iimaanisha kuwa hawa ni wa kipekee, lakini wengi wao ni wa kipekee, lakini wengi wao ni wa kipekee, lakini wengi wao ni wa kipekee, lakini wengi wao ni wa kipekee.

Sajile: Of course not! I don’t agree with your idea. I think you have heard, the majority of tourists who want to see rhinos come to Uganda because it is the only country with white rhinos. This means if their origin was Europe, white men wouldn’t travel all the way to Africa only to see them. But most of them come just to see white rhinos because they are peculiar, but there are also common rhinos like those you see over there close to zebra. I can see even zebra are more used to the common rhinos than white rhinos, I can see white rhinos are isolated may be because of their colour. The white colour is rare to be seen. It’s alleged that hippo’s meat is red and if you eat you must get flu. All villagers who ate the meat suffered from flu.

Msella: I believe in the morning people gathered to see a dead hippo and scrambled for meat.

Wanyama: My brother, they didn’t wait for morning to come, the noise of bullets awakened the whole village and people started to follow where the noises were coming from when they arrived, they found police officers finishing to kill the hippo. People went there with axes, spears, pangs, and knives of different sorts so as to get meat. Interestingly, the grandfather said due to the stiffness of the meat, it was cooked for up to two days to be soft. It’s alleged that hippo’s meat is red and if you eat you must get flu. All villagers who ate the meat suffered from flu.

Ndunamiwe: You guys come this way to see how giraffe eat. They have long necks and they eat leaves of the top tree branches. Now I don’t know what they do when they finish the top tree branches. I think they also struggle when it comes to drinking water. I don’t know if water is put in buckets and then placed on top of trees. If it is work, then the job of taking care of giraffe isn’t an easy one. Look at their legs. I don’t know if zookeepers know when these animals fall sick, do they sleep while standing or otherwise, because how do they manage to stand up when they lay down, I think it is easy for them to lose balance.

Nantume: Next to the giraffe I can see rhinos resting. I always know that the colour of rhinos is like other animals. These ones have surprised me for being white. Their origin would be Europe. Or what do you think?
Lembo: Naona mmewashangaa sana wanyama mmesahau kwuwa hili banda upande wa kulia ni banda la nyoka. Namchungulia ndani kwa mbaali nikaona jinsi lilivyojengwa. Kuna jinsi lilivyoyoganisha kwenyi ardihi. Ila kuna giza sasa sijui nyoka tutawezaje kuwaona!

Chipoli: Nadhani hawa nyoka watakuwa tofauti na wale tuliowazoea. Si unaona jinsi mabanda yao yaliyivo makubwa basi inaelieka na yenyeve ni mijoka mikubwa kupita kiasi. Itakuwa ndiyo chatu tunaomwambua. Ila na hisi baada ya jua kuungezeka watatoka tu kwenyi mapango yao ili waje kuwa kulinganisha. Si unaona hapa wamendika kwuwa muda mwafaka wa kuwaona ni kati ya saa saa na tisa mchana. Lakini wanatuongwa pia tusiweke vidole wala kuwapa chakula.

Mwalimu Peta: Naona mme furahi kweli. Lakini najisikia kuchoka na hii hali ya hewa haivutii kabisa. Ningependelea wapishi wakati wakaaanzia kutayarisha kukuwa halafu. Kwamba wasichana watatoka tu kwetu. Teacher Peta: I can see you have been wondering about these animals that you have forgotten that this cage on your right side is of snakes. I have peeped inside and have seen the way it has been built. There is a certain way it has been connected to the land. But it is dark inside now I don’t know how we will be able to see the snakes.

Chipoli: I think these snakes are different from those we are used to. You can see how big the cages are, it seems the snakes are also very huge. They must be pythons we have been hearing. But I think after the sun rays increase, they will come out of the caves to enjoy the sun. You see they have written here that a good time to see snakes is between 12 pm and 3 pm. They also show that we must not put fingers or give them food.

Teacher Peta: I can see. You have enjoyed so much. But I feel tired, plus I don’t like this weather at all. I would like cooks to go and prepare while others should fetch water for cooking.

Learners and their teacher planning for lunch preparations

4.4.4.5. Learners and their teacher planning for lunch preparations


Kayobora: Wengine njooni tumfuate dereva anakunja nadhani anataka tukebebe vitu ili tuweze kuanza kupika. Huku basi hawatouruhusuwa linawapigia wanyama makelele na moshi wake pia nadhani sio mzuri kwa wanyama.

Sajile: Nyie nendeni sisi wengine tusawazishe pale sehenu mtakayo tuwia vitu. Naona tukafanyie pale kazi zetu za mapishi.
kwasababu kuna kivuli, ni karibu na chanzo cha maji na isitoshe hakuna watu watakao tushangaa tukiwa tunapika. Na hata tukimaliza inakuwa rahisi kubeba vyombo vyetu na kuvioshea ziwani.


Chipoli: You have chosen nice bananas. Guys, look at potatoes, they are like those of Kabale. Please pass me that knife so that I start peeling these bananas because they take longer to get cooked, besides, I see 12 pm is approaching. I believe we will cook normally, that is in water. There is no need to roast as if we are in our homes. I think even potatoes we will cook the same way.

Kaganda Mkubwa: You peel the potatoes and bananas, while we chop meat and after we put it on fire we will make juice. Boys are quick, I can see the fire is almost ready and they have already brought containers of water. So, is it a lake water? Is there no water tap nearby?

Lembo: I don’t think there is water tap while the lake is just here. Besides, where we are is outskirt of Entebbe town. We will just use this one, they don’t have any problem. All people who cook their food here use this water as well. Or do you think they come with their water from schools?

Chipoli: Tusaidiane bani tuweke hili sufuria kwenye moto. Pia, mnaotengeneza juisi na naona spidi yenu sio nzuri. Endeleni tu hivyohivyo nilitaka kuwa ni wa la laza imani juisi iwekwe kwenye friji nikakumbuka kuwa kati ya pori hakuna friji na tufanjia tu hivo hivyo. Mmm, nimekumbuka, miwambala kuichuja hiyo juisi mwaonza mkuwa kwenye madumu na kuzuka vifuniko vyake alafu tukawe kweye ndoo yeoote yenyey maji baridi ya ziwa ili iwezey kungana kupata kubari ya zigwa.


Nantume: Jamani Kombe, umeshaanza kunywa juisi kabla hata ya chakula ndugu yangu!

Majolo: Hapana, Hajanywa ile ya kwenye madimu, alipewa kazi ya kusafisha vyombo vilivyotumika wakati wa kutengezeja juisi, yeye baada ya kumwaga mabaki ya matunda, shade, closer to a source of water, and besides there will be no people who will be watching us while cooking. And after we finish, it will be easier for us to take the dishes to the lake for washing.
Silagomi: Ahahahahha, Kombe mjanja, kwanini usingesubiri tu chakula ndugu yangu. Shida yote ya nini? Hongera!


Wanyama: It’s true on the teacher’s schedule, I have seen Friday we will spend the whole day in water and I’m keenly waiting for that moment. What do you think Kokubanza?

Kokubanza: It’s true, we must get rest from our tiredness on Friday. Fortunately, I have everything and besides when we were at the airport I bought a sun hat and glass. I am totally complete.

I think we should begin looking for each other so that we come together for meal prayer. I can see the teacher is over there consulting with Sajile. Guys, call them so that we are not late to begin afternoon tour. Has Sajile’s friend been found? Because I have set aside a plate for him and his food might cool before he is seen.


4.4.5 Wananunzi wakiwa hospitalini kupata huduma ya kwanza

Kemilembe: Kweli Msella hata mimi nimekunywa nimeanza kusikia kichefuchefu. Sijui ni kwanini?


Mwalimu Peta: Sajile ebu mwambie dereva ageuze gari naona hawa wote ni mahutui sasa. Tatizo sijui ni nyama tuliyo. Mwambia aje tuweze kuwapeleka hawa hospitali au kwenye zahanati ya karibu kwasababu hata mimi nahisi hali yangu sio nzuri.

Sajile: Nadhani vyombo vigine viacheni tu tutavikuta tukitoka hospitali, nyie pandeni ili...

Mzee Kakembo: Kwani wametapikia viti? Jaribu kuweka chinga zao zielelee kwenye kapeti kwa chini. Ila hata hiyo viti pamoja na kapeti vina platiki kwa juu ni swala la kuvuva maforoonya na kuyasa kwa tukifika chuo. Poleni sana lakini, siiji nani angeendasha hili gali endapo na mimi ningeunywa juusi!


Mzee Kakembo: Have they vomited on seats? Try to direct their necks towards carpets. But the seats and carpets have nylon on top. It’s a matter of removing covers and clean them when we return to the university. I am so sorry! But I don’t know who would have had driven this car should I have drunk the juice.

Mr Kakembo: Have they vomited on seats? Try to direct their necks towards carpets. But the seats and carpets have nylon on top. It’s a matter of removing covers and clean them when we return to the university. I am so sorry! But I don’t know who would have had driven this car should I have drunk the juice.


Nesi. Banyna-Mugalu: I’m sorry guys, and shame, they are students! Nurse on duty, please call your colleagues and help them to get into free rooms. Regarding registration, we will do it from their rooms. It would be better you quickly infuse them with drips. Start with these ones whose facial veins have protracted.

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Daktari. Bumbuli: Ebu, Dkt. Namwembe, Dkt. Uwera, Dkt. Mutebi, Dkt. Kintu, Dkt. Lwanga-Namyalo. Dkt. Nagutta, Dkt. Kirabo na Dkt. Rugambwa, endeleeni na hao wengine, acha mimi niwashughulikiwa ha wa ambao naona hali zao ina tete zaidi. Nikimalizana naa nitakuja na tuendelee wote kwa pamoja. Naomba wa kwanza ajili. Hujambo kijana! Pole sana na yote ya laliyowakuta. Unaweza kuongea? Naomba unitajie majina yako yote, kabila, umri, kazi, jinsia, unakoishi, namba za simu ya kwako na hospital. Guys get on the bus so that we rush our colleagues to hospital. The driver, when we exit the main gate, follow the road to the market where you bought food. Tell me when we reach the market because Entebbe Hospital is behind the market. From there turn left and follow this road until you see a black gate on your right-hand side you will see sign board written Entebbe Hospital. Let me continue to fan these guys. After you reach the gate, you don’t need to get out of the bus, just hoot and they will open. The whole bus is full of vomits. There will be a task to clean it when we return to the hotel.

Daktari. Bumbuli: Please, Dr Namwembe, Dr Uwera, Dr Mutebi, Dr Kintu, Dr Lwanga-Namyalo, Dr Nagutta, Dr Kirabo and Dr Rugambwa continue with those others, and let me attend to these ones whose conditions seem to be more critical. When I am done with these ones I will come over to work together. The first patient come through, please. How are you, young man? I am so sorry for what happened to you. Can you talk? Please tell me your full name, tribe, age, work, sex, home

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Komb: I am fine, doctor, I respect you! My name is David Komb. I am a Ugandan, I am sixteen years old, I am a student, and I live in Kaberebere village which is located near the Tanzania-Uganda border. My cell phone number is 0772939663, and my mother’s number is 0782185979. I don’t have any teachers’ number. But there is a teacher who has accompanied us can give you his number but the problem he is also sick. I have seen he has been infused with a drip in that room close to the reception.

Since I was born I have never suffered from this illness. Often it is my young brother who vomits after meals but not me. Last time I went to the hospital to be treated was about two years ago. I went to be treated malaria but before treatment, a doctor took blood from my arm and send it to the laboratory. When he returned, he asked me to lie in bed and started to examine my heartbeats, chest, colour of eyes, mouth, and he asked me questions just like this one you have asked me.

After receiving test results, he told me I was infected with malaria but not severe. He prescribed for me Artemether and Lumefantrine for malaria and Panadol for pain. He advised me to drink a lot of beverages, such as water and juice. Regarding food, I eat any except mudfish, of beverages.

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Blood to be infused. The second time I was infused normal drip after I was diagnosed with malaria and nurses could not manage to inject me into my buttocks because veins used to infuse medication were not visible. As a result, they decided to infuse medication through a drip. At the moment, the headache has decreased but when I was brought here I was sick. I am allowed to use all medication but some medicines like warm drugs when I use I get rashes on my body. I don’t think I have any additional information. That’s all I have.

Sajile: As I have told Nurse Banenya-Mugalu, we suspect the source of a problem is water we used to make juice. We drew it from the lake and we forgot that they were not boiled. All who have drunk juice are the ones who vomited but those who didn’t drink it haven’t vomited even though all of us have eaten food that had been cooked using the same water.

Nurse: Nakayima-Bulyaba: If it’s only water, hopefully, they will be fine. We have already infused them with drips, which is a mixture of drug which prevents vomiting and painkilling drug. We have also checked their pressure and have seen it’s normal. But I would like one of you to go to a shop to buy glucose that they will lick while drips are dripping into their bodies. You and others don’t want to be checked? It’s free, don’t think we will make you pay. This is the government hospital.

Nurse: Banenya-Mugalu: I don’t know why the zoo authority doesn’t listen to our advice every year. You are not the first students to come here with a similar problem. Each year we must receive cases like this not less than seven or eight. And all are students like you, who come from away districts. Why don’t you come with your food like students from nearby districts do? Which hotel do you stay? Or you have just arrived today from your school? Where is your teacher? Or is this one called Peta?

Nurse: Nakayima-Bulyaba: The water you have used is not safe and they have even written at the gate but I guess you didn’t read all the instructions because you were rushing to see animals. Guys, you need to read instructions so as to avoid situations like this some other day. The water is dirty. First of all, they have drugs, which are important for aquatic animals. Secondly, the water has poisonous weeds and plants that originate from plants within and plants that originate from plants within and...
outside the zoo. All excrement and urine produced by animals kept in cages are dumped into the water. Animal food leftovers are also dumped into the lake. Besides, expired animal drugs are also dumped into the lake because they can’t burn them to avoid harming animals with smoke from them. Therefore, if a human being will use that water there is a big possibility to get diseases like diarrhoea, schistosomiasis, cholera, and other such diseases transmitted through bathing, swimming, drinking, and even cooking. You are fortunate your bus was close. Others are brought here by motorbikes. Don’t repeat using water you don’t trust.

Mr Kakembo: This hospital has workers who work hard. I was surprised the way they received and quickly started attending us. I don’t know if they always work fast like this or just because of students. Besides, there were not many patients. Or just because there are many hospitals around Entebbe? Let’s us take seat overs from beside that black tank. I removed and clean them, and fortunately, they vomited juice only not food. They must be already dried. There is no need to put them on seats. I will do that when we return to school because they need to be washed properly using soap so that they don’t stink.

Teacher Peta: Nurses and doctors, we thank you so much for saving our lives. I don’t know would have happened if this hospital wasn’t this nearby as well as the availability of specialized people like you. In fact, we will remember you wherever we go for treating us with a good heart without any pay. I trust the medicine you have given us will help us to take down a headache. God protect you and you continue to love your work so that you keep on saving the lives of people. Eheeeeh, my Jesus. Mmmmm!

Sajile: I think you remember the way back to the hotel. Let’s just go as we have come in the morning. I’m so tired. You know carrying these guys wasn’t easy. I think when we arrive at the hotel the only thing to do is sleeping. You can leave those dirty dishes at the back of the bus or you can ask the hotel attendants to wash for us and pay them. Park in our usual space. These ones are still tired of drugs. You have to come to help me take them in. Look how dirty

4.5.1. Wanafunzi na mwalimu wao wanaelekea eneo la Samaki la Kasenyi


Wanafunzi: Mimi mwalimu.

Nyambibo: Nyie wehu, ebu tulieni kwani mnaafikiri dereva hawajui watu wake wenywe uzoefu na barabara za mijini! Mwalimu hata nikaa hapana nilipo atasikia tu. Napia ningependa wenzangu wajifunze jinsi ya kumuongoza dereva akiwa kwenye steringi yake. Vilevile mwalimu nahitaji msada wa wenzangu pia endapo simu itapoteza mtandao na kukata mawasiliano. Basi kama hali hiyo itajitokeza, mtu yeyote ambaye simu yake itakuwa na na their shirts are. I think these shirts need to be soaked and washed by hotel attendants so that they can wear them tomorrow when we begin our tour. Let’s pray to God so that he cures our colleagues so that tomorrow they get the energy to continue with water has brought us here. I don’t even think they have the desire to eat even supper. Guys, if there is anyone who wants to eat supper, it will be on the table during our usual supper time. We will meet again tomorrow. I am going to sleep. I am tired that I can’t even watch soccer even if it’s my team that plays.

4.5.1. Learners and their teacher heading to Kasenyi fishing site

Teacher Peta: Are there those who still have yesterday’s tiredness? I know most of you have woken up hungry. I have realised you have finished all the bread from the dining table. All bottles of milk tea are empty. But it’s good because most of you didn’t eat yesterday night. Where are others? Time is moving, guys. Ooh, they are coming. They must be finalizing to iron their school uniforms that were washed yesterday.

Our today’s schedule shows that we are going to Kasenyi Fishing Site. Who is ready to direct the driver? I can see nowadays each one of you except me can use their phones to know various roads we use.

Learners: Meeeee, teacher.

Teacher Peta: The driver has chosen Nyambibo. Nyambibo come and sit on the front seat so that you become assistant to the driver. Give me the way so that I can go and sit on that seat at the window. I already feel hot. Maybe it is side effects of the drugs they have given us or it is just today’s weather. I feel like having dizziness. Okay, my children, we can begin our journey.

Nyambibo: You crazy people, can you keep quiet, please. Do you think the driver doesn’t know his individuals, who have experience with the town roads? Teacher, even if I sit here, he will hear me. Also, I would like others to learn how to guide drivers while they are seated behind the steering wheel. So, in addition, teacher, I need others’ assistance if my phone loses network drop communication. So, if that situation will occur, any person whose phone
Chagua moja. Ahahahaaa, nakutania mzee. We anza kutoka kama kawaida ufuate njia yetu ya kawaida kama unaenda Kampala. Ifuate ukitizama vizuri upande wako wa kulia utaona njia inayoenada kwenye ufuko wa Speannah, halafu ufuko wa Lido and pia kwenye pwani ya Michezo. Hizi zote zipo kulia kwako. Zipite zote uendelezi kwa dakika kadhaa kwenye upande wako wa kushoto au huko nilipokaa utaona njia inayoenada Kitoro ambayo tulitumia siku yana Jumatatu. Ile pale mbele na yeneyewe ipite pia. Unaoina ile benki ya posta na kwanza. Ile pale litakuwa tawi la posta: lile pale litakuwa tawi la posta. Do you see that Postal Bank on my right side? In front of it, there are a series of petrol stations, which are Gapco, Gaz, and Shell. After that, there is a supermarket and then another Shell station. Pass all of them and continue for a few minutes on your right side or where I’m seated you will see a road that goes to Kitoro, which we used on Monday. Also pass that one over there. Do you see that Postal Bank on my left? In front of it, there are a series of petrol stations, which are Gapco, Gaz, and Shell. After that, there is a supermarket and then another Shell station. Pass all of them and continue straight on this road until when I tell you to turn right.

Kaganda Mkubwa: Kama tulivyooona vizuoto vya mafuta vilivyopangaa kule nyuma. Naona na hapa ni mfululizo wa benki. Kwa mafano angalia ile upande kushoto inaitwa Benki ya Crane, na mikabala wake kuna Benki ya Orlent. Sasa naona supermarket zimefuruliza has network coverage can help me or communicate directly with Mr Kakembo. In short, Mr Kakembo according to my phone from here to Kasenyi is between 19-20 minutes by car and two hours on foot.

Nkya: Kulikoni hii njia ina sehemu nyingi sana za kujazia mafuta? Yaani kila baada ya mwenendo mfupi tunakutana na sehemu ya mafuta. Tofauti zipo kwenye majina, rangi za kituo na kwenye upande wa bei za mafuta. Hali hii inaashiria kwamba vehicles use this road a lot.

Kaganda Mkubwa: As we have seen a series of petrol stations behind us, here I can also see a series of banks. For example, look on the left side there is Crane Bank and adjacent to it there is Orlent. Now I also see a series of supermarkets. Those over there are Merry
Supermarket and Dreams Supermarket, and another one I couldn’t read its name. It might be Indian because its letters look like Hindi.

Kokubanza: I can see petro stations have started again. That one over there is huge, I can see there are about ten big vehicles and all have parking. Its Total then there is Shell before reaching Mayor Garden. Then ahead of it is Total of Katabi. Duuuh! Look at that church on your right side.

Kayobora: The way the church is built is like temples which are shown in holy towns, such as Nazareth and Vatican. But it is only Presbyterian Church. I haven’t heard about this church. They must be one of the new churches, apart from Catholic and Anglican. Look at the water. It must be Lake Victoria, whose water we used yesterday. I can see here the lake has entered further inland. I believe people come here to enjoy the fresh lake breeze. I think you can see how those trees have been planted. It’s very attractive, should we get out of the bus?

Mhoma: You Kayobora don’t remind us of what happened yesterday. But it’s a nice place by its standard. The place is called Ssese Gateway. I can see here everything is associated with Ssese islands. I would recommend next year we visit these so we see how they look like. But I’m very scared of water. I don’t know if I’ll be able to board that ship or boats that go to Ssese.

Ndunamiwe: Mr Kakembo, start slowing down, we are now approaching, turn left. My tablet shows that after a small town just in front we must turn right and enter a road to Kasenyi. The road to Kasenyi is untaerrated. But before turning, we must pass by Stanbic Bank ATM, it’s on your side, there is Kobil petrol station on your left side, then we enter that town ‘Abayita Ababili’, which are Luganda words which mean ‘two bypassers’. Turn at that signpost, which shows the direction to Nkumba University.

Msella: Is this university one of the areas we will visit? It’s the university I have been hearing but I always thought it was in Kampala. I would like to visit because it’s just here in Entebbe.
Sajile: It’s true Msella. This university is one of the areas we will visit. It was planned to visit there this evening after we return from where we are going. But the teacher said the programme has changed so we will go tomorrow morning while on our way to Kampala. The teacher said students are still sitting for their end of semester final exams and most of them are finishing today. This means if we go tomorrow we will be able to meet with lecturers and students, something we won’t if we go today. Remember tomorrow morning we were supposed to go to the beach but instead, we will go today evening after we return from Kasenyi.

Majolo: It’s true my brother. I was going to be surprised to be sent to the beach this morning even before the sunshine. You have said it well because we will leave here already tired and when dive into beach water we will reenergize ourselves. I wish the sun burns us a lot so that we long for getting into water thereafter.

Teacher Peta: Okay guys, get out of the bus so that we begin visiting Kasenyi hamlet. Fortunately, we won’t need someone to take us around as at the airport. I can see students from other schools, who have come for various purposes. We can join them and have a walk together around the hamlet.

4.5.1.1. Ziara katika eneo la Samaki la Kasenyi

Nantume: It’s true teacher. There is no need to have a guide because while walking I have managed to get the information about this hamlet. Besides, we can go together with students from other schools so that we learn more from them.

Aimbora: It’s true even myself have managed to get information. For example, the internet shows that this hamlet has about 1,500 residents. Kasenyi which is in Wakiso district is the largest among the hamlets in neighbouring Entebbe that engage in fishing. This hamlet began as a village in the 1950s after Nkumba residents formally started fishing activities.

Lembo: Most of you have been talking about students from various schools we see. I have
mbalimbali tunaowaona. Nimejaribu kuongea na baadhi yao na wameniambani kuwa wao wapo hapo kama sehemu ya somo la jiofagia. Wanasaema kuwa Kasenyi kama kitongoji kinajitokeza kwenyewe maswali ya lazma ambayo wanafunzi ni lazima wayajibu wakiwa wanafanya mitihani ya taifa ya kidato cha sita. Ila kata wa kidato cha nne na wenyewe wapo haswa wale wanaotarajia kuendelea na somo la jiofagia.

Wanyama: Ni kweli ukiangalia vizuri hii sehemu utaona kwamba kuna mengi kwa mfano ardhi iliyoumbika, miamba, miti iliyopo kwenyewe maji, aina ya ndege, kazi za uvuvi, kazi za usafiri wa majini, sehemu ya kukarabatia maboti nakadhalika, vyote vipo hapa wakati ni na nadra sana kukuza sehemu yeyote na vivutio vyote tuvianavyo hapa. Kwa mtu wa kawaida awaweza asiwa kama wanaume kama wanaume wao wanaotarajia kuendelea na somo la jiofagia.

Wanyama: It’s true! If you look carefully, you’ll find that this area has many things, such as nice landscape, rocks, aquatic plants, different types of birds, fishing activities, marine transport, and boat workshop, all are here. It’s very rare to see all these attractions concentrated in one area like here. For a layman, he/she might not understand the importance of this place, but for students, I think we enhance various types of knowledge when we are in such an area.

Kemilembe: Hivi mnajua kama wenzetu wamekuja na makaratas i ya mitihani kabisa ili kuweza kijito nezana yaliyomo kwenyewe makaratas i ya mitihani? Ni mitihani ya miaka iliyopita iliyopo kwa mitihani cha kasenyi yanauzito mkubwa na yana alama yingi kwenyewe mitihani.

Kemilembe: Do you know our fellow students have come with past examination papers so that they can answer questions in them? I have seen questions regarding Kasenyi carry bigger wait and thus have many marks.

Kalunga: Basi kama ndiyo hivyo hivo yingeshauri tuambatane nao ili nasiwi tuweze kujifunza mawili matatu kuhusu maswa lai pamoja na kitongozi chenyewe.

Kalunga: If that is the case I would suggest we go with them so that we can also learn a few issues with the questions as well as the hamlet itself.

Majolo: Baadhi ya maswali ambayo nimeaona kwenyewe makaratas i yao ki kama; taja shughulu za kifuchumi zinazofanywa kwenyewe mwalolo wa Kasenyi. Kwanini idadi ya wanaume kitongojini Kasenyi inaonegezeka na ya wanawaze inashuka kiladukichika? Toa matumizi matano ya miamba iliyo po Kasenyi.

Majolo: Some of the questions that I have seen in their papers are like: Mention economic activities carried out at Kasenyi shore; Why does the number of men increase while women’s decrease in Kasenyi hamlet? Show five uses of rocks found in Kasenyi; Apart from washing, Kasenyi residents use lake water for what other functions? And, why do fishermen from different parts of Lake Victoria come to maintain and repair their boats in Kasenyi hamlet?

Msella: Ila ukiangalia jinsi maswali yanavyoulizwa, ni mgumu kuyajibu kama hujawahi kufika au kusoma juu ya hiki kitongozi. Maswali mengi ni ya kihistoria ambayo yanahitaji mwanafunzi kujua chanzo cha kuwanishwa kwa hii sehemu, maendeleo yaliyopo sasa na shughuli zienendelezo hapa Kasenyi. Ndio maana naona shule nyingi tried to speak with some of them and have told me that they are here as part of geography subject. They said Kasenyi as hamlet appears among the compulsory questions students must attempt in their final form six national exams. But there are also form four students, especially those who are expecting to study geography subject further.
Ndunamiwe: After I have seen by myself I can answer some of the questions asked by Majolo. For instance, to answer the question of uses of water, I can see women and youth are washing their clothes here in the water. Look at livestock like cows, sheep, goats, and even ducks are using the same water to drink. Apart from washing clothes, you can see those young men are using lake water to wash their bicycles and even washing vehicles. But I have been told they are paid for washing transport tools. For a bicycle, they are paid UGX5000 and on vehicles, payment depends on the size of the respective vehicle. If it is a small car, its UGX4000, the big car is UGX6000, and for buses and trucks is UGX10000.


Silagomi: It’s true when you travel you see a lot. Look at those two big boats that are carrying timber. I always knew that timber is carried in big trucks but today I am surprised to see boats too carrying it. And if you compare the amount of timber carried in those boats and in big trucks you will see that the one in boats are many. I can see one boat has three captains, everyone has the motor he controls. Apart from those boats, look on your left, there are other boats arriving and departing carrying passengers going and coming from islands located in the lake. There also other boats carrying other cargos, such as sardines, dry fish, food sacks, such as maize, flour, beans, cowpeas, and pulses. Also, there are boats operated by motors and other operated using paddles. The ones using paddles are often used for fishing in areas closer to shores as opposed to those ones operated by motors which are used for fishing in high water as well as types of fish in terms of size and weight.
**Nantume:** It is a small area but it has so many things going on. I have come from behind those huts where I saw a very big fish market. There are all kinds of fish especially fished in islands like those we saw when we went to Nakiwogo. Difference between Nakiwogo and here is that fish of this place are those dried and fresh. When I asked how they dry them I was told that it depends on the fisherman himself. Islands’ fishermen dry fish using smoke while fishermen of this place dry their fish through sunrays but if there are no sunrays, they also use smoke. Apart from the fish market, I also managed to see selling of fuel from kerosene, petrol to diesel. Surprisingly, they sleep in their rooms with the fuel containers. Something very dangerous to their lives, first through breathing air from the fuel while sleeping and second a risk of fire outbreak that might be caused by cigarette or cooking fire. Due to bad storage of fuel, it is alleged that the number of youth who sniff fuel is increasing on this shore.

**Aimbora:** When talking about those huts, you remind me of the types of their toilets. Generally, this place is extremely dirty. There are all kinds of diseases, such as schistosomiasis, cholera, and malaria. Besides, it is the shore known to have very worrying HIV/AIDS infection rate. I have seen at the health centre various notices which suggest, although it is a geographical location, residents’ lives are in danger due to various diseases that surround them. On the internet, it is shown that it is the leading hamlet in terms of HIV/AIDS infection. Most women here engage in selling their bodies to fishermen. Alcoholism is very rampant and besides, there are no voluntary testing and counselling professionals who have offices here. Many counsellors come from Entebbe or Kampala and they don’t come always. Although HIV/AIDS kills them, it is said affected individuals don’t bother to look for antiretroviral drugs or going to the hospital to learn about alternative ways to protect themselves or not to spread the disease to others. This is contributed much by lack of information and maturity among fishermen who most of them start engaging in fishing activity while still young before even finishing primary grade seven.
Chipoli: It’s true! It is alleged that the disease kills them a lot because of their views, which make some of them believe and be ready to be killed by HIV/AIDS rather than being killed by or die in water. Fortunately, I hear there are non-governmental organizations which give them various services, such as the importance of voluntary blood testing to know their health, to educate them on predominant diseases and use of condoms, and family planning issues. Most of them claim they would like to use condoms but they are expensive because pharmacies inflate condom and drug prices.

Wanyama: But there is a health centre over there called Wagagai and it is indicated that there is a daily blood testing service but people are afraid to do it. Others say they don’t get time to go to do blood testing because they are always occupied in fishing activities in the lake. Also, health service providers say fishermen are ruined by excessive alcoholism, something which makes them miss time to go for blood testing. It’s claimed that others eat and sleep where they drink. Fishermen claim that service providers don’t have sufficient education, health centres are few, they don’t have enough money to afford the cost of drugs, et cetera.

Hayo ni ya hapa tu, inasemekana hata wale wanaishi visiwani, kwao mambo ni mara tatu ya hapa. Kwanzu usafiri wakati, wengine wanaoishi visiwani, mimi au inasemekana ugonjwa unawamaliza hasa kwa majimbo wao ambayo inawafanya wengine waamini na kukuubali kwa ukimwi kuliko kufa kwa maji au kufa majimbo. Bahati nzuri nasikia kuna mashirika yasiyo ya kiserikali yao ambayo inawafanya wengine waamini na kukuubali kufa kwa maji au kufa majimbo. Japokuwa wanasema kondomu wangependa kuzitumia, wengi wao wanaoishi visiwani, kwao mambo ni mara tatu ya hapa. For those who wanted to get outrigger to go to Kome island, which is closest to where you need to plan for next year if we come. They say...
today boats did not operate because drivers of trucks which bring fuel from Kampala are on strike. That has affected all activities of this place. Fortunately, our bus has enough fuel. Please get on the bus so that we return to the hotel to prepare for swimming later.

**Kokubanza:** Teacher, I suggest we go to the beach directly because even when we are there we can have our lunch and continue with our other issues.

**4.5.2. Learners at the beach**

**Sajile:** We could do that but most of us don’t have things to use when at the beach. I would suggest the driver rushes us to the hotel, eat our lunch, then he takes us to the beach. Because if we say we buy food at the beach, it is very expensive and besides it isn’t normal food, it is chips, fish, and fried chicken. But also some of us might not get the satisfaction we desire.

**Learners:** You have said it Sajile.

**Teacher Peta:** Please take us to the hotel, my brother.

**Kayobora:** I don’t feel like eating today. I’ll take some money with me, if I feel hungry I’ll find there. Now let me pack my ball and exercise clothes, I must play until I get tired because tomorrow we are leaving I don’t know if I’ll get another day to play ball on the beach. Please pass my Arsenal jersey. I don’t know where I put my shoelaces or did I forget them at home, or I didn’t bring them? Mmmm…it’s cool! Fortunately, there is sand, I’ll play without shoes.

**Ndunamiwe:** Where is my bikini? I remember after buying it at the airport I put it among gifts but I don’t see it. It shouldn’t be the shopkeeper didn’t include in it. Ooooh, here it is, I have seen it. My heart already started beating fast. Which beach are we going? Or is that one with birds outside?

**Msella:** We are going there. I have heard Sajile discussing with the teacher that Aero is the

I’m afraid there can be pieces of broken bottles or fish bones, which can hurt me.


**Mhoma:** Jinsi nionavyo, inaonekana Uwanja wa ndenge ulikuwa unafika hadi huku. Hii nii baadhi ya ndenge zilizokuwa zimeharibika wakaamua waiache tu hapa ila wawakoju ufukonci na hawajawahi kugusa au kupanda ndenge waweze kuitimia hii hapa. Isitoshe nikiangalia hilii bati lililotumika sijawahi kuliona ikimaanisha hii ili ndenge ya uwkeli na ni ya kizamani sema tu imekuwa ikipakwa rangi kila baada ya muda ili kuweza kuwa na muonekana huu. Namimi ningezkenda kupanda kwenye bawani ila nipigie picha ila naona haifiki bawani. Nipigie tu hapahapa nikiwewe watakuwa wananufaika nayo kwa majolo.


**Mhoma:** The way I see, it seems as if the airport was extended up here. This is one of the broken planes and they decided to leave it here so that people who come to the beach and haven’t touched or board a plane can use it. Besides, when I look at this iron used I haven’t seen it before, something which suggests this is a real plane and it is old-fashioned. I think it has been repainted after each time to maintain its view. I would like to climb on a wing so that you take a photo of me but I can see the ladder doesn’t reach there. Just shoot me here with my friends. Mmmmm!

**Kokubanza:** Guys, let’s go to that plane so that we can take memorial photos. I think this place’s name is from this plane. Questions one can ask is how did this plane come to this beach? Did it crash on here while taking off or landing? Is it a real plane or just the creativity of our artists? But its huge guys, look from inside. Please bring that ladder so we can climb and get inside. I can see there are even no seats. Please take a photo of me while I am in a cockpit.

**Mhoma:** Guys, let’s go there where they pick cowry shells. I can see they are very busy. I don’t know what they use them for! Mmmmm! Look at the way sedges have strived here at the lake. I can see everyone who picks cowry shell cuts grass too. They must be benefiting in one way or another. I didn’t know here there are
namna moja au nyingine. Sikujua kama hapa kuna walini pia, kwani wanalinda nini? Tena wana na mbwa wa ulinzi, kuna kitu cha kuiba hapa, labda vile viti vyao, chupa za vinywaji. Inaelekea wakiendi watu wanakuwa wengi mno na ghasia zinaweza zikawa zinatokea.

Aimbora: Ndugu yangu, haya maganda ya konokono sio kama wanayala, wamesema ni kwa ajili ya kutengenizea mapambo mbalimbali kama sehemu ya kujiongezea vipato. Pia, yale manyasi ya mafunzo wanayatumia utimpisho kwani wa majumbani. Vilevile, wanasema kwaa baada ya kuyakusanya magamba ya konokono, huyatwangaa na ule unga wake wanaweka kwenye chakula cha mifugo kama vile kuku na bata kwa ajili yakuongeza virutubisho kwenye vyakula hivyo. Wanasema pia kukusanya magamba ni kazi ambayo inaweza ikawachukulia muda mwingi kwa sababu magamba hayoonekani siku sio kama zamani.


Mnaonaje? Kuna michezo kama vile, kukimbia kwenye mchanga, mpira wa mikono, mpira wa miguu, kuendesha boti la injini, kuendesha ng’amia pamoja na karata pia. Michezo yoteni bure kasoro wa kuendesha ng’amia na boti.


Silagomi: Ni kweli pale kuna vyakula vingi tu vinavyouzwa haswa vya majini kwa upande wa mboga. Ila achakula kikuu ambacho kinavutia ni chips. Uzuri wa samaki wa hapa ni kwamba wanavuliwa pale na kufikia tikani kwa ajili ya waiteja waliopato. Radha ya hawa samaki ni tofauti na wale samaki wanaowekwa kwenye majokofu kwa muda mrefu kabla ya kupikwa kama ilivyo sehemu nyingi nchini. Sema tatizo ni kwenye masuala ya gharama. Hawa wa hapa security guards too. What do they guard? They even have security dogs. Is there anything to steal here? Maybe chairs and bottles of drinks. It looks like during the weekends there are too many people and there is the possibility of an eruption of commotion.

Aimbora: My sister, these cowry shells they don’t eat. They say they use them to make various decorations as a means of increasing their income. Also, the sedges are used to make mats, which people buy for domestic use. They further say that after collecting cowry shells, they pound to get powder, which they mix with foods of poultry, such as chicken and ducks in order to add more nutrition. They also say collecting shells is a job that takes much of their time because nowadays the shells are not many compared to past time.

Wanyama: My sister, these cowry shells they don’t eat. They say they use them to make various decorations as a means of increasing their income. Also, the sedges are used to make mats, which people buy for domestic use. They further say that after collecting cowry shells, they pound to get powder, which they mix with foods of poultry, such as chicken and ducks in order to add more nutrition. They also say collecting shells is a job that takes much of their time because nowadays the shells are not many compared to past time.

Lembo: I can see you have forgotten about fishing. Over there are fishing boats that take people to water and teach those fishing skills, such as putting bait on a hook and to know if a fish has been caught on the hook. I would also suggest those who have not eaten to go there and eat first before we begin any game especially sand games. These kinds of games require more energy to be able to run without getting tired.

Silagomi: It’s true, there is a lot of food sold especially seafood on the side of sauces. But regarding the main dish, the only attracting food chips. The advantage of this area’s fish is that they are fished there from the lake and brought here to a kitchen to cater for available customers. Taste of these fish is different from frozen ones, who are kept in freezers for a very long time before they are cooked. The only problem is cost. Fish in this area are quite...
wanabei kubwa kidogo kuliko wale wa kwenye majokofu.


*Sajile:* Naamini sote tumeingia. Kuna ambaye hayupu? Hebu jiangalieni tuone kama jirani expensice compared to the frozen ones.

*Kalunga:* I need whole chicken, medium chips, and Rwenzori mineral water. Don’t add chilli. Just add a little bit of salt to chicken only. Salt on salt will add by myself. I have seen all others have eaten fish, boiled cassava, and salad. Do you have avocados here? Don’t forget tomato sauce, please. Brother Lembo, come to eat lake’s chicken, which is fed with cowry shells. Koku, please come and shoot me a memorial photo while I’m holding the lake’s chicken. You’re drinking soda while others drink beer. Or you are afraid of the teacher? I know there are people who wish to drink beer but are shy. Or your pockets are empty? Haahahahahhaa!


*Sajile:* Naamini sote tumeingia. Kuna ambaye hayupu? Hebu jiangalieni tuone kama jirani expensice compared to the frozen ones.
4.6.1. **Learners and their teacher visit a University**

**Teacher Peta:** How are you, my children?

**Learners:** We are a fine teacher, we respect you, teacher.

**Teacher Peta:** Exactly, how have you woken up?

**Some of the learners:** Cool only teacher.

**Some of the learners:** Calm teacher.

**Some of the learners:** Good teacher.

**Some of the learners:** Okayyyyyy.

**Sajile:** Dereva kukaa kwungo mbele hakumaanishi nitakuongoza tunakoelekea. Tumia barabara iliyotupeleka na kuturudisha wakati tunaenda kwenywe kitongoji cha Kasenyi ila ukifika pale tulipoche pumpia kulia na kuanza barabara ya udogo. Usifuate ile barabara endelea na barabara ya rami kama unaenda Kampala, baadaya mida chahe utaona bango la Chuo Kiku Cha Nkumba liko mkono wako wa kwa sahihi. Hapa hapa hapa hapa hapa, hapo ndo ukunje kona ukifuata bango lainakoashiria chuo kilipo hadi tutakapofika getini hapo mwalimu atatupa utaratibu utakaofuata.


wamefika nchi mbalimbali hapa duniani. Isitoshe maprofesa wenyewe wanavaa miwani, suti na lazima wawe wanaamili magari. Hata watoto wao anapeleka kwenywe shule nzuri ili na wao baadaye wawe kama baba zao. Kuna baadhi ya maprofesa ambao wamefika nani duniani na na wao baadaye wawe kama baba zao. Hata watoto wao anapeleka kwenye shule nzuri ili na wao baadaye wawe kama baba zao. Kuna baadhi ya maprofesa ambao wanawasomesha

Mwalimu Peta: Dereva twende muda umeenda, achana na hawa vijana hutowaweza.

Lembo: Mimi tukifika ningependa tukutana na wanafunzi ili waweze kutolewa na jinsi gani wanawaeza kuchagua masomo au kozi ambazo wanajikuta wakizisoma na nini miyo yao. Jana tuliupita na kulikuwa na watu wengi nje. Ila waleo naonani wengi zaidi nadhani kwa meli mbili. Kikonyogo-Kakande: Naipenda sana dini ya Kiislamu kwa kusababu waumini wake husali kutwa mara tano. Endapo uko nyumbani, azini hata ukiwa kwenye pilipili mbalimbali ni laizi usali utimizwe hilo sala tano. Ni ikufu ya la ijjumaa kama ya leo, majira ya mchana ni laizi waumini wote wawe Bara la Afrika, Ulaya, Marekani au Asia ni laizi huo muda hutengwa kwa ajili ya Alah. Na njozi muda ambao unakutana na marafiki na majama, waumini wenzako in the world. Besides, professors wear spectacles, suit, and they must be owning cars. Even their children attend nice schools so that later they also become like their fathers. There are some professors who send their children to overseas' schools because most of them are married to white wives. But I hear the number of female professors is increasing, unlike the old days when most professors were men. I hear professors have a special area where they eat food and meet in the evenings after classes. It's like a restaurant where they all meet. It's nice to be a professor because you live for free in university houses. Water, electricity, and all house needs are found inside. We have to study hard so that we become like them in the future after they retire.

Teacher Peta: Driver, let’s go, time is gone. Leave these boys alone, we won’t manage them.

Lembo: When we reach there, I would like to meet with students so that they tell us how they choose subjects or courses, which they study at the university. We are taught more than twelve subjects but until now I don’t know what I’ll study if I go to university. Are the subjects they study chosen by their parents or by themselves according to their preferences? What are the differences between students who are government sponsored and those who are not? Fortunately, I can see we are already approaching the university because it’s not far from where we are. This is ‘Abayita Ababili’, I have remembered because of that mosque. Yesterday we passed it and there were many people outside. But I can see today they are even more people I think because it’s Friday, which is a day to worship for Muslim. I think even church won’t be far from here.

Kikonyogo-Kakande: Naipenda sana dini ya Kiislamu kwasababu waumini wake husali kutwa mara tano. Endapo uko nyumbani, kazini hata ukiwa kwenye pilipili mbalimbali ni laizi usali utimizwe hilo sala tano. Ni ikufu ya la ijjumaa kama ya leo, majira ya mchana ni laizi waumini wote wawe Bara la Afrika, Ulaya, Marekani au Asia ni laizi huo muda hutengwa kwa ajili ya Alah. Na njozi muda ambao unakutana na marafiki na majama, waumini wenzako in the world. Besides, professors wear spectacles, suit, and they must be owning cars. Even their children attend nice schools so that later they also become like their fathers. There are some professors who send their children to overseas' schools because most of them are married to white wives. But I hear the number of female professors is increasing, unlike the old days when most professors were men. I hear professors have a special area where they eat food and meet in the evenings after classes. It's like a restaurant where they all meet. It's nice to be a professor because you live for free in university houses. Water, electricity, and all house needs are found inside. We have to study hard so that we become like them in the future after they retire.

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wengine kutoka pande zote za kitongoji chako. Mara nyingi ni siku kama hii ambayo masheikh kutoka kwenyewe misikitifu towali huweza kutembelela misikitifu mingine ili kuweza kuwahubiria waumini wa misikiti wa misikitifu hiyo.

Kwa misikitifu inayojiweza kiuchumi, siku kama hii mara nyingi baada ya sala, waumini hutembelela sehemu mbalimali kama vile hospitalini, sehemu za watoto yatima, nyumba za wazee na wengine wengi wa misikiti minalipa kama vile sukari, chunvi, sabuni, mafuta ya kula, mafuta ya kujiipa, dawa za kutuliza maumivu, viwembe, vyanuo, vioo vya kujiingia vya wakina mama, santitary pads zao, vilemba na hata hela endapo zipo pia hupewa. Kuna waumini wengine wa misikiti wengine wa misikiti hiyo na misaada na wakuu wa misikiti ili waweze kujianzisha biashara ndogondogo nje ya misikiti, biashara hizi huwa na vitu kama vile, vitabu vya dini bila kusahau misaada. Vitu vingine ni kama vile, nguo za kislamu za kiume na za kike zikiwemo, baibui, kofia, shungi nakadhalika. Yaani ni mambo mengi ambayo yananishinda kuipenda dini yangu.

Nkya: Asante kwa maneno yako ya busara kwa dini yenu. Na mimi natamani Jumapili ifike ili niwasimulie kuhusu makanisa yetu ambayo wengine wa misikiti wengine wa misikiti, nyingi, na makanisa ya Kilokole.


Teacher Peta: I can see you are very happy to come to the university. Do you see your fellow students? Others have beards like the driver’s. When we were on our way here I spoke to a person who will meet and show us around the university. She told me she won’t be far from the gate. Here she is coming to meet us. Is anyone who remembers her?

For mosques which are economically well off, during the days like this, they visit various places, such as hospitals, orphanages, retirement homes, and other needy people to offer them various assistance and needs, such as sugar, salt, cooking oil, skin oils, painkillers, razors, combs, mirrors, sanitary pads, veils/headscarves, as well as money if available. There are other worshippers who are economically incapacitated who are given assistance by mosque imams to set up small businesses outside mosques. These businesses sell things like religious books, such as Islamic holy books. Other items sold are male and female Islamic dresses, such as hijabs, hats, and veils/headscarves. In short, there are many things that make me like my religion.

Nkya: Thank you for wise words about your religion. I would like Sunday to come so that I tell you about our churches, which most of you call apostolic churches.

Kaganda Mkubwa: Well guys, I see we have approached the gate. Look at that signpost, it welcomes us to the university. I have attracted to colours of the words as well as its emblem. I have loved the way colours have been mixed on the emblem. On the emblem, there is an open book, which I think symbolizes reading and writing. Their motto is ‘I owe you’. But it’s difficult to directly understand its meaning until university owners explain its meaning because here everyone can have their own meaning.
Wanafunzi: Dada Mkuu jamani. Eheeeeeee.
Wanafunzi: Poa dada Mkuu, pole na masomo dada mkuu.

4.6.1.1. Kutembelea sehemu mbalimbali za Chuo


Nantume: Mimi naomba nimsaidie ndugu yangu Kokubanza. Kwa mujibu watovuti ya Chuo Kikuu cha Nkumba. Tovuti inaonesha

Majolo: Vilevile Tablet yangu inaonesha kuwa baada ya miaka kadhaa idadi ya wanafunzi ilianzishwa hadi kufikia wanafunzi 150.

Aimbora: Labda kujazilizia hasa kwenyewe upande wa masomo ambapo najua wengi yetu wanatamani kusikiliza ni kwamba. Chuo hiki ni chuo cha kwanza nchini nyingi ndio kwa Shahada ya Taaluma za Petroli, Shahada ya Technolojia na Umiliki wa Madini.

Kayobora: Just to add especially regarding subjects, whereby most of us would like to hear that this is the first university in the country to start offering courses in areas, such as a degree in petroleum studies and a degree in mineral technology and ownership.
Kyomukama: Eheee, you are truly dot.com. Now I wonder if you know everything this much what have you come to do here? Or you just want to prove the Ugandan adage that ‘amaa g’omuddagavu gali mu ngalo’ which loosely translates into English as ‘black person’s eyes are on his/her fingers’. The adage is defined as that it’s hard for a black person to believe in something unless he/she holds or sees it. Well, welcome to see for yourselves how our university looks like. But there are not many things because many things you have already spoken about and all are true. What I’ll do maybe is to answer a few questions you’ll be asking when we’re going around the university. As you see, our university is not too big. I believe within five minutes we will have finished it so that you go to Kampala early. Today is Friday and traffic jam is high because Muslims are going to mosques and many people leave work early. Therefore, there is a lot of commotion in Kampala today.

Kome: Head girl, what kind of books do they sell over there? Are they university books only or even ours? Are prices normal or are like those we saw at the airport?

Kyomukama: That’s bookshop. It sells all kinds of books, but there is a large percentage of higher education books. I don’t think there are secondary education books. If they are, they must be very few. Prices depend much on book buyers or respective books. If buyers are few, then book prices become cheap but if buyers are many in a certain period, then prices go up. But in most cases, higher education books are expensive because they take longer from writing until they are published. Besides most books are not published in the country but are published overseas, something which contributes to their price rise.

Kombe: Eheeeh, behind the bookshop I see there is a library. Look, students are going in and coming out. Others are carrying bags, other books, and others normal files. I can see those carrying bags must be searched when entering and exiting the library. I think they are trying to make sure that no one gets out with a book which doesn’t belong to him/her or taking a book without permission. The library has even TV outside it. Won’t that TV be stolen? Does it stay there?

Chipoli: Eheee, behind the bookshop I see there is a library. Look, students are going in and coming out. Others are carrying bags, other books, and others normal files. I can see those carrying bags must be searched when entering and exiting the library. I think they are trying to make sure that no one gets out with a book which doesn’t belong to him/her or taking a book without permission. The library has even TV outside it. Won’t that TV be stolen? Does it stay there?

Silagomi: They are advanced. But when I look properly I see it has different work rather than

Kome: Dada mkuu pale wanauza vitabu vya ainaagani? Ni vitabu vya Chuo tu au hata vyetu? Bei yao ni ya kawaida au ni kama ile tulioiona kwenywe maduka ya Uwanja wa ndege?

Stellenbosch University  https://scholar.sun.ac.za


Na wanaojifunza Kiswahili ni wale ambao waki hitimu hapa kuwa walimu hasa kwenye shule za Misingi.


4.6.2. Wanafunzi wanaelekea Jumba la Sanaa la Taifa Uganda


Kemilembe: Eheeeeh! Finally, we have reached that factory. I can see the driver’s speed is good. I remember the head girl told us Fridays there is a high traffic jam. I think that is why he drives this fast so that we arrive early.

Kalunga: Kile ni kiwanda cha Uganda Clays. Ila kwasababu kipo Kajjansi, wengi wanakita Kajansi Clays. Hiki ni kiwanda kinachotengeneza bidhaa mbalimbali kwa are those who after they finish studies become teachers, especially in primary schools.

Kyomukama: My dear, I believe you have seen our university. I think now when you reach school you will have much to tell about Nkumba University. I also believe that after several years some of you will come to join this university to study various courses. But by then I will have finished my degree already, maybe you will find here those who are ahead of you. Up to this point, I don’t have more apart from thanking you for having time to visit this university. I wish you a safe journey. I can see the driver has already reversed the bus. Goodbye!

4.6.2. Learners heading to the Uganda National theatre

Teacher Peta: Sorry for tiredness by brothers and sisters. Or aren’t you so tired? Driver, let us start our journey to Kampala. I don’t think there is a need to direct you because I know you are used to this road up to where we are going. We only need to inform you exact place where we are going. That’s where we will sleep tonight. Who remembers the place?

Aimbora: We will sleep at the Uganda National Theatre. It’s the theatre that shows various works of art. And according to my phone, the National Theatre is located adjacent to the Ugandan National Assembly. Works that are currently shown are performing arts and music. Today there will be a performance by students of Namasagali School from Kamuli district. Teacher, I think I have got it right.

Kombe: In addition, this theatre was officially opened in 1959. Some of the main aims of its establishment were to show pictures of government activities, various republic’s pictures, and national exhibitions, such as performance, et cetera.

Kemilembe: Eheee! Finally, we have reached that factory. I can see the driver’s speed is good. I remember the head girl told us Fridays there is a high traffic jam. I think that is why he drives this fast so that we arrive early.

Kalunga: That is Uganda Clay Factory. But because it is located in Kajjansi, many people call it Kajjansi Clays. This is the factory which manufactures various products using clay soil.

Teacher Peta: Sorry for tiredness because of a trip from Entebbe. And now I officially welcome you to Kampala. Our earlier programme didn’t say we would come to sleep.
4.6.2.1. Wanafunzi wanaangalia maonesho ya uimbaji/uchezaji nyimbo


zikianza utasikia vionjo vya kila aina vikikusimua kuanzia kwenyewe magita, ngoma, nisemenini niache nini! Ahahahahahha. Nyie nendeni tu mkafurahie jioni yenu na wafunzi wenzenu.


Msella: Mimi naona tukalale tu kwasababu nimewasikia hawa waliokaa nyuma yetu kwamba hapa jenereta lao lai la kizamani hata wakisema waliwasha litazimana na mchache kutokana na jinsi linavyokunywa mafuta kwa haraka. Ikimaanisha ya kwamba halitowashwa jambo la muhimu la hivyo la kushwa na kwa waisukuru. Muda mbaona unaeida na hakuna kinachoendelea. Giza ni kali au twende nje kwanza hadi wakishinda na wanaume zuania kwa kusababu ya uchovu na bila kupata uingizi wa kwenye tiketi. Haya jamani tuonane kesho mimi naenda kulala sasa.

Silagomi: Tickets are inspected at that small window. Take them there to be stamped so that we enter the hall. Or what is arrangement? Should everyone go there on his/her ticket? Let’s go then if that is the case. But I can see those ones sent one person to check their tickets and they have entered. Let me go and check. They have already checked, let’s go.

Nkya: Wanyama told us we will be late now I don’t know if we are on time, we aren’t sure. I can see the second half of the show/performances has now started. I don’t know how many phases are there in 45 minutes. But they are very attractive. I can see their dressers correspond with the stands’ colours and so do the lights but this female actress has a low voice. I don’t know why she doesn’t raise her voice like her predecessors. Gooosh! What happened there is a power outage in the middle of the show? But because we’re in Kampala I know they will switch on a backup generator so that the show continues. But time is elapsing and there is nothing happening. It is too dark, maybe let’s go outside until when they switch on the generator. What do you think?

Msella: I think we just go to sleep because I have heard these people sitting behind us that their generator is an old model so even if they decide to switch it on it will go off within a short time due to high fuel consumption. That means it will not be switched on. The important thing here is to go to sleep so that we start our journey back home early morning tomorrow. Others our bodies are exhausted, we are not used to be on a trip for a long time like this one. I believe when I reach at school my all body parts will be sore due to tiredness and lack of enough sleeping time since we came here. Okay, guys, let’s see each other tomorrow, I’m going to sleep now.

4.7.1. Learners and their teacher travelling back to school

Msella: I think we just go to sleep because I have heard these people sitting behind us that their generator is an old model so even if they decide to switch it on it will go off within a short time due to high fuel consumption. That means it will not be switched on. The important thing here is to go to sleep so that we start our journey back home early morning tomorrow. Others our bodies are exhausted, we are not used to be on a trip for a long time like this one. I believe when I reach at school my all body parts will be sore due to tiredness and lack of enough sleeping time since we came here. Okay, guys, let’s see each other tomorrow, I’m going to sleep now.


Msella: I think we just go to sleep because I have heard these people sitting behind us that their generator is an old model so even if they decide to switch it on it will go off within a short time due to high fuel consumption. That means it will not be switched on. The important thing here is to go to sleep so that we start our journey back home early morning tomorrow. Others our bodies are exhausted, we are not used to be on a trip for a long time like this one. I believe when I reach at school my all body parts will be sore due to tiredness and lack of enough sleeping time since we came here. Okay, guys, let’s see each other tomorrow, I’m going to sleep now.

4.7.1. Learners and their teacher travelling back to school

Teacher Peta: My young brothers and sister, is it okay? I can see you’re ready for the journey back to school. Before we begin our journey, I would like you to make sure everything is in
wetu akishaanza kuendesha gari. Tuna muda mchache wa kuzunguka baadhi ya kwenye sehemu za Kampala ambazo zipo kwenye njia ku kuendesha gari. Baadhi ya sehemu ni kama, Bunge la nchi, Ofisi za Meya wa Jiji zilizipo pembeni ya Bunge, uwanja wa mpira wa Nakivubo uliopo katikati ya vituo cha mabasi cha zamani na Kituo cha mabasi kipya, Msikitwa Gaddafi iliopo Old Kampala, Kasri ya Kabaka iliyopo Mengo na baada ya hapa dereva ataendelea na safari ya kuendelea shuleni. Labda akifika Wilaya ya Mpiji ambapo mstari wa Ikweta unakatiza ni tamuomba asimame ili tupigepicha na kuweza kuendelea kwenye mstari wako. Ila kwa sababu mvua imeanza kunyesha na kali sana sidhani kama tutaweza kwenda kwenye sehemu nilizozitaja hapa juu kwa sababu miundombunu ya barabara haitoturuhusu ni tatizo ambalo wana Kampala wamekuwa wakilalamikia miaka kadhaa sasa. Dereva naomba tuelekee shuleni. Hadi mwakani endapo tutapata fursa ya kuendesha gari. Hapa juu ya hewa ya kwenye hewa ya muhimu. Ilaweza kwenda kwenye mstari wako na tamuomba asimame ili tupigepicha na kuweza kuendelea shuleni.}

The end.
## APPENDIX (B)

### LIST OF CONSULTED SUBJECT-SPECIALISTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Names of the specialists</th>
<th>Language profile(s) of the specialists</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(i). Davis Nyanda (PhD) &amp; Gerald Kimambo (PhD)</td>
<td>English/Kiswahili</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ii). Felix Nwachukwu (PhD)</td>
<td>English/French</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(iii). Chipila Rajabu (PhD), Miss Mbecha Skylet, Mr Bumbuli Hassan, Mr Magezi Ismail &amp; Mr Namala Mkopi.</td>
<td>Kiswahili</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(iv). Aurelia Mallya (PhD) &amp; Michael Karani (PhD).</td>
<td>Kiswahili/Bantu Languages</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX (C)

ETHICAL CLEARANCE APPROVAL FROM UGANDA NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY (UNCST)

Our Ref: SS 3655
22nd January 2015

Mr. Caesar Jingo
Makerere University
Kampala

Re: Research Approval:

Cognitive task analysis in task-based syllabus design for the teaching and learning of Kiswahili as a second language in Ugandan secondary schools

I am pleased to inform you that on 28/11/2014 the Uganda National Council for Science and Technology (UNCST) approved the above referenced research project. The Approval of the research project is for the period of 28/11/2014 to 28/11/2017.

Your research registration number with the UNCST is SS 3655. Please, cite this number in all your future correspondences with UNCST in respect of the above research project.

As Principal Investigator of the research project, you are responsible for fulfilling the following requirements of approval:

1. All co-investigators must be kept informed of the status of the research.
2. Changes, amendments, and addenda to the research protocol or the consent form (where applicable) must be submitted to the designated local Institutional Review Committee (IRC) or Lead Agency for re-review and approval prior to the activation of the changes. UNCST must be notified of the approved changes within five working days.
3. For clinical trials, all serious adverse events must be reported promptly to the designated local IRC for review with copies to the National Drug Authority.
4. Unanticipated problems involving risks to research subjects/participants or other must be reported promptly to the UNCST. New information that becomes available which could change the risk/benefit ratio must be submitted promptly for UNCST review.
5. Only approved study procedures are to be implemented. The UNCST may conduct impromptu audits of all study records.
6. A progress report must be submitted electronically to UNCST within four weeks after every 12 months. Failure to do so may result in termination of the research project.

Below is a list of documents approved with this application:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Document Title</th>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Version</th>
<th>Version Date</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Research proposal</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Yours sincerely,

Leah N Omongo
for: Executive Secretary
UGANDA NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY
APPENDIX (C-i)
THE KISWAHILI SMS TO THE WHATSAPP GROUP (X) REQUESTING FOR MEMBERS’ SURNAMES

Tarehe 10 Septemba, 2015

Ndugu wenzangu wa (Jina la Kundi la WhatsApp)

Kama mnavyofahamu kwamba kwa sasa nachukua masomo ya Shahada ya Uzamivu katika Chuo Kikuu cha Stellenbosch, Afrika Kusini.

Pamoja na mambo mengine, masomo yangu ya Shahada ya Uzamivu yananihitaji kuanda muhtasari wa somo la Kiswahili ambao walimu wa somo hilo kwenye shule za upili nchini Uganda watautumia katika kufundisha Kiswahili katika madarasa yao.

Kutokana na hilo, kama muandaaji wa muhtasari husika, muhtasari huo utakuwa na sehemu za wazi ambazo zitajazwa na majina ya Ukoo ya Watu ambao watatumika kama wanafunzi wataoka kuwa wahusika ndani ya muhtasari huo.

Hivyo basi, kwa heshima na taadhima ninaomba watu wa kundi hili kujitolea kwa hiari kunipa majina yao ya ukoo na kuniruhusu niyatumie majina hayo kwenye muhtasari huo. Ombi hili ni mahsusi kwenye kundi hili kwa sababu nikiwa mmoja wa wanakundi, ninaamini ninyi wenzangu mmekuwa sehemu ya msada katika masomo yangu haya, hivyo haya ni matooke na mwendelezo wa mahusiano yetu katika nyanya mbalimbali za kimaisha.

Kwa namna ya kuuenzi na kuuthamini uhusiano wetu, kutumia majina yenu ya ukoo katika muhtasari huu ni jambo muhimu na pia ni mchango wenu katika masomo yangu ya Shahada ya Uzamivu kwa ujumla.

FAHAMU: Ninawahakikisha nitatumia majina yenu hayo kwa jambo lililokusudiwa tu, na nitayalinda na kuhifadhi kwa lengo husika tu.

Ahsanteni.

Caesar Jjingi

Mtafiti/ Mwanafunzi wa Shahada ya Uzamivu
APPENDIX (C-ii)

THE ENGLISH SMS TO THE WHATSAPP GROUP (Y) REQUESTING FOR MEMBERS’ SURNAMES

10th September 2015

Dear colleagues (the name of the WhatsApp group)

As many of you are aware that I am currently pursuing my PhD studies at Stellenbosch University, South Africa.

Well, the PhD that I am doing, among other things, requires me to develop/design a syllabus that secondary school Kiswahili teachers in Uganda can use in facilitating the teaching and learning of Kiswahili in their classrooms

Thus, given the nature of the syllabus that I am developing, as its developer, the syllabus will have spaces to be filled by the surnames of the people who will act as students that will use the said syllabus. Therefore, it is in this respect that I request for volunteers from this group to provide me with their surnames. This request is appropriate because, as a group, you have indirectly been part of my studies. This is as a result of our continuous engagements in different aspects of life.

Therefore, as a way of acknowledging such engagements, I will use your surnames in the syllabus which will serve as your contribution towards my PhD studies as a whole.

NOTE: I guarantee you to use your surnames for the intended purposes and that I will treat them with at most confidentiality.

Kind regards.

Caesar Jingo

Researcher/ PhD candidate
APPENDIX (C-iii)

NAMES OF TASK PARTICIPANTS FROM WHATSAPP GROUP X

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Female participants</th>
<th>Male participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(i). Adelina Kemilembe (deceased)</td>
<td>(i). Abraham Sajile</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ii). Ann Kalunga</td>
<td>(ii). Boniface Nyambibo (deceased)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(iii). Bernardina Silagomi</td>
<td>(iii). David Kombe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(iv). Flora Kokubanza</td>
<td>(iv). Joseph Lembo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(v). Harriet Aimbora /Nkya</td>
<td>(v). Moses Kayobora</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(vi). Ndunamiwe Dyegula</td>
<td>(vi). Stanley Msella</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(vii). Pauline Majolo/Chipoli</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(viii). Peta Muhoma</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX (C-iv)

NAMES OF TASK PARTICIPANTS FROM WHATSAPP GROUP Y

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>From girls’ school</th>
<th>From boys’ school</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(i). Barbra Banenya-Mugalu</td>
<td>(i). Ben Etonu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ii). Esther Nakayima-Bulyaba</td>
<td>(ii). Cliff Ndawula</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(iii). Eva Kaganda</td>
<td>(iii). Eric Kiggundu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(iv). Florence Nagutta</td>
<td>(iv). Henry Wanyama</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(v). Hellen Kirabo</td>
<td>(v). Ivan Kirumira</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(vi). Juliana Rugambwa</td>
<td>(vi). Joseph Kikonyongo-Kakande</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(vii). Leah Kaganda</td>
<td>(vii). Rogers Kakembo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(viii). Madrine Uwera</td>
<td>(viii). Ronald Kintu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ix). Margret Kyomukama</td>
<td>(ix). Ronald Mutebi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(x). Nivah Lwanga-Namyalo</td>
<td>(x). Sheriff Seguya</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(xi). Roseline Nantume</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(xii). Rosette Nnamuusoke</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>