

PRINCIPLES OF FORM-FOCUSED TASKS FOR XHOSA SECOND LANGUAGE
AT TERTIARY LEVEL

BY

A VAN HUYSSTEEN



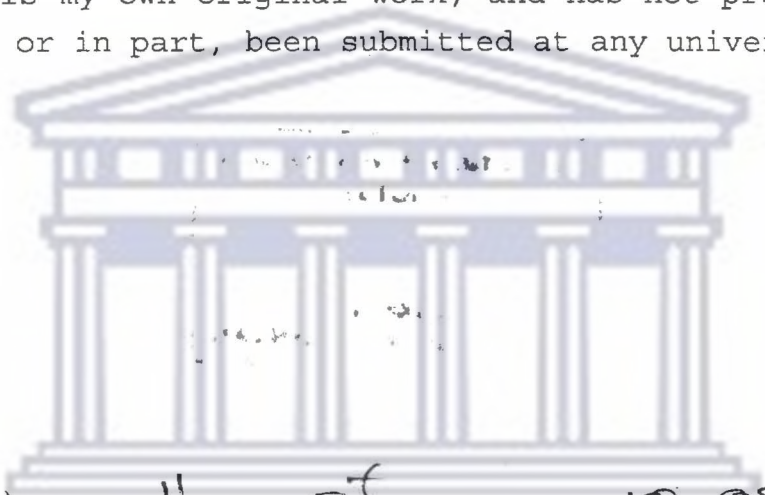
UNIVERSITY *of the*
WESTERN CAPE

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

Study leader: Dr M Visser
Date submitted: January 1997

DECLARATION

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



Signature: *[Handwritten Signature]* Date: 10.02.97

UNIVERSITY *of the*
WESTERN CAPE

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

It is with most sincere gratitude that I thank my study leader Dr Mariana Visser for inspiration, guidance and support in this study. I could not have asked for anyone better to understand me and my needs.

I wish to thank my colleagues Loyiso, Thenjiswa and Siyanda at the University of the Western Cape for helping me with the collection and translation of the dialogues used as input for the tasks in chapter four, and Joan for being more than a secretary and Avril for being my secretary for a most critical day.

My study partners Jeni and Aneen contributed a lot to my enjoyment of the year's studies. Their support meant a lot to me. What could have been a purely academic encounter became a much broader experience in their company.

Closer to home I owe gratitude to my mother who, as always, believed in me even when I did not. To my husband Roger and my daughter Mien I owe gratitude for their support in what was important to me.

In the undertaking of this project I have been blessed in many more ways by the Lord whom I humbly thank. My only regret is not having been able to share this with my father who would have enjoyed it so because this is what a large part of his life was about.

ABSTRACT

This study explores the principles of form-focused tasks for Xhosa second language at tertiary level. The latest developments in second language acquisition and in pedagogy are reviewed.

The study field of second language acquisition developed from within the confines of applied linguistics as the result of a search for more effective language teaching methodology. While acknowledging the fact that Universal Grammar plays a role in the acquisition of both a first and a second language, there is general agreement that there is a difference between the two processes. A prominent issue in current second language acquisition research is the degree of access that a learner has to Universal Grammar in the acquisition of a second language. Some salient features of Universal Grammar such as principles and parameter settings, markedness, transfer and fossilization are explored in this study.

Different syllabus types are reviewed. Task-based syllabus types are described as a suitable syllabus type for the current paradigm. Input enhancement in terms of a focus on form is suggested as a way to achieve effective second language learning and teaching. Ways to adapt study materials according to the requirements of a task-based approach are explored.

Finally an example of a task-based form-focused course for beginner learners of Xhosa as a second language at tertiary level is presented. The course consists of ten tasks, each of which is analyzed according to a task typology.

OPSOMMING

Hierdie studie ondersoek die beginsels van take wat op vorm konsentreer vir Xhosa tweede taal op tersiêre vlak. Die nuutste ontwikkelings in tweede taalverwerwing en in pedagogie word bestudeer.

Die studieveld van tweede taalverwerwing het ontwikkel van binne die gebied van toegepaste taalkunde as gevolg van 'n soeke na meer effektiewe taalonderrigmetodologie. Terwyl daar aanvaar word dat Universele Grammatika 'n rol speel in beide eerste en tweede taalverwerwing, word dit ook aanvaar dat daar 'n verskil tussen die twee prosesse bestaan. 'n Belangrike vraagstuk in die huidige tweede taalverwerwingsnavorsing is die mate van toegang wat 'n leerling tot Universele Grammatika het in die verwerwing van 'n tweede taal. 'n Aantal opvallende kenmerke van Universele Grammatika soos beginsels en parameterstellings, gemerktheid, oordrag en fossilisasie word in hierdie studie ondersoek.

Verskillende sillabustipes word beskou. Taakgebaseerde sillabustipes word beskryf as 'n geskikte sillabustipe vir die huidige paradigma. Inputverryking in terme van konsentrasie op vorm word voorgestel as 'n manier om 'n tweede taal effektief te leer en te onderrig. Maniere om studiemateriaal aan te pas volgens die vereistes van 'n taakgebaseerde benadering word ondersoek.

Laastens word 'n voorbeeld van 'n taakgebaseerde kursus vir beginnerleerlinge van Xhosa as 'n tweede taal op tersiêre vlak aangebied. Die kursus bestaan uit tien take wat elk volgens 'n taaktipologie geanaliseer word.

ISICATSHULWA

Esi sifundo sinika ingqwalasela ngokugqibeleleyo kwiingcamango ezingqamene nofundo lwesiXhosa njengolwimi lwesibini kumaziko emfundo ephakamileyo. Inkqubela phambili zakutshanje ezimalunga nendlela ulwimi lwesibini olwazeka ngayo ndlela olufundwa ngayo zithi ziphononongwe.

Izifundo mayela nokwazi ulwimi lwesibini zisukela kwindlela ulwimi olufundiswa ngayo ukuzama ukufumana olona hlobo lulungileyo lokufundiswa kolwimi. Nangona kusazeka ukuba iGrama kaWonke-wonke ithabatha indima enkulu ekwazini ulwimi lwenkobe kwakunye nolwesibini, kukho ukuvumelana ngokupheleleyo ukuba kukho umahluko phakathi kwezi meko zimbini zikhankanyiweyo. Umbandela oqaqambileyo kuphando lwale mihla ekwazini ulwimilwesibini bubungakanani begalelo kwiGrama kaWonke-wonke kumfundi ofunda ngolwimi olo. Iingongoma ezibalulekileyo zeGrama kaWonke-wonke ezifana nemithetho-siseko nobume obungaguqukiyo kodwa bungafani kwezinye iimeko, iyantlukwano zolwimi, ugqithiso lwemeko ezithile zesakhiwo solwimi lwenkobe kulwimi lwesibini, kwakunye neempazamo ezincinci esoloko zisetyenziswa de zasisiqhelo engqondweni zomfundi wolwimi lwesibini, zinikwa ingqwalasela kwesi sifundo.

Iintlobo ezahlukeyo zeesilabhasi zithi ziphengululwe. Iisilabhasi ezinemisebenzi eyenziwayo ngokuluvo lwale mihla zithatyathwa njengezona zamkelekileyo. Igalelo elenziwayo elinjongo zingqamene neziphumo ezizizo lelona likhuthazwayo ukufumana impumelelo kufundo nofundiso lolwimi lwesibini. Iindlela zokuyondelelanisa okubhaliweyo emakufundwe neemfuno zesilabhasi enemisebenzi eyenziwayo zinikwa ingqwalasela.

Elokuqukumbela, kukho umzekelo wekhosi elungiselelwe abafundi abaqalayo ukufunda isiXhosa njengolwimi lwesibini kumaziko emfundo ephakamileyo. Le khosi inika ingqwalasela kuniko lwemisebenzi emayenziwe ngabafundi. Le khosi yahlulwe yayimisetyenzana elishumi, msebenzi ngamnye uphicothwa ugocagocwe ngokwendlela umsebenzi imeko yawo ome ngayo.

CONTENTS

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	p. 1
1.1. Purpose and aims of study	p. 1
1.2. Theoretical assumptions	p. 2
1.2.1. The nature of second language learning: UG principles	p. 3
1.2.2. Second language teaching pedagogy	p. 3
1.3. Organization of study	p. 5
CHAPTER TWO: THE RELATION OF SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING THEORY TO PEDAGOGY	p. 6
2.1. Introduction	p. 6
2.2. Universal Grammar and L2 learning and teaching	p. 8
2.2.1. A theory of principles and parameters	p. 8
2.2.2. The Universal Grammar model of language acquisition	p. 10
2.2.3. Access to Universal Grammar in second language learning	p. 12
2.2.4. Universal Grammar and second language acquisition	p. 14
2.2.5. Interlanguage and fossilization	p. 16
2.2.6. Markedness	p. 17
2.2.7. Transfer	p. 19

2.2.8.	Multicompetence	p. 23
2.2.9.	Universal Grammar and language teaching	p. 24
2.3.	Input	p. 25
2.3.1.	Definition	p. 25
2.3.2.	Comprehensible input	p. 26
2.3.3.	Authenticity	p. 29
2.3.4.	Input processing	p. 31
2.4.	Form-focused instruction	p. 33
2.4.1.	Background	p. 33
2.4.2.	Attention and awareness	p. 34
2.4.3.	Modularity	p. 35
2.4.4.	Focus on form by input enhancement	p. 36
2.4.5.	Deciding what to teach	p. 40
2.4.6.	Deciding when to teach	p. 42
2.5.	Implications of theoretical perspectives on second language to language teaching	p. 43
2.6.	Summary	p. 47
CHAPTER THREE: PRINCIPLES OF TASK-BASED COURSE DESIGN		p. 49
3.1.	Introduction	p. 49
3.2.	Syllabus design as decision-making process	p. 49

3.2.1.	Syllabus design as the expression of a paradigm	p. 51
3.2.2.	Propositional plans	p. 52
3.2.2.1.	The formal syllabus	p. 52
3.2.2.2.	The functional syllabus	p. 54
3.2.3.	Changes that created a need for new types of syllabuses	p. 56
3.2.4.	Process plans	p. 60
3.2.4.1.	The task-based syllabus	p. 60
3.2.4.2.	The process syllabus	p. 64
3.3.	Task-based syllabus design for a new paradigm	p. 67
3.3.1.	Features of communication tasks	p. 69
3.3.2.	Types of communication tasks	p. 73
3.4.	Grammar and task-based methodology	p. 74
3.4.1.	Automatization and restructuring	p. 77
3.4.2.	Naturalness, utility and essentialness	p. 79
3.4.3.	Control	p. 80
3.4.4.	Comprehension and production	p. 80
3.4.5.	Relationship between task features	p. 81
3.4.6.	Feedback	p. 81
3.4.7.	Designing structure-based comprehension tasks	p. 82

3.4.8.	Methodological aspects of task-based pedagogy	p. 84
3.5.	Implications of a task-based approach for materials design	p. 88
3.5.1.	Materials design and authenticity	p. 88
3.5.2.	Theoretical basis for input enhancement in SLA	p. 92
3.6.	Conclusion	p. 96
CHAPTER FOUR: A TASK-BASED APPROACH TO AN INTRODUCTORY XHOSA SECOND LANGUAGE COURSE AT TERTIARY LEVEL		p. 97
4.1.	Introduction	p. 97
4.2.	Problems in task-based learning	p. 97
4.3.	Goals in task-based instruction	p. 101
4.4.	A framework for the implementation of a task-based approach	p. 103
4.5.	The influence of planning and task type on second language performance	p. 105
4.6.	A task-based approach to an introductory Xhosa second language course at tertiary level	p. 108
4.7.	Tasks	p. 110
4.8.	Conclusion	p. 127
CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSION		p. 128
APPENDIX		p. 132
BIBLIOGRAPHY		p. 152

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1. Purpose and aims of study

During the last ten to fifteen years the field of second language acquisition has developed into a field of research in its own right, working towards the establishment of a theory of second language acquisition that can explain and predict phenomena from this particular field with the same degree of reliability and credibility as those of other fields of study. Second language acquisition is currently a very dynamic field of research and a comprehensive body of information is being published on studies covering a wide spectrum of relevant topics.

There has been some divergent use of the term "second language" in the past. For some people the term literally mean the next language being learned after the first. Some researchers distinguish a second language from a foreign language, the first being a language that is not the native language of the speaker and the latter being one that is not native to the environment it is studied in. In this study the term "second language" is used with the meaning of any language learned with the exception of the first (native) language. It includes the concept of a foreign language, which is regarded as a language which is not a native language in a country. It also includes the concept of a second language as a language which is not a native language in a country, but which is widely used as a medium of communication alongside with another or other languages, as described in Richards, Platt and Platt (1992). The interpretation of the term "second language acquisition" is according to the description given by Ritchie and Bhatia (1996): "the acquisition of a language after the native language has already become established in the individual".

The purpose of this study is to explore the most recent developments in the field of second language acquisition that are of significance for researchers and teachers of second languages. The focus is upon developments that may help them better understand the nature of human language and learner processes, so that they may teach Xhosa second language more effectively by invoking principles of syllabus and materials design to help learners to learn the target language effectively.

This study aims to justify the use of tasks that focus on form as method of instruction and presents examples of such form-focused tasks that may be used to teach Xhosa as second language at tertiary level.

1.2. Theoretical assumptions

Eckman (1995) states that Long (1993) claims that there is currently not yet a widely accepted theory of second language acquisition. This does not, however, mean there is no development in this area. Eckman sees it as a sign of progress that second language acquisition theory and pedagogy have established themselves as distinct areas of study that are also distinct from linguistic theory. Theoretical developments in second language acquisition occur in two distinct but related areas: that of the nature of second language learning, and that of second language teaching pedagogy. Although these two areas are distinct, they are interrelated. Success in the one field can only be achieved with the help of understanding of the other, and progress in the one area usually leads to progress in the other.

1.2.1. The nature of second language learning: Universal Grammar (UG) principles

The research in the field of second language acquisition is driven mainly by questions such as the one set by Sharwood Smith (1993): "How on earth do people learn new languages?" He says second language acquisition is "a cognitive feat on the part of the learner" that can only be accomplished with the help of subtle psychological processes.

For a better understanding of the processes involved in second language acquisition, linguists turned to Universal Grammar (UG) for clues, "applying the UG model to second language learning", as Cook (1994) explains. Ritchie and Bhatia (1996) regard Chomsky's Universal Grammar as a "major source of stimulation" for research in the field of second language acquisition. A major influence is currently played by the recent development of a principles and parameters theory as part of government and binding theory. Ritchie and Bhatia mention that the role of this concept in second language acquisition is currently being researched by a number of people, such as White, Flynn and Schachter.

1.2.2. Second language teaching pedagogy

Over the years many different approaches have been applied to teach second languages. Richards and Rodgers (1986) describe and analyze a number of these approaches and point out that not all of them are based on sound linguistic theory. The importance of the interrelationship between second language acquisitional theory and pedagogy has been emphasized by people like Gass (1995), who believes teachers and researchers should work together to find solutions to classroom problems, and Flynn and Martohardjano (1995), who state that progress in second language

acquisition theory should have consequences in the classroom, and the results of pedagogical programmes should influence the status of theoretical constructs and principles.

Richards (1990) views teaching as a dynamic process which is the result of interactions among the curriculum, teachers, students, methodology, and instructional materials. As classroom research progresses, it becomes possible to improve instruction to achieve better results. Communicative approaches emphasize interaction, conversation, and language use, rather than learning about the language, as Lightbown and Spada (1993) noted. Curriculum development has been receiving a lot of attention. Breen (1987a and 1987b) claims that there is currently a shift in paradigm, towards process syllabus types. This brings new challenges for the learner and the teacher. In this type of syllabus the learner becomes involved in the designing of the syllabus, which develops inside the classroom as part of the learning activities.

A better understanding of the psycholinguistic processes involved in second language acquisition has led to a growing interest in the use of form-focused task-based instruction. In this type of methodology the teacher has to create the best possible situation for the learner to make use of natural learning processes to acquire the target language. Crookes, Gass and others (1993, 1994) have produced insightful research to guide teachers in the integration of tasks into language teaching.

The implementation of the new approach brings along challenges to teachers to create appropriate study and teaching materials. The importance of making use of authentic language input is crucial to effective processing in language learning. McDonough and Shaw (1993) discuss the designing of suitable materials, and the adaptation of available materials when necessary.

1.3. Organization of study

In chapter two the relation of second language learning to pedagogy will be explored. The role of Universal Grammar in second language acquisition will be considered, with special attention given to the theory of principles and parameters, and the availability of access to Universal Grammar to learners of a second language. Aspects such as interlanguage development and fossilization, markedness, transfer, and multicompetence will also be studied. The role of input will be explored, highlighting the need for authentic input, and current views on processing of input. Input enhancement in terms of form-focused instruction will be studied. The implications of the theoretical perspectives presented in this study on second language teaching will also be investigated.

Chapter three will focus on task-based course design. First syllabus design as decision-making process will be discussed, and then the task-based syllabus design will be presented as a suitable option for the current paradigm. The role of grammar in a task-based methodology will be discussed. The implications of a task-based approach for materials design will then be studied.

In chapter four the principles of task-based course design will be reviewed. Problems in task-based learning, and goals in task-based instruction will be investigated and then Skehan's proposal for a framework for the implementation of a task-based approach will be discussed. Finally an example of a form-focused task-based introductory Xhosa second language course at tertiary level will be given.

Chapter five will constitute a conclusion to this study.

CHAPTER TWO: THE RELATION OF SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING THEORY TO PEDAGOGY

2.1. Introduction

At any given time millions of people all over the world are involved in the learning of a second language (L2). A considerable amount of information about the process of learning and teaching has become available over especially the past decade. One area of interest is the effect of maturity of learners on L2 learning. It is a widely accepted fact that adult L2 learners seldom achieve nativelike mastery of the target language, whereas children do seem to be able to achieve such mastery. Yet all children are able to achieve mastery of their mother tongue. L2 learning is therefore clearly not similar to first language acquisition, and there is also a difference between child and adult L2 learning.

Second language teachers and researchers turned to the field of linguistics, hoping that linguistics could help them understand the nature of and issues relevant to second language acquisition (SLA). The generative theory of linguistics is a pure science that has as its subject of inquiry the innate ability of the human mind to acquire the language that the individual is exposed to in his or her environment. Applied linguistics is a related applied science that, according to Sharwood Smith (1994), aims at "the using of linguistically based explanations and descriptions of language to solve practical problems of relevance to society".

As second language research was born out of a need for better language teaching methods and techniques, it is viewed by many teachers as a case of applying second language research to pedagogical problems. Although second language research has become a recognized study field on its own, it has such definite

implications for pedagogy that these two fields can hardly be separated at all. Developments in each of these fields should influence one another. Sharwood Smith (1994) says: "Solving language teaching problems should more properly be called 'applying second language research'."

The influence of the first language (L1) of the L2 learner on SLA has since early in the development of the study field been a central issue. More recently the focus has moved to theoretical questions about the degree of involvement of Universal Grammar (UG) in the SLA process. Whereas Chomsky's efforts have lately become concentrated on the development of his Minimalist Program (Cook, V. and Newson, M. 1996), which has not yet had much documented influence on studies in the field of SLA, others such as White, Flynn and Schachter are doing empirical work within the framework of Government and Binding (Ritchie, W. C. and Bhatia, T. K. 1996). A major development has been the introduction of the principles and parameters framework that represents the innate human genetic endowment of language acquisition (Schachter, J. 1996). Theoretical questions have been raised about the possibility of similarities between L1 and L2 acquisition processes along the structure of such a framework of principles and parameters (Flynn, S. 1996), and about the availability or accessibility of UG to the adult L2 learner (White, L. 1996). As SLA by adult learners seems to be more problematic than that done by child learners, theoretical research questions have become more focused on the study of adult SLA.

SLA occurs within a language environment. The learner is exposed to language input which triggers the acquisition process (Long, M. H. 1996). The actual nature of the acquisition process is currently receiving a lot of attention from people like Sharwood Smith (1993, 1994). By investigating the cognitive processes involved in L2 acquisition they hope to better understand the type of input required by learners to promote progress. Recognition of the importance of the role of input is strengthened by the concept of input enhancement which is aimed

at facilitating the acquisition process. The pedagogic consequences are that instructional materials of a new kind will have to be created.

Through the years the issue whether grammar should be taught at all has been argued about constantly. Recent developments in SLA theory have resulted in a shift in focus to form. This has resulted in the question whether grammar should be taught being replaced by the questions how much grammar and what type should be taught and when it should be taught, if optimal effectivity is to be achieved (Loschky, L. and Bley-Vroman, R. 1993). Syllabus design will in future have to reflect a focus on form, taking into account what is now known about the learning processes (Sharwood Smith, M. 1993).

2.2. Universal Grammar and L2 learning and teaching

This section will explore the latest developments in Universal Grammar theory regarding L2 learning and teaching.

2.2.1. UG: a theory of principles and parameters

Chomsky, who initially postulated the Universal Grammar model, posited the theory of Government and Binding (GB) as part of a theory of syntax, which was originally motivated by a desire to explain the phenomenon of language acquisition by L1 speakers. Later developments led to the alternative use of the term principles and parameters theory for the same theory.

Cook (1994) explains the theory as follows: Central to the theory of principles and parameters is the concept that language is a knowledge that contains a universal set of principles that form the "permanent equipment in all minds", and parameter settings

that differ according to the specific language that the individual person knows. Cook explains "the parameters tune the principles to a particular language or languages." Sharwood Smith (1994) defines parameters as "ways in which certain grammatical principles vary ways in which the grammatical make-up of natural languages seem to differ".

According to Cook and Newson (1996), knowledge of any language contains only a small number of principles. One example of such a principle is that of structure-dependency. This principle reflects the concept that the human mind has the innate knowledge that it should not deal with the words of a sentence as single independent units, but that they constitute phrases that have a particular hierarchical structure that should be considered.

Parameters usually have two or more values. An example of a parameter is the pro-drop parameter, which allows sentences without subjects. This parameter has two settings: pro-drop or non-pro-drop. The human mind knows that the pro-drop parameter should be set to one of these settings when dealing with a language, depending on whether the particular language allows sentences without subjects.

Other aspects of language are included in the speaker's knowledge. An important aspect is knowledge of vocabulary. Cook points out that Chomsky (1989) claims that syntax is innate but vocabulary is learnt. Knowledge of the meaning of words is not enough, knowledge of the way they are used in sentences is necessary too. Cook says: "Many of the complexities of a language are now seen as having more to do with how particular words are used than with syntax".

In the principles and parameters theory grammar is concerned with the central, fundamental aspects of language, therefore it is termed "core" grammar. Principles and parameters theory does not involve peripheral areas of language. In 1988 Cook counted a total of seven principles and five parameters. She explains that

the complexity of the theory does not lie in large numbers of components, but in the way the principles and parameters interact with one another.

The theory of principles and parameters has implications for language teaching. Principles such as structure-dependency should be considered when dealing with sentence components, allowing the learners to make use of their innate knowledge to make the learning of the language easier. Knowledge about parameter settings could be used in teaching second languages, pointing out similar settings or parametric differences between the first and second languages.

2.2.2. The Universal Grammar model of language acquisition

The main function of the principles and parameters theory within the UG model is to explain acquisition of a first language. Researchers working on UG propose the concept that first language acquisition is structured by a system of innate UG principles and parameters. The most important claim according to Cook (1994), is that the learner does not have to learn the principles of language, as they are an inborn part of the learner's mind. The parameters are also already there, but their values still have to be set according to the requirements of the particular language. Learning a language therefore actually means setting parameter values.

The theory of principles and parameters is still in a developmental stage and some questions are presently receiving the attention of linguists who do not always agree on these matters. Cook (1994) raises three prominent issues in this regard.

The first question that Cook considers relates to the initial setting for a parameter. In her view the question is whether a

child starts learning a language from a neutral parameter setting and simply selects one of the available values, or whether there is a default or unmarked setting that only has to be switched in the case of specific languages that require the alternative setting. According to this view, the challenge for the researcher is to determine what the initial setting is.

The second question that Cook considers is what changes the value for a parameter. A child learning a language needs some language evidence that needs only be a few sentences to be able to set a parameter. According to Cook, the question here is what type of evidence a child needs. One can distinguish between positive evidence that shows the correct form, and negative evidence that gives an indication of what does not occur. Cook states that two types of negative evidence are found: correction tells the child what not to say, and the absence of particular forms may be interpreted to show that they do not occur at all, or simply that they do not occur in the language the child is exposed to. Cook points out that not all linguists agree on this issue. Although they may agree that the acquisition process is triggered by naturalistic positive linguistic input, causing UG parameters to be set without any need for learning, they do not agree on the role of negative evidence. Some linguists such as Schachter (Larsen-Freeman 1995) regard negative evidence as not necessary for progress. They claim that instruction does not seem to have much of an effect on the acquisition process. The main motivation for this proposal according to White is that adult linguistic competence is simply too far developed to have been derived from linguistic input only.

The third question that Cook considers is whether the principles and parameters change as the child develops. She states that the child's mind is not static, it keeps on growing and developing. According to Cook, it is possible that all the principles and parameters are not present at all times during the development of the child's mind, but that they function at specific developmental stages.

2.2.3. Access to Universal Grammar in second language learning

Cook (1994) explains that the theory of UG is developed to explain L1 acquisition and is only concerned with issues related to the central aspects of grammar. In the course of searching for explanations for L2 acquisition, people interested in SLA started raising questions about a possible relation between L1 acquisition and L2 learning. Recent research has been focused on the role of the L1 and its relation to UG. The main questions deal with the accessibility of UG to L2 learners. Three main streams of thought are currently popular. Cook (1994) explains the three models which are named according to the relationship between the L2 learner and UG:

"In a no-access model L2 learners acquire the L2 grammar without consulting the UG in their minds; the grammar is learnt through other mental faculties. In a direct-access model L2 learners acquire the L2 in exactly the same way as L1 learners by using the UG; they set values for parameters according to the L2 evidence they encounter. In an indirect-access model L2 learners have access to UG through what they know of the L1, but they start with the parameters in their L1 setting instead of in their original state" (Cook 1994).

Cook highlights the main arguments in favour of the no-access model with reference to the studies by Bley-Vroman, Felix, Loup, and Schachter between 1988 and 1989. Cook explains that L2 learners do show effects of UG, but not consistently, therefore the assumption is that there must be some other factor at play. According to Cook, L2 learners are not as successful as L1 learners and their language knowledge is not as complete as that of L1 speakers, so UG is not centrally involved. Children can learn any L1 with similar ease, but L2 learners seem to find some languages more difficult to learn than others, therefore UG is not available. L2 learners become fossilized at some stage,

whereas UG should have ensured achievement of full native competence.

In Cook's view support for a model that involves some degree of accessibility of UG can be based on the absence of evidence that L2 learners know less of core grammar than L1 learners. Cook states that available evidence does also not suggest that L2 learners do not function within a principles and parameters system. An important problem is that of the psychological processing of a second language. Cook has earlier (1991) shown that L2 learners function slower and less efficiently in the L2 than in the L1 in almost every respect, and argues that this may explain their insufficiency. Claims made by Clahsen and Muysken in 1989 that adult L2 learners are still constrained by UG principles in some way but do not have access to parameter setting as all the values have already been set for the L1, are rejected by Cook. She maintains that differences between L1 acquisition by children and L2 learning by adults may be caused by the fact that adults already possess mature cognitive systems and have already learnt a language, and they therefore have a different starting point for their acquisition, whatever the role of UG may be.

Parameters are multivalued, with settings or values differing between the L1 and the L2. Gass (1996) proposes two options: (1) a learner begins with the L1 and initially adopts the L1 value for all parameters, learning appropriate L2 values through the positive evidence of the L2, and guided by knowledge of UG, or only learning L2 values through the surface facts of the L2, or (2) a learner begins with UG and learns the L2 the way a child does, with no effect of the L1 parameter value. Gass further suggests that parametric values cannot be ignored, and that access to UG, if it exists, is mediated by the L1.

2.2.4. Universal Grammar and second language acquisition

According to Cook, the same questions that need answers with regard to L1 acquisition should also be dealt with when looking at the influence of UG on L2 acquisition. Gregg (1996) states that only since Government and Binding Theory has been applied to SLA has there been a truly theory-centred approach to the question of SLA.

The first question concerns the initial parameter settings. Cook (1994) argues that if direct access to UG is available, the learners would start from the same point as L1 learners, setting parameters from the beginning. If indirect access is available, L2 learners would start from their first languages, resetting values where the L2 values differ from those of the L1, even changing back to an unmarked setting where necessary. Gass (1996) refers to Flynn, who argues that L1 and L2 are basically similar and both are constrained by UG. Schachter (1996), on the other hand, argues that UG principles are available to the L2 learner only through the L1.

The second question concerns what changes the L2 value for a parameter. Cook (1994) points out that L2 learners very seldom master the target language to the same extent that the L1 learners do. The L2 learners are also exposed to the target language in a much wider range of situations than the L1 child, as they usually learn in classroom situations where the focus is often on the language itself, which seldom happens in the case of L1 acquisition. Cook states that the classroom provides an opportunity for making available evidence in ways not available to L1 learners, such as structure drills, grammatical explanations, and communication games. According to Cook, the reason for the deficiency in the achievement of L2 learners could lie in the type of evidence available to the learners.

Another possible reason for the limited achievement of L2 learners may be linked with the issue of marked and unmarked parameter settings. Cook (1994) explains that according to the Subset Principle a parameter cannot be reset from a marked value to an unmarked value from positive evidence. The Subset Principle is a principle of learning that complements the UG model. It deals with the accessibility to UG principles by L2 learners. It has been claimed to be necessary for the appropriate resetting of a variety of UG parameters. Gass (1996) explains that the L2 learner adopts a grammar based on the evidence available, and is able to move from a subset language to a superset language through positive evidence. Gass comes to the conclusion that principles are not available to L2 learners in an "unadulterated" form, and that the L1 sometimes interacts with UG principles.

The third question that Cook (1994) is concerned with is whether the principles and parameters change as the L2 learner learns. Access to UG may depend on the learner's age. Cook states that the Critical Period Hypothesis claims that learners lose the ability to learn language the way they learn the first language during their teens, which means that UG is only available to child learners. In the adult learner physical or cognitive development has already taken place that causes loss of direct access to UG.

Gass (1996) maintains that parametric values involve clusters of properties. According to Gass, White argues that L2 acquisition involves the resetting of parameters, but that not all aspects are learned at once. Gass also refers to Bley-Vroman and Schachter who claim that child language and adult L2 acquisition are fundamentally different processes. Principles and parameters are not available to adults, but the L1 replaces the principles of UG. "Adult language learning is guided by general problem-solving abilities rather than by domain-specific learning procedures" (Gass 1996). According to Gass, there are two possible ways of viewing parameter setting: (1) it is an "on-off phenomenon", with all aspects of a proposed setting appearing at

once, or (2) it has a "domino effect", with incomplete clusters as part of grammars in transition, or nonconformity grammars, as Sharwood Smith names them.

Gass (1996) refers to the Competition Model that was proposed by Bates and MacWhinney to account for the ways monolingual speakers interpret sentences. According to Gass, it assumes that form and function cannot be separated, and is concerned with how language is used, not with its underlying structure. It deals with a universal range of cues, which are in competition in language processing when a speaker determines relationships between elements in a sentence. Gass (1996) reports that studies show that "a meaning-based comprehension strategy takes precedence over a grammar-based one", with learners first turning to their L1 for their initial hypothesis, and then turning to a universal selection of meaning-based cues, if a similarity is not found.

2.2.5. Interlanguage and fossilization

Selinker's theory (1972) of SLA, as explained by Allwright and Bailey (1991), postulates the concept of an interlanguage system of developmental stages that represents the L2 learner's progress. This interlanguage differs from the language system of the L1 of the learner as well as that of the native speaker of the L2. It includes a grammatical competence component called interlanguage grammar.

According to Allwright and Bailey (1991), the concept involves the gradual development of a learner's grammatical competence along a continuum of stages, each represented by the type of errors typically made at that particular stage. Allwright and Bailey explain that a learner progresses along the interlanguage continuum by means of a process of hypothesis testing. When a learner is exposed to a structure through input, a hypothesis regarding the use of the particular structure is formulated. The

learner tests the hypothesis by using the structure in communication. According to Allwright and Bailey, progress is made by using feedback to either confirm the correctness of the structure and incorporate it into the learner's grammatical competence, or to change it. An incorrect form that is not corrected can become fossilized.

According to Gass (1996), research on fossilization led to the establishment of the Multiple Effects Principle by Selinker and Lakshmanan. This principle states that when two or more SLA factors work together, there is a greater chance of stabilization of interlanguage forms that may lead to fossilization. Gass (1996) reports that Selinker and Lakshmanan identify three such factors: (1) language transfer, (2) nonoperation of the Subset Principle, and (3) inappropriate interpretation of target language facts.

Even though there is a great deal of individuality and variability in this phenomenon, it still remains systematic and appears to be rule-governed. Although development is gradual, there is no positive evidence that grammatical structures are learned one at a time in a linear fashion. According to Larsen-Freeman (1995), it rather seems that there is sometimes a degree of backsliding, followed at a later stage by restructuring and progress.

2.2.6. Markedness

The notion of markedness receives special attention in terms of SLA. According to Sharwood Smith (1994), the term "unmarked" usually refers to basic forms, whereas the term "marked" is used to refer to forms with more structure or informational content, or that require an extension of a rule, or that occur less frequently and are therefore regarded as less typical. In Sharwood Smith's view the marked form may be more striking

because it is less usual.

Sharwood Smith (1994) points out that learners who are not linguists do not consciously know what is marked and what is unmarked. In his view there must be some subconscious foreknowledge involved in the role markedness plays in language acquisition, as there is evidence that marked structures are acquired before related unmarked structures.

According to Sharwood Smith (1994), languages can be classified into types from a linguistic point of view. He states that language typology reveals certain characteristics that all languages of a particular type have, and characteristics that all languages have. The less common characteristics are called "marked". Sharwood Smith explains that one can distinguish between implicational universals that are implied by a type of linguistic system, and absolute universals that every language has.

Sharwood Smith (1994) reports that SLA researchers are studying markedness in an attempt to explain early interlanguage development. The question is whether markedness affects the order of acquisition. According to Sharwood Smith, Zobl states that when learners "demark" a structure even though evidence shows marked features, it may be an attempt to simplify the learning task, or an incorrect hypothesis that the structure has the same degree of markedness as in the L1. Sharwood Smith considers the possibility that it could also reflect a natural tendency towards a more basic rule system.

Examples of such demarked grammars are reported by Sharwood Smith (1994) to be found in pidgin languages, which he explains are languages with relatively simple word order and poor inflection that are developed for a restricted type of communication. According to Sharwood Smith, pidgins and creoles reflect a degree of closeness or distance between the learner and the community of target language speakers. Sharwood Smith says that Schumann

refers to this as "alienation" and Anderson termed it "denativization" in his Pidginization Model. Further development of the complexity of the learner's interlanguage may be triggered by the learner's perception of closer socio-psychological distance to the target culture (according to Schumann), or rich L2 input (in Anderson's view).

Sharwood Smith reports that evidence found by Eckman shows that learners with an unmarked L1 structure have difficulty acquiring equivalent marked structures. Eckman claims that markedness enables the learner to make better predictions in L2 learning.

In the principles and parameters theory of UG the concept of markedness has relevance for language learning in terms of parameter setting. According to Sharwood Smith (1994), the unmarked option of a given parameter will be adopted automatically by a learner unless positive evidence in the input suggests the marked alternative. He claims that the key criterion for deciding which is the default unmarked option is whether the child could learn it without being corrected. Sharwood Smith regards it as important that the unmarked option is usually the stricter one. In this sense markedness has implications for learnability.

2.2.7. Transfer

The role of the L1 in L2 acquisition has been debated for many years. The fact that the L1 does have a role to play has never been denied, but the view of its importance has changed through the years. The noticeable effect of the influence of the L1 has been termed "transfer". Currently the focus is on language transfer and its role in L2 acquisition as seen from a UG point of view.

In her attempt to define the term transfer, Gass (1996) points out that definitions often reflect the theoretical framework within which the definition is sought. Gass explains that within a behaviourist framework transfer is viewed as the "imposition" of native language (NL) information on an L2 utterance or sentence. She reports that presently it is seen as a much broader concept that includes "the use of prior linguistic information in a non-NL context".

According to Gass (1996), transfer was initially seen only in terms of lexical and morphological influences that were carried over to the L2 context, but lately the scope has been widened to include syntactic and phonetic influences as well. Gass reports that Corder prefers the more neutral term "mother tongue influence", while others such as Kellerman, Sharwood Smith and Odlin adopt the even more general term "cross-linguistic influence" or "cross-linguistic generalization". Gass also mentions scholars such as Schachter, who more recently have been thinking of transfer in much broader terms, incorporating all prior linguistic knowledge including the "imperfect" knowledge a learner may have of the L2, while still in the process of hypotheses testing that forms part of language acquisition.

Gass (1996) reports that in the very early stages of linguistic research contrastive analysis was used to compare languages, with the pedagogic aim of determining those areas of difference that may assist in predicting difficulty in the learning process. Gass states that it was realized that learners make many errors that cannot be attributed to the difference between the native language and the target language. According to Gass, it was also found that there are many predicted areas where the expected transfer does not occur. Furthermore, it was found that learners who are speakers of different native languages make similar errors and have many similarities in their learner grammars. Gass reports that these realizations led to the acceptance that phenomena previously attributed to transfer are in fact developmental factors in the L2 acquisition process.

In a reaction to the contrastive analysis Dulay and Burt proposed the Creative Construction Hypothesis, in which they claim, according to Gass (1996), that "the guiding force in L2 acquisition are universal innate principles and not the NL".

Gass (1996) claims that more recently language transfer has been seen not as a mechanical transference of L1 structures, but as a cognitive mechanism underlying L2 acquisition. It has been found that the L1 influences not only directly affect the L2 acquisition, but, as Gass (1996) explains, "indirectly reflect underlying organizational principles of language", as seen in (1) delayed rule restructuring, (2) transfer of typological organization, (3) different paths of acquisition, (4) avoidance of some structures, (5) overproduction of certain elements, (6) additional attention paid to the target language resulting in more rapid learning, or (7) differential effects of socially prestigious forms. Gass mentions Zobl who views transfer and developmental influences as interacting processes, Ard and Homburg who views transfer as a psychological facilitation of learning.

Gass refers to Schachter who does not see transfer as a process at all, but as a constraint on the L2 acquisition process, with the learner's previous linguistic knowledge constraining the hypotheses that can be made about the target language. Gass also refers to Kellerman's argument that there are two factors that interact in the determination of transferable elements: the learner's ever changing perception of the distance between the L1 and the L2, and the degree of markedness of an L1 structure. Gass states that in Kellerman's view the degree of markedness of an L1 structure is an important factor in the determination of transferable elements. Items considered by native speakers as being irregular, infrequent, or semantically opaque, are highly marked. They are language specific and less transferable, and regarded by native speakers as unique to the L1. The frequent, regular forms are language neutral, and believed by the learner to be common to at least the native language and the target

language.

Gass refers to her earlier observation (1979) that language transfer was promoted in cases where the resultant learner language form was more easily interpretable than the actual syntactic form of the target language. She refers to Rutherford's (1983) classification of three kinds of typological organization: (1) topic-prominent versus subject-prominent language, (2) pragmatic word order versus grammatical word order, and (3) canonical arrangements. Gass reports that Rutherford found that native language orderings of canonical elements do not appear with any frequency or regularity in learner grammars. He also says "it is discourse and not syntax that guides the overall development of an L2". Gass claims that it is an issue of the learner's awareness.

Gass (1996) argues that in the case of L2 phonetics and phonology, production involves phonological reorganization, and modification of articulation and patterns of phonetic implementation. Gass mentions that Flege states that phonetic learning involves the creation of new forms, as well as the superimposition of target language forms on the pronunciation of an L2. An effect of exaggeration is caused by the learner overcompensating for the difference between the native language and the target language.

According to Gass (1996), Zobl notes that adults create "wider" grammars than warranted by the L2 input, and the more languages the learner has to draw on, the wider their grammar may be. He also notes that multilinguals generally learn languages more easily than unilinguals do. Gass reports that in Zobl's view the broader prior linguistic knowledge of multilinguals enables them to learn more from the same input than unilinguals do.

Gass concludes that the latest UG based views of transfer differ from earlier views in three areas: (1) within UG theory there are different levels of grammatical structure, with transfer

occurring on the basis of surface facts as well as on the basis of underlying structures, (2) within UG theory it is claimed that learning involves the setting or resetting of parameters that include clusters of properties that may be involved in transfer, and (3) within UG theory learnability involves the construction of grammars on the basis of positive evidence found in input the learner is exposed to, but where positive evidence is not sufficient, transfer is predicted.

2.2.8. Multicompetence

Cook (1994) maintains that the aim of UG is to explain how the human mind acquires a grammar of one language making use of principles and parameter setting. She states that currently more people in the world are multilinguals whose minds contain more than one grammar, than there are monolinguals. Cook therefore argues that it would be necessary to expand on existing UG theory if this growing phenomenon is to be explained.

According to Cook (1994), SLA theory deals with the fact that the mind can contain not only one but more than one grammar that contain the same principles but with different parameter settings. Cook (1994) refers to this state as "multicompetence", and identifies the true problem of language acquisition as how one mind acquires one or more grammars from input. She distinguishes two possibilities: "separatist multicompetence, in which the two languages are effectively separate", or "wholistic multicompetence, in which they form a total system at one level or another".

2.2.9. Universal Grammar and language teaching

Cook (1994) suggests that UG is mainly concerned with knowledge of language, not with how it is used or processed. According to her, it deals with core grammar of principles, which are innate, and parameter setting, which does not have to be learned and therefore does not involve teaching. Cook reports that at present principles and parameters are usually not even included in syllabuses for language teaching.

Cook (1994) argues that for effective L1 acquisition, positive evidence is regarded to be sufficient for parameter setting, but she suggests that in the case of L2 learning according to the indirect-access model, more than ordinary positive evidence may be needed to reset a parameter. Cook (1994) claims that in a parameter-setting model the chief role of teaching is to provide language evidence that can trigger the setting of parameters in the learners' minds, by whatever means. She suggests that concentrated examples of sentences that show a particular parameter may be helpful. Bracketing of structures may also be effective.

Cook (1994) argues that while current UG theory relieves the L2 learner of a large amount of learning in the sense that syntactic acquisition follows the model of principles and parameter setting, the learning of vocabulary remains a huge task. In her view it involves the learning of the words and their meanings and pronunciation, as well as learning how they are used in sentences, which means learning about their lexical categories and subcategorization features. Cook suggests that teaching of vocabulary may involve the presentation of words in contexts that will facilitate the learning of all the necessary information.

In Cook's view the most important influence that UG may have on language teaching is its view of language as knowledge in the mind. Chomsky makes a distinction between external language,

which is concerned with language as social reality, used for communication between people, and internal language, which is concerned with language as psychological reality, acquired by individuals who apply the internal structure of their minds to the speech they are exposed to. According to this view, "language teaching is enabling the student to construct knowledge in his or her mind from language evidence, which can then be used for any purpose the learner likes".

The concept of multicompetence requires that teaching should deal with both the L1 and the L2 according to the needs of the learners. They need to be able to use both languages fluently. The practical purposes of language use should be accommodated at the level of syllabus design.

2.3. Input

This section will explore the latest views regarding the role of input in L2 learning and teaching.

2.3.1. Definition

In SLA the term input is used for all the target language data that the L2 learner is exposed to. According to Allwright and Bailey (1991), it includes all the written as well as spoken language the learner is exposed to, both what is taken in by the learner, and that which simply passes by the learner. It results from unplanned factors as well as the planned implementation of the syllabus.

In terms of formal classroom instruction input is those samples of the target language provided by the teacher to promote language acquisition. Decisions on which input should be provided

and when it should be given have to be made on a daily basis by L2 teachers. This is very difficult, as it has to be done without any established theoretical backup, as theories dealing with this issue are still in a very early stage of development.

2.3.2. Comprehensible input

Allwright and Bailey (1991) report that Krashen (1985) proposes that in order for input to be useful for language acquisition, it must be comprehensible. Only some of the language that learners are exposed to is understandable. Krashen claims that input of the type "i + 1", which is slightly more advanced than the learner's current stage of interlanguage development, will promote learning. According to Ciccone (1995), Krashen has been criticized for being too vague in his description of comprehensible input.

Long (1996) reports that research on the comprehensibility requirement for input led to the coining of the term "foreigner talk" for the modified speech that native speakers use when speaking to non-native speakers. This accommodating speech version reminds one of "motherese" (Dulay, Burt and Krashen), the kind of speech mothers and caretakers typically use when they speak to young children. Both of them modify language used as input to the learner. Foreigner talk receives a lot of attention, because it is not yet clear exactly what its value is in the process of L2 acquisition.

Long (1996) explains that "whereas child L1 and L2 acquisition are almost always successful, adult efforts at either typically end in partial failure. Because the differential outcome is often attributed to the deterioration or categorical loss of some as yet poorly understood language-specific biology after the closure of one or more sensitive periods, any potentially facilitative qualities of input modifications would be even more important for

adults than for the language learning child."

In a description of foreigner talk, Long refers to Ferguson's work between 1971 and 1976 on the production of foreigner talk. According to Long, Ferguson identifies three main "simplifying" processes: omission, expansion, and replacement or rearrangement, and some "nonsimplifying tendencies": elaboration, regularization, and attitude expression. Long reports that studies showed that the result of these processes is usually a modified but grammatically well-formed version of the target language. According to Long, foreigner talk tends to be slower and more clearly articulated than speech to native speakers. It involves fewer sandhi processes, such as contraction, and uses shorter and syntactically or propositionally less complex utterances, and a more limited range of vocabulary items with a higher frequency. Long states that despite these features, foreigner talk is not always linguistically simpler than speech to native speakers, but comprehensibility is maintained by interactional adjustments, such as more frequent use of canonical word order, retention of more optionally deleted constituents, and more complete overt marking of grammatical and semantic relations.

Long (1996) reports that native speakers seem to react to the age, physical appearance, and L2 proficiency of learners when they adapt their speech to become more comprehensible to nonnative speakers. According to Long, studies suggest that the type of conversation also has an effect on the production of foreigner talk. One-way tasks, such as story telling and giving instructions, result in very little modification of input, whereas two-way tasks involving negotiation for meaning result in adaptation until understanding of an acceptable level is achieved. Long states that such negotiation involves various devices, e.g. repetitions, confirmations, reformulations, comprehension checks, and clarification requests. According to Long, input can be affected in various ways. The average utterance length can be reduced, more present tense verbs are

used due to a here-and-now orientation, and lexical switches can be caused by semantic repetition or paraphrase.

According to Long, conversational topics are treated simply and briefly in foreigner talk discourse, and the kinds of topics may differ from those preferred in ordinary native speaker conversations, perhaps because of cultural reasons. Unintentional topic switches are accepted in an attempt to facilitate nonnative speaker participation in conversations. Long says that questions, especially of the yes-no type, have a high frequency in foreigner talk, with native speakers often helping nonnative speakers by supplying the expected answers to their questions. Adjustments such as slower speech, left dislocation, stress on key words, pauses before or after key words, and decomposition are used to increase saliency. Long reports that recent research led to the suggestion that some modifications may differ according to culture, class, and gender.

Studies of modifications done to enhance comprehension showed some generalizations, as summed up by Long (1996):

1. Comprehension is usually increased by linguistic simplification, although simple sentences alone do not always help and can even hinder.
2. Simplification and elaboration often co-occur, but when their effects can be distinguished, simplification is not consistently superior to elaboration, and some studies find elaboration more effective.
3. Comprehension is consistently improved by (a) interactional modifications, and (b) by a combination of simplification and elaboration.
4. Modifications are more useful to nonnative speakers of lower L2 proficiency.
5. Apart from rate of delivery, isolated input or interactional adjustments, such as shorter sentence length or greater topic saliency, are insufficient to improve the comprehensibility of whole texts.

6. Nonnative speakers' perceived comprehension is greater when speech has been modified for them.

Long states that although comprehensible input is nowadays generally regarded as necessary for L1 as well as L2 acquisition, it is also clear that it is not sufficient, especially with adult L2 learners who want to achieve nativelike proficiency. Long refers to studies by Swain and others, who found that learners continue to make a wide range of grammatical errors in their L2 production, proving that the need to communicate is not enough to drive development of interlanguage. According to Long, some learners never make use of particular lexical items, grammatical constructions, and distinctions easily learned by child native speakers.

Long (1996) argues that comprehensibility of input may even inhibit learning, as it allows the learner to understand a message without understanding all the structures and lexical items involved. Features such as linguistic redundancy, contextual information, and knowledge of the world can make up for a lack of understanding of some elements. Long refers to White (1987), who suggests that a lack of understanding may promote the process of acquisition, as it causes the learners to focus their attention on the form instead of on the message.

2.3.3. Authenticity

According to Allwright and Bailey (1991), input is what the L2 learner has to learn from. They explain that Krashen's Input Hypothesis suggests that comprehensible input of the $i + 1$ kind is what primarily promotes language acquisition. Although he was criticized by many linguists on various aspects of his ideas (Ritchie and Bhatia 1996), it is generally accepted that input plays an important role in SLA.

Comprehensibility is not the only requirement if input is to facilitate learning. Ciccone (1995) proposes 'If it is indeed true that humans acquire language principally, if not exclusively, by understanding messages, that is, by receiving and processing "comprehensible input", the main function of the second language classroom should be to provide learners with authentic, comprehensible language that is not otherwise easily available to them.' He referred to Bacon and Finneman (1990) who maintain that authentic oral and written input has both cognitive and affective value, by providing the context for relating form to meaning, as well as opportunity to overcome the initial cultural strangeness that confronts the L2 learner.

Some people feel that the use of authentic materials is only of value at a more advanced stage, but Ciccone (1995) argues that by careful selection of authentic reading, video and audio materials "the intrinsic interest of the materials make the difficulties in understanding them surmountable".

In his discussion of the use of authentic video in L2 teaching, Ciccone claims that comprehensibility of input begins with interest on the learner's side and clear purpose on the instructor's side. He argues that the primary purpose should be to improve the learner's ability to understand authentic language, therefore videos should be chosen in the first instance for their visual and conceptual value, and only in the second instance for their vocabulary and structural content.

According to Ciccone, materials may need to be modified, and the learner has to be properly prepared and guided. The idea is to connect the known to the not yet known. This can be done by making the learners conscious of what they already know and by giving relevant background information. A programme should include multiple viewings with and without sound for different purposes, and key images from the video can be isolated and examined before viewing it. In Ciccone's view the viewing should be followed by speaking and writing activities related to the

video.

Ciccone regards the following points as essential for maximal effect: (1) input becomes comprehensible only to interested learners; (2) input must be presented and understood as a coherent system of meaning; (3) input must be redundant and solidly embedded in a meaningful context; (4) existing knowledge and previous experience must be activated; and (5) guided, expansive production must be encouraged.

Ciccone further makes out a case for combining video and reading, claiming that "video increases the comprehensibility of reading materials on similar topics" and it "encourages the fundamental processes needed to improve reading comprehension and enhance reader satisfaction". This in turn promotes free voluntary reading, which Krashen (1995) regards as essential for exposure to comprehensible input and eventually for producing comprehensible output. Ciccone suggests that learners should be encouraged to make use of global strategies to deal with the materials, and to decode materials for specific purposes. The video should be viewed as a source of factual information, as an expression of opinion, and as an example of a specific style, and learners should be encouraged to view and read more authentic materials on their own and to respond personally to the materials.

2.3.4. Input processing

The term input should, according to Sharwood Smith (1993), not be interpreted as having the same meaning as in the case of data processing, where it refers to information that is fed into a processing unit. The learners do not take in everything they are exposed to. Distinction is made between input, which includes all the language that the learners are exposed to, and intake, which

is that part of the input that actually becomes part of the learners' knowledge.

Sharwood Smith (1993) suggests that in order for part of the input to become intake, some processor that processes, or registers, the input is implied. This processor functions in such a way that some input is registered, while some is not. Krashen suggests the affective filter to explain what happens as regards the selection of input for processing, but his theories are not accepted by all, as stated by Ritchie and Bhatia (1995). It is still not clear what this registration process involves, but it is clear that "language proficiency either develops as a response to input or fails to grow despite that input", as Sharwood Smith (1993) states.

According to Sharwood Smith, the processing of input does not always occur in a similar fashion. The language acquisition device of learners can function in at least two ways, processing input for meaning, which only enables the learner to understand the linguistic form, and processing input for acquisition, which results in the learner being able to understand and use the linguistic form correctly according to the norms of the target language.

Knowledge can be regarded as a type of mental organization. According to Sharwood Smith (1993), linguistic knowledge can be explained as "a systematized body of mental representations underlying the learner's language use". The learner builds up this system on the basis of exposure to input, forming systematized beliefs about the language. Where these beliefs deviate from the native-speaker norms, they constitute learner knowledge. According to Sharwood Smith, the latest view is that the learner does not learn or create rules, but "uses input to fill out, tune, or reset an already existing set of linguistic principles and parameters."

2.4. Form-focused instruction

In this section proposals regarding the application of form-focused instruction in L2 learning and teaching will be reviewed.

2.4.1. Introductory remarks

The more formal models of language teaching from the past emphasized the structural features of language, as promoted by the structural linguistic theory. Having done a survey of pedagogical materials, Larsen-Freeman (1995) points out that textbooks presented grammatical structures by describing their formal properties. These descriptions were usually followed by applicational exercises, sometimes of a transformational nature.

The arrival of a more communicative approach meant a shift towards an emphasis on meaning. Learner-centred teaching with a focus on communicative competence required that the emphasis of teaching should be placed on the learners' expressing their own meanings through language, with less attention given to errors in learners' production. Teachers concentrate more on creating opportunities for the learners to use the target language for the purpose of communication than on correcting learners' errors.

Larsen-Freeman (1995) reports that with the development of the SLA field it was pointed out that language acquisition involved the learning of the form as well as the meaning and function of structures, or, as Larsen-Freeman explains it, "grammatical structures are more than forms; therefore, their acquisition must entail more than learning how to form the structures. It must also include learning what they mean and when and why to use them as well."

2.4.2. Attention and awareness

Long (1996) proposes that a clue to the successful cognitive processing of input involves attention, awareness, and focus on form. He says: "Attention is widely claimed to be both necessary and sufficient for extracting items from a stimulus array (e.g. linguistic input) and storing them in long-term memory (one step in 'several needed to convert input into intake)", and he maintains that noticing is necessary and sufficient for converting input into intake.

He quotes Schmidt, who distinguishes between noticing, which means "registering the simple occurrence of some event", and understanding, which means "recognition of a general principle, rule, or pattern". Long states that, in contrast to Krashen, who believes that adults can best learn an L2 while attending to something else, such as meaning, Schmidt maintains that learning requires sufficient exposure to input as well as attention. Positive evidence alone is not enough, negative evidence is also needed to focus the learner's attention.

Sharwood Smith (1993) argues that in normal everyday language use speakers are not aware of following rules. They can be said to be in the fast, unreflecting sub-meta or default mode. When specific attention is given to the language as an object, the speakers are in the slow, analytic, introspective meta mode. According to Sharwood Smith, metalanguage, that consists of descriptive terminology, is used to organize reflections about the language into a system of rules and principles that is called metaknowledge.

Linguists such as Sharwood Smith (1993) and Rutherford (1987) have spent a lot of time reflecting on the effect of conscious awareness of the formal properties of language on the development of spontaneous language use, and whether this awareness should be promoted by instruction. It can be argued that metalinguistic

knowledge should only be included in teaching programs if it can facilitate the development of non-meta knowledge or skill.

Sharwood Smith argues that one should distinguish between the information system of knowledge and the activities employed to use that information in actual language production and interpretation, activities that follow one another within milliseconds. Sharwood Smith (1993) follows Bialystok's example in using the term control for these processing activities when he refers to the control that the language user has over the knowledge of various aspects of the linguistic system. Other related terms are skill, degrees of fluency, and automaticity. Sharwood Smith explains: "Controlling means getting hold of and assembling the relevant information, that is, processing it for various different purposes".

According to Sharwood Smith (1993), control is important in proficiency and competence, which involve effective control over the linguistic knowledge. Control of language processing occurs in the meta mode and in the sub-meta mode. Processing for meaning and processing for acquisition are different types of processing, that may involve different degrees of knowledge and different degrees of control.

2.4.3. Modularity

The concept of modularity is generally accepted in terms of language learner behaviour. In Sharwood Smith's view this means that language learning involves a battery of independent systems that each obeys different principles. According to this approach the language acquisition device differs from learning devices functioning in the acquisition of other skills and areas of knowledge. Sharwood Smith (1993) maintains that the language acquisition device itself is also modular, and that input must be split up for processing by its separate modular systems. Some

of these systems are guided by innate constraints on language structure, while others are not. One of these systems facilitates a conscious awareness of language form.

Sharwood Smith (1993) suggests that it can be assumed that different processing systems are responsible for different ways of registration of language input, such as registration in short-term memory, registration for interpretation, perhaps using real-world knowledge, and registration as a deviation from the learner's current language system and therefore triggering restructuring of that system.

2.4.4. Focus on form by input enhancement

It is generally accepted that some people are able to acquire L2 grammar without teaching, but recent SLA research has provided sufficient proof that achieving grammatical accuracy requires form-focused instruction. According to Sharwood Smith (1993), this instruction may take on various forms, such as giving increased salience to forms, facilitating the acquisition of unmarked structures by attending to marked ones, and providing feedback with negative evidence where errors are made.

Krashen proposes that exposure to data containing only positive evidence in communicative situations is sufficient to achieve progress. White (1996), however, argues that within the parameter of UG theory positive evidence may be sufficient to trigger the setting or resetting of parameters (as proposed by Schachter in 1986) in the case of a match between the L1 and L2, but in the case of unmatched structures negative evidence is needed too and should be provided in the classroom.

Long (1996) distinguishes between "focus on forms", which involves isolated linguistic forms presented one after the other, and "focus on form", which involves attention being drawn to

language as object, but in context, including not only form, but also meaning.

Sharwood Smith (1993) earlier used the term "consciousness-raising" for this attention-drawing. He now prefers the term "input enhancement". He explains: "The difference between these two terms is what they assume regarding the input/intake dichotomy. Consciousness-raising implies that the learner's mental state is altered by the input; hence, all input is intake. Input enhancement implies only that we can manipulate aspects of the input but make no further assumptions about the consequences of that input on the learner."

Sharwood Smith (1993) points out that various techniques can be used by the teacher to draw the learner's attention to a particular aspect of the target language in order to deliberately focus on the formal properties of language with the intention to facilitate the development of second language knowledge. He mentions that a popular technique is providing an example and then discussing its structure.

Sharwood Smith (1996) introduces the term "input enhancement" for a range of devices that are used to focus learners' attention on form. These may include prior instruction, examples that show how rules are applied, multiple-choice margin glosses, highlighting, capitalization, error correction, and the use of tasks that encourage orientation to language.

It was claimed by Krashen that positive L2 input was sufficient to promote development of a learner's interlanguage grammar. White (1995), however, reports on studies that were done on the effect of different kinds of L2 input on development in SLA. It was found that positive L2 input did not trigger parameter resetting, and that negative evidence might be necessary to trigger parameter setting in SLA. White points out, however, that even if results of such studies were negative, they still contributed to an understanding of the nature of interlanguage

competence and the relationship of grammars to input.

An important function of the environment as viewed by Long (1996) is to promote the noticing of form by providing negative feedback in the sense that someone in the learner's linguistic, conversational or physical environment provides the information needed to draw the learner's attention to an error. This type of feedback may be in the form of behaviour of interlocutors, such as continuing with the topic, smiling after the learner's speech, puzzled looks, and requests for clarification. It may also be in the form of unexpected outcomes, breakdowns in communication, negative affective reactions, repetitions with questioning intonation or abnormal stress from interlocutors, and overt error correction in the classroom. Long reports that research has shown not only that negative evidence exists, but that learners notice and recognize it.

The linguistic environment provides the L2 learner with two kinds of evidence about the target language. Long (1996) explains that speakers and writers provide positive evidence in the form of models of what is grammatical and acceptable, and even adapt their speech or writing to make the models comprehensible to the learner, so that they may become usable for acquisition. They also provide negative evidence in the form of direct or indirect information about what is ungrammatical.

Another important function of interlocutors is that they act as facilitators who shape learner output, and as participants in a process whereby nonnative speakers learn at least part of a new grammar through conversation. While acknowledging that there is a difference of opinion about the adult L2 learner's access to UG, Long (1996) updates his Interaction Hypothesis, proposing "that environmental contributions to acquisition are mediated by selective attention and the learner's developing L2 processing capacity, and that these resources are brought together most usefully, although not exclusively, during negotiation for meaning." He also claims that negative feedback gained during

such negotiation may facilitate L2 development and may be essential for learning specific L1-L2 contrasts.

Long (1996) claims that the use of recasts in natural conversations is a very effective technique to focus on form. Recasts rephrase a learner's utterance by changing one or more components of the sentence, without changing its central meaning. The most prominent features of recasts are reformulation, expansion, semantic contingency, and positioning directly after the learner's utterance. Long reports that research has also shown that adult learners, who might be expected to be more alert for form-focusing devices, often do not notice them while working with native speakers on a task or in the classroom, but notice and benefit from corrections.

Long points out that, while conversations promote the process of L2 learning by negotiating meaning, it may also inhibit learning, as suggested by Hatch. "Conversational scaffolding" may help the learner understand the message without being able to understand a specific structure, and selective facilitation may enable the learner to participate in a conversation with only a limited structural knowledge.

Conversations may be beneficial if they elicit negative feedback and focus on form. Long (1996) claims that free conversation is not what is needed for interlanguage development, but rather tasks where participants share a goal and actively engage in negotiation for meaning, improving comprehension by interactional modifications. Learners' need to communicate may also promote their awareness of language. In Long's view such negotiation "facilitates acquisition because it connects input, internal learner capacities, particularly selective attention, and output in productive ways". According to Long, it involves repetitions, extensions, reformulations, rephrasings, expansions and recasts that make target forms salient, show how constituents could be segmented, and illustrate the communicative value of forms.

Long (1996) maintains that "tasks that stimulate negotiation for meaning may turn out to be one among several useful language-learning activities in or out of classrooms, for they may be one of the easiest ways to facilitate a learner's focus on form without losing sight of a lesson's (or conversation's) predominant focus on meaning."

2.4.5. Deciding what to teach

Formal SLA courses are always restricted by non-linguistic factors, such as the limited amount of time available for instruction. Teachers therefore welcome any help they can get to make their teaching more effective. Help with the selection of what to teach could be especially valuable.

The concept of "markedness" may provide solutions to some questions about what to teach in the classroom. According to Larsen-Freeman (1995), studies done by Gass have shown that "learners' maximum generalization occurs from more marked structures to less marked ones." It might be more effective, therefore, if learners are exposed to marked structures before related unmarked ones.

The amount of teaching might also be minimized if the teacher applies the concept of "clustering" that is part of UG, as according to Larsen-Freeman (1995), clustering means that the triggering of one aspect of a cluster of properties associated with a particular parameter should also cause triggering of the other aspects in that cluster. Larsen-Freeman suggests that this concept explains why learners seem to learn more than they are taught.

Errors caused by overgeneralizations are part of the normal progress of the interlanguage of L2 learners. These errors may become fossilized if the learners do not receive any negative

evidence, or if they do not make use of such evidence to change erroneous hypotheses. Some errors still persist, even though they receive treatment. Larsen-Freeman (1995) proposes that form-focused instruction could be investigated as a possible way to defossilize persistent errors. She uses the term "grammaring" for the practising of grammar forms with the intention of the forms becoming automatic through practice. The use of metalanguage in L2 instruction as a form of direct feedback is an issue that is still not generally accepted, but deserves some consideration, at least.

Considerable research in SLA has been done in an attempt to determine whether grammar should be taught, and if, what should be taught. Van Patten and Sanz (1995) focus their research on the processing of input done by learners and the effect of instruction on this aspect of SLA. They refer to Long, who pointed out in 1990 already that SLA must acknowledge the role of comprehensible input in the development of the learner's internal grammar.

According to Van Patten and Sanz (1995), input is converted into intake by a set of processes. Intake is that subset of input that a learner understands and which is available to the learner to base the developing system of interlanguage on. A second set of processes is responsible for using the intake to promote the restructuring of the developing linguistic system, while a third set is responsible for language production. Van Patten and Sanz explain that processing instruction differs from traditional instruction that focuses on manipulating or practice of structure or form in output in the sense that "processing instruction seeks to alter the way in which learners perceive and process linguistic data in the input in order to provide the internal learning mechanisms with richer grammatical intake."

Van Patten and Sanz (1995) accept the following guidelines: (1) Teach only one thing at a time, and break up paradigms and rules into smaller units if necessary. (2) Keep meaning in focus. (3)

Learners must do something with the input. (4) Use both oral and written input to accommodate individual differences of learners. (5) Move from sentences to connected discourse. (6) Keep the psycholinguistic processing mechanisms in mind.

Van Patten and Sanz report that the results of their study show that instruction is beneficial to the learner's ability to understand and to produce the target item. They support the idea that "explicit instruction works best if it is psycholinguistically motivated on the basis of what we understand about how learners develop grammatical systems".

2.4.6. Deciding when to teach

In an effort to come up with some guidelines regarding when to teach a particular structure, Pienemann and Ellis produce evidence supporting the teachability hypothesis suggested by Pienemann in 1989. Bardovi-Harlig (1995) refers to their work in her report on natural sequences in the acquisition of tense and aspect. These are two components found in almost any L2 teaching programme. They play an important role in materials that focus on grammar, as they represent temporal expression.

Bardovi-Harlig argues that in the very early stages of learning learners do not use tense or aspect morphology systematically. At a second stage they make use of adverbial expressions. It is only at a third stage that they actually start using morphology related to tense or aspect. Only at a fourth stage a high rate of appropriacy is notable and this only occurs with formally instructed learners. She maintains that appropriate use does not always accompany accuracy, and that accuracy seems to be only possible as the result of classroom learning, although development in the early stages of learning is more or less parallel in tutored and untutored learners.

An important result of her study is the support that it produced for Pienemann's teachability hypothesis that learners can benefit from instruction only when it is relevant to their current stage of interlanguage development. Bardovi-Harlig (1995) suggests that instruction expands the existing core grammar of the learner and facilitates generalization throughout the system. Bardovi-Harlig also provides support for the idea suggested by Ellis that instruction can change the rate of acquisition but not the route of acquisition. She maintains that the main reason for the effect of instruction is the availability of negative evidence, which is not available in untutored acquisition.

2.5. Implications of theoretical perspectives on second language to language teaching

In this section the implications of the latest theoretical perspectives on L2 teaching will be considered.

With the emphasis in SLA research currently being focused on trying to find out how an L2 is learned, several attempts have been made to apply the results of research directly to the language classroom. These attempts have not always yielded the expected positive results, regardless of the amount of effort spent on creating as natural an environment as possible. Larsen-Freeman (1995) warns against what she calls the "reflex fallacy", which involves assuming that "what works in natural language acquisition should automatically become the pedagogy of the classroom", even though it may sometimes, by a stroke of luck, perhaps, turn out to be effective.

Teachers should, however, not ignore the results of SLA research altogether. Through careful consideration of the latest findings they may find themselves able to apply some of the concepts to their teaching for the benefit of their students and themselves.

It is important that SLA theory and L2 pedagogy should interact and that each should contribute to the field of the other. L2 teachers should be trained to be able to manipulate this interaction effectively in the L2 classroom. Gass (1995) refers to the four components of teaching proposed by Freeman in 1989: knowledge, skills, attitude, and awareness. The knowledge referred to includes knowledge of the language as well as knowledge of how that language is acquired by people.

Language acquisition is a very individual issue that manifests itself in differences in the rate at which individuals progress, the level of ultimate attainment, and even the learning techniques individual learners prefer to make use of. Larsen-Freeman (1995) describes SLA as a multidimensional phenomenon that is not only a linguistic problem, but a process that involves various cognitive mechanisms. She refers to Pienemann's teachability hypothesis that claims that learners only learn when they are ready to learn and that leads to the question whether there is a way to determine when learners are ready to learn a particular structure.

Gass (1995) views the language classroom as "a place where information can be made available to learners in a digestible format or in a format that may not be available outside of the classroom". It is the function of pedagogical research to study which of the learner's natural capabilities can be realized better in the classroom than outside.

In the L2 classroom assessment can be made of whether what is being done is appropriate or not. Care should be taken not to follow theoretical developments too rigidly. During the second half of the twentieth century the language teaching profession has awakened to the value of applying the results of research on linguistic theory and on theories of learning. Well-known methods such as contrastive analysis and techniques such as repetition and drills have been found to be inadequate and were rejected in favour of others that were proposed by newer models of language

and learning. Gass (1995) claims that "All too often we have used theories and assumed they were applicable to the classroom, and assumed invalidated theories were not applicable. In attempting to understand the relationship between SLA and the classroom, it is important to keep in mind that what learners do naturally cannot necessarily be induced in a classroom context".

Considering the amount of research studies that have been done on issues such as UG-based SLA, the role and nature of input, and the necessity and nature of instruction, it is clear that an understanding of the SLA process is needed together with knowledge of pedagogical theory and pedagogical practices if effective learning is to be achieved in the classroom. Gass says: "Teachers need to have the background to measure what is happening in the classroom against research findings". If this background is to be relevant to the classroom, it should have a broad basis, to match the multifaceted nature of the language classroom, and it should enable them "to evaluate research rather than to apply it uncritically".

Flynn and Martohardjano (1995) suggest that "theory-driven research, and in particular UG-based research paradigms, can and should guide us in building efficient language-teaching methodologies." They propose that specific areas of current linguistic theory and associated acquisition research that may have consequences for language pedagogy should be identified and explored. They point out that the concept of an intimate relationship between theory, research and practice was already recognized during World War II, when many learners had to be trained to use a variety of languages in as short a time as possible, and linguists like Bloomfield became involved in creating materials to teach these various languages. The more formalized approach of Contrastive Analysis followed, combining a linguistic theory, namely structuralism, and a theory of learning, namely behaviourism, to develop new pedagogical materials and practices.

With the development of the linguistic theory of transformational grammar in the 1960s there were many attempts at creating a link between linguistic theory and language learning and use. Flynn and Martohardjano note that in 1974 Dulay and Burt linked L2 acquisition with L1 acquisition in their Creative Construction. They claim that L1 acquisition and L2 acquisition are basically the same type of processes, both being influenced by the same set of innate language principles. Together with Krashen they worked towards relating theory and practice.

According to Flynn and Martohardjano (1995), there still was a lot of dissatisfaction with the proposals made by the early models of generative theory, especially when it was found that the Derivational Theory of Complexity was not always true, and that it was not always the case that structures involving fewer transformations were easier to acquire than more complex ones. As the detail of Chomsky's theory changed constantly, it caused frustration for those who tried to keep up with understanding the theory and applying it, resulting in many language practitioners rejecting it as having no relevance for their particular situations.

The reason for this state of affairs could be that people were dealing with the wrong component of UG, as was explained by Flynn and Martohardjano (1995). UG consists of a system of linguistic competence and a system of parameters associated with the lexicon that account for linguistic variation. Linguists are trying to understand what is universal and what is language specific. The universal part is regarded as part of human biological endowment and does not have to be learned. The language specific part has to be learned and should therefore also be taught. Flynn and Martohardjano (1995) point out that not only should be determined what has to be learned, but the underlying mechanisms of acquisition should be established in order to develop suitable teaching methods.

Flynn and Martohardjano (1995) report that by means of several studies three areas of grammar have been established where language acquisition can probably benefit from pedagogical support. The first area is that of parametric setting. It has been found that language acquisition is enhanced in cases where parametric values of the L1 and the L2 match. The explanation for this according to Flynn and Martohardjano, is that learners do not need to set new values to the parameters and no learning is needed, except for particular language-specific structures. Where parametric values do not match, the new value must be learned and language teaching becomes relevant.

The second area mentioned by Flynn and Martohardjano (1995) is that of lexical feature assignment, as in the case of the acquisition of restricted relative clauses with canonical government of empty categories, and the acquisition of control involved in the use of infinitives.

The third area receiving attention from Flynn and Martohardjano (1995) is that of functional categories, as in the case of derivational complexity such as found in the Inflectional Phrase and in the Complementizer Phrase, where learning can be enhanced by teaching.

More research will have to be done to determine the exact nature of the pedagogical support that is needed in these and other still to be established areas of grammar. This research will have to be UG-based SLA research that can be developed into a principled language pedagogy.

2.6. Summary

Larsen-Freeman (1995) states that "Teaching does not cause learning, but those who have expanded awareness of it and fascination with it are likely to be better managers of it....If

a teacher does not have an active intellectual engagement with teaching and learning, teaching becomes more and more routine and stale." Perhaps she explains the true value of SLA theory best when she says "teachers with enhanced understanding of SLA can become more efficient and effective in the classroom by making moment-to-moment decisions that are in harmony with the students' learning."



UNIVERSITY *of the*
WESTERN CAPE

CHAPTER THREE: PRINCIPLES OF TASK-BASED COURSE DESIGN

3.1. Introduction

When Breen wrote his article on major developments in syllabus design in 1987 he wrote of a "monsoon of publications" that marked the change within English language teaching at that time. Since then the flood has not abated and there is presently a wealth of information on theory, research and classroom experience available.

In this discussion Breen (1987a) explains that syllabus design is a decision-making process that has to be done according to specific requirements. He warns that there are two issues that should be kept in mind in this regard. The first is that syllabus design is only a part of the much larger issue of planning for language teaching and learning, and as such should be sensitive to the curriculum, the classroom situation, and the larger educational situation. The second issue to remember is that any type of syllabus is only a representative prototype of a variety of syllabuses, each of which is a particular representation of the view on language and learning and teaching of the dominant paradigm.

3.2. Syllabus design as decision-making process

Breen (1987a) defines a syllabus as "a plan of what is to be achieved through teaching and learning". A syllabus should specify the body of knowledge and the capabilities that are regarded as desirable outcomes of the work of the teachers and learners in the specific situation for which the syllabus was designed. It should not only give details about objectives but also about the route along which these objectives should be

achieved. It therefore can function as a guide for learning and teaching.

According to Breen (1987a), there are six requirements that can influence syllabus design. The first is that there should be an accessible framework that clearly indicates the boundaries of the knowledge and skills the teachers and learners should work towards. The second requirement is that it should order the subject-matter, providing a sense of continuity for learners and teachers. The third requirement is to represent a retrospective account of what has been achieved for other teachers who may work with the learners at a later stage. Fourth is the requirement to provide a basis of accountability to colleagues, learners, the wider institution and society, to be used to evaluate a learner's progress. The fifth requirement is that of appropriateness to the purpose and the users of the syllabus. The last requirement is that the plan should be sensitive to the intended environment, which includes the wider language curriculum, the language classroom and the participants in the teaching and learning situation, and the educational institution and the wider society it serves.

Breen (1987a) maintains that syllabus design is a decision-making process that involves four main organising principles: the focus on and selection, subdivision and sequencing of the particular knowledge and capabilities that are regarded as desired outcomes of learning. A syllabus focuses upon particular aspects that reflect the objectives. It selects particular structures, functions or communicational events for teaching and learning. Then it subdivides the selected content into manageable units and sequences them, setting out the path of development. Sequencing can be cyclic, as in a gradually widening spiral, adding content cumulatively and refining earlier steps along the way, or it can be step-by-step, achieving one objective after the other towards an overall achievement, presenting content additively. The reason why syllabuses differ is because they realise the organising principles in different ways.

3.2.1. Syllabus design as the expression of a paradigm

In the process of designing a syllabus a designer does not apply the organising principles objectively. Each syllabus represents the knowledge and capabilities regarded as appropriate by the designer. The designer's decisions are influenced by particular views of the nature of language, how the language may be appropriately taught, and how the language may be most appropriately learned.

Because of these last two pedagogic requirements the representation of the language by a syllabus designer will differ from that of a descriptive linguist. Syllabus designers belong to a community of professional language educators. Breen supports the notion of a paradigm proposed by Kuhn as "that frame of reference which a community of specialists will share at a particular moment in history". Breen says "a paradigm is both a particular unity of theory, research and practice and the prevailing manner in which a community of specialists construct theories, interpret research, and actually proceed with their work."

In this sense a syllabus can be seen as an expression of that paradigm currently shared by a community engaged in language education during a period in the history of the profession. As such it is a "meeting point of a perspective upon language itself, upon using language, and upon teaching and learning which is a contemporary and commonly accepted interpretation of the harmonious links between theory, research, and classroom practice" (Breen, 1987a).

The revolutionary time when one paradigm is replaced by another is called a period of "paradigm shift". Breen studied syllabuses currently existing and found that they can be regarded as either propositional plans or process plans, each type representing a different paradigm with different views on the nature of

language, and on how it should be taught and learned. He proposes that there exists an established paradigm expressed in syllabuses as propositional plans, and a recently emergent paradigm that generates syllabuses as process plans. He says that it is not clear yet whether the new paradigm will replace the established one or simply be assimilated by it.

3.2.2. Propositional plans

Propositional plans contain formal statements of what is to be achieved through learning and teaching, presenting the appropriate language knowledge and capabilities that are regarded as desired outcome in a systematic fashion. Both formal and functional syllabus types are propositional plans, but they differ in what they focus upon and select for content, and in how they subdivide and sequence this content.

3.2.2.1. The formal syllabus.

The formal syllabus is also referred to as the structural or grammatical syllabus. Breen (1987a) explains that its roots are in the description and analysis of the classical languages. It focuses on the systematic and rule-based nature of language and gives priority to the textual knowledge of how language is realized and organized in speech or writing. The ideational knowledge of how meanings are conveyed through the language and the interpersonal knowledge of social behaviour are of secondary importance. The syllabus specifies the capabilities learners need to learn in order to use the four basic language skills to produce the language correctly. Listening and reading must support the productive skills and the syllabus proposes that the skills should be dealt with in sequence from the receptive to the productive.

The formal syllabus subdivides the selected content on the basis of different aspects of language such as pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, morphology, and the structural features of discourse. For each level of progress it selects specific aspects of each sub-system, subdividing them further hierarchically into smaller units. This subdivision is very similar to a linguistic analysis of the language.

Learners are expected to "gradually accumulate and synthesize" the various components of the new language system, starting with a "basic" knowledge and then adding to it and refining it. Criteria for sequencing and grading may be linguistic competence or frequency, or even usefulness.

The rationale for the formal syllabus as Breen (1987a) views it has four components. In the first instance it is well established and backed by a long tradition of linguistic analysis, offering well tested formulae for the language teaching profession. Secondly it presents subject-matter that is systematic and rule-governed and therefore easily learnable. At the same time the concept of a finite set of rules that can be applied to produce an infinite body of language means that the learner can achieve a lot by learning only a little. The third rationale is that the analytical categories presented in the syllabus makes it easy to incorporate the system into a teaching plan and for the learners to learn how the language works, if they are able and willing to behave like academic linguists. The fourth rationale is the human capacity to function metalinguistically, with each learner trying in his or her own individual way to understand how the language works.

Although the last rationale means that any prior organization of subject-matter is really pointless, Breen (1987a) points out that the formal syllabus remains popular, mainly because of its academic and experiential background, as well as its familiarity, systematicity and generalizability and its compatibility with linguistics and psychology. Supporters of the formal syllabus

disregard the fact that the disciplines that originally influenced it have themselves undergone major changes, and that teachers who have to apply it have rejected its morphology.

3.2.2.2. The functional syllabus

Like the formal syllabus the functional syllabus is influenced by the theoretical and analytical concerns of linguistics, but according to Breen (1987a), it is influenced more by sociolinguistics and pragmatics that study language as it is used in social situations for particular purposes.

In the 1970s the term communicative competence was proposed for the knowledge of language that also includes knowledge of the conventions governing the use of language as a code established and developed within social and cultural groups. From philosophy came the notion of speech acts that deals with the particular meanings that can be attributed to utterances. Breen (1987a) explains that language knowledge is now seen to include interpersonal and ideational knowledge together with textual knowledge and linguistics also explores how all three interrelate in everyday language use and when language is learned.

This development has led to the communicative approach to language teaching. Changes in the view of subject-matter has also been influenced by the practical classroom experience. Teachers became more and more disillusioned with the mechanistic methodology of the earlier approaches, such as grammar-translation and audio-lingualism. The profession became motivated to improve the methodology and to incorporate the new views on language knowledge.

The functional syllabus focuses on the learner's knowledge of speech acts or the use of the language for particular purposes in social activities or events. According to Breen (1987a), it

is a propositional plan of categories of language use, usually in the form of an analysis of personal or social functions, or sometimes as an analysis of notions or concepts that can be coded by a language. The objectives and content are represented through socio-semantic categories that are linked to linguistic or textual exponents. The learner learns how to use the language accurately for certain purposes, as well as how to use the language appropriately in social situations. Proficiency therefore means the accurate and appropriate use of the four basic language skills. The learning process involves a selection of functions that develops in sequence from receptive to productive skills.

Breen (1987a) views the selection of the functional syllabus as categorical. It identifies main types of language purposes that it subdivides into sets and sub-sets of functions. It also specifies how to realize these functions through a language code.

According to Breen (1987a), sequencing of the functional syllabus moves from general to more specific sets of functions and from the most common linguistic realizations to more refined realizations of these functions. This sequencing from the general to the particular is cyclic, with the learner first acquiring some key functions and their most common linguistic realizations, and then building onto this foundation, gradually refining and re-cycling and adding more realizations accumulatively. A particular range of functions is selected as being appropriate for the learner's needs. They are then categorized and subdivided and sequenced cyclically. At each level of categorization appropriate linguistic realizations of each function is added. For particular types of learners with certain needs sequencing may also be done on the basis of need.

The main rationale for the functional syllabus in Breen's view was the need to improve upon old unsatisfactory methodology by incorporation of new views on language produced by linguistics. Therefore the functional syllabus is an expression of a

sociolinguistic view of the purposes that can be achieved by language. A second rationale is the realization of the importance of meaningfulness in the language learning experience. Language is used from the beginning to achieve interpersonal or social purposes, with fluency regarded as important as linguistic accuracy. Whereas the formal syllabus is mainly concerned with the learner's linguistic competence, the functional syllabus is concerned with communicative performance. It aims to provide the learner with various ways to code things to share and achieved through the new language. Like the formal syllabus it assumes that learners will be metacommunicative in the learning process. It also assumes that a functional ordering will help the learners understand how the language works and how it may be used during actual communication.

The functional syllabus was developed as an alternative to the formal syllabus. Breen (1987b) explains that both are propositional plans, but the functional syllabus addresses an important pedagogic need by providing learners with a semantic and interpersonal framework within which language code or text may be learned. Both syllabuses rely on descriptive linguistics and both regard their particular organization as accessible to learners' cognitive inclinations.

3.2.3. Changes that created a need for new types of syllabuses

Breen (1987b) regards propositional plans as representative of a paradigm shift in the language teaching profession. He says process plans can be regarded as expressions of an emerging paradigm, as they represent new views on language and the learning and teaching of language. Only time will tell whether they will lead to a synthesis with the old paradigm or whether they will become commonly accepted representations of a new paradigm.

The new paradigm that Breen (1987b) refers to involves new views on language, teaching methodology, learner contributions, and how teaching and learning may be planned for.

The formal syllabus focuses on textual knowledge of language. The functional syllabus shifts the focus towards interpersonal knowledge as a response to the view that language knowledge includes the communicative competence to use language appropriately according to the conventions governing everyday language use for social purposes. Recently the view of language knowledge has been extended to include the capacity to participate in discourse and also knowledge of the conventions that govern such participation. Knowledge of language is now regarded as consisting of a cluster or complex of competencies that interact during everyday communication. This complex includes knowledge of the rules and conventions of communication, as well as the ability to use them creatively and to negotiate them in communication. The capability to negotiate may be seen as a crucial element in the learning and refinement of language knowledge.

This view of language knowledge as a complex presents the syllabus designer with the daunting task to represent language knowledge not only as surface performance, but also as the underlying capacities that the performance is derived from. In Breen's view it is not surprising that the appropriateness or even possibility of designing a syllabus that represents communicative knowledge is questioned.

Dissatisfaction among teachers with the mechanical and analytical methodology of the formal syllabus led to the development of the functional syllabus. The new functional syllabus did not bring methodological improvement and this led to questions about its pedagogic validity. This was followed by experiments with alternative methodologies with a communicative approach.

A shift in focus of research on the language learning process resulted in a new view of the role of the learner in the learning process. Breen (1987b) says it is now clear that a syllabus can only indirectly influence the learning process. It is only by teaching and the classroom context that the syllabus has any influence at all, and in the classroom instruction is only one of many elements that can influence learning. The influence of the syllabus is further promoted by the actual participation of the learners in classroom work and by their own interpretation of appropriate objectives and content for their language learning. Referring to Long (1983) and Allwright (1984), Breen (1987b) argues that the classroom has only a marginal effect on learning and that learners do not learn what teachers teach. It is not the content of a lesson that causes learning, but the process of classroom interaction that creates opportunities for learning, and because of their individual differences, different learners learn different things from the same lesson.

Breen (1987b) views the integrity of the learner as an important element in this view of the learning process. Studies have confirmed that learners have the inherent psychological capacity to acquire linguistic competence. This occurs when the capacity acts upon comprehensible language input. The process further extends the learners' present competence. Learners have an inclination to organize new knowledge and capabilities that have to be learned by applying their own preferred learning strategies. Breen says that the variables involved in syllabus design and in the learning process are such that planning may actually be in vain.

The concept that classroom work can actually replace a syllabus is regarded by Breen as the most important change in the view of how to plan for teaching and learning. The assumption is that the activities and roles involved in the teaching-learning process is more important than the content of lessons. In the most extreme form of this view the methodology is seen as content, and the task of planning content becomes altogether unrealistic.

Whereas an important function of a syllabus is to facilitate learning by organizing the new knowledge and capabilities that are to be learned, and by explaining how the syllabus may be implemented, Breen (1987b) says the problem of planning for teaching and learning may be solved by incorporating the planning of content into the planning of purposes, methodology, and evaluation procedures of language programmes. Alternatively the relationship between the content and method may be dealt with in a syllabus, such as explored in the task-based and process syllabuses.

In Breen's view the challenges for syllabus designers include trying to find out how language knowledge as a complex of competencies may be presented and how language knowledge as the underlying capacity to apply, adapt, and refine rules and conventions may be presented. They should also try to establish how language capability as the abilities to interpret and express meaning and to negotiate meaning may be represented and how such knowledge and capabilities may be represented in ways that are amenable to developments in teaching. They should search for ways for syllabus planning and methodology to interact mutually beneficially during a period of innovation and for ways for the syllabus to harmonize without constraint but facilitatively with the internal process of language acquisition and the individual differences between learners. There is also a need to find ways for the syllabus to harmonize without constraint but facilitatively with diverse and unpredictable teaching-learning processes which will transform the syllabus into action. Breen also thinks syllabus designers should find ways to make the focusing, selection, subdivision, and sequencing of content part of the classroom experience.

Breen (1987b) names three possible reactions to challenges such as these. Energy usually spent on planning may be redirected elsewhere, or a syllabus of content may be regarded as independent of its implementation, or in an attempt to fulfil the new requirements alternative types of syllabuses may be

developed. He saw process plans as examples of the third reaction.

3.2.4. Process plans

Propositional plans make formal statements about what is to be achieved through teaching and learning. They analyze and organize knowledge and capabilities systematically, and express them in terms of formulae, structures, rules, schemas or categories. Process plans differ from them in that they analyze performance within events and situations and represent knowledge of how correctness, appropriacy, and meaningfulness can be achieved simultaneously during communication in a range of events and situations.

In Breen's view a syllabus should explain how a learner may progress from not knowing a language to being able to use the target language for particular purposes in a range of situations. Propositional plans explain how a learner may progress by organizing the content according to the objectives. Process plans explain how learners may achieve objectives and how they may progress.

3.2.4.1. The task-based syllabus

Breen (1987b) maintains that the task-based syllabus has its roots in situational approaches to language teaching of the 1960s. It was influenced by analysis of knowledge and capabilities needed by learners to achieve things, by thematic materials used in classrooms, and by the use of problem-solving for learning.

Task-based syllabus types organize and present what is to be achieved through teaching and learning in terms of how a learner's communicative competence may be developed while it is used in a range of everyday tasks. It is concerned with how to learn as well as with how to communicate. Learners use their prior knowledge in the process of learning more and in doing so the learning process becomes appropriate content.

Breen (1987b) says that the task-based syllabus focuses upon ideational knowledge of how meaning is coded by people of the same social or cultural group. It also focuses upon the textual realization of meaning and upon interpersonal communicative behaviour, all systematically related in communicative acts or situations. Learners have to constantly match choices from their linguistic knowledge to social requirements and communicative conventions and to meanings and ideas they want to share with others. The task-based syllabus also focuses upon the learner's own experience and awareness of the language learning process. This includes knowledge of what language learning is like, what it involves, and how it may be done to facilitate the learning of a new language.

The syllabus plans what is to be achieved in terms of communication tasks and learning tasks. Breen (1987b) explains that communication tasks involve the actual sharing of meaning through spoken or written communication, while concentrating on using the target language for a specific purpose. Learning tasks involve concentrating on the knowledge systems themselves and on how they may be worked upon and learned. There is therefore a distinction between communicative tasks and metacommunicative tasks. These are incorporated into the syllabus as two parallel and mutually supportive syllabuses that are distinct only in terms of the syllabus plan itself as a syllabus of communication tasks and a syllabus of learning-for-communication tasks.

According to Breen (1987b), communicative abilities and learning capability are prioritised in the task-based syllabus. Learners

learn how to be accurate, socially appropriate, and meaningful, while relying on the ability to negotiate meaning in communication. Breen said: "it is the overt negotiation of meaning interpersonally and the covert personal negotiation of meaning which is the essential design feature of any communicative task." Never before in the development of syllabus design has negotiation played such an important role.

It is assumed that learning tasks will involve the same abilities needed in communication. Therefore the explanation of how communication works in the target language and the process of negotiation about it are important elements of the task-based syllabus. This is called communication in order to learn.

Breen (1987b) says selection of communication tasks for a task-based syllabus is done on the basis of an analysis of the actual tasks undertaken in communication through any language. This analysis includes the rules and conventions involved in a range of communicative situations, and the knowledge required for accurate, appropriate, and meaningful communication in such situations. This also includes the skills needed in interpretation, expression and negotiation of meaning. The assumption is that the first language competence overlaps with the target language competence in some areas, linking with it and accommodating it. It is also assumed that underlying competence is generative in the sense of enabling the learner to cope with the unpredictable, to be creative and adaptable, and to transfer knowledge to a range of tasks. The tasks that are the most common or generalizable in a target situation, or the most relevant ones in terms of specific needs or interests, or a combination of these, are selected and clustered.

Learning tasks are selected according to metacommunicative criteria. They are concerned with how the knowledge systems work and how abilities may be used in communication, and how learning and developing of this knowledge may be done best. They focus upon the rules and conventions of the textual, ideational and

interpersonal knowledge systems and their interrelationship, as well as upon the ways interpreting, expressing, and negotiation may be done. Whereas communication tasks require real language use, learning tasks are analytical in relation to both communication and learning.

Subdivision in task-based syllabuses is done according to task types. Learning tasks are grouped around communicative tasks. Obviously related communication tasks are grouped together in a cluster, and a large activity may be subdivided into subordinate tasks.

According to Breen (1987b), sequencing of the task-based syllabus is cyclic in the sense that learners progress through the tasks and refine their knowledge. It is also problem-based as it deals with learning problems that emerge during performance of communication tasks, resulting in a sequence of diagnosis and remediation. Tasks may be sequenced from the familiar to the less familiar, or from the more generalizable to the less generalizable with relation to knowledge and abilities, beginning with a core of knowledge and abilities and progressing through exploration and diagnosis, making use of existing language knowledge from already known languages and the target language. The development is linear in terms of progress towards the target language competence, and expansive in terms of a growing competence.

Communication and related tasks are sequenced in advance according to the familiarity of the communicative knowledge and abilities, and the inherent complexity of the tasks. Learning tasks that deal with emerging learner problems can not be sequenced in advance. Provision should be made for a wide range of learning tasks, some that deal with communication tasks and others that support learners with specific problems.

The formal syllabus prioritizes linguistic competence whereas the functional syllabus prioritizes communicative performance.

According to Breen, the first rationale for the task-based syllabus is a need to prioritize communicative competence that underlies interpreting, expressing, and negotiating meaning in everyday communication. The task-based syllabus assumes that the development of language knowledge and abilities will be facilitated through participation in communicative and learning tasks, using language to communicate and to learn.

The second rationale for the task-based syllabus is that it introduces a more sensitive methodology. Learners are assumed to detect their own learning problems and to solve them by undertaking supportive tasks, and to reflect on their own learning experience. In this regard the task-based syllabus is means-focused, whereas the formal and functional syllabuses are end-focused.

The third rationale presented by Breen is the assumption that learning is metacommunicative as well as communicative and that learners can be analytical while learning the target language.

3.2.4.2. The process syllabus

The process syllabus has its roots in the humanist approach to teaching and learning that recognizes the benefits that may be derived from learners working together in groups, and also the desirability of negotiation between teachers and learners about objectives and subject content. According to Long and Crookes (1993), Breen and Candlin (1984 and 1987) claimed that learning should and can only be produced by negotiation, and that the negotiation process itself is what drives learning.

Breen (1987) says process syllabus types go one step further than the task-based syllabus in the sense that they not only represent how to communicate and how to learn to communicate, but they also present how this may be done specifically in the language

classroom. The process syllabus bridges the gap between content and methodology and is therefore concerned with communication, learning, and the purposeful activity of teaching and learning in the classroom community. It is a plan for classroom work. It does not focus upon, select, subdivide and sequence content on behalf of the teachers and learners, but provides a framework for teachers and learners to create their own syllabus in the classroom. According to Long and Crookes (1993), the justification offered by Breen and Candlin for this is that teachers and learners anyway reinterpret and negotiate any given syllabus in the classroom according to their own particular needs.

The process syllabus consists of a plan for making the major decisions necessary for classroom learning, to be agreed upon jointly by teachers and learners, and a bank of classroom activities broken down into sets of tasks. Long and Crookes (1993) explain that the emphasis is on knowledge of how to participate in communication in the target language. Breen (1987b) explains that the plan is presented in the form of interrelated questions referring to participation, procedure, and subject-matter, that will generate the particular process syllabus preferred for the classroom group. Alternative answers may also be provided by the syllabus designer. The activities and tasks are communicative or metacommunicative, like those of the task-based syllabus, and may include conventional formal types.

In a sense the process syllabus is an extension of the task-based syllabus, but its tasks and activities are not sequenced, they are categorised in terms of objectives, content, procedure and the evaluation of their outcomes. Emphasis on evaluation is important. It forms part of a cycle of decision-making. The answers to the questions in the plan result in a syllabus designed by the teacher and learners for their own group. They then perform the preferred activities or tasks. Evaluation of their own outcomes lead them back to the questions and decision-making needed for further progress.

The process syllabus does not provide a plan of what is to be achieved by teaching and learning. This has to be decided by the participants in the classroom situation themselves according to their needs and as their view changes and as problems emerge during the learning process. Selection and sequencing of content becomes part of the decision-making process in the classroom. A pre-planned external syllabus may be used and modified according to the specific needs of the group.

Breen (1987b) presents a six point rationale for the process syllabus. The first rationale is that there are actually three types of syllabuses in a classroom: the pre-planned syllabus that has to be interpreted by the teacher for implementation with the learners, learner syllabuses reflecting individual differences of learners, and the syllabus daily worked out by teacher and learners together as a synthesis of the first two. The process syllabus facilitates this synthesis.

The second rationale is that the process syllabus facilitates the implementation of any syllabus by bridging the gap between content and methodology.

In the third instance the process syllabus accommodates any change in the teaching-learning experience in the classroom, and in the fourth instance it prioritizes joint decision-making necessary for harmonious functioning in the classroom.

The fifth rationale is that the decision-making process can be regarded as an authentic communicative activity that involves the purposeful sharing of meaning required for progress in the learning process.

Finally, as an extension of the task-based syllabus the process syllabus shares the rationale for it. It assumes that learners are able to learn by being metacommunicative and also to make important decisions about their own language learning in a classroom situation.

Process syllabuses have been criticized by Long and Crookes (1993) for not being based on any prior needs identification, which results in problems for selection. They also see problems for grading of task difficulty and sequencing of tasks. They regard the absence of focus on language form as a weakness. Long and Crookes question the accountability of process syllabuses to any current SLA theory.

3.3. Task-based syllabus design for a new paradigm

A course for second language teaching should ideally be theoretically well-founded. Long and Crookes (1993) propose that such a course should be based on choices from options in the areas of needs identifications, syllabus design, methodology design, materials writing, testing, and programme evaluation. These choices should be influenced by the current view on second language learning.

Long and Crookes regard the choice of unit of analysis as the starting point of syllabus design, as it should represent the designer's view on language learning. The type of syllabus that the designer chooses will affect decisions about the other elements of course design.

They distinguish between analytic and synthetic approaches to course design. An analytic approach requires the learners to perform analytically, working with whole chunks of the target language that have been selected according to their specific needs, relying on their innate knowledge of linguistic universals to process the input that they are exposed to. Examples of this type are procedural, process and task-based syllabuses. In a synthetic approach the learners have to synthesize the whole language from the different parts that are taught separately to make the learning of the language easier. The structural, lexical, notional, functional and situational syllabuses are

synthetic types.

Long and Crookes (1993) notice a similarity between their distinction and that of White (1988). She distinguishes Type A and Type B syllabuses. Type A syllabuses focus on what is to be learned and present it in preselected small pieces. Long and Crookes point out that Type A syllabuses were rejected for being too interventionist and authoritarian. Type B syllabuses focus on how the language is to be learned. They do not present a preselection of items to be learned, but allow the teacher and learners to negotiate the course through joint decision-making.

Considering the view that a syllabus can be regarded as a particular representation of a current paradigm, a study of the different syllabus types as presented by Breen (1987a and 1987b) leads to the conclusion that process plans must at least represent the beginning of a paradigm shift. They represent a new view of language knowledge that includes the component of communicative competence. The new view of language teaching and learning that they represent includes the assumption that learners progress through purposeful participation in communication in everyday situations. What is important for learning is not so much the content that is selected for teaching, but the participation in tasks that involve the interpretation, expression and negotiation of meaning in everyday communicative situations. Process plans such as task-based and process syllabuses fill the requirements of the new paradigm.

Second language teachers who support the current view that language is best learned and taught through interaction spend a lot of time and effort on getting learners to talk, as pointed out by Pica, Kanagy and Falodun (1993). In interaction-based pedagogy classroom activities are structured to encourage learners to talk not only with the aim of producing language, but to share ideas and opinions, and to work towards a common goal or to achieve individual goals. Learning is promoted through the social interaction between learners and their interlocutors,

especially when the learners struggle to negotiate understanding, ask for help from their interlocutors, and get feedback about their own stage of interlanguage, to which they can respond through modification of their original hypotheses. To achieve this, classroom activities must be designed to encourage learners to talk to their interlocutors and to negotiate meaning with them. The use of communicative tasks is an effective way to assist second language learning.

Kumaravadivelu (1993) discusses three broad categories of approaches to language teaching. Language-centred approaches are concerned mainly with linguistic forms and treats L2 learning as a linear additive process. Learner-centred approaches focus on learners' needs. They are linear and additive, dealing with structures and notions or functions. Learning-centred approaches are concerned with the psycholinguistic processes of L2 learning, which are seen as nonlinear. They do not need preselected, presequenced systematic language input, but involve the creation of conditions that facilitate negotiation in meaningful interaction in the classroom. They promote the concept that language is learned best when the learner's attention is intentionally focused upon linguistic features. This view seems to correspond with that of Breen (1987b). Kumaravadivelu (1993) suggests that task-based learning can be combined with more traditional types of teaching activities with language-centred approaches for more effective learning.

3.3.1. Features of communication tasks

Since the concept of task became popular as a basis for learning and teaching, several definitions of the term "task" have been produced, sometimes resulting in confusion. Kumaravadivelu (1993) says the term task defies clear terminological, conceptual and methodological understanding because it is used indiscriminately.

Kumaravadivelu refers to Long (1985) who sees task in the context of real-world use as "a piece of work undertaken for oneself or for others, freely or for some reward", involving the things people do in everyday life. According to Long and Crookes (1993), Breen defines task very specifically as "any structural endeavour which has a particular objective, appropriate content, a specified working procedure, and a range of outcomes for those who undertake the task."

Crookes (1986) is quoted by Kumaravadivelu when he defines task from an educational point of view as "a piece of work or an activity, usually with a specified objective, undertaken as part of an educational course or at work". Kumaravadivelu also quotes Wright (1987) for whom tasks are "instructional questions which ask, demand or even invite learners (or teachers) to perform operations on input data". Krahnke (1987) is mentioned as explaining more specifically that tasks are performed by L2 learners in class to rehearse for social communication in real life outside the classroom.

Kumaravadivelu also refers to Breen's definition of language learning tasks as a range of workplans aimed at facilitating language learning (Breen 1987b). This includes simple and brief exercise types as well as complex and lengthy activities. It may involve individual responses and also group work such as problem-solving, simulations and decision-making. Kumaravadivelu also refers to Candlin (1987) and Swales (1990) who both mention sequencability and goal-directedness as features of tasks. They also refer to the directedness of tasks towards future social communication skills.

Nunan (1993) quotes Richards, Platt and Weber (1985) who see a language learning task as "an activity or action which is carried out as the result of processing or understanding language (i.e. as a response)". Nunan himself sees language learning tasks as being concerned with communicative language. He defines language learning tasks as "a piece of classroom work which involves

learners in comprehending, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form". A task should be a complete unit that can stand on its own, yet representing a continuum. Nunan explains that a task consists of some input data and one or more activities or procedures. There is also a goal, roles for the teacher and learners, and a setting.

Pica, Kanagy and Falodun (1993) studied the definitions of task produced by others and found the two most common features in these definitions are goal and activity. Tasks are oriented toward goals and participants are to reach an outcome through talk or action. They are actively involved in carrying out a task, working individually or in a group of two or more. Pica et al. explain: "a task is not an action carried out on task participants; rather, a task is an activity which participants, themselves, must carry out."

As Pica et al. (1993) point out, activity and goal can have many forms, but not all will promote language learning. Language learning requires that learners should be involved in activities that promote their teachers' objectives for their efficient language learning. When carrying out a task, language learners must seek help in order to understand and to make themselves understood. In doing this they activate processes involved in comprehension and production of language.

The kinds of activities and goals involved in communication tasks are more specifically called interactional activities and communicational goals. Pica et al. (1993) elaborate these features into categories of interactant relationship, interaction requirement, goal orientation, and outcome options. They suggest that different configurations of activity and goal result in a typology of five types of tasks. Interactional activity and communicational goals can be linked with opportunities for learners to get help with understanding of input and to respond to feedback by modifying their interlanguage.

Interactant relationship relates to the roles of participants in the exchange of information by holding, requesting and supplying information needed to achieve the task goal. Interaction requirement relates to the degree to which participants are required to participate in interaction while doing the task. Pica et al. (1993) refer to Long (1980, 1985), who points out that in a mutual request and suppliance relationship information is exchanged in a two-way direction, while the exchange becomes a one-way flow of information if the relationship becomes less mutual. Interaction can become limited if one or more participant is allowed not to take part in the exchange of information.

According to Pica et al. (1993), goal orientation involves the degree of collaboration or convergence opposed to the degree of independence or divergence necessary to achieve the goal. Outcome options refers to the range of outcomes that would be regarded acceptable as results of the task. The more convergent the range of outcomes, the more essential it becomes for participants to engage in interaction, collaborating until an acceptable goal is achieved.

Task predictability is never guaranteed. By limiting the options for participants the teacher may have a degree of control over the outcome of a task, but the slightest deviation may influence the results. Changing any of the features of the original task may result in a different type of task.

Pica et al. (1993) maintain that the type of task that best promotes opportunities for learning by understanding input, getting feedback on production and by modification of interlanguage, is the type where each participant has a different part of information that must be exchanged in order to do the task, and where both participants must request and supply information to each other, while working together towards one or convergent goals with only one acceptable outcome. When mutual understanding becomes difficult, participants must negotiate comprehension. If the participation becomes unbalanced,

participants could switch roles.

3.3.2. Types of communication tasks

On the basis of interactant relationship, interactant requirement, goal orientation and outcome option, and the impact their various realizations may have on opportunities for learners to understand input from the target language, five types of tasks are distinguished by Pica et al. (1993):

(1) The **jigsaw task** requires both interactants X and Y to hold, request and supply information needed to complete the task, causing information to flow in two ways. Both participants are required to participate and to work towards a convergent role with only one outcome. This task could be regarded as the best for creation of opportunities to learn by comprehension, feedback and modification of interlanguage.

(2) The **information gap task** requires one participant X to request information needed to complete the task from participant Y, the only one who holds the information. Information flows in one direction only, from Y to X. Since each interactant has a fixed role, opportunities for negotiating understanding through interlanguage modification are limited, even though both participants work together towards a convergent role with only one outcome. By dividing the information among the interactants this type of task could easily be changed into a more beneficent jigsaw task.

(3) The **problem-solving task** has a single goal and outcome option, but as information is available to both interactants, two-way exchange of information is not required and interaction is not necessary. The amount of negotiation to understand will depend on the initiative of the participants themselves.

(4) The **decision-making task** requires participants to work together towards a single goal, but with more than one available outcomes. Opportunities for comprehension, feedback and modification of interlanguage become more limited as more than one outcome become acceptable, allowing participants to choose to exchange or withhold information.

(5) The **opinion exchange task** is aimed at engaging participants in discussion and exchange of opinions. There is no requirement for interaction, as no single goal or outcome is required. This type of task is the least effective for language learning by working towards comprehension, feedback and interlanguage modification.

As in the case of the information gap task, any task can be changed into another type simply by changing one feature.

Pica et al. (1993) report that interaction involving open-ended questions result in more opportunities to modify interlanguage. Students working together in small groups make significantly more use of confirmation checks and clarification requests to each other than students fronted by a teacher. Jigsaw tasks, where students are required to work together in a small group, therefore promote opportunities for making progress through interaction.

3.4. Grammar and task-based methodology

Research in second language acquisition indicates that learners of an L2 who receive instruction in the target language have an advantage over learners who learn the language naturalistically. Long and Crookes (1993) maintain that formal instruction has little or no effect on the sequence of development, but it may cause some learning strategies to be used more. It accelerates the rate of learning and improves the eventual level of

achievement. The assumption is that it is the focus on grammatical form that is the main beneficial factor.

Long and Crookes (1993) view form-focused teaching as the instruction of marked or more marked structures, while allowing transfer of unmarked or less marked forms. It also involves giving salience to less salient forms that would otherwise take a long time to be noticed in the input. It may promote the acquisition of more complex forms and speed up the process of development of interlanguage. An important benefit of form-focused teaching is the implied availability of feedback on errors, that may result in interlanguage modification.

Since the need for grammar teaching has been established questions like the following have become important issues: When should an aspect of language be taught? Which grammar should be taught? How should grammar be taught? The first two questions may be dealt with mainly by linguists and psycholinguists, but the third one is mostly a question of methodology, as is pointed out by Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993). They support the view of Sharwood Smith and Rutherford (1988) who claim that the best form of grammar instruction is through "consciousness raising", and that this should be done through "activities which facilitate the development of grammatical knowledge through hypothesis testing and inferencing". They suggest the use of meaningful communication tasks for this purpose.

Long and Crookes (1993) propose that pedagogic tasks and other methodological options should be used to draw the attention of students to certain aspects of the target language code. The idea is not to go back to synthetic syllabuses that focus on forms, but to accommodate learner syllabuses in a user-friendly task-based methodology. The first step would be to identify real-world target tasks, which are then classified into task types. From these task types pedagogic tasks are derived and sequenced to form a task-based syllabus. In the classroom the teacher and students work on the pedagogic tasks, which are increasingly

accurate approximations of the real-world target tasks that motivated them.

As there are different types of tasks, and as many activities may be regarded as tasks by some and yet not be suitable for the particular purpose of grammatical consciousness raising, Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993) propose an important restriction on the type of task that may be used. They insist that the immediate criterion for success in the task must be outside of grammar. It may therefore not be just an ordinary grammar exercise. They find information gap tasks particularly useful. This is the type of task where each participant has a different part of information that is needed in performing the task, and both participants are required to use language to request and supply information to complete the task.

Initially communicative tasks have been used to get learners to focus on comprehending, expressing and negotiating meaning in interaction, instead of concentrating on grammatical features. For this reason tasks have been receiving a lot of interest among SLA researchers. They find a relationship between the task type and the amount of interactional negotiation for meaning generated.

A basic distinction can be made between "open" and "closed" tasks. Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993) refer to this distinction made by Long, and to Loschky's similar distinction that is related to the type of information exchanged by participants. In an open task learners exchange relatively unrestricted or indeterminate information. In a closed task the information that is exchanged is very determinate or discrete. Closed tasks lead to more negotiation of meaning and more modifications of interlanguage. They therefore better facilitate comprehension than open tasks. They also promote focus on the form of utterances used in input or output. For grammar teaching open tasks should be used and they should be designed to make the use of grammatically encoded information essential to task success.

Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993) refer to work done by Schmidt (in press at the time of writing) on his consciousness hypothesis. He argues that a necessary condition for any learning is attention to input, and not just input in general, but that part of input that plays a role in the system that is to be learned. The type of information gap task needed for effective grammar learning therefore has to make the connection between communication and the target grammar system. Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993) suggest that learning in the form of restructuring of the grammar will mainly take place when learners notice the gap in their knowledge.

A study was made of the features of tasks that effectively facilitate grammatical development. Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993) describe four sets of interrelated distinctions: automatization and restructuring, naturalness, utility and essentialness, degree of control, and focus on comprehension or production.

3.4.1. Automatization and restructuring

According to Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993), automatization can be described as a process of consistent mapping of the same input onto the same pattern. It occurs through practice and is relatively permanent. An automatic response is quick and requires little effort. It is related to the traditional belief that "practice makes perfect", but it is only part of the actual learning process. It may be an important result of most tasks.

Restructuring is viewed by Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993) as the result of progress made by hypothesis testing and inferencing and involves modification of the interlanguage. It is sometimes experienced by L2 learners as a sudden realization or comprehension. Hypothesis testing may involve learners noticing a gap in their knowledge of the relationship between a structure

and its function, and testing a possible solution for the problem either through comprehension or production.

In testing a hypothesis a learner may make use of internal strategies available inside the mind of the comprehender or producer of language, or interpersonal strategies that may be used in interaction with an interlocutor. These may be used as comprehension strategies or production strategies.

Comprehension strategies involve a complex interplay of information from linguistic sources, as well as nonlinguistic sources, such as basic world knowledge.

Production strategies can be classified as reduction strategies or achievement strategies. Reduction strategies involve methods that may be used to confine oneself to only that part of the linguistic system that has been mastered well. It may involve reduction of the communicative goal to simply getting the information across, and not dealing with pragmatics or discourse requirements. Reduction strategies cannot lead to hypothesis formation or restructuring.

Achievement strategies include compensatory devices of a linguistic nature, such as paraphrase, word coinage, interlingual transfer and generalization, as well as nonlinguistic devices, such as gesture, mime and diagrams, that are available to fill gaps in the knowledge of the learner. They also include methods of getting help from the interlocutor. Achievement strategies may lead to changes in the linguistic system of the learner.

Tasks have to be very carefully designed to encourage learners to notice the gap and make use of comprehension strategies or production strategies in hypothesis testing that may result in changes in their linguistic system.

3.4.2. Naturalness, utility and essentialness

Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993) argue that structural accurateness of comprehension and production should be made essential to meaning in structure-based tasks, and that feedback on structural accuracy should be part of the design of the task. This feedback should be communicatively oriented. In relation to the requirements of the task the grammatical structure may be natural, useful or essential.

As Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993) explain, the use of a particular structure may be natural in the performance of a task, even though the task could be completed effectively without it. The use of that structure is not required, but it occurs frequently in that regard. It can be said to be natural to that task. Task-naturalness may be relevant to the stage of development of the learner, or it may be different for native speakers and non-native speakers. The teacher has to make decisions regarding the readiness of learners in relation to task-naturalness, and regarding the possibility of a task facilitating the learning of a structure. Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993) point out that there is no guarantee that task-naturalness will trigger the acquisition of a new structure.

In the performance of a task a particular structure may be very useful, although it may not be the only structure that could be used. The utility of a structure is related to the redundancy of language and the richness of the context, and therefore also to the level of competence of the learner. It is very difficult to design a task in which the utility of a structure will guarantee its use.

When a task cannot be performed effectively without a particular structure, it becomes essential that the grammatical element be attended to. Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993) admit that it is more difficult to design tasks in which a structure is essential than

tasks in which it is only natural or useful. Task-essentialness is more easily created in comprehension tasks than in production tasks.

3.4.3. Control

Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1939) say that if structural accuracy is to be essential to meaning, it is important that the teacher maintains a great deal of control over the interaction involved in the performance of a task. This amount of control is only found in closed tasks, where a single outcome is to be achieved.

3.4.4. Comprehension and production

Whereas the teacher has control over the particular input that a learner is exposed to, the amount of control that the teacher has over the learner's production is more limited. According to Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993), designing a production task in which the use of a structure is natural or useful is easier than designing one in which the use of a structure is essential for communication. Production tasks are therefore found to be more frequently used for the development of automatization of a structure than for restructuring.

In a comprehension task the teacher has a lot more control than in a production task. The teacher has control over the goal, context, input and activities and can target a particular structure and use it in the input to make it essential to effective communication.

3.4.5. Relationship between task features

The distinctions involved in restructuring in hypothesis formation and automatization, structural essentialness, utility and naturalness, degree of control, and comprehension and production are interrelated. Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993) explain that task-essentialness causes the learner to pay attention to the relevant structure. This results in hypothesis formation or restructuring. Task-essentialness requires a great deal of control which is easier to maintain in comprehension tasks than in production tasks. Comprehension tasks are therefore more suitable for hypothesis formation and restructuring.

According to Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993), production tasks are suitable for automatizing structures that have already been correctly hypothesized in comprehension tasks. This view supports the concept that comprehension should precede production.

3.4.6. Feedback

Feedback is regarded by Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993) as essential to interlanguage modification. Learners who test hypotheses about the use of new structures need feedback to confirm or correct their initial hypotheses and make progress. Feedback is necessary not only for production, but also for comprehension. In negotiation for meaning learners greatly rely on feedback from their interlocutors to modify their interlanguage.

Feedback does not always help the learner to locate an error. Areas known for learning problems could be targeted by the teacher to be dealt with in structure-based communication tasks. If the task is closed, feedback should be sufficient to locate the error without explicit teacher correction.

3.4.7. Designing structure-based comprehension tasks

Teachers do not need to be psycholinguists to be able to design suitable tasks for the L2 classroom. They do need to be sensitive to what goes on in the classroom and should keep in mind the acquisitional processes of restructuring and automatization that their students are involved in during language learning.

By paying attention to learners' comprehension of input and production of output the teacher can locate a problem area. The grammar involved can be analyzed, and the teacher can then develop tasks that focus upon the particular structure.

Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993) propose a schema that may be used to design structure-based tasks such as comprehension tasks, which they regard as the best type to meet their requirements for a structure-based communication task. In this type of task structural accuracy is essential to meaning. Communicatively oriented feedback is part of the design and the learner can be helped to locate an error. The schema involves the following:

(1) There must be predetermined input that contains the target structure. The input may vary from one sentence in a very controlled task to longer texts, in a written or spoken form.

(2) The input should be contextualized in a "visual frame of reference" in the form of pictures or objects that provide the content that serves as the basis of the communication in the task as in the information gap task. There should be a target option and distracter options that match predicted errors.

(3) There should be contextual features that can be used by the learner to distinguish between referents in the task. The learner can look at the pictures or objects during and after receiving the input, but should be able to identify the referents only by negotiating for meaning and not by relying on contextual cues.

The contextual cues should therefore not be too rich.

(4) The learners should choose a picture or object option. They may then want to clarify or confirm their understanding and may use contextual features to negotiate meaning with an interlocutor. If information exchange is necessary for successful task completion it will lead to more interaction, which should facilitate comprehension. The task also becomes more communicative and not only meaningful.

At the end of the task or through interaction during the performance of the task the learner must get feedback regarding the accuracy of the choice made during the process. Restructuring of the relevant interlanguage hypotheses can then occur. Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993) point out that learners may need more than one attempt to notice the gap in their knowledge and to proceed to start restructuring. When the process has been successfully completed more tasks may be done, but this time with input that has not been predetermined supplied by the learner to the interlocutor.

Learner strategies that can be used to compensate for their linguistic incompetencies can make it very difficult to design structure-based tasks where the correct use of a particular structure is essential to meaning. Such strategies should be controlled and used to the benefit of the learner.

Instead of attempting to teach grammar exclusively through a task-based methodology, Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993) suggest that structure-based tasks be used whenever compatible with an existing syllabus. They support the view expressed in 1989 by Pienemann that structures should be taught in the order that they are "learnable" and according to their degree of "difficulty". This is a tricky issue that may involve consideration of factors such as task complexity, and input factors such as the length of an utterance, saliency, syntactic complexity, and difficulty of vocabulary, as well as cognitive factors, such as the

availability of visual references, the number of options available to choose from, and the number of steps needed to complete the task.

3.4.8. Methodological aspects of task-based pedagogy

Nunan (1993) says the major tasks for curriculum designers include the selection, grading and sequencing of linguistic content and pedagogic tasks. According to him, a distinction is traditionally made between syllabus design and methodology. According to this view, syllabus design involves selection, justification and sequencing of linguistic and experiential content, whereas methodology involves selection, justification and sequencing of learning tasks and activities. Or, as Kumaravadivelu (1993) puts it, method refers to the "how" of language teaching, and content to the "what". In practice it does not always happen that the two are based on the same psychosociolinguistic and educational principles that govern L2 development.

Kumaravadivelu (1993) points out the dichotomy between content and methodology in language teaching and the use of the term task to refer to both content and methodology. The term is also used in relation to various language teaching approaches regardless of the underlying principles and distinguishing classroom procedures.

Kumaravadivelu (1993) further distinguishes between content-driven pedagogy and method-driven pedagogy. Content-driven pedagogy involves a preselected, presequenced syllabus. Method-driven pedagogy deals with a flexible set of general learning objectives and problem-solving tasks instead of a list of specific linguistic items. The main issue in task-based methodology is the creation of opportunities for negotiated interaction where learners may use their own learning strategies

in unpredictable interaction between the learner, the task and the task situation.

According to Kumaravadivelu (1993), a distinction can be made between language-centred procedures, learner-centred procedures and learning-centred procedures on the basis of the fundamental types of approaches to language teaching. Language-centred procedures are structural exercises that require the use of preselected, presequenced grammatical or vocabulary items. They lead the learner along a predetermined path towards a predetermined goal. Learner-centred procedures are communicative activities that focus the learner's attention on preselected, presequenced formal and functional properties of language. They also lead the learner along a predetermined path towards a predetermined goal. Learning-centred procedures are pedagogic tasks that focus the learner's attention on negotiation of meaning by any available capacities that have been acquired. They lead the learner along an open-ended path toward a predetermined goal.

Classroom activities are interrelated, according to Kumaravadivelu (1993). Learning-centred pedagogic tasks are broader than and include some characteristics of communicative activities, which in turn are broader than and include characteristics of structural exercises. The designer of tasks has to take into consideration that language learning is a developmental process that involves decision-making and negotiation of meaning. It is not a linear, additive process. Learning happens primarily incidental and is mostly a subconscious activity.

Designers of language learning tasks will find little help in prescribed textbooks set according to the requirements of presequenced syllabuses. It is up to the teacher to design tasks according to the needs of the learners that will promote learning by negotiation of meaning inside the classroom. Kumaravadivelu (1993) lists the following types of rationale for learning tasks:

communicative rationale (also called real-world rationale), pedagogic rationale, psycho-social rationale, integrated rationale, and classroom interactional rationale.

In communicative approaches Nunan (1993) sees a merging of the two issues of syllabus design and methodology. In Nunan's view the challenge for the syllabus designer is the selection and sequencing of tasks that are psycholinguistically motivated and also related to the things learners may want to do in real life. Information about learners' needs are therefore vital and tasks are selected first and then the linguistic elements that are related to them.

Nunan (1993) maintains that tasks with a pedagogic rationale and that are selected with reference to a model of second language acquisition, require learners to do things that they would not normally have to do outside the classroom. Tasks with a real-world rationale, on the other hand, are based on a needs analysis and require learners to approximate the type of things they have to do in real life outside the classroom.

Long (1985) supports the concept of real-world tasks and Nunan (1993) refers to the four stages he suggests for development of language programmes: identifying learners' needs, defining syllabus content, organizing language acquisition opportunities, and measuring student achievement. Nunan insists that tasks should be systematically linked to the things learners need to do in the real world, incorporate what is known about the nature of successful communication, and embody what is known about second language acquisition.

Although a lot still has to be learned about communication, it is known that communication involves interactional as well as informational elements, and also negotiation of meaning and interaction management. Nunan's view is that all these should be included in language learning tasks.

Brown (1994) refers to Nunan's (1991) discussion of the characteristic features of a task-based approach to language teaching and explains that task-based teaching "makes an important distinction between target tasks, which students must accomplish beyond the classroom, and pedagogical tasks, which form the nucleus of the classroom activity." Brown says target tasks are similar to the communicative functions that are included in functional-notional syllabuses, but "they are more specific and more explicitly related to classroom instruction" and specify the context. He uses the example of "giving personal information" as a communicative function for language, and suggests an appropriate target task related to this function might be "giving personal information in a job interview."

Pedagogical tasks include techniques designed to teach students to perform the target task, eventually involving students in a simulation of the target task itself, perhaps in role-play. Brown (1994) explains that pedagogical tasks "are distinguished by their specific goals that point beyond the language classroom to the target task." They may include both formal and functional techniques.

According to Brown (1994), a task-based curriculum specifies what a learner needs to do with the language in terms of target tasks, and organizes a series of pedagogical tasks intended to reach these goals. Task-based instruction focuses on a whole set of real-world tasks. The purposes for which language must be used is the priority. Goals are linguistic in nature and centre on the pragmatic language competence of learners. Brown sees task-based teaching as a well-integrated approach to language teaching that requires the organization of the classroom around those practical tasks that language users are involved in the real world.

3.5. Implications of a task-based approach for materials design

An important implication of a task-based approach is experienced in the area of materials design. For effective learning authentic input is needed. This implies that authenticity must be an important requirement for instructional materials.

3.5.1. Materials design and authenticity

The concept of a contemporary paradigm based on current views on language and language learning and teaching that was referred to earlier as explained by Breen (1987a and 1987b), is also reflected in the framework shared by a common professional core suggested by McDonough and Shaw (1993). Their framework is made up of criteria on which decisions about language teaching programmes are based, and pedagogic principles that govern the design of materials and methods. Materials and methods are therefore seen as part of a broader professional context.

In this view the goals of a teaching programme are derived from an analysis of the needs of the learners. The whole educational setting will influence the implementation of these goals. Goals therefore have to be realistic and related not only to the needs of the learners, but also to the setting, selection of syllabus content, materials and tests, planning of lessons and classroom management.

Important issues to consider are the age, interests, level of proficiency and aptitude of the learner. Also of importance are the mother tongue, academic and educational level, attitudes to learning, motivation, reasons for learning, preferred learning styles and the personality of the learner. Aspects regarding the setting that Mc Donough and Shaw (1993) regard as important are

the role of the target language in the country and in the school or institution, the teachers, management and administration, resources available, and support personnel. Also important are the number of pupils, time available, physical environment, socio-cultural environment, types of tests used and procedures for monitoring and evaluation. All these variables influence teaching and learning. Teachers may be able to influence or control some of them.

Earlier the syllabus has been described as a decision-making process. McDonough and Shaw (1993) view the syllabus as the overall organizing principle for what is to be taught and learned. They refer to the framework proposed by Richards and Rogers (1986) that has three levels, called approach, design and procedure. Approach represents the theories of language and language learning and teaching that the planning is based on. Design includes the practical aspects and instructional materials. Procedure deals with the techniques and classroom management. Different realizations on the different levels result in different types of syllabuses.

During the 1970s there was a strong move towards the communicative approach, bringing with it a demand for instructional materials that differed from those needed for the previously very popular formal and functional syllabuses. Communicative competence became a new goal, together with a need for correctness and appropriacy. A more comprehensive view of teaching and learning made popular terms such as communication, real-life, use, functions, appropriate, meaningful, context, setting and discourse. An initial tendency towards polarization of function versus grammar was balanced out. McDonough and Shaw (1993) explains: "it is clearly not possible to engage in purposeful communication in a language without being able to formulate the structures of that language as well."

In their view implications of a communicative approach include the following: Communicative means a concern with the meaning of

the language. There is a complex relationship between the form and function of language. Form and function form part of a wider network of factors. Appropriacy is as important as accuracy. All four skills should be dealt with communicatively. The concept of communication goes beyond the level of the sentence. Both language and behaviour can be communicative.

With reference to Wilkins' (1976) two categories of communicative meaning, "notional" for abstract concepts, and "functional" for the practical uses of language in interaction, McDonough and Shaw (1993) maintain "there is no reason in principle why grammar practice should not be placed in a communicative context, and functional practice take place only as a list of separate and decontextualized items."

McDonough and Shaw (1993) point out that the emphasis on accuracy of form and on appropriacy to the context has drawn the focus towards errors and error treatment. Errors now do not only involve grammar or vocabulary, but also context, roles and topics that are part of discourse.

The shift in focus towards the real-world use of language with its dimensions of context, topic and roles of the people involved, implies the requirement of authenticity for materials that are used in language teaching and learning. Various new types of syllabuses have been developed in an attempt to accommodate all the requirements of accuracy, appropriateness, real-world usefulness, authenticity, as well as the individual differences and preferred learning strategies of learners. The multisyllabus and the lexical syllabus are examples of such syllabuses. The task-based and process syllabuses that bring all these elements together in negotiated classroom processes, represent a shift in focus towards the learning processes.

Instructional materials are often the most visible representation of what happens inside the classroom, according to McDonough and Shaw (1993). Switching to a new syllabus often means having to

work without published materials, or little choice. Materials have to be evaluated with respect to the learners' needs and proficiency level, the context and presentation of content, whether it is to be accompanied by additional material such as audio or video materials, and its cultural acceptability.

Writing suitable materials can be very time consuming and not cost-effective. Teachers constantly find themselves engaged in adaptation of available materials to their specific needs. This requires evaluation of materials with regards to usability, generalizability, adaptability and flexibility. McDonough and Shaw (1993) maintain that there is a direct relationship between evaluating and adapting materials.

The first step is the decision to adopt, and the second step is to adapt. These steps have to be taken against a theoretical background. The aim is to strive for congruence (as suggested by Madsen and Bowen in 1978) "among teaching materials, methodology, students, course objectives, the target language and its context, and the teacher's own personality and teaching style". This adaptation does not always involve permanence such as writing down a change. It may be a case of the teacher thinking on his or her feet during normal classroom activities, making use of known skills "to maximize the appropriacy of teaching materials in context".

McDonough and Shaw (1993) say the general perception is that materials should be communicative and authentic, although there are many ways of interpreting these terms. These two requirements lead to adaptation of textbooks that are not really defective. They are simply made more suitable for the specific needs of the specific students in the particular situation. This involves personalizing, individualizing, localizing and modernizing the content. Content can be adapted by using a range of techniques, used individually or in combination, and can have both qualitative and quantitative effects. McDonough and Shaw (1993) refer to the following techniques of adaptation:

(1) Adding can be done by extending or expanding. Extending means supplying more of the same, whereas expanding means adding qualitatively as well as quantitatively.

(2) Deleting or omitting involves subtracting by reducing the length, or by abridging, which entails more changes.

(3) Modifying means internal change. It may be in the form of re-writing, when some of the linguistic content needs modification, or it may be in the form of restructuring, when changes in the structuring of the classroom are required.

(4) Simplifying is actually a re-writing, modifying type of activity. It may involve sentence structure, lexical content or grammatical structures and may have a stylistic effect. It may be required by the teaching situation and it may involve not only content, but also the way content is presented.

(5) Re-ordering means adjusting the sequence of the parts of a course book.

There are areas of overlap in the various adaptation techniques. McDonough and Shaw (1993) point out that adaptation can only be carried out effectively with an understanding of the design features of syllabuses and materials.

3.5.2. Theoretical basis for input enhancement in SLA

Input has already been described as the samples of the target language that the learner is exposed to. Sharwood Smith (1993) says that unless a specific teaching technique is applied, input for teaching purposes is usually selected for being structurally simple and communicatively useful. Decisions in this regard are made without reference to any theory of language learning or language processing, as these are still in very early stages of

development and not yet generally accepted.

That part of the input that has been processed to become part of the learner's available language knowledge is called intake. When interpreting or producing utterances, the learner makes use of linguistic intake together with nonlinguistic clues, such as gestures, objects in the environment and world knowledge, to process the linguistic signals. The learner's language acquisition device (LAD) is triggered by input, which is then processed for either meaning or acquisition.

The acquisition of language knowledge is a complex process. Using examples set by Chomsky and Bialystok, Sharwood Smith (1993) distinguishes between knowledge, or competence, and control. Knowledge can be intuitive knowledge or metaknowledge that involves conscious introspection. In agreement with the psychological concept of knowledge as a type of mental organization, Sharwood Smith explains linguistic knowledge as "a systematic body of mental representations underlying the learner's language use". This body of knowledge is built up gradually and at any time may not be the same as that of a native speaker. It is therefore distinguished as learner knowledge. Learners do not learn rules, they use examples from input to derive the rule systems of the target language. During this process they make use of the preprogrammed device of principles and parameters made available by Universal Grammar.

In everyday use of language, people are not aware of following rules. They use language automatically, in sub-meta mode. But the attention of language users can be shifted to linguistic aspects, going into meta mode, using metalanguage to deal with metalinguistic issues. Metalinguistic awareness means awareness of language as an object. Sharwood Smith (1993) explains that metalinguistic awareness can be deliberately nurtured and refined by analytic activities during formal instruction, formalizing it into metalinguistic knowledge.

The role of awareness in language learning has received a lot of attention from various linguists. Schmidt (1993) mentions Krashen in this regard. Krashen's comprehensible input hypothesis proposed that processing of input for meaning is necessary to convert input into intake. His non-interface hypothesis proposes that instruction and conscious knowledge of linguistic rules do not contribute to acquisition. This view has been criticized by many and it has since been established that intentional learning may lead to acquisition, as in the case where attention is given deliberately to less frequent or redundant structures by adult learners.

Schmidt (1993) says that whereas intention to learn is not necessarily crucial to learning, attention to input is, if it is to be committed to long-term memory, and that the quantity and quality of attention has an effect on effective retrieval. He also says that noticing may be sufficient to convert input into intake, but then it must be that part of input that is relevant for the target system. In this sense intake is the part of input that is noticed. He admits that some input does become intake subconsciously, and that the issue still needs to be researched. Research has already shown that learners process input for meaning before form, and in order to process form that is not meaningful, it must be possible to process the informational content with little or no attention.

One important function of teaching is to make target structures more salient in input that follows. Schmidt (1993) agrees with Loschky and Bley-Vroman on their view regarding the types of tasks needed for structure-based grammar teaching. He admits that this view may lead to the impression that a structural syllabus might be justified, and refers to Ellis who suggests this, on condition that this may not be implemented as a complete course. According to Ellis, a task-based syllabus should include tasks that teach content without a specific focus. This should allow learners to notice language incidentally as the result of triggering by interaction between learners during their work on

tasks in the classroom.

Sharwood Smith (1993) distinguishes between knowledge of language, and the activities that make that knowledge work in actual production and interpretation of messages. These activities are known as control. Control involves skills, degrees of fluency, and automaticity. It means collecting the necessary information and processing it for the purpose of reception or production. According to Sharwood Smith, proficiency means to have effective control over language knowledge, to be able to use language competently. Getting knowledge therefore is different from getting control, and knowing a word or structure is different from knowing how to produce or understand it. Control over processing involves both the meta mode and the sub-meta mode.

Language learning, as viewed by Sharwood Smith (1993), is a very complex process that deals with different systems, each with its own principles. In this modular approach to language learning, the language acquisition device (LAD) differs from what drives learning of other types of skills and knowledge. Input for language learning must be split up for processing by the different modules of the LAD. Some of it can be processed with conscious awareness, and the rest without.

In this model of language acquisition, language input that is different from what is part of the learner's current system of knowledge, may trigger a reconstruction in the learner's metalinguistic understanding of the language, and perhaps even a change in the learner's competence. Drawing the learner's attention to particular structural features is called consciousness-raising or, more recently, input enhancement. Input enhancement means making input salient. Positive input enhancement means making some correct forms in the input more salient. Negative input enhancement draws the attention to the fact that some forms are incorrect.

Input enhancement can be done in many ways. In the hypothesis testing model of language acquisition input enhancement in the form of corrective feedback is vital for interlanguage modification. Sharwood Smith (1993) says that a lot of research should still be done on this issue within the context of a modular view of language learning.

3.6. Conclusion

Loshky and Bley-Vroman (1993) suggest that tasks should rather be used to work on specific processing problems rather than grammar points in a structural syllabus. Their hesitance to recommend the exclusive use of tasks may be caused by the fact that there is not yet sufficient documented proof of the successful use of task-based form-focused instruction in second language teaching.

Problem areas are a limited psycholinguistic rationale, assessing task difficulty and sequencing of tasks. Tasks are sometimes vague and difficult to identify and may even overlap. Objections may be made about the lesser degree of learner autonomy in the preplanned and guided task-based syllabus. Yet Long and Crookes (1993) propose: "While still in need of controlled field testing, task-based language teaching shows some potential as an integrated approach to program design, implementation and evaluation."

CHAPTER FOUR: A TASK-BASED APPROACH TO AN INTRODUCTORY XHOSA SECOND LANGUAGE COURSE AT TERTIARY LEVEL

4.1. Introduction

Task-based learning has established itself in the field of second language acquisition as a generally accepted approach. In a recent article Skehan (1996) states that task-based learning has grown enormously in importance during the last ten years and that it can now be approached from various perspectives. Skehan describes task-based learning as an attempt to address the dilemma of how to employ naturalistic learning processes while at the same time managing the pedagogic process systematically. He sees the challenge for the task designer as the creation of situations in which learning can occur optimally, even though the understanding of language learning is currently still inexact.

4.2. Problems in task-based learning

Skehan (1996) reports that a number of researchers, syllabus designers, and educational innovators are calling for a move in language teaching towards task-based approaches to instruction. He mentions the names of Prabhu, Nunan, Long, Gass and Crookes as those of people who are promoting such a type of approach. Skehan points out that there are also people, such as Sheen, who are criticising task-based instruction, and that there still is not clarity about how such an approach could be implemented.

One of the issues still being debated is that of a definition of the term task. A number of definitions exist, as discussed in chapter 3. According to Skehan (1996), the term task can be interpreted as "an activity in which: meaning is primary, there is some sort of relationship to the real world; task completion has some priority; and the assessment of task performance is in

terms of task outcome." Skehan claims that even though many activities can combine some of these priorities, the main factor that distinguishes a task from a transformational exercise is that a task which requires an exchange of personal information or solving a problem or making a judgement, "bears a relationship to things that happen outside the classroom". Skehan (1996) refers to the claim made by Long and Crookes (1991) that tasks also have a clear pedagogic relationship to out-of-class language use. According to Long and Crookes, needs analysis should clarify students' need for language use in real life, and according to them, task design should ensure a developmental relationship between classroom tasks and real-life activities.

Skehan (1996) distinguishes between a strong and a weak form of the task-based approach. The strong form sees the task as the unit of language teaching, whereas the weak form sees the task as a vital part of language instruction embedded in a more complex pedagogic context, preceded or followed by focused instruction very much like communicative language teaching. Skehan says that various people have proposed different approaches to task-based learning. Among them are Pica, Kanagy and Falodun (1993), who analyzed tasks in terms of interactional patterns and requirements, and goals and expected outcomes (see chapter 3). Their analysis will form the basis of the discussion of features of the tasks that follow later in this chapter.

Skehan (1996) suggests that approaches to task-based instruction are popular because of their authenticity and their link with theories about the course of development of language acquisition, but they are not without pitfalls. He highlights some of the problems and pitfalls involved in such approaches. Firstly he points out that normal adult conversation often is elliptical and incomplete in its surface form, and relies heavily on assumptions about background knowledge. Language learners therefore make use of comprehension and communication strategies that depend only partially upon form as a clue to meaning. By doing this the normal developmental process involved in change in the learner's

interlanguage does not occur.

The second problem related to task-based instruction that Skehan highlights is of a lexical nature. Skehan explains that the language learning process is lexical in the beginning, but becomes more syntactized and then relexicalized as language becomes analyzable and is then stored as multi-word lexical items. Skehan refers to Bolinger, Pawley and Syder, who argue that language is highly idiomatic, and that language processing is not so much creative as dependent on memorization, with speech being planned in units of a clause at a time. Skehan explains that there are two modes of language processing: the lexical mode for fast, accessible communication, and the more exact, creative mode with analysability and concern for form, syntax and planning. Tasks may not necessarily by themselves require the use of the mode of processing that will focus on form. In order to ensure that learners focus on form and that acquisitional processes are triggered, tasks must be designed to promote such a focus on form.

Skehan (1996) claims that the theoretical basis for a cognitive approach to language learning has been clarified in some studies. This clarification concerns the nature of what is learned, the role of consciousness, the role of performance factors, and the way in which attention impacts upon learning.

An important issue in second language learning is the question of exactly what is learned. Skehan (1996) refers to Van Patten (1994), who did some work on the importance of this issue. According to Skehan, Reber and McLaughlin support the concept of the induction of underlying abstract rules by means of restructuring, which involves development in size and complexity of the underlying system. In this interpretation interlanguage development would therefore be the result of restructuring of linguistic material by the operation of Universal Grammar or other cognitive processes. Skehan adds that a different view of what is learned is that of Carr and Curren, who support the idea

of the learning of language as formulaic items. This involves the learning of exemplars, which are specific, contextually coded items that are learned as chunks, and their utility in performance. Carr and Curren also found evidence of a dual mode of processing, which includes structured learning and exemplar-based learning, but yields results that are more than the sum of the parts. Skehan finds a parallel here with his concept of relexicalization.

Skehan refers to Schmidt's view of the role of consciousness in language learning. Schmidt (1990, 1994) distinguishes between awareness, control, and attention as different forms of consciousness. Skehan (1996) says there is accumulating evidence that explicit learning of structured material is generally superior to implicit learning, and suggests that awareness of the learning is an advantage. He says that Schmidt proposes that instruction can be appreciated better by learners who are aware, especially when correction is given. Awareness may help learners to function in a dual mode as described above.

According to Skehan (1996), Schmidt claims that the development of fluency can be accounted for in terms of accelerating models, restructuring models, and instance models. Acceleration models suggest a natural sequence of automatization of similar processes with more speed and less consciousness. Restructuring models involve improvement of performance by better organization. Instance models are based on contextually-coded exemplars functioning as units. Skehan assumes that the restructuring models are not relevant to fluency in terms of second language learning. He thinks the instance-based models are more suited to a dual mode approach to structured learning, as well as to a syntactic-lexical contrast in natural learning. He also views it as a possible way to interpret fossilization, which can now be seen as a premature product of a rule-based system becoming an exemplar for future learning.

Attention is described by Skehan (1996) as a capacity-robbing process when seen in terms of information processing that includes the three stages input, central processing, and output. Skehan explains that Van Patten claims that meaning is primary when limited attentional resources are available, and that form can be attended to only if there are attentional resources left over. Schmidt argues that noticing is necessary to change input into intake, and that it can be facilitated by factors such as salience, previous instruction, and task demands. Skehan therefore proposes that the task designer should create situations in which noticing is more likely to occur, triggering effective processing of material for interlanguage development. This would involve consciousness as focal attention, which helps the learning of structured material. Skehan points out that Carr and Curren propose that explicitness is an advantage in the case of more complex and ambiguous material, as it facilitates more effective parsing of material and richer coding, with limited capacity being focused where most needed.

4.3. Goals in task-based instruction

Skehan (1996) proposes that it is necessary to set appropriate goals for task-based approaches, as he thinks such approaches are currently in a transitional position. He explains that there are clear reasons for adopting task-based approaches which are supported by psycholinguistic research, but there are also linguistic and psychological arguments against a focus on meaning which may not trigger acquisitional processes. Psycholinguistic evidence supports the argument for explicitness and consciousness, for the manipulation of attention focus, and for the dual mode of structural and exemplar-based processing.

A general goal for second language learning may be assumed to be becoming more native-like in one's performance. Skehan proposes that this goal be separated into the areas of accuracy,

complexity, and fluency. In his view accuracy involves the learner's capacity to handle his currently attained level of interlanguage. Complexity in his view involves restructuring and is related to the stage and elaboration of the underlying interlanguage system. Fluency involves the learner's capacity to use his interlanguage system in real time.

Skehan regards accuracy as being related to a learner's belief in norms and to native-like rule-governed performance. He suggests that accuracy can be promoted by the use of well-integrated aspects of the interlanguage system, and by a concern with being correct and conforming to language norms, as well as by the effective application of attentional resources and the available processing capacity.

Promotion of complexity involves reconstruction that would cause the interlanguage system to become more complex, elaborate, structured and efficient in communication. Skehan suggests that this could be achieved if there is an interest to achieve native-like performance, helpful explicit and implicit input, opportunities to interact in the performance of tasks that require precision of expression, and time for the restructuring processes. He also suggests that sequencing of teaching activities, relevant preparation, and appropriate post-task activities may help.

Fluency could be regarded to include rate of speech, pausing, reformulation, hesitation, redundancy, and the use of lexical units. Skehan suggests that fluency can be promoted by opportunities to create exemplars in context for later retrieval in communication. Such opportunities could be created by involving learners in solving problems at the right level of processing difficulty. Skehan agrees with Van Patten that cycles of activities should be organized to maintain a balance between a focus on form and a focus on communication.

In Skehan's view the interrelationships between accuracy, complexity, and fluency necessitate prioritization if there is insufficient capacity to attend to each simultaneously. He says this has to be dealt with in language teaching methodology, which is not possible with the conventional "3Ps" approach that involves the sequence of presentation, practice, and production. Skehan says restructuring can be achieved with a task-based approach that has an extending influence on interlanguage development and engages acquisitional processes, but the allocation of attention has to be balanced.

4.4. A framework for the implementation of a task-based approach

Skehan (1996) proposes a framework to address the problems he sees in the implementation of a task-based approach to second language learning. He argues that task-based learning should work towards a constant cycle of analysis and synthesis by manipulation of the focus of the learners. He also thinks there should be balanced development towards the goals of restructuring, accuracy, and fluency, and that this should be dealt with through sequencing of tasks and methodology.

The sequencing of tasks on some principled criterion is important in Skehan's view, as this will reflect the attentional resources required. He refers to Van Patten who in 1994 claimed that in communicative language teaching there is a fundamental tension caused by the attempt to bring together form and meaning, and that content may consume the attentional resources. Skehan (1996) proposes a scheme for task sequencing which is based on work done by Candlin (1987) and Nunan (1989). This scheme contrasts formal factors (in terms of code complexity) with content (in terms of cognitive complexity, including processing and familiarity). The third component of the scheme is communicative stress, which includes factors such as time pressure, modality (speaking/writing and listening/reading), scale (including the

number of participants or relationships involved), stakes (degree of importance to do the task and to do it correctly), and control (the degree to which participants can influence the task and how it is done). Skehan sees the purpose of such a scheme as that it makes it possible to analyze, compare, and sequence tasks according to some principled basis. This may lead to the desired balance between fluency and accuracy, and the opportunity to apply previous restructuring.

For the implementing of tasks Skehan (1996) proposes a methodology consisting of four stages. The purpose of the pre-task activities is to increase the chance of restructuring occurring in the underlying language system. This may involve teaching, mobilization or making salient language that will be relevant to task performance, as well as easing the processing load by allowing learners to observe similar tasks or to do related pre-tasks or pre-task planning. The second stage is the completion of the task itself, where the main affecting factor is the choice of a task of appropriate difficulty regarding code and cognitive complexity.

Two post-task stages are distinguished by Skehan. He claims that the learners' knowledge of what is to follow may influence their attention management during completion of a task. He sees the central problem in the need for the teacher to withdraw while a task is being done, and communication goals becoming too important, detracting from the true focus of the task. Skehan suggests that this may be prevented if learners know that the first post-task stage will include activities such as public performance, analysis, and tests. The second post-task stage involves examination of task sequences, task progression, and interrelation between sets of tasks, which may lead to repeating tasks or doing parallel tasks.

Skehan (1996) maintains that the syllabus-methodology distinction is still relevant and proposes that his suggestions for a framework for implementation of a task-based approach prove this.

He claims there are methods of analysing tasks for difficulty and for type, which allows one to work with syllabus units and with methodological choices.

4.5. The influence of planning and task type on second language performance

Having proposed a framework for the implementation of a task-based approach, Skehan cooperated with Foster (1996) in doing a study of the influence of different variables on second language performance. They include personal information exchange tasks, narrative tasks, and decision-making tasks in their study, and conditions that they describe as (1) planned, (2) planned but without detail, and (3) detailed planning. The effects of the tasks on the variables of fluency, complexity, and accuracy are studied.

Foster and Skehan (1996) point out that Schmidt (1990, 1994) suggests that attention and noticing are crucial to second language development, and that Van Patten (1990) mentions that, as attentional resources are limited, one is forced to choose between meaning and form as a focal point. For language teaching the implication of these developments has been the use of more communicative materials that promote interaction, as noticed by Hammer in 1991. A task-based approach to language teaching has been strongly promoted by people such as Long and Crookes (1991, 1993) and Prabhu (1987). Foster and Skehan explain that in their view tasks are activities that focus on meaning, and that are evaluated on the basis of outcome, and that have real-world relevance. The assumption is that the students' involvement in such tasks will promote interlanguage development, as the tasks involve the processes that result in acquisition.

People like Long (1989) and Duff (1986), who have been doing research on the types of tasks, searching for a type that will

be better than others, claim that tasks with convergent goals have a greater potential to lead participants to negotiation of meaning, which is regarded as essential to the language acquisition process. Pica, Kanagy and Falodun (1993) propose that tasks can be analyzed according to interactional activity and communicational goal, the two most important elements in communicative tasks. They propose a framework that involves interactional relationship, which is based on the information needed to perform the task being held by different participants, and requirements to participate in interaction. The framework also involves goal orientation and outcome option, with convergent goal and single outcome being regarded as better than the alternatives.

A further aspect concerning task analysis referred to by Foster and Skehan (1996) is to analyze tasks on the basis of difficulty, as was done by Brown, Shilcock and Yule in 1984, taking into consideration the type of information involved, the number of participants, and the relationships between elements. Candlin (1987) proposes a larger scheme for such an analysis. In 1996 Skehan extends this scheme to incorporate the following categories: (1) language factors, such as syntactic and lexical complexity and range, and redundancy and variety, and (2) cognitive factors, such as familiarity of material in the task and of task type and discourse genre, and on-line processing, involving reasoning operations required, the nature of input material used in the task, and the degree of organization of input material.

Some research has already been done on various task conditions. Ellis (1987) and Crookes (1989) worked on the effect of planning on the accuracy of language produced by learners, Harrison (1986) worked on surprise elements mid-task, and Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993) did some work on the benefit of the availability of visual representation of information.

On the basis of studies such as these Skehan (1996) proposes a framework for the organization of task implementation. He proposes three stages which he called pre-task, mid-task and post-task. At pre-task level he distinguishes between linguistic and cognitive goals and typical techniques. The linguistic goal at this level is to introduce new forms to the learner's interlanguage repertoire, while the cognitive goal at pre-task level is to reduce the cognitive load. The techniques used are explicit and implicit teaching and consciousness-raising, linguistic and cognitive planning, and observing similar tasks. Another goal at this level is to push learners to express more complex ideas, which is done by planning and observing.

At mid-task level Skehan distinguishes between task choice and task calibration, with the goals seen as balancing the difficulty of the task and increasing or reducing the difficulty. Typical techniques here are to use an analytical scheme, to introduce a surprise, and to provide (visual) support. The post-task goal is to raise consciousness for a focus on form. This is done by public performance and post-task activities.

Foster and Skehan (1996) come to the conclusion that pre-task activities can have a significant impact on the ways tasks are done. Mid-task and post-task activities are also important and may also influence the balance between the goals of fluency, complexity, and accuracy. Foster and Skehan are also convinced that different types of tasks, each with varying importance of background knowledge and general familiarity, and inherent structure, yield different results consistent with the task properties.

4.6. A task-based approach to an introductory Xhosa second language course at tertiary level

In the rest of this chapter an example of a task-based introductory course for Xhosa second language at tertiary level will be given.

The target group are students who are mature, adult learners, therefore the theories regarding adult language acquisition discussed in chapter two are considered in the planning for the course. The students come from different language backgrounds, some from other African language groups, others from Afrikaans or English speaking backgrounds, therefore parallel structural comparisons with a specific language are not attempted. The students are already multilingual, and they live in a multilingual society where they are exposed to any number of the eleven official languages on a daily basis and for various purposes. They are products of an educational system that required them to learn a second language, and although they have achieved different levels of proficiency in different numbers of languages, they all have some experience of second language learning according to some or other approach, most often a formal or functional approach. They have therefore probably already developed language learning strategies that they prefer to others.

This course is planned for the second semester of the beginners' course and is based on the assumption that the learners will have mastered a reasonable vocabulary of words with a high frequency in everyday interaction, as well as the basic structural issues such as the noun class system, agreement and tenses of the verb.

A needs analysis was done with students who had completed a beginners' course that was more structural and not task-based. It revealed the students' need to be able to interact with Xhosa speaking students on campus and to get to know more about their

language and their culture. With reference to the course that they had completed, a common complaint was that although the course taught the students a lot of Xhosa, they still did not feel confident to initiate and maintain a conversation in everyday interactional situations on campus. For this reason real conversations that students were involved in on campus were selected for input. (See appendix.) In transcribing the dialogues, they were "tidied up" a little, making them more manageable for the learners. The dialogues could be regarded as semi-authentic materials, as they reflect real-life communications.

The tasks focus on functions and notions that are essential to successful execution of the tasks. The examples that are given are not the only possible syntactic exponents of the particular functions or notions. They should be regarded as possible realizations of the core functions and notions in the particular situations, taking into consideration factors such as the language environment, participants and their prior knowledge, and register. The structures that may be focused upon are given in brackets underneath the examples.

No attempt is made to sequence the tasks according to some principle beyond that of their basis being represented in the dialogues used as input. The tasks are sequenced randomly, as at this stage it is not yet clear which sequencing principle may best promote learning. The tasks are not graded or arranged according to any interpretation of the concept of difficulty, as they are based on specific dialogues and the concept of grading is not reflected in any way in the input dialogues.

4.7. TASKS

Umsebenzi 1: Ufike ekampasini akuzazi iindawo zeyunivesithi. Kufuneka uye kwi-ofisi yebhasari ukuxoxa ingxaki yemali. Uhlangana nomfundi onakho ukukuncedisa. Cela uxolo. Buza imvume yokubuza, ubuze ukuba iphi i-ofisi yebhasari. Chaza isizathu sokuba ungayazi ukuba iphi. Buza ukuba ufike nini umfundi omnye. Xoxa ngendlela yokufumana ulwazi olufuna.

(Task 1: You have arrived on campus and do not know the places of the university. You have to go to the bursary office to discuss a financial problem. You meet a student who can help you. Ask to be pardoned. Ask permission to ask a question, then ask where the bursary office is. Explain why you do not know where it is. Ask when the other student arrived. Discuss how you can find out where to get the information you need.)

Task features:

This task is based on the content of Dialogue 1 (see Appendix). An analysis of this task on the basis of the features proposed by Pica et al. (see 3.3.2.) reveals that a number of task types are included. Asking to be pardoned is a rhetorical question that often forms part of interaction, but usually does not require an answer. Asking where a place is and asking when the other student arrived are information gap tasks, with one participant asking for information held by another participant who is required to supply it on request. Explaining why you do not know where the bursary office is, is merely an exchange of personal information with no response required. Discussing how the necessary information could be obtained, is a problem-solving task, with both participants working towards a solution.

Functions/notionsExamples of expressions

ask pardon

Uxolo/Ndicela uxolo
[noun]/[verb + object]

ask permission

Ndingabuza?
[potential -nga-]

ask location

Iphi?
[interrogative -phi?]

express ignorance

Andiyazi.
[negative verb]

identify

Ndingumfiki.
[identifying copulative]

ask time

Ufike nini?
[interrogative nini?]

indicate time

Ndifike izolo.
[perfect tense verb + adjunct of
time: yesterday]ngoMgqibelo
[adjunct of time with day]ngempelaveki
[adjunct of time with nga-]kule mpelaveki idlulileyo
[adjunct of time with ku-]

make a suggestion

Masibuze
[hortative + subjunctive verb]

ask why not

Kutheni ungabuzi nje?
[kutheni + situative verb + nje]

description	abafundi abadala [noun + adjective] abafundi balapha abadala [noun + possessive + adjective]
-------------	---

Umsebenzi 2: Elibrary uhlangani nomhlobo onengxaki. Buza ukuba ufuna uncedo. Buza ukuba ufuna iincwadi zantoni. Mxelele indawo ezingafunyanwa kuyo.

Task 2: (At the library you meet a friend who has a problem. Offer your assistance. He asks for help with finding some books, as he does not know what he should do. Enquire about the kind of books he needs. Tell him where to find them.)

Task features:

This task is based on the content of Dialogue 2 (see appendix). An analysis of this task on the basis of the features proposed by Pica et al. (as presented in 3.3.2.) reveals a jigsaw type of exchange of information when one participant asks whether help is needed and the other participant is required to supply information about his needs, and a request for help from the second participant is given as a response. This is accompanied by the exchange of some personal information. Another information gap task follows when one participant asks for information about the kind of books that are needed, and the other participant is required to supply the information needed. This is then followed by an exchange of information about the locality of the books, and an offer to show where they are.

Functions/Notions

Examples of expressions

offer assistance

Ndingakunceda?
[potential -nga-]

	Ndingakwenzela ntoni? [potential -nga- + enz + el]
ask for help	Khawundincedise. [Kha + subjunctive verb]
identify existence	Kukho iincwadi [existential verb -kho]
describe	endizifunayo [relative with object control]
express ignorance	andazi mandithini [negative verb + hortative + subjunctive + enclitic -ni]
ask what kind	Ufuna iincwadi zantoni? [possessive with -ntoni?]
describe	iincwadi zesiXhosa [possessive]
indicate location	Zise-level 8 [copulative with locative]

Umsebenzi 3: Ulinde ixesha elinde ngasephandle kwe-Admin. Uncokola nomhlobo. Khalaza ngokuziva utyhafile ebushushu. Umhlobo akafuni kuya kukuphela koluhlu. Ufuna ukuba umfohlise eluhlwini. Mxelele ukuba akunokwenzeka. Xoxa ngendlela yokukwenza.

(Task 3: You have been waiting for a long time outside the Administration building. You are talking to a friend. Complain about feeling weak in the heat. Your friend does not want to go to the end of the line. She wants you to allow her into the line.

Tell her it is not possible. Discuss a way for her to do it.)

Task features:

This task is based on the content of Dialogue 3 (see Appendix). In an analysis of the task according to the features proposed by Pica et al. (see 3.3.2.), this task includes an information gap task when one participant enquires about the other's health and the second participant is required to supply information about the state she is in and about the heat. The request to be allowed into the line leads to an opinion exchange. The discussion of a way for the friend to get into the line involves the participants in problem solving interaction.

<u>Functions/notions</u>	<u>Examples of expressions</u>
enquire after health	Uphila njani? [njani?]
complain about weakness	Ndityhafile. [stative verb]
complain about heat	Kushushu gqitha [adjunct of excessiveness]
complain about long wait	Kudala ndilapha [adjunct of time + locative]
request to be allowed in	Khawundifohlise [kha- + subjunctive]
express impossibility	Akukho ndlela [negative existential verb]
tell to hide and hurry	Fihla ukhawuleze [imperative + subjunctive]

Umsebenzi 4: Ufuna itestimonial. Mbuze umfundisi ukuba ukwenzele itestimonial. Xoxa inkqubela-phambili yakho kwimfundo. Mxelele umfundisi ukuba yeyiphi icourse oyenzayo. Mxelele isizathu sokuba umcela itestimonial. Mbulele ngoncedo lwakhe.

(Task 4: You need a testimonial. Ask a teacher to write you one. Discuss your progress with your studies. Tell the teacher which course you are doing. Tell him why you are asking him for a testimonial. Thank him for helping you.)

Task features:

This task is based on the content of Dialogue 4 (see Appendix). An analysis of this task on the basis of the features proposed by Pica et al. (see 3.3.2.) reveals that a number of information gap tasks flow from the request for a testimonial, with the one participant asking for information about the progress of the second participant and the course the participant is registered for. The second participant is required to supply the information held only by him in order to execute the task. There is also an exchange of narrative nature, when the one participant explains that he did not teach the other, and when the other participant states that he was under the impression that anyone could write a student a testimonial.

Functions/notions

Examples of expressions

ask for help

Ndicela uncedo
[cela + object]

ask to do for you

Ndicela undenzele itestimonial
[cela + subjunctive verb with -el-]

ask did you pass	Ubupasile? [compound recent past tense]
say you passed	Bendipasile. [compound recent past tense]
ask which course	Wenza eyiphi icourse? [-phi?]
identify one or other	YiBA okanye yiBBIBL? [identifying copulative]
ask why	Kutheni ucela mna nje? [kutheni + situative verb + nje]
deny acquaintance	Andikwazi [negative present tense]
deny past action	Khange ndikufundise [khange + subjunctive verb]
express indefiniteness	Iyenziwa nangubani [passive + na + identifying copulative with bani]
express gratitude for help	Enkosi undincedile [enkosi + recent past tense]

Umsebenzi 5: Uhlangene nomntu oqhelekile, qha akuqinisekile. Mxelele ukuba ubuso bakhe buqhelekile, umbuze ukuba anizange nibonane ngaphambili na. Nina nonke ningamalungu ombutho weelwimi zesiNtu. Xoxa ubulungu bombutho. Thembisa ukuba niza kunimema. Mxelele ukuba wawonwabile kukutyelela ikampasi yabo. Yithi ukuba uthemba ukuba niza kubonana kwakhona.

(Task 1: You have met someone who seems familiar, but you are not sure. Tell her that her face seems familiar, and ask whether you have not met before. You are both members of the African Languages society. Discuss membership of the association. Promise that you will invite them. Tell her you enjoyed visiting their campus. Say that you hope you will meet again.)

Task features:

This task is based on the content of Dialogue 5 (see Appendix). According to the task features proposed by Pica et al. (see 3.3.2), the task starts with a narrative exchange when one participant states that the other looks familiar. The rest of the task mainly consists of information gap type of interaction, with the one participant asking for information that the second participant holds and that has to be supplied in order to successfully execute the task. At the end of the task there is an exchange of the type of interaction involved when people part with the intention of meeting again.

<u>Functions/notions</u>	<u>Examples of expressions</u>
express familiarity	Ubuso bakho buqhelekile [stative verb]
ask about earlier action	Asizange sibonane ngaphambili? [negative past tense deficient verb + subjunctive verb complement + adjunct of time]
indicate time	Sityelele eUWC singabafundi [recent past tense verb + locative adjunct + identifying copulative in situative]

express permission	Niyavunyelwa ukuba ngamalungu [passive verb + existential verb in infinitive + identifying copulative]
deny identification	Aningobafundi besiXhosa [negative identifying copulative]
express welcome	Wonke umntu onomdla wamkelekile [inclusive qualificative + stative verb]
express inability	Asinakubakhuphela ngaphandle [negative + associative na-]
promise	Siza kumema [future tense verb]
express happiness	sasonwabile [remote compound past tense stative verb]
express regret	Ngelishwa kufuneka ndihle ngoku [adjunct + kufuneka + subjunctive verb]
express hope	Ngethemba lokuba sakubonana kwakhona [adjunct + future tense + adjunct]

Umsebenzi 6: Ubukela ibhola kwigumbi likamabonakude ehostele. Mbuze umhlobo makabekele ukuba uhlale ngakuye. Xoxa ngokudlala kwegela lakho kwangaphambili nethemba lokuwina olu khuphiswano. Mxelele umhlobo makangakuphazamisi xa luqala

ukhuphiswano.

(Task 6: You are watching a soccer match in the TV room in the hostel. Ask your friend to move so that you may sit near him. Discuss the previous performance of your team and the chances of your team winning this match. Tell your friend not to disturb you when the game starts.)

Task features:

This task is based on the content of Dialogue 6 (see Appendix). It starts with a request from the first participant that the second participant should move, followed by the personal information that the participant wants to sit near the other. The second participant is required to respond by moving and inviting the first participant to sit. This is followed by what Pica et al. (see 3.3.2.) identify as opinion exchange when the two participants discuss their teams' chances of winning the match. In this type of interaction the task outcome is not convergent and it is not possible to predict what the participants may want to say. What is given below are merely examples of the type of language that may be used in such a situation.

Functions/notions

Examples of expressions

ask to move up

Bekela
[imperative verb]

express desire

Ndifuna ukuhlala apha ngakuwe
[-funa + infinitive + locative
adjunct]

indicate place

Nantsi indawo
[indicative copulative]

report past performance	Niwinile izolo [recent past tense + adjunct of time] Benidlala neAmatsha [recent compound past tense] Anizange nibabethe [negative past tense deficient verb + subjunctive complement]
deny existence	Ayikho le uyithethayo [negative existential verb + demonstrative + relative with object control]
express inability	Akunakuthetha kanjalo tu [negative + na + infinitive]
express agreement	Unyanisile [stative verb]
negative instruction	Ungandiphazamisi [negative subjunctive verb]

Umsebenzi 7: Uvile ukuba kuza kuba itheko ehostele. Buza ukuba yinyani. Thetha ngexesha. Buza ukuba uza kuya nabani umhlobo wakho. Buza ukuba kuza kuba ngubani uDJ.

(Task 7: You have heard there is going to be a party in a hostel. Ask if it is true. Discuss the time. Ask whom your friend is going with. Ask who is going to be the disc jockey.)

Task features:

This task is based on the content of Dialogue 7 (see Appendix). It contains mostly information gap type of interaction, as characterised by Pica et al. (see 3.3.2.). In the discussion of arrangements for the coming party, the one participant asks for information about the time, who is going with whom, and who is going to be the disc jockey. The second participant each time holds information that has to be supplied in the discussion to complete the task.

<u>Functions/notions</u>	<u>Examples of expressions</u>
ask for verification	Uthi kukho itheko? [existential verb -kho]
ask time	Liza kuba nini itheko? [future tense verb + nini?]
indicate time	KungoLwesihlanu. [existential ku- + adjunct of time with name of day] Ziyaduma namhlanje. [present tense verb + adjunct of time]
ask with whom	Uza kuya nabani? [future tense verb + na- + bani?]
say with you	Ndiza kuhamba nawe. [future tense verb + na- + pronoun]
say both	Singahamba sobabini. [potential -nga- + inclusive qualificative]

ask for identification	Kuza kuba ngubani uDJ? [future tense with existential verb + identifying copulative with bani?]
identify one or another	NguMax okanye NguJay. [identifying copulative + conjunction okanye + identifying copulative]

Umsebenzi 8: Amanqaku onyaka akakaxhonywa. Uyakhathazeka kuba iimviwi ikufuphi. Xoxa ngolotiko lwakho. Khalaza ngokulibazisa. Xoxa ngesizathu sokulibazisa. Xoxa ngokulandelelana kwamaphepha oviwo.

(Task: The yearmarks are not posted yet. You are worried as the exams are near. Discuss your fear. Complain about the delay. Discuss the reason for the delay. Discuss the sequence of the exam papers.)

Task features:

This task is based on the content of Dialogue 8 (see Appendix). Judging on the basis of Pica et al.'s analysis of task features (see 3.3.2.), this task includes an exchange of personal information about the fear of one participant. It also involves complaints about the delay in time, which include rhetoric questions. The discussion of reasons for the delay is mostly an exchange of opinions. The discussion of the sequence of the exam papers includes information gap type of interaction with closed outcome opportunities.

Functions/notions

Examples of expressions

express fear

Ndiyoyika.
[present tense verb]

state reason

Ndiyapenikha kuba sesiza kubhala
ngoLwesihlanu.
[conjunction kuba + se- + future
tense verb]

ask why

Kutheni belibazisa kangaka nje?
[kutheni + situative verb +
adjunct + nje]

express appearance

Inokuba abakhathali.
[identifying copulative with
nokuba + negative verb]

ask what did they do

Bebesenza ntoni ixesha elide
kangaka?
[recent compound past tense verb
+ ntoni + adjunct of time]

express disagreement

Andiqondi ukuba kunjalo.
[negative verb + conjunction
ukuba defining copulative]

express uncertainty

Mhlawumbi basazama ukudibanisa
amanqaku.
[adjunct of time + present tense
verb with progressive +
infinitive]

ask with who (instrument)

Siqala ngabani ukubhala?
[present tense verb nga- + bani +
infinitive]

say with what

Sigala ngesintaksi ne-semantiki sigqibele ngeliterature.

[present tense verb + nga- + noun
+ subjunctive verb + nga- + noun]

Umsebenzi 9: Uncokola nabahlobo bakho ngeemviwo ezizayo. Buza ukuba kutheni umhlobo wakho efundela iimviwo isekude nje. Xoxa ngempazamo ayenze ngoJuni. Buza abahlobo ngoluvo lwabo ngeemviwo ezi ezizayo.

(Task 9: You are discussing the coming exams with your friends. Ask why your friend is studying so long ahead. Discuss the mistake he made during the June exams. Ask your friends for an opinion on the coming exams.)

Task features:

This task is based on the content of Dialogue 9 (see Appendix). An analysis of its features according to the example set by Pica et al. (see 3.3.2.), reveals that its execution involves mostly information gap type of interaction, with one participant asking for information about the study habits of the second participant, and about the mistake he made in a previous exam. The information asked for is held only by the second participant and has to be supplied to execute the task effectively. The exchange of opinions about the coming exam involves open-ended interaction.

Functions/notions

Examples of expressions

ask why

Kutheni uyifundela imviwo isekude nje?

[kutheni + situatuve verb]

express similarity	NgoJuni wenza kwale mpazamo ufuna ukuyenza. [adjunct of time past tense verb kwa- + demonstrative + noun + relative with object control]
ask which	Eyiphi mpazamo? [-phi + noun]
identify	Yile yokufunda ixesha sele limkile. [identifying copulative + demonstrative + possessive + adverbial clause of time]
ask what	Wathini umfundisi? [remote past tense + enclitic -ni] Nothini ngeemviwo ezi zizayo? [future tense + enclitic -ni]
express importance	Intobalulekileyo kukuzilungiselela. [noun + stative verb + identifying copulative]

Umsebenzi 10: Ubhale iphepha loviwo lwesiXhosa. Uncokola nomhlobo ngephepha. Buza ukuba belinjani iphepha. Yithi ukuba unethemba. Cacisa isizathu sakho. Chaza uloyiko lwakho ukuba usengxakini ukuba akufundanga.

(Task 1: You have just written the Xhosa exam paper. You are talking to a friend about the paper. Ask how the paper was. Say that you have hope. Explain your reason. Express your fear that you may be in

trouble if you do not study.)

Task features:

This task is based on the content of Dialogue 10 (see Appendix). According to the features described by Pica et al. (see 3.3.2.), this task includes information gap type of interaction in the form of one participant enquiring from the second participant how the paper was. The second participant has to supply the information needed to execute the task effectively. An exchange of opinion is included in which one participant expresses fear of being in trouble.

<u>Functions/notions</u>	<u>Examples of expressions</u>
ask how it was	Belinjani iphepha? [recent compound past tense + njani]
say how it was	Belinzima kakhulu. [recent compound past tense + nominal relative]
express comparison	ISintaksi ibingcono kakhulu. [recent compound past tense + nominal relative + adjunct]
express hope	Ndanethemba. [remote past tense + na- + noun]
express reason	Kungenxa yamanqaku ayo. [existential ku- + ngenxa + possessive]
express condition	Sakuba sengxakini ukuba asifundanga. [future tense existential verb +

locative adjunct conjunction
ukuba + negative subjunctive
verb]

4.8. Conclusion

Section 4.7. contains some examples of tasks that focus on form in order to draw the attention of the learner to specific structures. While performing the tasks, learners struggle not only with meaning, but also with the form a particular meaning can be expressed in. They are involved in the type of use they may want to put their language knowledge to in everyday communicative situations. Following the example set by Skehan, these tasks may be analyzed and evaluated. They are based on the type of input that is easy to collect and to adapt to specific circumstances. With some practice teachers may find themselves quite capable of designing similar types of tasks to accommodate their particular need and that of their students.



UNIVERSITY *of the*
WESTERN CAPE

CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSION

In this study the current views on the nature of second language learning have been explored and invoked for addressing issues in the learning and teaching of Xhosa second language. As reported by Ritchie and Bhatia (1996) research on SLA has made remarkable progress over the last ten to fifteen years. The field of second language acquisition has developed into a complex and fascinating field of research as evidenced by the extensive body of literature on this subject.

One prominent issue currently receiving attention is the role of Universal Grammar in SLA. Chapter two focused on current developments in this regard. The goals of Chomsky's theory of language as described by Cook and Newson (1996) are to describe language as a property of the human mind and to explain how it is acquired. It is a theory of knowledge, not behaviour, and is concerned with the internal structure of the human mind. According to Cook and Newson, UG theory holds that the speaker knows a set of principles that apply to all languages, and parameters that vary within clearly defined limits from one language to another. According to Cook and Newson, acquiring language means learning how these principles apply to a particular language and which value is appropriate for each parameter.

It was indicated that the theory of Universal Grammar as developed by Chomsky and others has contributed significantly to the current understanding of how a language is learned. As Sharwood Smith (1994) states, second language research was "born" within the field of applied linguistics, which aims to use linguistically based explanations and descriptions of language to solve practical problems of relevance to society. In the case of SLA the problems concern how a learner learns a second language.

It was further indicated that UG plays a role in SLA, but there is also agreement that the role of UG in SLA differs from that in L1 acquisition. Questions regarding the degree of access of the second language learner to UG are currently researched. Cook (1994) considers the issue of parameter setting as regards what the initial parameter setting is and what makes it change. She also considers the possibility that principles and parameters may change as the child develops. Cook suggests that markedness plays a role in language learning, with a learner using the unmarked setting unless evidence to the contrary is present in the input the learner is exposed to.

According to Cook (1994), the evidence needed to change parameter settings may be positive or negative. In this regard SLA differs from L1 acquisition, where positive evidence is regarded to be sufficient to promote development of the interlanguage of the learner. Negative evidence is needed, according to Long (1996), to make a learner aware of an error, which is necessary to prevent fossilization. In negotiation for meaning negative evidence is important in the development of communicative skills. Long argues that negative evidence is part of input enhancement. and that learners need to focus on form as well as on meaning for effective progress in the learning process.

Sharwood Smith (1993) suggests that language input should be manipulated or enhanced in the classroom and that a learner needs a metalanguage with which to organize reflections into a system of explicit rules and principles. Westney (1994) makes a distinction between grammar as codified product and grammar as conscious or explicit knowledge. Sharwood Smith views linguistic knowledge as a systematized body of mental representations underlying the learner's language use. Sharwood Smith argues that a learner should be aware of the language as an object and that input enhancement research and its results must be set within the context of a modular view of language and language learning.

There are still many unanswered questions as regards the implications of research on second language acquisition for language teaching that need to be researched. Further classroom research and contributions from psycholinguists may reveal more about the internal processing involved in learning a second language.

Chapter three focused on the latest developments in language teaching. Larsen-Freeman (1995) states that although our understanding of the language learning process has been enhanced, it does not necessarily mean that the products of theory will be prescriptions and proscriptions and that just as there is more to learning than meets the eye, there is more to teaching as well. Bardovi-Harlig (1995) views the relationship of pedagogy to SLA as complex. According to Larsen-Freeman, the nature of classroom interaction is complex and contingent and SLA theory will be invaluable if it can help a teacher's sense of plausibility.

As more information about the nature of second language acquisition becomes available, more effective methods of teaching language can be developed. In this study it was found that there is strong evidence that input enhancement may result in more effective second language instruction. Van Patten and Sanz (1995) reports that research on explicit instruction in second languages has focused on whether grammar should be taught and what should be taught. According to them, the type of grammar instruction used and the types of processes that the instruction seeks to affect still needs to be researched. Van Patten and Sanz view processing instruction as an explicit focus on form that is input based.

Breen (1987) describes various types of syllabuses used through the years to teach languages and makes out a strong case for using task-based and process syllabuses in the current paradigm. There is evidence of growing support for a task-based approach to form-focused instruction as an effective way to teach second

language learners the type of language they need to be able to use in everyday interactional situations. Pica, Kanagy and Falodun (1993) argue that L2 teachers spend a great deal of their time on getting learners to talk. They suggest the use of communicative tasks as an effective way to assist language learning in the classroom. Pica et al. expand the features of interactional activity and communicative goal that, according to them, can be used to define tasks into categories for a typology.

Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993) argue that a focus on grammatical form may be a factor in the advantage that instructed L2 learners sometimes enjoy over naturalistic learners. They support the use of the task concept as an organizing principle for L2 syllabuses. According to Loschky and Bley-Vroman, accuracy of form should be made essential to effective completion of a task. They propose a framework for the implementation of form focused communicative tasks. Skehan (1996) views task-based learning as an attempt to confront the need to engage naturalistic learning processes while allowing the pedagogic process to be managed systematically. He proposes a scheme for the sequencing of tasks.

An example of a form-focused task-based course for students of Xhosa at tertiary level was presented in chapter four. It included ten tasks that focus on the type of language used by university students in real world situations. Features of the tasks were analyzed according to a typology of task types proposed by Pica, Kanagy and Falodun (1993). Examples of functions and notions that may be prominent for focus on form activities, hence input enhancement, were identified.

The examples of task-based material presented in this study will hopefully contribute to convincing practitioners that form-focused task-based instruction for Xhosa second language should be introduced, since it can contribute in a non-trivial way to the process of interlanguage modification of second language learners.

APPENDIX

The tasks included in chapter four are based on the following dialogues. They were collected on the campus of the University of the Western Cape with the assistance of students and lecturers of the Xhosa Department, and were "tidied up" to some extent in order for learners to be able to read them without too much difficulty.

The dialogues are examples of "student language" and were selected because they deal with typical situations in the everyday life of a student on this campus. As examples of "student language" the dialogues contain a large amount of slang and words borrowed from especially English and Afrikaans, which are two prominent languages on campus and in the surrounding area. The occurrence of slang and code switching seems to be especially common in informal conversations between close friends (as in dialogues 3, 7, 8, 9 and 10), but this type of language also occurs in communicative situations involving participants who are not so familiar with one another (as in dialogues 2 and 4).

DIALOGUE 1: INCOKO YABAFUNDI ABAFIKAYO EYUNIVESITHI
(DIALOGUE BETWEEN STUDENTS WHO ARE NEW AT
UNIVERSITY)

Abafundi bayazisana babuzane ngolwazi olwabo njengalo lwexesha lokufika kwabo. Baxelelana ulwazi lweendawo ezithile bathetha ngoluvo lwabo ngeengxaki noncedo zabo. Bathembisana ngemvumelo yokuncedisana babulelane ngoncedo olunikileyo.

(The students introduce themselves to one another and enquire about personal details, such as time of arrival. They exchange information regarding the location of certain places and give

opinions about their problems and advantages. They exchange assurances about their willingness to help one another and gratitude for the help offered.)

A: Uxolo. Ndingabuza? Iphi i-ofisi yebhasari?

(Pardon. May I ask? Where is the bursary office?)

B: Ndicela uxolo, andiyazi ukuba iphi ndingumfiki apha.

(Please pardon me, I don't know where it is, I am new here.)

A: Owu! Ungumfiki? Nam ndikwangumfiki, ndifike izolo. Wena ufike nini?

(Oh! Are you new? I too am new, I arrived yesterday. When did you arrive?)

B: Ndifike kule mpelaveki idlulileyo.

(I arrived last weekend.)

A: Ufike kuqala kunam. Ufanele ukuba sele uzazi iindawo ezinje ngale, kuba zezona zibaluleke kakhulu kubafundi ekuqaleni konyaka.

(You arrived before me. You should already know places like this, because they are important to students at the beginning of the year.)

B: Ngelishwa ndifike emva kwethuba lokuboniswa kwabafundi iindawo zeyunivesithi. Kutheni ungabuzi kubafundi balapha abadala? Bona bazazi zonke iikona zale yunivesithi.

(Unfortunately I arrived after the opportunity for students to be shown the places of the university. Why don't you ask the old students? They know every corner of this university.)

A: Yhu! Ndiyaboyika. Abanabubele xa bengakwazi. Andifuni kuziphoxa. Kunzima xa ungumfiki. Wena uncedwa ngubani?

(Gee! I am scared of them. They are not friendly if they don't know you. I do not want to make a fool of myself. It is hard to be new. By whom were you helped?)

B: Ndinethamsanqa kuba ndinodade wethu oneminyaka emithathu elapha. Andinangxaki ke, uyandinceda kakhulu kwizinto ezininzi.

(I am lucky because I have a sister who has been here for

three years. I do not have a problem, she helps me a lot with many things.)

A: Unethamsanqa ngenene.

(You are really fortunate.)

B: Angakunceda nawe ukuba akukhathazeki, ungumntu onobubele kakhulu.

(She can also help you if don't mind, she is a very friendly person.)

A: Uqinisekile, akanakukhathazeka ukundincedisa nam?

(Are you sure, won't she mind to help me too?)

B: Ndiyazi, uya kukuvuyela ukukunceda.

(I know she will be happy to help you.)

A: Ndiyabulela kakhulu ngondenzela kona.

(Thank you very much for what you are doing for me.)

B: Kuluvuyo. Yiza masihambe, ndifuna udibane naye.

(It is a pleasure. Come, let's go, I want you to meet her.)

A: Kulungile ke, masihambe. Nam ndifuna ukumbona.

(Okay, let us go. I also want to see her.)

DIALOGUE 2: ELIBRARY

(AT THE LIBRARY)

Kuselibrary eLevel 7, abahlobo ababini, uThanduluvo noLudwe, bayancokola. Bacelana uncedo ngeendawo neenkqubo zelibrary balunikelane ulwazi. Batshintshiselana izimvo ngamava abo bengabafiki.)

(In the library at level 7 two friends, Thanduluvo and Ludwe, are chatting. They request each other's help and provide information regarding places and procedures of the library. They exchange opinions about their experiences as first year students.)

Ludwe: Uxolo my bra!

(Sorry my brother!)

Thanduluvo: Haitor mfowethu, ndingakunceda?

(Yes my brother, may I help you?)

Ludwe: My bra, khawundincedise. Kukho iincwadi endizifunayo qha andiyazi inkqubo yalapha. Le library isuke yankulu kakhulu loo nto indenze ukuba ndibe lost ndingazi nokuba mandithini.

(My brother there are books that I want but I don't know the procedure of this place. This library is too big, that is why I am lost and don't know what to do.)

Thanduluvo: Ufike nini kanti? Zange u-orientayithwe? Wawuphi ngexesha le-orientation? Kodwa ndiza kukunceda masihambe ndikubonise.

(When did you arrive here? Were you not orientated? Where were you during orientation? But I'll help you, let us go that I can show you.)

Ludwe: Ndandingekho ndifike sele igqithile i-orientation. Phofu ingxaki nokuba ndandikho kaloku i-complex iyabetha yaye usuke wonqene noku-approacher wonke umntu kuba omnye uthetha eyakhe i-language but ismoko siyi-one usuke uxakwe.

(I was not there, I arrived when orientation was finished already. In fact, the problem is that even if I was there, an inferiority complex causes you even to become uneasy to approach everybody because each speaks his own language but the problem is one you get confused.)

Thanduluvo: Unyanisile mfowethu. Kaloku kugcwele amaKhaladi abeSuthu. Lilonke sizintlanga ngeentlanga. Kanene ufuna iincwadi zantoni kuba zi-levels nge-levels ezi yaye iincwadi zibekwe ngokwe-levels.

(That is true my friend. There are many Coloureds and Sothos here. All in all we are different. By the way, which books do you want, because there are different levels and the books are arranged according to levels.)

Ludwe: Ndifuna iincwadi zesiXhosa.
(I want Xhosa books.)

Thanduluvo: Zise-level 8, yiza ndikubonise nendlela ezikhangelwa ngayo. Kusetyenziswa la computer.
(They are at level 8, come I'll show you even the way to look for them. This computer is used.)

Ludwe: Undincedile my bra masihambe.
(I thank you my brother, let's go.)

DIALOGUE 3: UKULINDA NGASEPHANDLE KWE-ADMIN
(WAITING OUTSIDE THE ADMINISTRATION BUILDING)

KungaseAdmin. Abahlobo ababini bahlangana emgceeni. Babuzana ngempilo. Bakhalaza ngemozulu eshushu. Omnye uzama ukucenga omnye ukumnika indawo emgceeni.

(Two friends meet each other in the line at an Admin office. They each enquire after the other's well-being. They complain about the hot weather. The one tries to persuade the other to give her a place in the line.)

Kate: Molo MaZandi!
(Hallo Zandi!)

Zandile: MaKatana, unjani?
(Katana, how are you?)

Kate: Ndiphilile, qha ndityhafile maan kushushu gqitha namhlanje.
(I am fine, I am just tired, man, it is very hot today.)

Zandile: Yitsh' uphinde mntana. Kudala ndilapha. Eli langa liyatsho yaye liphelela kum.
(You can say that again, my baby. I have been here a long time. The sun is so hot it is killing me.)

Kate: Khawundifohlise ntombi. Uyalubona nawe olu luhlu lungakanani. Iya kundi-coster eyokuya emva.

(Let me squeeze in, girl. You can see how long this line is. It will cost me a lot to go to the back.)

Zandile: Uyavuya mtshana. Ngelishwa akukho way kuba kukhutshwa amakhadi andazi ke nokuba unalo na wena.

(You have a hope. Unfortunately there is no way because they issue cards and I don't know whether you have one.)

Kate: Ewe ndinalo, phofu linjani elo lakho?

(Yes, I have one, but how is yours?)

Zandile: A-yellow mtshana, elakho?

(They are yellow, my friend, and yours?)

Kate: Ewe, li-yellow qha inombolo yalo? Ayinamsebenzi phofu.

(Yes, it is yellow, but what about its number? In fact it does not matter.)

Zandile: Fihla sana, nase-dining hall nguwe aba bafundi bayakwazi ngumthetho wakho ukungenelela. Qha ke mtshana betha nge-style, qale uze neziselo ibengathi ubuyokuthenga zona, ukhawuleze kuba ngathi iyazama ukukhawuleza xa sele ipha ngasemnyango.

(Come on, baby, you do it even in the dining hall, these students know it is your habit not to wait in line. Only, my friend, do it in style, first come with drinks as if you went to buy them, and hurry because the line is faster near the entrance.)

Kate: Mandikhawuleze kuba sele ikufutshane nasemthunzini ngoku. Mandikhawuleze ungekapheli lo mthunzi.

(Let me hurry, because it is near the shade now. Let me hurry before the shade ends.)

DIALOGUE 4: UKUBUZA ISINGQINI

(ASKING FOR A TESTIMONIAL)

Kuseofisini yelecturer, umfundi ucela ukwenzelwa itestimonial. Lo mfundi uyafika kulo nyaka. Ilecturer icela umfundi ulwazi olodwa njengenombolo yomfundi, igama, ixesha lokufika, uludwe

lwesifundo.

(In a lecturer's office a student asks to be written a testimonial. This student arrived this year. The lecturer requests specific information from the student, such as student number, name, date of arrival, course she is doing.)

- Umfundi: Molo mfundisi Ntlane!
(Hallo teacher Ntlane!)
- Ilecturer: Molo nawe, mfundi, kunjani?
(Hallo you too, student. How are you?)
- Umfundi: Ndiphilile mfundisi.
(I am well sir.)
- Ilecturer: Ubuthetha ke Miss.
(Are you saying something, Miss?)
- Umfundi: Ewe mfundisi, ndicela undenzele itestimonial, ndifuna ibursary kulo nyaka uzayo. Ndicela uncedo lwakho.
(Yes sir, I am asking for a testimonial, I want a bursary next year. I need your help.)
- Ilecturer: Ubupasile ke ngoJune?
(Did you pass in June?)
- Umfundi: Bendipasile mfundisi ndifumene u-C.
(I passed, sir, I got a C.)
- Ilecturer: Ungubani igama lakho?
(What is your name?)
- Umfundi: NdinguSiyabulela Sikhwebu.
(I am Siyabulela Sikhwebu.)
- Ilecturer: Istudent no. sakho?
(Your student number?)
- Umfundi: Ngu-9631246.
(It is 9631246.)
- Ilecturer: Ooh! uyafika kulo nyaka?
(Oh! Are you new this year?)
- Umfundi: Ewe mfundisi, ndiyafika.
(Yes, sir, I am new.)
- Ilecturer: Wenza eyiphi icourse, yiBA okanye yiBIBL?

(Which course are you doing, BA or BIBL?)

Umfundi: Ndenza iHDE (non-graduate).
(I am doing HDE (non-graduate).)

Ilecturer: Kutheni ucela mna nje, andikwazi nje yaye khange ndikufundise.
(Why do you ask me, I don't know you, for that matter I did not even teach you.)

Umfundi: Bendicinga ukuba iyenziwa nangubani okwiDepartment. Engondweni yam, ndicinga ukuba uza kujonga iresults zam ubone indlela endiqhuba ngayo.
(I thought it could be done by anyone in the Department. In my mind I thought you would look at my results and see how I am progressing.)

Ilecturer: Kulungile ke, cela istamp phaya kusecretary.
(Okay, ask the stamp from the secretary.)

Umfundi: Enkosi mfundisi, undincedile. (Uyaphuma.)
(Thank you, sir, you have helped me.) (She leaves.)

DIALOGUE 5: ABAFUNDI BANCOKOLA NGOMBUTHO WEELWIMI ZESINTU
BEHLANGANA E-TAXINI

(STUDENTS TALK ABOUT THE SOCIETY OF AFRICAN
LANGUAGES WHILE MEETING IN A TAXI)

Batshintshiselana izimvo ngeenjongo zalo mbutho, nobulungu neentlanganiso zawo. Bayahluka.

(They exchange opinions regarding the purpose and goals of this society, the membership, and meetings thereof. They take leave of one another.)

A: Molo, sisi. Kunjani?
(Good day, sister. How are you?)

B: Ewee. Ndiphilile enkosi. Wena?

- (Yes. I am well, thank you. And you?)
- A: Nam ndiphilile akukho nto. Ubuso bakho buqhelekile, asizange sibonane ngaphambili?
(I too am well, there is nothing wrong. Your face looks familiar, haven't we met before?)
- B: Andazi ke, kodwa ndikhe ndeza apha eKapa kunyaka ophelileyo, sityelele eUWC singabafundi baseUNITRA.
(I don't know, but I came here to the Cape last year, we visited the UWC while we were students at UNITRA.)
- A: Oo! ndatsho ndakhumbula ke ngoku. Kaloku ndingomnye wabafundi ababelungiselela iindwendwe. Andithi wawufunda iphepha elingokufundiswa kwesiXhosa kwabantetho ingesiso isiXhosa?
(Oh! I remember you now. In fact I was one of the students who greeted the guests. Didn't you read a paper about being taught Xhosa by people who are not Xhosa speaking?)
- B: Ewe. Ingaba nawe ungumfundi wesiXhosa?
(Yes. Are you too a student of Xhosa?)
- A: Hayi, andifundi siXhosa, koko ndililungu lombutho weelwimi zesiNtu phaya eUWC.
(No, I do not study Xhosa, but I am a member of the Xhosa language association there at UWC.)
- B: Ingaba niyavunyelwa ukuba ngamalungu alo mbutho nokuba aningobafundi besiXhosa?
(Are you allowed to become members of this association even if you are not Xhosa students?)
- A: Ewe. Wonke umntu onomdla wamkelekile, nokuba akasifundi isiXhosa njengesifundo, nokuba akathethi siXhosa.
(Yes. Everybody who is interested is welcome, even if he does not study Xhosa as a subject, or even if he does not speak Xhosa.)
- B: Uthetha ukuba nababala nabo bamkelekile? Ayingombutho wabeelwimi zesiNtu kuphele na?
(You say that Colourds are also welcome? Is it not an association of Xhosaspeakers only?)
- A: Ewe, nguwo, kodwa siyabamkela nababala kuba bakho kubo abafunda isiXhosa, loo nto ke yalatha umdla wabo kulo

lwimi. Ngoko ke asinakubakhuphela ngaphandle.

(Yes, it is, but we accept Colours too because there are some who study Xhosa, which shows their interest in the language. Therefore we cannot exclude them.)

B: Intle kakhulu loo nto. Ngoku ndiyasiqonda isizathu sokuba nibe nomdla kangaka kweliya phepha ndandilifunda.

(This is very good. Now I understand the reason why you were so interested in that paper that I have read.)

A: Ewe, kaloku wawuthetha ngento esiyaziyo.

(Yes, you were talking about something we know.)

B: Siza kunimema nani kulo nyaka uzayo. Siyathemba ukuba nakonwaba nathi, kuba nathi sasonwabile ekhampasini yenu.

(We shall invite you too next year. We hope that you will be happy with us, because we were happy at your campus.)

A: Singavuya kakhulu. Ngelishwa kufuneka ndehle ngoku. Bekumnandi ukuncokola nawe. Usale kakuhle.

(We will be very happy. Unfortunately I have to get off now. It was nice talking to you. Stay well.)

B: Ndikonwabele nam ukuncokola nawe. Ngethemba lokuba sakubonana kwakhona. Uhambe kakuhle.)

(I also enjoyed talking to you. Hopefully we will meet again. Go well.)

DIALOGUE 6: UKUBUKELA IBHOLA KWIGUMBI LIKAMABONAKUDE
(WATCHING SOCCER IN THE TV ROOM)

Kusehostele eTV room. KungeCawa kuza kudlalwa ibhola phakathi kweCape Town Spurs neKaizer Chiefs. Indlu izele qhu. UAnani uncokola noUnathi. UAnani uthanda iKaizer Chiefs kodwa uUnathi uthanda iPirates. Batshintshiselana izimvo ngamaqela abawaxhasayo, bazama ukutyhafisa abamelani ngokugxeka ukubanako kwabo. Banika izimvo ngamathuba eqela abo.

(It is in the hostel in the TV room. It is Sunday, there will be a soccer match between Cape Town Spurs and Kaizer Chiefs. The

house is full. Anani is chatting with Unathi. Anani favours Kaizer Chiefs, whereas Unathi likes Pirates. They exchange opinions about the respective teams they support, and try to discourage the rival team by belittling their abilities. They give opinions about their team's chances.)

Anani: Bekela mfondini ndifuna ukuhlala apha ngakuwe.
(Move, my friend, I want to sit next to you.)

Unathi: Nantsi indawo hlala.
(Here is a place, sit.)

Anani: Kuza kwaziwina namhlanje ngathi kuza kukhala enye intwana kuba thina siyawina apha.
(Today each will know one another, seemingly there will be a big cry because we are winning here.)

Unathi: Sokhe sibone ngathi iSpurs sinilungele yaye libala layo eli. Ngekhe nisibethele kowaso nokuba niyathanda.
(We shall see, it seems as if Spurs is ready and it is their home ground. You will never beat Spurs on their home ground even if you want to.)

Anani: Masijonge kuba awam amakhwenkwe aphelele ukhona noKhungwane namhlanje. Baza kuleqa izithunzi. Siza kufaka abe mathathu nje sidlale ngabo emva koko.
(Let us see because my boys are in full form, even Khungwane is there today. They will be chasing shadows. We are going to score three goals and then display our skills.)

Unathi: KuseGreen Point phaya, anizange nibabethe phaya kusekho noAce noDoctor Khumalo. Ncamani bafana.
(That is Green Point there, you never beat them there, even the time of Ace and Doctor Khumalo. Forget it, boys.)

Anani: Yithi qha wena ufuna sityiwe kuba woyika thina. Kuba kaloku ukuwina kwethu apha, sidibana nani. Kanene niwinile izolo kuba benidlala neAmatsha.
(You may say you want us to be beaten because you are afraid of us. Because if we win here, we meet definitely. You really won yesterday because you were

playing with amateurs.)

Unathi: Mfondini, ayikho le uyothethayo kuba bebephelele. Kwaye uyayazi nawe iProfessionals iyadlala gqitha xa idlala nathi. Eyona nto ibisandula kunibetha ngo-1 : nill eligini. Akunakuthetha kanjalo tu.

(My friend, there is no such thing as you are saying because they were all there. And you know even yourself that Professionals are playing well when they are playing with us. Not long ago you were beaten by one goal to nill in a league game. You can never speak like that.)

Anani: Apho ndijonge khona ndijonge kuni qha. Yonke le uyithethayo indala. Babengekho oKhungwane noLebese. Yimali le idlalelwa apha. Le i-cup ibhaliwe ukuba yeyethu kulo nyaka. Zange khe sayifumana.

(I am looking forward to you. What you are saying is an old matter. Khungwane and Lebese were not there. This is money we are playing for. This cup is written ours this year. We never get this cup.)

Unathi: Unyanisile. Thina siyibambe kathathu, qha kukulo nyaka uphelileyo kuba besidlala eAfrika. Masiphula-phule ngathi bangena ebaleni ngoku.

(That is true. We have held it three times, except for last year because we were playing in Africa. Let us listen, they are entering the field.)

Anani: Unyanisile. Nasiya neskim sabo. Thula ubukele ndiyawina apha. Ungandiphazamisi undingxolele.

(It is true. There is the scheme. Shut up and watch me win here. Don't disturb me by making noise.)

DIALOGUE 7: ABAFUNDI BANCOKOLA NGETHEKO
(STUDENTS ARE DISCUSSING A PARTY)

Kubonana uBongiwe nomhlobo wakhe uLumko. Bancokola ngetheko lokuvalwa eliza kuba kwenye yehostele abahlala kuzo eUWC.

Batshintshiselana izimvo ngetheko nemfaneleko yexesha lalo. Bazimisela ukuya kulo kunye bazisana uxhomekeko lwabo.

(Bongiwe sees her friend Lumko. They talk about the party that will be held in one of the hostels they live in at UWC. They exchange opinions about the party and the appropriacy of the time it is held. They plan to go together and inform one another about their conditions.)

Bongiwe: Hi Lumko! Ungabile wethu.

(Hi lumko! You are scarce.)

Lumko: Hi Bongie! Kunjani namhlanje? Andinqabanga.

(Hi Bongie! How are you today? I'm not scarce.)

Bongiwe: Ndiziva ngcono kakhulu, wena?

(I am much better, and you?)

Lumko: Nakum kusharp (kulungile), qha ziincwadi.

(I too am well, it's only books.)

Bongiwe: KungoLwesihlanu yaye ziyaduma eDos Santos namhlanje. Ndiyavuya ndiphilile. Ndiphaya ndonke kukho iBash.

(It is Friday and we are partying at Dos Santos today. I am happy I am well. I'll be there, there is a Bash.)

Lumko: Uthi kukho iBash? Ke, uza kuya nabani phaya? Kanene kuba nje xa kuza kubhalwa. Soloko kwabamnandi ngathi nifuna sifelishe. Yintoni ebangela ukuba nenze iBash xa kubhalwayo?

(You mean there is a Bash? Whom are you going with? It is always like that when the exams are close. It is always nice as if you want us to fail. What makes you have a Bash when it is exam time?)

Bongiwe: Hayi mhlob'am, kaloku kule veki ephelileyo bekugqityezelwa itest yaye ibiza kudibana naleya yeSRC. Lo nto ibiya kuyenza kungayiwa kuyo.

(No my friend, last week we were writing a test and it was going to clash with the SRC's Bash. That would make people not to attend.)

Lumko: Ke, ndiza kuhamba nawe. Ungandilahli ubone abanye. Uyazi ukuba andibaqhelanga abantwana baseRes.

(So, I'll go with you. Don't push me away and find others. You know I am not familiar with the kids from the Residence.)

Bongiwe: Kulungile singahamba sobabini kodwa uze wazi ukuba ngo2 ndiyolala. Kufuneka ndiyofunda kwakusasa ngoMgqibelo. Ndiyabhala ngoMvulo iphepha lam lokuqala. (It is alright we can go together but you should know by 2 o'clock I'll go to sleep. I want to study in the early hours on Saturday. I am writing my first paper on Monday.)

Lumko: Kuza kuba ngubani uDJ? NguMax Skanye okanye nguJay? (Who is going to be the DJ? Is it Max or Jay?)

Bongiwe: Kubhalwe lo weRadio Good Hope uBongani Njoli. Ndiyela nje yena kuphela. UDJeya kamnandi lowa. (It is written Bongani Njoli of Radio Good Hope. I am going there for him only. He DJs nice.)

Lumko: Bongi ndobona ngawe emalanga ke mntwana. Sala kakuhle. (Bongie see you in the evening, baby. Stay well.)

Bongi: Ok, enkosi maan. Sikhe sancokola. Sobonana. (Ok, thank you man. We talked. See you.)

DIALOGUE 8: UKULINDELA IZIPHUMO EPASEJINI EDLULA PHAKATHI KWEE-OFISI ZAKWAXHOSA DEPARTMENT (WAITING FOR RESULTS IN THE PASSAGE PASSING THROUGH THE OFFICES OF THE XHOSA DEPARTMENT)

Kuhlangana abafundi ababini abenza isiXhosa. Benza isiXhosa unyaka wokugqibela. Babuzana ngokuxhonywa kwamanqaku abo onyaka, batshintshiselana izimvo ngelinqwa labo ngokuphatha nokunikezela kwamanqaku. Bakhalaza ngokunikezela kade kwamanqaku bathelekelele ngezizathu.

(Two students who are doing Xhosa meet. They are doing their last year in Xhosa. They ask each other about their course work marks, exchange opinions as regards their dissatisfaction about the

administration and release of marks. They complain about the late release of marks and speculate about the reasons.)

Zolile: Molo ntanga! Uthini namhlanje?

(Hallo my friend! What do you say today?)

Xolani: Molo nawe! Akukho niks (nto). Ndighuba kakuhle nje. Phofu wena unjani?

(Hallo you too! There is nothing. I am doing fine. In fact how are you?)

Zolile: Nam ndiphilile, qha ndiyoyika. Asikaxhonywa imarks (amanqaku). Ndiyapenikha kuba sesiza kubhala ngoLwesihlanu. Ziyalibazisa ezi lecturers. Kwaye ke, oku mane sisiza apha kuyasilibazisa. Qho xa ubuza bathi ngomso, ngomso.

(I too am well, but I am afraid. The marks are not yet posted. I am panicing because we are writing on Friday. These lecturers are delaying. Moreover, this coming here again and again is delaying us. Everytime you ask them, they say tomorrow, tomorrow.)

Xolani: Azikaxhonywa nangoku? Kutheni belibazisa kangaka nje? Inokuba abakhathali, bengakhathalele kwathina ke phofu. Nditsho ukuba kudala sabhala i-assignment ne-test kodwa kungona zibuyayo kule veki. Bebesenza ntoni ixesha elide kangaka? Bekumele ukuba kudala sazifumanayo qha balibala kukuncokola besehla benyuka kule paseji.

(Are they not up yet even now? Why are they delaying so much? Maybe they don't care, as if they don't even care for us. I say so because it has been a long time since we wrote the assignment and the test, but it is only now they are returning this week. What were they doing all along? We were supposed to receive them long ago, but they are always chatting moving up and down the passage.)

Zolile: Hayi ntanga andiqondi ukuba kunjalo. Mhlawumbi kusazanywa ukudityaniswa zonke ezi marks zabo. Qha ke ngathi nescope asixhonywanga. Khona siqala ngabani

ukubhala?

(No my friend, I don't think it is like that. Perhaps they are still trying to add up all the marks for them. But it seems as if even the scope is not posted yet. With whom are we starting to write?)

Xolani: Ngathi siqala ngesintaksi ne-semantiki, sigqibele ngeliterature xa iyonke.

(It seems as if we are starting with syntax and semantics, and we finish with literature as a whole.)

Zolile: Ndinedibano nabanye eDL111 ngo-2. Masibonane. Nawe ungasijoyina sobe sidiskhasa iincwadi.

(I have a meeting with others in DL111 at 2. Let's see each other sometime. You may join us, we'll be discussing literature.)

Xolani: Mase sihamba kunye. Sukuba sandishiya masiye. Undincedile kuba andinazo nezincwadi zifundwayo.

(Let's go together. Don't leave me behind, let's go. You have helped me because I don't have the books we are studying.)

DIALOGUE 9: PHAMBI KWE-EXAM
(BEFORE THE EXAMINATION)

Abahlobo abathathu batshintshiselana izimvo ngokulungisela nokulindela imviwo. Bacebisana ngeendlela yokufunda kakuhle.

(Three friends exchange opinions about their preparations for and expectations of the examination. They advise one another about good study strategies.)

Xolani: Eita bafobethu, kunjani?
(Hi, friends, how are you?)

Andile noSipho: Sikhona bra.
(We are well, brother.)

Xolani: Sikhona mfondini nto nje ndilungiselela le test

yesixhosa.

(We are well, friend, I am just preparing for this Xhosa test.)

Andile: Kutheni uyifundela isekude nje kuba mna ndifunda nje xa kusele iintsuku ezimbalwa ukwenzela ndingalibali.
(Why are you studying so long ahead because I only study when there are a few days left to make sure that I do not forget.)

Sipho: Uyabona ke Andile wena ngoJune wenza kwale mpazamo ufuna ukuyenza.
(You see, Andile, you made the same mistake in June that you want to make.)

Andile: Eyiphi impazamo?
(Which mistake?)

Sipho: Le yokufunda ixesha sele limkile.
(The one of studying when the time has already gone.)

Xolani: Loo nto iyachana mhlobo, izinto zilibaleka lula ngaloo ndlela.
(That thing is self defeating, friend, things are easily forgotten that way.)

Andile: Xolani, uSipho uzenze ngcono ngemviwo zeyeSilimela ubhale iphepha engafundanga kakuhle umbuzo obuzwayo.
(Xolani, Sipho did better with the exam in June when he wrote a paper without reading correctly a question that was asked.)

Sipho: Ndingawufundanga kakuhle njani?
(How did I not read it correctly?)

Andile: Isihloko besisithi "umntu makatyatyadule ngemfundo njengoko umbhali exoxa kwincwadi yakhe". Wena Sipho usuke watyatyadula ngofudo uchaza ukuba ngumfo owathanda kunene amanzi.
(The topic said "let a person discuss education as presented by the author in his book. You, Sipho, went and discussed a tortoise and explained that the tortoise is a man who really likes water.)

Xolani: Hahaha! Uthini na Andile yafana yathini ilecturer ngalo nto?

(Hahaha! Andile what did the lecturer say about this?)
Andile: Kaloku ivele yamnika iqanda kuba isithi uphumile emxholweni.

(He just gave him nought because it was not to the point.)

Sipho: Jonga Andile le nto khange nditsho ukuba maze ubalise ngayo.

(Look, Andile friend, I did not say you should tell this thing.)

Andile: Nam andibalisi qha ndizama ukucebisa ngokufunda sele ixesha limkile.

(I too am not telling, I am only trying to advise you to study when the time is already gone.)

Xolani: Okay majita nothini ngeemviwo ezi zizayo?

(Ok gentlemen, what are you saying about these coming exams?)

Sipho: Eyi mfowethu ngase ndizibone sele zidlulile ezo.

(Oh my friend, if only I could see them finished.)

Andile: Mfondini into ebalulekileyo kukuzilungiselela uzixhobele iimviwo, uyeke loo minqweno unayo ngathi iza kwenzela into.

(Friend, the important thing is to properly prepare yourself for the exams, and leave those wishes that you have as if they can do something.)

Xolani: Majita ndisaya e-student centre. Sobonana.

(Gentlemen, I am still going to the student centre. We'll meet again.)

Andile noSipho: Sharp mfowethu.

(Okay, friend.)

DIALOGUE 10: EMVA KWE-EXAM

(AFTER THE EXAM)

Kusemva kwephepha lokuqala lesiXhosa. Bekubhalwa iSyntax neMorphology. Amantombazana amabini atshintshiselana izimvo anika

izizathu zemphumelelo okanye zentsilelo yokubhala kakuhle.

(It is after the first Xhosa paper. They wrote Syntax and Morphology. Two girls exchange opinions and give reasons for their success or failure to write well.)

Bathandwa: Molo ntombi!

(Hello girl!)

Zimkhitha: Ewe, Bathandwa. Belinjani iphepha?

(Yes Bathandwa. How was the paper?)

Bathandwa: Yhu! ntombi, belinzima kakhulu. Kambe andiqondi ukuba ndilipasile.

(Gee! girl, it was very difficult. I definitely do not think I passed the paper.)

Zimkhitha: Ngoku ndicinga ukuba belibhetele nento ebendiyicinga. ISintaksi ibingcono kakhulu. Lonto indenze ndanethemba lokupasa.

(Now I think it was better than I thought it would be. The Syntax was a lot better. It made me hope to pass.)

Bathandwa: Mna ndincoma iSimantiki kuba bekukhethwa kuyo.

Nayo ndenze kangangoko ndinako. Hayi, umbuzo wesithathu bendingakwazi nokushukuma.

(I appreciate Semantics because it had a choice. I tried my best with it. No, the third question, I was unable to move.)

Zimkhitha: Nam wethu nditsho nje. Laa mbuzo ubufuna ntoni kakade? Ingathi ndiwubhidanisile.

(I say so too. What was needed in that question? It seems I confused it.)

Bathandwa: Ukuba ubusazi, ufuna i-absolute pronouns hayi ipartial pronouns. Yiyo lonto ndinethenjana.

Kungenxa yamanqaku ayo. ISyntax yona ndenze nje. (If you knew it needed absolute pronouns not partial pronouns. That is why I have a little hope. It is because of the marks allocated for it. The Syntax I just do.)

Zimkhitha: Sendinethemba le-year mark yam. Noko ibintle kakhulu. Neyakho tshomi ibingu-76%. Funeka sizame kweli lizayo.

(My hope is based on my year mark. It was very good. Even yours my friend was 76%. We must try in the next paper.)

Bathandwa: Ndiyathemba iincwadi ziya kusinyusa kuba ke noko zicacile. Funeka siqalise kwanguku ukuzifunda. Sakuba sengxakini ukuba asizifundanga. Babuza fani abatitshala.

(I hope the literature will boast us because it is clear. We have to start studying it now. We will be in trouble if we don't study. They ask funny questions those teachers.)

Zimkhitha: Unyanisile ntombi, zininzi eza ncwadi. Masizame singazikhaleli. Unazo zonke eza ncwadi?

(You are right girl, Thosa books are many. Let us try so that we won't cry. Do you have all those books?)

Bathandwa: Ewe ndinazo. Funeka uye phaya kwam leyithi siqalise. ULwesihlanu ukufutshane. Masahlukane. Sobonana leyithi.

(Yes, I have. You should come to my room late to start. Friday is near. Let us part. See one another late.)

Zimkhitha: Ndiza kufika emva kwendaba ke ntombi ndisaya kuphumla kamnandi.

(I'll come after the news, girl, I am still going to rest nicely.)

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Allwright, D. and Bailey, K. 1991. Focus on the language classroom: an introduction to classroom research for language teachers. Cambridge University Press. Cambridge.
- Bardovi-Harlig, K. 1995 The interaction of pedagogy and natural sequences in the acquisition of tense and aspect. In Eckman, F. R., Highland, D., Lee, P. W., Mileham, J. and Weber, R. R. (ed.) Second language acquisition theory and pedagogy. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers. Mahwah, New Jersey.
- Breen, M. P. 1987a. Contemporary paradigms in syllabus design. Part I. Language teaching. April, 1987.
- Breen, M. P. 1987b. Contemporary paradigms in syllabus design. Part II. Language teaching. July, 1987.
- Brown, H. D. 1994. Teaching by principles. An interactive approach to language pedagogy. Prentice Hall Regents. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey.
- Ciccone, A. A. 1995. Teaching with authentic video: theory and practice. In Eckman, F. R., Highland, D., Lee, P. W., Mileham, J. and Weber, R. R. (ed.) Second language acquisition theory and practice. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers. Mahwah, New Jersey.
- Cook, V. 1994. Universal Grammar and the learning and teaching of second languages. In Odlin, T. (ed.) Perspectives on pedagogical grammar. Cambridge University Press.
- Cook, V. and Newson, M. 1996. Chomsky's Universal Grammar. An introduction. Second edition. Blackwell Publishers. Oxford.
- Dulay, H., Burt, M. and Krashen, S. 1982. Language two. Oxford University Press. New York.
- Eckman, F. R. 1995. Preface. In Eckman, F. R. et al. (ed.) Second language acquisition theory and pedagogy. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers. Mahwah, New Jersey.
- Flynn, S. 1996. A parameter-setting approach to second language acquisition. In Ritchie W. c. and Bhatia, T. K. (ed.) Handbook of second language acquisition. Academic

- Press. San Diego.
- Flynn, S. and Martohardjano, G. 1995. Toward theory-driven language pedagogy. In Eckman F. R., Highland D., Lee, P. W., Mileham, J. and Weber, R. R. (ed.) Second language acquisition theory and pedagogy. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers. Mahwah, New Jersey.
- Foster, P. and Skehan, P. 1996: The influence of planning and task type on second language performance. Studies in second language acquisition, 18.
- Gass, S. M. 1995. Learning and teaching: the necessary intersection. In Eckman, F. R., Highland, D., Lee, P. W., Mileham, J. and Weber, R. R. (ed.) Second language acquisition theory and pedagogy. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers. Mahwah, New Jersey.
- Gass, S. 1996. Second language acquisition and linguistic theory: the role of language transfer. in Ritchie, W. C. and Bhatia, T. K. (ed.) Handbook of second language acquisition. Academic Press. San Diego.
- Gregg, K. R. (1996) The logical and developmental problems of second language acquisition. In Ritchie, W. C. and Bhatia, T. K. (ed.) Handbook of second language acquisition. Academic Press. San Diego.
- Krashen, S. D. 1995. Free voluntary reading: linguistic and affective arguments and some new applications. In Eckman, F. R., Highland, D., Lee, P. W., Mileham, J. and Weber, R. R. (ed.) Second language acquisition theory and pedagogy. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers. Mahwah, New Jersey.
- Kumaravadivelu, B. 1993. The name of the task and the task of naming: methodological aspects of task-based pedagogy. In Crookes, G. and Gass, S. M. (ed.) Tasks in a pedagogical context. Integrating theory and practice. Multilingual Matters Ltd. Clevedon.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. 1995. On the teaching and learning of grammar: challenging the myths. In Eckman, F. R., Highland, D., Lee, P. W., Mileham, J. and Weber, R. R. (ed.) Second language acquisition theory and pedagogy. Lawrence Erlbaum

- Associates, Publishers. Mahwah, New Jersey.
- Lightbown, P. M. and Spada, N. 1993. How languages are learned. Oxford University Press. Oxford.
- Long, M. H. 1996. The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In Ritchie, W. C. and Bhatia, T. K. (ed.) Handbook of second language acquisition. Academic Press. San Diego.
- Long, M. and Crookes, G. 1993. Units of analysis in syllabus design - the case for task. In Crookes, G. and Gass, S. M. (ed.) Tasks in a pedagogical context. Integrating theory and practice. Multilingual Matters Ltd. Clevedon.
- Loschky, L. and Bley-Vroman, R. 1993. Grammar and task-based methodology. In Crookes, G. and Gass, S. M. (ed.) Tasks and language learning. Integrating theory and practice. Multilingual Matters Ltd. Clevedon.
- McDonough, J. and Shaw, C. 1993. Materials and methods in ELT. A teacher's guide. Blackwell. Oxford.
- Nunan, D. 1993. Task-based syllabus design: selecting, grading and sequencing tasks. In Crookes, G. and Gass, S. M. (ed.) Tasks in a pedagogical context. Integrating theory and practice. Multilingual Matters Ltd. Clevedon.
- Pica, T., Kanagy, R. and Falodun, J. 1993. Choosing and using communicative tasks for second language instruction. In Crookes, G. and Gass, S. M. (ed.) Tasks and language learning. Integrating theory and practice. Multilingual Matters Ltd. Clevedon.
- Richards, J. C. 1990. The language teaching matrix. Cambridge University Press. Cambridge.
- Richards, J. C., Platt, J. and Platt, H. 1992. Longman Dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics. Longman. Harlow.
- Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. 1986. Approaches and methods in language teaching. A description and analysis. Cambridge University Press. Cambridge.
- Ritchie, W. C. and Bhatia, T. K. 1996. Second language acquisition: introduction, foundations, and overview. In Ritchie, W. C. and Bhatia, T. K. (ed.) Handbook of second



UNIVERSITY *of the*
WESTERN CAPE