

This monograph investigated complex tasks in *English for Africa*, the textbook series used at secondary school level for the teaching and learning of English in the Democratic Republic of the Congo. In this perspective, the monograph first describes the characteristics of complex tasks embedded in existing tasks in the textbooks under study. Second, it looks at the language competences conveyed by existing tasks. This study applied a qualitative approach of content analysis of books selected from the textbook series *English in Africa*. The results of the study emphasize the implementation of complex tasks in the teaching of English to enhance learners' critical thinking, problem solving, and creativity. In the context of the DRC, English teaching often follows strictly the curriculum due to the focus on national exams. Since complex tasks are not elaborated in the textbooks, this is unlikely to change. The monograph contributes to the existing literature, especially in DRC. The monograph scrutinizes the importance of complex tasks in the teaching and learning of English in sub-Saharan Africa. In this regard, both teachers and learners of English will benefit from the results presented in this monograph.



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Cognitive Activation by Complex Tasks

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Brot
für die Welt

New Perspectives on Quality Education in Sub-Saharan Africa

Edited by Christine Nyiramana, Susanne Röss, Tharcisse Gatwa,
Annette Scheunpflug and Penine Uwimbabazi

Cognitive Activation by Complex Tasks in the Secondary School English Textbook Series: “English for Africa” in the Democratic Republic of Congo

John Tombola Barabara

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school English Textbooks: case of “English for Africa”
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Over recent decades, national and international policy actors together with teachers, parents, community leaders, and faith-based organizations have made great progress in providing access to education. Today around the world, more children are in school than ever before. Yet being in school is not enough. The already exceptional efforts to expand access to schooling require even more exceptional efforts to ensure the quality of education that schools provide. This series presents new findings on competence-based teaching, learner-centered pedagogies, cognitive activation, critical thinking skills, and socially responsive and inclusive approaches to learning in the context of Sub-Saharan Africa. The authors in this series have conducted their research in the context of the *International Master Program of Educational Quality in Developing Countries* (IMPEQ) at the University of Bamberg in partnership with the Protestant University of Rwanda, the Free University of the Great Lake Region in the Democratic Republic of Congo, and the Evangelical University of Cameroon. The research was made possible through the funding from Bread for the World. The monographs in this series highlight the importance of continuous teacher education and, most importantly, the centrality of efficient leadership for fostering educational policies and practices that meet the needs of all students.

*I dedicate this book to all teachers who yearn for
students' competences.*

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John Tombola Barabara



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ABBREVIATIONS

CACT	Cognitive activation by complex tasks
CBT	Competency-based teaching
CLT	Cognitive load theory
CT	Complex tasks
DRC	Democratic Republic of Congo
EfA	English for Africa
EFA	Education for all
EFL	English as foreign language
ELT	English language teaching
EPSP	Enseignement Primaire, Secondaire et Professionnel
ESL	English as second language
G3L13	Grade three lesson thirteen
G4L4	Grade four lesson four
G5L3	Grade five lesson three
OECD	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
TBTL	Task based language teaching
TESL	Teaching English as second language
TEFL	Teaching English as foreign language
UNESCO	United Nations educational, scientific and cultural organization

SERIES EDITORS' PREFACE

Beyond the fact that the completion of compulsory education has substantially improved over the past twenty years, achieving educational quality for all continues to be a major challenge in Sub-Saharan Africa where many children do not reach basic skills in reading and numeracy by the end of primary school (UNESCO, 2014). A focus on quality education is thus paramount to improve the overall performance of educational systems and to support students' academic achievement. High quality education requires high quality research that combines sophisticated knowledge of educational theories, adequate research methods, and contextualizing sensibilities for local realities as they intersect with global political, economic, social, and historical forces. Every educational dimension imaginable – school access, didactics and pedagogical approaches, academic content and competences – if approached with such a notion of high quality research presents itself as a challenge that poses many questions and few certain answers. To nonetheless forge pathways towards much needed answers requires a sturdy intellect, diligence, creativity, and a supportive community of scholars engaged in critical feedback.

Monographs in this series carefully investigate educational concepts and theories as they pertain to quality education in Sub-Saharan Africa. They cover many topics ranging from leadership skills, competence-based and learner-centered pedagogies, cognitive activation, critical thinking skills, and socially responsive and inclusive approaches to teaching. The monographs go beyond theory in that they reflect on the practical implications of the research

findings. The authors provide in-depth analyses grounded in a deep knowledge of and experiences in the context in which the research was conducted. They articulate recommendations that touch on the macro-, meso-, and micro-levels of schooling. In this way, the series provides a collective space for emerging African scholars to discuss their research on education.

Cognitive Activation by Complex Tasks in English Textbooks constitutes the second volume within the series *New Perspectives on Quality Education in Sub-Saharan Africa*. It continues this series with an investigation into a complex question in teaching English in Africa: To what extent is cognitive activation by complex tasks implemented in students' textbooks titled *English for Africa*? To address this question, Mr. Tombola observes the situation in the Democratic Republic of Congo, proceeding from which he develops a qualitative research approach based on the document analysis methods. First developing his research question and examining the present state of affairs, Mr. Tombola then provides a summary of the scientific discourse on complex tasks, describes their characteristics and their connection to competency-based teaching. Taking into account empirical evidence, he then draws conclusions for the praxis. *Cognitive Activation by Complex Tasks* illuminates ways to gaining a more refined understanding of using complex tasks for cognitive activation when teaching English in Africa. It can serve as a signpost for new approaches, both in revising existing textbooks or in designing new ones to make teaching English at secondary schools in Africa be in better alignment with science-based education.

AUTHOR'S PREFACE

Complex task is a means of teaching that boots learners' competences. In this regard, complex task deserves attention for the education engine to drive very well. For the development of competences, there is an appeal that school subjects are framed in the outstanding complex tasks. The challenges connected to the textbooks used for the teaching and learning of English in secondary schools in the Democratic Republic of Congo has prompted this project in which I engage a holistic approach endeavoring competent learners. Despite day to day research on English Language Teaching - ELT, learners of English as a foreign language may still display low competences in case they are not cognitively activated by complex tasks. This book scrutinizes such a situational context, particularly the one of the DRC and therefore comes as a further contribution to the existing discourse by embarking scholars, researchers and practitioners (professional teachers) into a boat to the implementation of complex tasks for the enhancement of competences within learners.

The attainment of the sought competences like language competences is linked not only to tactful teachers but also undoubtedly to a good choice and use of teaching materials. However, "English for Africa" is a series of textbook used to teach English in the Congolese secondary school and it has been used for more than forty years without, unfortunately, being reviewed or revisited. Such a fact makes English for Africa stem students' demotivation to learn English as a foreign language in DRC. Therefore, these textbooks crucially need to be revised so to boost learners' motivation and develop necessary competences.

This monograph therefore uplifts the improvement of the teaching and learning of English in Congolese secondary school classrooms as it aligns with educational quality by longing specifically for competent learners of English.

Reading its content, this book is expected to inspire teachers as well as researchers to pave their way of designing new teaching approach with complex tasks and promoting quality teaching. That is the rationale why this book is commendable as a basic document for the training of teachers.

The fulfillment of the research and the knitting of this book result from the contribution of several people who deserve acknowledgements. Here, I first thank the “Université Libre des Pays des Grands Lacs”, campus of Bukavu/DRC to have willingly accepted to recommend me for the Masters program. In the same string, I owe gratitude to the managing committee of the Teacher Training College of Bukavu that, through the Department of English, gave me the leeway for my master training.

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John Tombola Barabara

1.

INTRODUCTION

The present book is entitled “Cognitive Activation by Complex Tasks in secondary school English Textbooks: case of “English for Africa” in the Democratic Republic of Congo”. The study examines the complex tasks within these textbooks known as “English for Africa” (EfA). It also investigates the enhancement of language competences in the same textbooks. “English for Africa” is, indeed, a series of textbooks used for the teaching and learning of English in the Congolese secondary schools.

This book contributes to the field of educational quality which results in quality teaching that aims at providing learners with skills and knowledge they are meant to acquire (UNESCO, 2014: 216). Supplementing the idea by UNESCO, it is said that (1) quality teaching is focused on raising student achievement (including social outcomes) by (2) facilitating the learning of diverse students and raising achievement for all learners who are in a process whereby (3) the teacher establishes and follows through on appropriate expectations for learning outcomes and the pace at which learning should proceed, knowing that (4) high expectations are necessary but not sufficient, and can be counterproductive, when not supported by quality teaching (Alton-Lee, 2003: 16).

In this introduction chapter, I describe the context and the problem connected to the teaching and learning of English in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC). Since such a teaching and learning process is linked to the use of English textbooks, these latter are also contextualized in the present chapter to frame the research question. Describing the local and discourse context and the related problem allows to figure out the research questions to be answered by the present study before presenting all the chapters included in this book and describing what each chapter consists of.

1.1 Context and Problem

In the framework of the present study, I contextualize the topic in three different levels. This is done through discussing, at each level, a related problem. The topic is first contextualized regarding the local praxis. Here, the circumscription of the book is provided before arguments are made on complex tasks and the textbooks under study together with the description of the Congolese linguistic context. The level of context concerning scientific discourse is discussed in the second position. At this level, the topic is linked to the reflection of English in relation with complex tasks. Ideas about how can this be embedded into the discourse of quality education are developed. There is also reflection on how this meets the idea of education for all. Level three frames the topic in my personal context and therefore I show the contributions of steps already taken in the field.

1.1.1 At the level of Praxis: The Teaching of English in DRC and the Congolese Linguistic Context connected to its Education System

At this level, reflections refer to the Congolese educational system in general given that the textbooks concerned by the present study are used across the entire country in all secondary schools. The Congolese educational system knows different sorts of schools run by a variety of institutions regarding their administrative status. In this regard, there are state public and private public schools (state and private schools offering access to anybody wishing to) on one hand, and on the other hand, state private and private-private schools (state and private sectors limiting the access to certain category of learners). To situate readers of this study, I provide a brief description of school grade levels so to help them be aware of the Congolese education system. In DRC, school education is organized starting by nursery (kindergarden) followed by primary, secondary, and higher education. There are different types of institutions (state/private and public or not) in each sector. Kindergarten takes two to three years before children progress to primary school where they must stay for six years. The secondary school also lasts six years and the university level takes five years for one domain of study (like education, agronomy, law and so forth); except studying medicine lasts eight years. This study is restricted to secondary school (public, private subsidized and private) since they all use textbooks at hand. However, it is not clear if these textbooks are used in the same way in different parts of the country.

In this research I consider the strengths and weaknesses of the books under study in reference to cognitive activation by complex tasks (CACT) and to the development of language skills. Considerations also go to the analysis of the context in which the textbooks are handled. According to literature, cognitive activation by complex tasks fosters the teaching quality. This implies that if the teaching practices in Bukavu connect knowledge with the use of cognitively activating complex tasks, there would be great influence on the quality of teaching and learning English and this may therefore lead to learning outcomes characterized by learners' competences. This idea is strengthened by science, which asserts that knowledge must be related to competences for quality teaching (Ananiadou & Claro, 2009: 6). Unfortunately, this is not the case of practice in Bukavu. In the framework of this book, I cannot miss to reveal the successes and failures regarding Complex Tasks (CT) that I will have noticed while scrutinizing the textbooks and while analyzing the situation. The problem at this point is the potentiality that tasks in EfA must cognitively activate learners. Some tasks may have such potentials to activate learners whereas some others may not. This will be focused on during the analysis and will be confronted to existing scientific discourse.

Before describing literature-related context of this research, it is important to provide the description of the Congolese linguistic context. This leads to the description of the teaching and learning of English in the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) and its link to the related textbooks. DRC is, in fact, a country with a diverse linguistic situation including hundreds of spoken local languages and dialects. In addition to those, there are four other

languages used as lingua franca across the country and these, referred to as “national languages”, are Kikongo, Tshiluba, Swahili and Lingala (Kasanga, 2012: 49; Kaleba & Tombola, 2017: 129). To this linguistic diversity, joins French which is the language of administration and of school instruction. English is introduced as a foreign language in secondary schools, starting from grade three. But schools have not officially started teaching English even in grade one and grade two - as English becomes more and more the world language and spreads and covers all the areas. In DRC, English is taught as a school subject amongst other subjects, though not used as a medium language of instruction. In such a situation, many challenges are connected to its teaching. The challenges include the number of hours allotted per week depending on the grade (class level) and the subject or option (domain of study). As far as class level is concerned, first and second grades of secondary school are allotted one or two hours per week while French is taught for seven-eight hours weekly. Concerning the subject or domain of study, the hour allotment is between four and six hours for general subjects (Education, Commercial and Business, Letters and Philosophy, Maths-Physics) and two hours for specific/technical domains as Fishing and Sailing, Agriculture, Social Sciences (Kaleba & Tombola, 2017: 130). Another challenge is the inaccessibility to books in general and particularly English books and other printed materials for reading by most students. According to the World Bank, in some Congolese schools, every single book is shared between two and sixteen students (World Bank, 2005: 80).

To teach English in Congolese secondary schools, one series of textbooks, “English for Africa” is used throughout the entire national education system. Developed in 1976 by David Mills in collaboration with Zodéougan, Doust and Tomalin, EfA is the only recognized textbook in the national curriculum for use in secondary schools. Used for more than 40 years now, the textbook under study may have difficulties to meet the today’s objectives of teaching and learning English as a foreign language in DRC. As said before, EfA is a series of textbooks and these correspond to the last four grades of the Congolese secondary education. These four grades constitute what is called grades of English (grades 3, 4, 5 and 6) as English is not officially accepted to be taught in first and second grades of secondary school. For every grade, however, English for Africa has a textbook for students and a teacher’s guide. Each student textbook of each grade encompasses English texts (referred to as lessons) entailing tasks generally called exercises that learners must solve. It is therefore teachers’ responsibility to lead learners in that work during the teaching-learning process. The problem is that student teachers (later, teachers to use EfA) are trained to follow scrupulously the planning as designed by the education policy. With my experience as a teacher trainer, this leads teachers to get focused on the pupils’ book at the expense of teachers’ guide.

The pedagogical implications of such a focus may be marked by success or failure according to the design and label of the textbook under use. In this framework, it is known, according to literature that the quality of the teaching-learning process is dependent to a good choice of teaching materials. Textbook being one of such materials is

not excluded regarding its crucial role in learners' success or failure (Mukundan, Nimehchisalem, & Hajimohammadi, 2011: 100, 102). A weakly designed textbook may therefore lead to non-creativity of teachers that would consequently translate into the transmission of knowledge. This can be asserted by the absolution of teachers' responsibility directed by existing textbooks (ready-made textbooks as called by Swan), which renders teachers to be lazy. Their laziness is justified by teachers' expectation that the wise and virtuous people who produced the textbook knew what is good for them and this leads unfortunately to an automatic operation of the textbook, something prohibited (Swan, 1992: 33). Then, in relying fully on such textbooks imbedding inconsistencies, teachers will not care about the implementation of complex tasks and this constitutes a big lack.

1.1.2 At the level of research discourse: CACT, ELT and English textbooks

The topic of my study is linked to the reflection of the English textbooks that involve complex tasks, which tasks are susceptible to enhance competences of learners of English. The study evokes textbook evaluation that implies document analysis. Since a textbook serves for teaching and learning of English (like any other subject), many studies on textbook and the teaching and learning of English have been conducted (see chapter two). The objective of the research in that field is to improve the quality of teaching and enabling learners to develop necessary competences. Teaching quality implies six criteria. One of them is cognitive activation by complex tasks that leads learners to gain competences through the processing of

the acquired knowledge, which processing is effective thanks to practice and repetition (Pressley, 1998: 186; Anderson, Reder, & Simon, 1995: 7; Kember & McNaught, 2007: 41; Marzano, 2007: 60; Rosenshine, 2002: 7).

Since it is the teachers' role to engage learners in activities that promote critical thinking by integrating knowledge across traditional subject areas (Vavrus, Thomas, & Bartlett, 2011: 27), cognitive activation by complex tasks is therefore a duty particular to teachers as it is their responsibility to be creative in designing tasks that must enable learners acquire competences needed for them to address life situations and meet market requirements. This leads to the understanding of the crucial role played by teachers within the teaching-learning process. In support to this idea, Gauthier, Dembélé, Bossonnette and Richard surveying the meta-analysis of the Americans Wang, Haertel and Walberg assert that teachers constitute the most influential factor in student learning (Gauthier, Dembélé, Bossonnette, & Richard, 2004: 3). Science emphasizes the crucial role of teachers showing that teacher quality has strong peculiarities to much influence student achievement (Verspoor, 2008: 217) but this is related to beliefs and commitment teachers display towards learners' achievement (Hattie, 2012: 22). Learners' achievement or performance gives, undoubtedly, the picture of school performance since it is learners' performance that builds up school performance. According to the literature, the effect size of teachers' influence on learning performance is high. With 0.53 it is higher than factors related to family and social environment, which is 0.38 (Hattie 1992 cited by Gauthier, Dembélé, Bossonnette, & Richard, 2004: 3).

The existing discourse on teaching quality shows that cognitive activation by complex tasks is one of the ways to reach higher competence levels among learners. Therefore, quality teaching entails many reflections and debates worldwide. This aligns with UNESCO's struggle for education focusing on "Education for All", on "quality" or on both. Example of reflections and debates concerning quality education and education for all is traced back to the discussions at different conferences and the results from reports like the Fauré report (1972), the Jomtien conference (1990), the Delors report (1992) and recently the Dakar conference (2000). Considering, for example the Delors report, it can be understood that quality of education cannot be tackled if its four pillars are not stressed; these being (1) learning to know, (2) learning to do, (3) learning to live together and (4) learning to be. In the perspective of education for all, no child must be left behind (UNESCO, 2013: 5). This requires equity so to enable even lower learners and those coming from disadvantaged context get to school and reach certain level of achievement (Gauthier, Dembélé, Bossonnette, & Richard, 2004, p. 23). Having all children at school does not suffice; quality is as well crucial. That is why attention must be paid to know the quality of the material that is learnt in school and how this is learnt (UNESCO, 2013: 1,2).

The question of quality teaching implies ideas of competences that must be developed by learners. One way to help learners acquire such competences is to use cognitive activation by complex tasks (CACT). Research on CACT has been conducted to see the extent at which cognitive activating complex tasks foster competences. Results prove that high cognition is a key benefit of

complex tasks (van Merriënboer, Kester, & Paas, 2006: 343, 346; Ghufroon & Saleh, 2016: 2). More about cognitive activation by complex tasks is elaborated in the following chapter (see chapter 2).

In the following lines, I present the context of studies conducted on English as a foreign and/or second language and the existing state of research on textbooks. Today, English occupies a place of choice all over the world. This choice place values English to be referred to as global language, the world lingua franca (Montgomery, 2013: 25; Holliday, 2009: 21). Such a choice place is explained by the fact that English is taught in more than 100 countries worldwide (Crystal, 2003: 5) and on the other hand side, its use by a huge number of people. In support to the great number of English speakers, some source shows that out of 4,000 to 5,000 actively used languages, English is the most widely used with a number of 300 million worldwide native speakers together with 250 million of people who use it within daily life among a wide range of second language speakers (Broughton, Brumfit, Flavell, Hill, & Pincas, 2003: 1) while others rate English native speakers to a number of 378 million (Ethnologue, 21st edition). Reading the statistics of both native and non-native speakers of English, one understands that English occupies a very important place over other languages. Such a wide use means that English embraces nearly all domains of life and profession, amongst science, communication, economics, technology, culture, access to international business and employment (Montgomery, 2013: 26; Crystal, 2003: 7; Kachru 1990 & Hamid 2009 cited by Trang, Baldauf, & Moni, 2013: 711). Considering technology for example, it is said that “more than 60 per cent of the world’s radio

programs are broadcasted in English while it is also the language of 70 per cent of the world's mail" (Broughton, Brumfit, Flavell, Hill, & Pincas, 2003: 1).

From the statement that English is taught within more than one hundred countries, curiosity about its teaching arises. In this perspective, a look must be put as well on the textbooks in use since, serving as primary source for the teaching and learning process. The books dictate paths to tread even though they should not be considered as the "master for teachers and learners" (Cunningsworth, 1995: 7). In such a case, there is therefore need to analyze the existing textbooks for the sake of checking whether they effectively facilitate teachers attain the teaching objectives and on the other hand for the sake of developing new textbooks (Lawrence, 2011: 9; Lee, 2013: 69).

Analyzing existing textbooks implies some advantages for the users in that textbooks cannot encompass all what teachers need; thereof, the analysis of textbooks is so important to lessen the shock they might cause. It is, for example, through the analysis of existing textbooks that the possible inappropriateness of textbooks that de-skills teachers and tires out students may be addressed (Charalambous, 2011: 4). The aim is to come to a rational selection of textbooks that do neither harm teaching and learning nor contribute to financial waste (Lawrence, 2011: 9). Also it has been shown that the choice that is made for language teaching materials is determinant for the quality of the teaching-learning process (Mukundan, Nimehchisalem, & Hajimohammadi, 2011: 100). In the literature developed in this paragraph, the teaching and learning of English is doomed to fail if careful selection of

textbooks is not done and cognitive activation by complex tasks is not given particular attention.

1.1.3 At the level of personal context: effects of first steps towards CACT

From the Congolese context linked to literature described in this chapter, it comes out that there may be a gap concerning cognitive activation by complex tasks within the textbooks used for teaching and learning of English language in DRC. However, something is already done in attempt to addressing this gap. That is why, in this framework, I am trying to show how the first steps taken in the field have started to modify the point of departure. Here, I mean that the training I held for the benefit of teachers of English in Bukavu on CACT constitutes a launching point in the implementation of complex tasks in this domain. This training is connected to EfA in the way that during the training workshop, tasks in the textbook were serving as reference for criticism and analysis regarding the characteristics of complex tasks. So doing, teachers became aware of some deficiencies embedded in EfA and discussed actions to take accordingly.

Briefly, this book elaborates on the problem connected to “English for Africa” regarding quality teaching with peculiarity on complex tasks, as one of the indicators of teaching quality (other indicators, see chapter 2). The investigation therefore tries to understand the connectedness between the available tasks in EfA and the cognitively activating complex tasks. In this sense, research questions need to be asked so to guide the study and the section below highlights such questions.

1.2 Research question

Considering the facts described in point 1.1 above and the concept of cognitively activating complex tasks within English textbooks on which this book is founded, this study discusses one main question: What is the understanding of complex tasks by English for Africa? To allow the achievement of the objectives pursued by this study, sub-research-questions have been devised. The first relates to task types: What type of tasks are described in English for Africa? Focusing on task indicators, the second sub-question is formulated as: Which indicators and/or verifiers of complex tasks are reflected in the tasks available in English for Africa?

1.3 Structure of the book

This book is compiled and written to provide the reflection of complex tasks within EfA. For that, six chapters apart from the list of references are developed. The first chapter, introduction, circumscribes the context of the topic by presenting the problem behind. It also discusses the research questions before elaborating the present structure of the book. The forthcoming chapter (chapter two) tackles the state of research. It describes the current state of research; it means that it reviews the existing relevant literature on cognitive activation by complex tasks and its connection to the teaching and learning of English. Chapter three describes the method and approach used for data collection and those used for the analysis and discussion of findings. Chapter four elaborates on findings. It provides the description of the data and the summary of the findings in relation to the research question. The fifth chapter discusses the findings. The discussion is done in

linking the research findings to the literature described in chapter two. The last chapter on conclusion summarizes the results and answers the research question that triggered this study. From that framework, recommendations for concrete practice are formulated and perspectives for further research are suggested. The book closes with a list of references and an appendix of first, the instrument used for data analysis and second, the copy of the texts that are analyzed.

2.

STATE OF RESEARCH

The present book investigates complex tasks in the textbooks (called “English for Africa”, EfA) used for the teaching and the learning of English in secondary schools in the Democratic Republic of the Congo. The study relates to the problem of non-reflection of complex tasks that may be discovered within EfA. It is my wish that this investigation will contribute to the discourse and fill in the exiting gap on EfA in regard to quality education. The review of literature provides scientific discourse that will help to answer the question related to the understanding of complex tasks by “English for Africa”. To answer this question, it is important that clarifications be provided on the type of tasks that are described in “English for Africa”. In so doing, I will try to find out the indicators and/or verifiers of complex tasks that are reflected in the tasks available in “English for Africa”

The previous chapter has contextualized the study and has elaborated the problem that led to the research question. The present chapter reviews the existing literature on complex tasks in relation to cognitive activation and the teaching and learning of English. In the elaboration of this chapter, four points are developed. Firstly, the discourse about complex tasks (CT) and cognitive activation is reviewed. The former (CT) is defined and its related characteristics are described. Recognizing that there is relation between CT and competences, it is then important that the theory of competency-based teaching be addressed

in this section before cognitive load theory is examined. Secondly, discourse about the teaching and learning of English as second (TESL) and as foreign language (TEFL) is reviewed. Here, in addition to considering the two options, that is, English as second language (ESL) and English as foreign language (EFL), the focus will be on English as foreign language in DRC. The third position deals with complex tasks and the teaching and learning of English. This leads to the reflection of the feasibility of embedding CT in the English language teaching (ELT) and to checking how CT are lined to textbooks. Given that this study targets textbooks and considering that the latter play different roles within the teaching-learning process, the last section therefore tackles the analysis and evaluation of textbooks in a general view.

2.1 Complex Tasks and Cognitive Activation

In this sub-chapter, complex tasks are first introduced. To facilitate the understanding of what is meant by CT, the importance they play in the learning process is scrutinized. In addition to this, characteristics of CT are given so to disentangle them from other types of tasks. As complex tasks enhance learners' competences, it should be shown therefore how such a type of tasks are related to competence-based teaching. Accordingly, since CT requires cognition of learners, cognitive load theory is also introduced and discussed.

2.1.1 Complex Tasks: Understanding and Characteristics

In this section, I intend to give the meaning and characteristics of complex tasks to help the readers understand what a complex task is and how it is different

from simple (entailing elementary levels of competences) and/or complicated tasks. A complex task is a key factor in the teaching-learning process (Kirschner, Paas, & Kirschner, 2009: 39). It is interweaved with cognitive activation by complex tasks (CACT) that is one of the six criteria of teaching quality. This means that, for teaching to be considered of quality, six criteria must be taken into account and they are (1) efficient classroom management, (2) clarity in subject knowledge and structure, (3) high cognitive activation by complex tasks, (4) good learning climate, (5) efficient forms of repetition and (6) individual support. Pedagogically, this implies that teaching must involve efficient classroom management. Efficient classroom management is proved to have a lot of impact on learners' achievement (George, Sakirudeen, & Sunday, 2017: 54). But it demands that teachers are empowered in planning, organizing and controlling learners for the sake of setting for their disposal a setting conducive for learning (Doyle, 1986: 396). Additionally, teachers must reflect the clarity in subject knowledge and structure, resort to high cognitive activation by complex tasks within the teaching-learning process by implementing a good learning climate.

It is also important that in their everyday work, teachers use efficient forms of repetition and couple them with individual support. The use of these criteria enhances learners' achievement thanks to the intermediate of teachers who crucially constitute the most influential figure in the teaching and learning process (Hattie, 2003: 1-2; Fullan, 1994: 115; El Warfali & Yusoff, 2014: 1; UNESCO, 2014: 233). Among the six criteria, cognitive activation by complex tasks needs particular attention regarding the attributes it implies, one of which the activation of learners that leads

to development of competences thanks to presence and handling of a variety of tasks (Kember & McNaught, 2007: 43). Such an activation of learners requires the use of complex tasks. These are referred to through different terms, including teaching/pedagogical tasks (Ellis, 2003: 16; Nunan, 2004: 4; Robinson & Gilabert, 2007: 162), challenging tasks (Hattie, 2012: 24), demanding tasks (Tajudin & Chinnappan, 2016: 200). A complex task is defined as an activity that, turning around real world, focuses on meaning and involves a communication-related problem to solve (Skehan, 1998: 95). With real world, it is meant that the task must be centered on life realities of learners (Robinson, 2005: 2; Al-Mashaqba, 2017: 44). Yet, the aim of such a task is learning outcome (Skehan, 1998: 95; Hosseini & Rahbar, 2012: 254).

Complex tasks are also known as sets of activities or problems whose handling requires “integrated use of both controlled (conscious, conceptual) and automated (unconscious, procedural or strategic) knowledge...” (van Merriënboer, Clack, & de Croock, 2002: 51). Similarly, Ellis suggests that the following criteria define a complex task: “(1) the primary focus should be on ‘meaning’ (learners should be mainly concerned with processing the semantic and pragmatic meaning of utterances); (2) there should be some kind of ‘gap’ (i.e. a need to convey information, to express an opinion or to infer meaning); (3) learners should largely have to rely on their own resources (linguistic and non-linguistic) in order to complete the activity; and (4) there is a clearly defined outcome other than the use of language (i.e. the language serves as the means for achieving the outcome, not as an end in its own right)” (Ellis, 2003: 4–5). In line with the fourth

element it is believed that complex tasks are important that they foster learners' creativity since there is no ready-made answer (Lawrence, 2011: 31). Whilst struggling for outcome (Byström & Järvelin, 1995: 196; Nunan, 2004: 3), the implementation of complex tasks requires autonomous learning, as learners must be fully actively involved in all the processes of learning (Nunan, 2004: 5). In spite that complex tasks entail "apriori determinability" and "the number of alternative paths of task performance" (Byström & Järvelin, 1995: 195), they urge reasoning (Robinson & Gilabert, 2007: 166) which leads to the outcome envisaged. In regard to what is stated and discussed above, complex tasks will be considered in the present study as teaching-learning activities that are based on problem-related issues, implying real-life situations and requiring learners' deep reflection and critical thinking. Being different from and beyond yes/no-questions (including short questions), complex tasks imply the use of cognition and lead to a variety of solutions to the problem set.

It is worth mentioning here that tasks are said to be complex on the basis of characteristics, including "repetitiveness, analyzability, apriori determinability, the number of alternative paths of task performance, outcome novelty, number of goals and conflicting dependencies among them, uncertainties between performance and goals, number of inputs, cognitive and skill requirements, as well as the time-varying conditions of task performance" (Byström & Järvelin, 1995:195). Empirical research emphasizes on the characteristics of complex tasks which call for availability and variety of tasks (Kember & McNaught, 2007:43). Also, being problem-solving (Marzano, 2007: 92), complex tasks must foster interaction through active

methods (Marzano, 2007:31, 82; Hattie 2012:127) that result into active learners (Kember & McNaught 2007: 43). In addition, CT push to practice (Rosenshine, 2002:181; Anderson, Reder, & Simon, 1995:7) and reflect students' real life (Al-Mashaqba, 2017:44; Robinson, 2005:2). In addition, complex tasks are referred to as means of autonomous learning (Hattie 2012, p. 88,197). This entails therefore a responsible work (OECD, 2013: 112; UNESCO, 2013:8). Furthermore, complex tasks are said to be connected to different domains (Helsdingen, van Gog, & van Merriënboer, 2011:385; Ronen & Langley, 2004:40) and this gives room for enhancement of students' reflection/critical thinking (Hattie, 2012:4). All the different characteristics of CT discussed here portray the differences that may exist between CT and other types of tasks. In other words, complex tasks bear certain features which distinguish such tasks from other kinds of tasks. It is known that complex tasks (1) draw in learners' prior knowledge though challenging the latter, (2) can instigate class discussion when the teacher is reserved in assessing learners' answers as 'right or wrong', (3) if regularly implemented in the teaching-learning process trivialize cognitively challenging problems by turning them into tasks of routine and (4) require the matching between the topics and the materials (Baumert et al., 2010:145).

The pedagogical implication of a complex task is the enhancement of learners' competences which are translated into problem-solving (Marzano, 2007:92). Furthermore, complex tasks imply complex learning that pursues the integration and coordination of skills which relate to life and work patterns (van Merriënboer & Sweller, 2005: 155-156). The said-complex learning tasks entail

another advantage, one thanks to which learners process many things at the same time (p.156), and with this, there is production of a diverse set of solutions (Gibbons & Cobb, 2012:24). To reach this extent of CT linked to diversified solutions, there is need to shift the teaching paradigm to a type of teaching and learning approaches that enable learners develop technological literacy, critical thinking, problem solving and lifelong learning (Abdallah & Mohammad, 2016:3-4). In the following section, CT are confronted to competency-based teaching to see how the two concur to learners' competences.

2.1.2 Complex tasks: Connection to Competency-based Teaching

Task complexity and competency-based teaching (CBT) have been investigated through several empirical studies. To show how CT and CBT enable students grow competences, I review in this section, literature on CBT before discussing and showing that CT are activators for CBT. The views collected for these two aspects push, at the end, to confront both in a concluding paragraph.

a) Competency-based Teaching

It is necessary to discuss the meaning of competence and competency-based teaching before thoroughly reflecting on the latter.

Many definitions have been attributed to the term competence. According to Mulder, Weigel and Collins (2006:81), competence is known as the capability to perform; to use the knowledge, skills and attitudes that are integrated in the professional repertoire of the individual. In the same way, competence (less frequent competency)

is a skill that you need in a particular job or for a particular task (Hornby, 2010: 293). For Guthrie (2009), “competence can be conceptualized in two broad ways. One takes a view that competence is a personal construct, while the other grounds competence in the context of an occupation and even a workplace. It suggests that a balance needs to be struck between these two constructs” (p.3).

According to van Klink and Boon, it must be noted that competence is sometimes related to as a ‘fuzzy concept’. It is in this sense that when describing competence as a “fuzzy concept”, that competence is acknowledged as a “useful term, bridging the gap between education and job requirements” (van Klink & Boon, 2003: 130). In the same range of ideas, “competence is therefore a ‘fuzzy’ term and the fuzziness reflects the conflation of distinct concepts and usages. If nothing else – it is competence-based teaching (CBT) that tries to bridge the gap between education and job requirements. But descriptions of competences may fail to adequately reflect the complexity of ‘competence’ in work performance” (Guthrie, 2009: 18). In reference to the above literature, competence is understood in this study as the ability that a student must get for the sake of, not only fitting for job requirements but also for overcoming life problems.

CBT is understood as “a method of educational delivery in which students advance by demonstrating their mastery of skill and knowledge outcomes at an individual pace through engaging in activities and experiences that align with clearly defined unit, course, and program outcomes” (Cummins & Floten, 2016:141). In defining CBT, it is said that what counts is the learning process itself - not time as the dimension of immediacy puts it (Zare-ee, 2012:

239). This couples with the idea that what counts for the students is not the time they have taken for a given course but rather the mastery of the knowledge and the skills (known as competencies) they come up with. It means that if one is interested in competency-based teaching, one would not mind about time but mind about competences learners develop because time may be over while the student has not yet acquired the needed skills to meet their expectations. This means that competency is not dependent to limited timing; in fact most educational institutions and universities hold time requirements constant and let learning vary (Oyugi, 2015:75).

Given the definitions allotted to the expression competency-based teaching, it can be hypothesized that its importance is paramount. This importance is visible as teaching that stresses job-related competences results in necessary specific skills which are an important dimension of the learning (Christman, 2012:26). In the same range of ideas, “competency-based education can improve quality and consistency, reduce costs, shorten the time required to graduate, and provide true measures of student learning if implemented effectively” (Oyugi, 2015:75). Oyugi (*ibid.*) goes on emphasizing the fact that effective competency-based education must “(1) measure student learning rather than time.

Here, students progress by demonstrating their competence, which means they must prove that they have mastered the knowledge and skills rather than completing series of courses per given time; (2) harness the power of technology for teaching and learning. The idea is that computer-mediated instruction gives us the ability to individualize learning for each student. Because each

student learns at a different pace and comes to college knowing different things, this is a fundamental requirement of competency-based education; (3) fundamentally change the faculty role. When faculty serve as lecturers, holding scheduled classes for a prescribed number of weeks, the instruction takes place at the lecturers' pace. For most students, this will be the wrong pace. Some will need to go more slowly; others will be able to move much faster. Competency-based learning shifts the role of the faculty from that of "a learned on the stage to a sage on the side. Faculty members work with students, guiding learning, answering questions, leading discussions, and helping students synthesize and apply knowledge and (4) define competencies and develop valid, reliable assessments. The fundamental premise of competency-based education is that we define what students should know and be able to do, and they graduate when they have demonstrated their competency. This means that we have to define the competences very clearly". It is argued in this framework that the role of competence based education is "to equip students with knowledge, skills and professional attitudes which they can and learn to apply in authentic workplace contexts" (Mulder, Eppink, & Akkermans, 2011:4).

Reflection on CBT leads to think about its strengths. In bringing responses to the questioning of strengths, science shows that competency-based approach is that bridges the gap that exists between what is done out of the classroom (in the workplace) and what is done in the teaching and learning environment. Merging the two helps to understand that CBT is an efficient way to equip the learner with the skills they need to perform targeted jobs and to solve life-related problems (Hutton, 2009: 21).

Talking about the importance of CBT, it is needed to know what students learn, how they learn and how they proceed from task to task. This must be compared to the traditional way of teaching and/or learning. In such regard, a look may be put at the ideas of Blank William focusing only on what students learn by distinguishing basic characteristics between competency-based and traditional training programs. For the former (competency-based program), what students learn is based “solely” on specific, precisely stated student outcomes (usually called competencies) that have been recently verified as being essential for successful employment in the occupation for which the student is being trained. These competencies are made available to all students and they exactly describe what the student will be able to do upon completing the training program. For the latter (traditional training program), however, what students learn is usually based on textbooks, reference material, course outlines or other sources removed from the occupation itself. Students rarely know exactly what they will learn in each successive part of the program. The program is usually built around chapters, units, blocks, and other segments that have little meaning within the occupation-instructions wherein the focus is ‘covering material’ (Blank, 1994:34).

In sum, competency-based teaching contributes to the promotion of an education of quality as it helps students develop necessary competences that enable them to meet job requirements and solve life problems. This is the goal that quality education pursues. The following point highlights CT as activators and triggers of competences.

b) Complex Tasks as Key Factor for Competences Enhancement

In this section, discussion is made on how complex tasks are portrayed as activators; they are therefore considered as a key for the development of competences. To start with, it is worth recalling that complex tasks bear certain features on the basis of which they can be distinguished from other kinds of tasks. It is known that complex tasks (1) draw in learners' prior knowledge by challenging him and (2) can instigate class discussion when the teacher is reserved in assessing learners' answers as "right or wrong" (Baumert, Kunter, Blum, Brunner, Voss, Jordan, & Tsai, 2010: 145). Baumert et al. (*ibid.*) go on asserting that (3) if complex tasks are regularly implemented in the teaching-learning process, they trivialize cognitively challenging problems by turning them into tasks of routine and (4) they require the matching between the topics and the materials. Analyzing these four features, we can come up with a summary of two competences that learners are susceptible to develop; these competences are successively figuring out critical thinking and problem-solving skills.

With CT, learners are exposed to real-life situations. But such situations require knowledge related to different domains (Helsdingen, van Gog, & van Merriënboer, 2011: 385). The meaning here is that real life implies life connected to profession, community, fellowship, culture, politics, studentship; briefly a type of life that entails a holistic dimension. Emphasizing the idea mentioned above compels us to acknowledge that complex tasks are challenging and involve a diversity of knowledge that appeal to different levels of competences (Merrill, 2006; Ronen & Langley, 2004). The present argument portrays

complex tasks as multi-dimensional working tasks whose address and solution must be carried out using different ways; that means that there is no single way but rather different paths to address CT-based problems. In this sense, it is argued that when involved in CT, students (alone or with colleagues) engage in the cognitive processing activities of organizing, reviewing, rehearsing, summarizing, comparing, and contrasting (Rosenshine, 2002:7).

Aligning with the New South Wales Department of Education and Training, different levels of competences are split in three aspects, namely the intellectual quality learners develop, the relevance to every-day life and the promotion of learning environment (New South Wales Department of Education and Training, 2003: 5). By learning environment, the New South Wales Department of Education means engagement and self-regulation. The intellectual quality means deep knowledge and understanding, high order thinking, problematic knowledge, meta language, and substantive communication. Relevance to every-day life however involves knowledge background, cultural knowledge, knowledge integration, connectedness with knowledge from other domains, autonomy and responsibility.

Literature surveyed in this section helps to understand that the recourse to complex tasks during teaching develops competences within learners. In this perspective, it is necessary that knowledge is first acquired before competences are fostered through complex tasks. The idea for knowledge acquisition in advance is justified by the fact that it is not possible for students to develop competences if they lack factual knowledge (Ananiadou &

Claro, 2009:6). In support to this idea, literature states that learning based on tasks must be done “from the simple and brief exercise type, to more complex and lengthy activities such as group problem-solving or simulations and decision-making” (Hosseini & Rahbar, 2012:254).

Trying to confront competency-based teaching and complex tasks, it is important to say here that the application of complex tasks involves a competency-based teaching. Yet, competency-based teaching is undoubtedly of paramount relevance given the possibility it gives learners to develop competences they need for both life and work. Science supports this argument acknowledging the efficiency of competency-based approach in equipping learners with needed skills to perform work (Hutton, 2009:21).

Another necessary element to be mentioned is that teachers should accompany learners in developing competences they are required to. This cannot be done anyhow but rather teachers need to think, reflect and then select teaching materials and provide instructions accordingly (Patel & Jain, 2008:57). In brief, it can be said that complex tasks work hand in hand with competences since competence-based teaching is possible only when learners work on tasks which cognitively activate them. This means that learners develop competences they are meant to develop thanks to the provision of cognitively activating tasks; to mean tasks demanding reflection during the learning process, reflecting learners’ life situations, addressing different levels of competences, enabling learners to resort to prerequisite knowledge and providing them with possibility not to miss work/task to deal with. Reading the arguments developed in the preceding sections (2.1.1 & 2.1.2), one understands that

complex tasks impels cognition of students' brain, without which target competences are likely susceptible not to be developed. This arises therefore a question to know how learners' brain can be cognitively activated. As "high cognitive load is a key characteristic of complex tasks" (van Merriënboer, Kester, & Paas, 2006:343), response to such a question is provided by cognitive load theory discussed in 2.1.3 below.

2.1.3 The cognitive load theory as foundation of complex tasks

The Cognitive Load Theory (CLT) is restricted, in the context of this book, to the framework of teaching and it refers to cognitive activation of the brain. While cognition is the process by which knowledge and understanding are developed in the mind, cognitive relates to the mental processes of understanding (Hornby, 2010:274). The idea of CLT evokes questions and curiosity how the human brain can be devised to deal with day-to-day situations. To better grasp the idea of brain cognition, research shows that human brain must be stimulated. The reason for such a stimulation/activation is that it is the brain's dynamic feature that helps it to generate new hypotheses; otherwise it remains "underdeveloped" or simply "atrophied" (Roggers & Horrocks, 2010:99). The statement of Roggers and Horrocks highlights that it is important to activate learners' brain because "the brain is not a 'hard-wired' engine already designed and unchangeable, simply functioning" (p.9) but requires enlivenment and this is possible through learners' efforts (p. 140). Complex tasks do trigger brain stimulation. Such tasks are transferred through cognitive load and learning. This type of learning evokes multidimensional levels; that

is, learning a number of things at a time. Emphasizing such a type of learning, one understands that “cognitive load theory is concerned with the learning of complex cognitive tasks, in which learners are often overwhelmed by the number of interactive information elements that need to be processed simultaneously before meaningful learning can commence” (Kirschner, Paas, & Kirschner, 2009:41).

CLT recommends the use of brain for and by complex tasks and that leads to deeper processing of the information and pledge of development of competences (Kirschner, Paas, & Kirschner, 2009:33). To better understand this idea, there is necessity to thoroughly scrutinize CLT. A 2006 study by van Merriënboer, Kester and Paas attempted to reveal the components of CLT. The results of this study make it to be considered as the monument of that concern; and they state that CLT distinguishes between three types of cognitive load which are extraneous, intrinsic and germane cognitive load (van Merriënboer, Kester, & Paas, 2006:343). Trying to deepen, with van Merriënboer, Kester and Paas, the understanding of the difference existing between the three types of cognitive load, it is found out that when we owe to bad design of tasks, extraneous load is not necessary for learning. Understanding that “intrinsic load is determined by the interaction between the nature of the learning tasks and the expertise of the learner”, implies a condition for intrinsic load to enhance learning that enables to testify to the skills of the learner and his/her expertise of dealing with element interactivity in the tasks. In contrast, germane load is the load that automatically leads to learners’ performance (van Merriënboer, Kester, & Paas, 2006: 343-344). Analyzing these three types of CLT, two things may capture one’s attention. On one hand, complex tasks must

decrease extraneous and optimize germane load and on the other side, the element interactivity of learning tasks must be limited earlier in order to decrease their intrinsic load. With this, germane load induces methods that might be used right from the start of the training program (p. 344). As said, for germane load to permit teachers achieve objectives, inductive methods, namely practice variability (complex tasks are varied and practiced throughout) and guidance and feedback (lead learners in how to cope with the task and provide feedback) are needed (p. 344,345). While applying the three types, teachers should be aware that CLT is processed at two dimensions, which are “task-based dimension” (mental load) and “learner-based dimension” (mental effort). The application of the two dimensions allows competence development in the sense that to perform a task, learners need to use their effort that pertains through element interactivity (Sweller, van Merriënboer, & Paas, 1998: 266). It is worth mentioning that an element is, in this particular context, anything that needs to be learned, and its relationship with complexity of tasks can be elaborated as one of the indicators of high cognitive activation by complex tasks is to address different levels of competences. Literature supports that element interactivity dictates the number of elements to be processed simultaneously when learners are working on tasks (Sweller, van Merriënboer, & Paas, 1998:259). Also, interactivity relating to complex tasks leads inevitably to efficient learning (van Merriënboer, Kester, & Paas, 2006: 344). Drawing on CTL and CT and alluding to the process of teaching and learning, to enable the acquisition of competences teachers have to serve only as guides and leave students work since learners learn and develop

skills by creating meaning for themselves through learning activities/tasks (Biggs, 2003:13). In guiding students, teachers need to provide feedback that enables students keep the track. In support to the idea of feedback, empirical findings show that the purpose of feedback is to drive students towards goals (Hattie & Timperley, 2007:87). However, to enhance students' performance, feedback should not be provided for all the tasks (van Merriënboer, Kester, & Paas, 2006:345); it must be bound only to accurate time and to a place convenient to the learner (Brookhart, 2008:47).

Regarding scientific arguments made about CLT, it can be drawn that complex tasks constitute a key tool for CLT. So, for competences to be developed, learners have to be activated using complex tasks. But it must be noted that students should be able to handle the tasks, as their complexity is effective only from task performance (Sanayee & Rezaei, 2015:61). The next sub-chapter tackles the teaching and learning of English as a second and foreign language.

2.2 The teaching and learning of English as second and foreign language

In the present sub-chapter, two sections are developed. First, English as a second language (ESL) and English as foreign language (EFL). The teaching and learning of English as second and foreign language are dealt within empirical findings that have been reviewed in relation to the required and the expected competences. In the second section, the case of English as foreign language in DRC, considered as EFL, is thoroughly brought into illustration.

2.2.1 English as second and/or foreign language

The worldwide use of English as second or foreign language is attributable to its expansion to almost all the corners of the earth (Sonntag, 2003:xi) and is signified by its availability and visibility in public environment (Kasanga, 2012:48). English has a vast field of application since it is the language people use in interacting with the world. Such an interaction involves drawing the national and international attention, and this promotes the idea that the world is just a village (Meyrowitz, 2001:96).

That is why English is said to be the world most useful language (Hook, 2002:35) and that life without knowledge of English is devoted to failure (p.36). This phenomenon appeals the learning of English for people who wish to fit the world. In order to fit and meet the requirements, the teaching of English either as second or foreign language must be driven. Indeed, the teaching of English has a long history. Concerning its teaching, English appears to be the mostly taught language all over the world. Being learnt in schools, it is taught in more than 100 countries worldwide (Crystal, 2003:5). The objective of teaching English is attributable to the importance of English that nobody is supposed to ignore since it is a global language (Martin, 2007:171). From that perspective, English intervenes in all the domains of life like in science, communication, economics, technology, culture, access to international business and even all the other opportunities (like employment) it brings in (Crystal, 2003:7; Trang, Baldauf, & Moni, 2013:711). English as any other subject requires possession of competences by its learners. In this range of ideas, it is worth to mention that there are so many goals assigned to the teaching-learning of English and

these goals push to think about the competences learners of English have to develop at primary scale. As language competence is a complex phenomenon, competence is understood in this book as the ability that language learners must possess in order to deal with language for a utilitarian use. Language competences include but not exhaustively, reading, understanding, writing and speaking together with sub-skills (Patel & Jain, 2008:57).

However, it cannot be said that a language student who already possesses these four skills is now competent in that language given that language is more than that. In line to this, Widdowson argued that “it is not very satisfactory to speak of the aims of a language course in terms of the ability to speak, understand, write and read the words and structures of a language but in the possibility of using language for communicative purposes” (Widdowson, 1978:15). Given that the teaching of English should be based on skills since they constitute the objectives why English must be taught and learned, teachers should help students to acquire the necessary competences. This requires teachers to select appropriate materials and provide instructions accordingly (Patel & Jain, 2008:57) so to empower students develop the required communicative competence. The necessity to learn English accounts for many goals among which the communicative competence occupies the first place and place of choice (Meristiani, 2011:41).

Communication plays a very important role when it comes to think about preparing students for not only lifelong issues but also preparing them to become full members of the community (Ananiadou & Claro, 2009:10). This aligns with the 21st century skills whose advocates insist on a type of

education that responds to the social and economic needs of learners and of the whole society (p.6). Ananiadou and Claro (2009) go on arguing that “young people should be able to communicate some exchange, criticize, and present information and ideas, through the aid of ICT” (p.10). In addition, language learning helps learners develop the sense to communicate among themselves on one hand and be able to communicate their ideas in social situation on the other hand. It also helps even in the development of critical thinking (Al-Mashaqba, 2017:41); hence the importance of English language learning.

Furthermore, it can be noted that English being learned as second (English is taught to students in a country where it is not the primary language) or foreign (refers to teaching the English language to students with different first languages) language, it involves some importance. For this, it is said that English promotes intercultural understanding, serves as an economical stabilizer given that speaking English is a very important tool which grants its speaker a credit to get jobs with good income (Broughton, Brumfit, Flavell, Hill, & Pincas, 2003: 190, 194; McAllister, Nancy-Combes, & Starkey-Perret, 2012:331-332). English serves as a peacebuilding tool in the way that the more educated people are, the more tolerant they become (Amy, 2017: 26-27). With intercultural understanding, a language learner develops intercultural competence as there is a situated and emergent relationship between language and culture owing that such a competence is gained through intercultural communication, which, in turn, is due to language education (Baker, 2015:9,17). In corroborating communication competence, Finney (2002) says that “language is communication, and as teachers we must

develop in our learners the ability to communicate effectively in a wide range of professional and social contexts” (p. 69). Attainment of such language competences is possible with a consideration of the language as means in content learning rather than as subject. Therefore, there is a need for shifting the perception attributed to second and/or foreign language learning (Vázquez & Ellison, 2018:67). To investigating competences to be developed by learners of English needs to look at the textbooks being used. The rationale is that textbooks play an important role in foreign language learning. As mentioned, textbooks should go along with the national curriculum and consider the expectations and needs of both teachers and learners in order to facilitate the teaching-learning process (Al Harbi, 2017:28).

In reference to what research states in this point (2.1), it is understood that the teaching-learning process of a language like English impels good training on the part of teachers so as to enhance their students’ competences (Broughton, Brumfit, Flavell, Hill, & Pincas, 2003: 37). Good training is a must because if teachers do not possess such a training, there is much probability of learners not to meet their needs. This argument can be asserted by the fact that teachers have a lot of impact on students’ learning. In fact, teachers play a determinant role in bringing students to learn (Hattie, 2012; Gauthier, Dembélé, Bossonnette, & Richard, 2004). Research has also shown that it is teachers’ duty to help students develop the possible competences once they are embarked on the learning of English. Also, teachers have the responsibility to assess the textbooks put at their disposal in order to make any suggestion for things that could be improved (Nunan, 2004:

15). This is a result of thorough analysis that teachers do for the textbooks they implement because they do not only use textbooks but also think critically about efficacy and efficiency of these textbooks.

The above literature shows that the teaching and learning of English requests learners to develop competences. The following section surveys the situation of these requirements in the process of learning English in DRC.

2.2.2 English as a foreign language: the case of DRC

English is used as a foreign language in the Democratic Republic of the Congo. To understand the situation of English in DRC, I present the linguistic context of DRC before shedding light on the status it holds in this country.

a) Congolese linguistic context

The understanding of English in the Democratic Republic of the Congo must be underpinned by the Congolese linguistic situation. In DRC French is used almost in all domains, including in administration, education, mass media, the judiciary and sometimes even religion (particularly for sermons in big cities). The Congolese linguistic context is also marked by the presence and use of four major vernacular languages (Kiswahili, Lingala, Tshiluba and Kikongo) known as national languages and used across the different corners of the country. In addition, there are more than two hundred local languages (Kasanga, 2012: 49). Despite the high position in the administration, French is in running competition with this range of national and local languages regarding their use in local business, in low primary classes and in religious matters (in suburbs and villages). Such a Congolese complex 'macro-

sociolinguistic' context leaves very little room for the use of English (Kasanga, 2012:49) and yet English is taught and learnt as a foreign language. Though not featured on the worldwide English map, DRC, as most of African countries, is not indifferent to English. Manifestations of English may be explained by the effort to make English resonates across the country. Siding with Kasanga (2012), this can be exemplified by high visibility of English mainly linked to advertising. Another aspect of the DRC's working towards English is multidimensional (p.48). For example, with the arrival of the United Nations Organization Mission in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (MONUC, acronym in French) rising from the Lusaka Ceasefire Agreement in 1999 (later, United Nations Organization Stabilization Mission in the Democratic Republic of the Congo: MONUSCO) rose interest in English that translated into a surging proliferation of teaching centers.

The mass enrolments to these centers were undoubtedly moved by job-related motivation towards such a UN agency in the country. Also, advocacies for bilingualism (French-English) should be mentioned here. Such advocacies were initiated in 1997 by the termination of the regime of Mobutu and increased with the coming to power of the late Laurent-Desiré Kabila, a President speaking English. It was expected from him that English aligning with the idea of bilingualism would be boosted, something that never materialized (Bobda, 2006:84).

b) The status of English in DRC

In DRC, English is taught and learnt as a foreign language. It is introduced at the level of secondary school, precisely from grade three (see chapter one). The teaching and

learning of English in Congolese schools is pertinently geared by some goals. Accordingly, the Congolese Ministry of Education assigns the teaching of English the ability to enable students to be able to understand, speak, read and write the English language before informing them about the culture and civilization of English-speaking countries (EPSP, 2017: 3). There is however disparity among the four dimensions of the goals set by the ministry and this disparity can be well read through the following table-representation.

	Vocabulary to acquire	Skills		
		Understanding & Speaking	Reading	Writing
3 rd form (1 st English)	500 words	80%	15%	5%
4 th form (2 nd English)	1000 words	70%	20%	10%
5 th form (3 rd English)	1500 words	60%	25%	15%
6 th form (4 th English)	2000 words	50%	25%	25%

Source: EPSP (2007: 4)

Looking at the above table, it is seen that emphasis is put on the understanding and speaking skills though their development does not justify the language competences. With the emphasis on the two dimensions (speaking and understanding), learners, as consequence, may therefore neglect reading and writing forgetting that they are also part of the competences they have to develop. Implications of such a deal with “English for Africa” will possible fail in achieving the goal that has been set. The failure is attributable to the textbooks that are entirely rooted in the curriculum. The talk of failure of a textbook is justified by research saying that textbooks can help students to succeed or to fail (Ghufron & Saleh, 2016:3). That is why textbooks should display tasks that foster those competences. One example of the type of tasks referred

to here is a complex task that entails real-life situations thanks to which learners come up with competences for professional and/or daily life (van Merriënboer, Kester, & Paas, 2006:343). The following section deals with cognitive activation by complex tasks and the teaching and learning of English.

2.3 Complex tasks and the English language teaching and learning

The teaching and learning of second and/or foreign language involves the use of complex tasks (Zare-ee, 2012:226). From this perspective, there is a need to understand how CT are related to the English language teaching. This is what the present sub-chapter deals with by reflecting on the possibility to implement complex tasks in English language teaching. ELT is conducted through teaching materials like textbooks. In this sense, talking about CT and ELT demands not to isolate the framework of textbook. Therefore complex tasks and English textbooks are tackled.

2.3.1 Implementing complex tasks in the teaching-learning of English

Complex tasks go hand in hand with competences since competence-based teaching is possible only when learners work on tasks; which tasks active learners. The tasks talked about at this point are the ones demanding reflection during the learning process, reflecting learners' life situations, addressing different levels of competences, enabling learners to resort to other knowledge (see 2.1.1) and providing them with the possibility to have tasks to do because continuum is important while working with task complexity (Skehan, 1998: 184). In this section, we

are going to question what research states about the applicability of complex tasks in the teaching and learning of English.

Referring to tasks handling within ELT, certain challenges are encountered amongst teacher-centeredness (instead of learner-centered approach) whereby the teacher is considered as the only one who knows, and learners are empty vessels to fill. Other challenges include the educational systems, which are knowledge-based rather than competency-based, the non-understanding of what a task is by teachers and the learners' language low proficiency. There are, however, ways to overcome such problems and embark in a teaching triggered using complex tasks. In his study *Task-based language teaching (hence TBLT): sorting out the misunderstandings* (italics in the original), Ellis refers to principles that have to guide any teaching that is or has to be based on complex tasks. According to these principles, it is expressed that (1) the tasks must be tailored to the proficiency levels of the students (e.g. if the students have limited proficiency, tasks should initially be of the input providing rather than output-prompting kind), (2) tasks need to be tested to ensure that they result in appropriate second language use and revised in the light of experience, (3) for TBLT to work, teachers need a clear understanding of what a task is, (4) teachers and students need to be made aware of the purpose and rationale of performing tasks (e.g. they need to understand that tasks cater to incidental learning of the kind that will facilitate their communicative skills) and last (5) the teachers involved in teaching a task-based course must be involved in the development of the task materials (Ellis, 2009:241). The idea from Ellis develops a wonder

to know how cognitive activation by complex tasks can be used in the teaching of English as foreign language. The issue can be answered from empirical findings. Indeed, science has shown that complex tasks can possibly be applied in the English teaching-learning thanks to two approaches, namely the “psycholinguistic” and the “socio-cultural approaches”.

The former (psycholinguistic approach) provides relevant information that helps in planning tasks for the teaching and learning process while the latter (socio-cultural approach) allots duties between teachers and learners in terms of what does each part has to do during task-based activity (Ellis, 2000:193). Reinforcing the fourth principle, researchers like Williams (1983) say that EFL teachers who care about their learners must employ complex tasks in their everyday work (Williams, 1983:252). In line with the two approaches by Ellis, it is emphasized that if complex tasks are to be used in EFL, they should take into account “code complexity, cognitive complexity, and communicative stress” (Skehan, 1998:99; Skehan & Foster, 2001:194). Also, in designing and applying CT in the teaching of English, teachers need to take in consideration things like the type of linguistic input and learners’ factors like motivation as they impact the learning (Zare-ee, 2012: 229). The materialization of the idea according to which the outcome pursued for language learning is communicative competence (Willis, 1996:56) necessitates the implementation of task-based English teaching (TBET), task-based language teaching (TBLT, for others) within the teaching and learning of English as either second or foreign language. TBET is vividly encouraged “not only because it has well-grounded assumptions but also due to the sound

rationale behind its implementation within which it can satisfy both supporters of communicative approach and defenders of traditional approaches” (Hosseini & Rahbar, 2012:253). It means that using TBET/TBLT is a good way to lead to effective language learning that translates, in addition to communicative competence (Nunan, 2004:21), into problem-solving and decision-making (Hosseini & Rahbar, 2012:253).

The discussion done in this point brings in an idea that there is a need for shifting in education, particularly a shift in English language teaching given the opportunities it opens to. In ELT, learners have to be rendered critical thinkers in order to develop the English competences that will enable them to compete and be suitable for labor market (Abdallah & Mohammad, 2016:3) and a way to achieve such a goal is the use of complex tasks embedded in TBET and or TBLT. With the use of CT, different levels of competences are enhanced. This can be exemplified by the argument according to which a “single task would normally involve both productive skills, e.g. speaking and note-taking, and receptive skills, e.g. listening and often reading” (Willis, 1996:53). It should be mentioned that use of complex tasks is not only teachers’ creativity but also should be emanated from coursebooks under use. Section 2.3.2 below tries to elucidate how complex tasks can be incorporated in English textbooks.

2.3.2 *Complex tasks and English textbooks*

For complex tasks to be emphasized during the teaching-learning process, they should be thought about in advance and be elaborated while designing textbooks. This is asserted by the place task complexity occupies

as one of significant variables to be considered for designing language-learning materials (Zare-ee, 2012: 226). Complex tasks in English area is grounded in the philosophy of TBLT, unfortunately, this has not yet been convincingly demonstrated in most education settings (Carless, 2009:49). In this framework, it is difficult to read complex tasks within EFL textbooks given the economic reasons why they are produced. Another issue are the people involved in the production of those textbooks who may not be professionals of the field or even who do not know the educational context for which materials are being produced. These elements are reflected and discussed in this section.

To start with, empirical findings have shown that finance in the ultimate motivation for ELT textbooks design and publication. The emphasis of this commercial proof is reinforced and can be read throughout different research results (Dendrinis, 1992:35; Tomlinson, 2003:3; Lawrence, 2011:9). Since most EFL or ELS textbooks are driven by commercial purposes, they are then possibly doomed to failure (Tomlinson, 2008: 3; Lawrence, 2011:9). The failure is situated at two levels. The first set of failure is linked to the public demand of the books. This constitutes a high motivation as with a higher the demand more books are sold and more money is made by the author. Ignorance is the source of the second failure. It pushes the writer to predict the needs of prospective users of the books and how to meet them but the author does not know who will actually use the books and what the reader needs. (Tomlinson, 2008:7). This twofold failure implies that fitness of coursebook is not a concern of the writers; their main goal is financial success (Lawrence, 2011:51). Overcoming these failures is, indeed, the responsibility of

the teachers. So teachers are requested to be as creative as possible (Wen-Cheng, Chien-Hung, & Chung-Chieh, 2011:93) so that learners happen to cope with the existing textbooks.

Complex tasks should be part of textbooks' content. Yet, the content draws learners' interest for a course book (Hutchinson & Torres, 1994:318), if it satisfies some needs and therefore survives (p.317). Complex tasks imply and must lead to different language competences, one of which is communication. In this framework, it is crucial that the material for teaching and learning English reflects this competence (Boxer & Pickering, 1995:56). Following this idea of communication and the fact that EFL learners' interest means money, writers need to design textbooks to enable that students become communicatively competent in the language (Koike, 1989:287). However, it is not sufficient for a textbook to include tasks, the requirement is also that this task is linked to the context where the book is implemented (Lawrence, 2011:30). As consequence, ELT textbooks should normally embed real life-related tasks (van Merriënboer, Kester, & Paas, 2006:343) that are susceptible to allow students develop the necessary English competences they will need for life and work, in addition to the desire they have for interactions with native users of this language (Litz, 2005:8).

To sum up, textbooks intended for the teaching and learning of English as second or foreign language necessitate embedment and impulsive processing of complex tasks. Acknowledging that complex tasks drive the learning and enhance learners' development of competences, it is therefore of great need that textbooks must be task-based (AbdelWahab, 2013:63). To know if the textbooks respond

to these requirements, their assessment must be done; that is the aim of section 2.4 below.

2.4 Textbook analysis and evaluation

This sub-chapter elaborates the roles that textbooks and/or teaching materials play in learning processes. Thereafter, the rationale behind the examination of the textbooks is presented, discussed and evaluated.

2.4.1 Roles of textbooks within Learning Processes

Generally, textbooks are referred to as one of the components of curriculum. That is why the textbooks are said to ease the teacher's activities by providing facility to manage or oversee preplanned events (Hutchinson & Torres, 1994:316). According to Hutchinson & Torres (*ibid.*), textbooks are the most convenient means of providing the structure that the good teaching-learning system requires, and this makes them survive and prosper. However, the structuring tool as one of textbooks' roles is often overlooked (Crawford, 2002:83). Therefore, "textbooks nevertheless remain a contentious issue for many teachers and researchers" (Crawford, 2002:81). This contentiousness entails discussion that holds two diverse dimensions (positive and negative positions) among people. Aligning with Crawford, further researchers demonstrated that teaching materials have shortcomings; Litz for example suggests that language textbooks are too "contrived and artificial" in how they bear the target language (Litz, 2005:7). This hinders such textbooks to give students the type of language they need for their real world (p. 7); the major motive behind is that they are outcome of tainted products to respond to the financial desire of the author or the publisher (Sheldon, 1988: 239).

Contrary to the disregard and skepticism perceptions of textbooks, they are viewed with positive prospects from another angle. The goodness tied to this positive side is that the potential materials have to foster teachers' professional development and boost autonomous learning strategies for students (Crawford, 2002:80). Further arguments about the roles of textbooks within the teaching and learning show that textbooks are pertinent as they are the primary agents for knowledge to learners (AbdelWahab, 2013:55).

The emphasis on the roles conveys that teaching materials must state (1) the educational purposes of the programme (the ends), (2) the content, teaching procedures and learning experiences which will be necessary to achieve this purpose (the means) and (3) some means for assessing whether or not the educational ends can possibly be achieved (Richards, Platt, & Platt, 1992:94). It is important to mention that the roles played by textbooks/teaching materials are also dependent to the philosophy in the mind of the designers from the planning. It means that the perception given to teaching materials dictate the roles they have to play. In this sense, it is recommended that when planning teaching materials, they should elaborate on three educational traditions, which are classical humanism (based on content), reconstructionism (linked to the objectives) and progressivism (involving process) (Finney, 2002:71). As far as English is concerned, textbooks hold a very important place in foreign language education. It is in this point of view that it has been shown that the choice made for the language teaching materials are determinant of the quality of the teaching-learning process (Mukundan, Nimehchisalem, & Hajimohammadi, 2011:100) because no teaching-learning situation is said to be complete if not founded on relevant textbook (Hutchinson & Torres,

1994:315). Therefore, textbooks are effective means to figure out the structure a teaching-learning in change (Hutchinson & Torres (*ibid.*)). English language teaching also requires teaching materials that reflect “the needs of the learners and the aims, methods and values of the teaching program” (Cunningsworth, 1995:7).

In terms of aims and methods, it is proved that English textbooks shed light to the way teachers need to walk in order to reach the objectives but they also serve as a guide for teachers in how to behave when comes time to handling lessons (AbdelWahab, 2013:55). In addition, it is crucial that textbooks intended for English teaching are related to student’s real life situations. Accordingly, it is argued that the presence of the student’s real world within the textbooks contributes to their motivation (Bell & Gower, 1998:123). Also, textbooks are good for TEFL as they serve as important material not only for teachers but also for learners (Charalambous 2011:10). That is why they are said to serve as “staple” in school curricula (Wen-Cheng, Chien-Hung, & Chung-Chieh, 2011:92). Reading the discourse in this section one understands the essence that careful selection must be made for textbooks. They need to reflect “the needs of the learners and the aims, methods, and values of the teaching program” (Cunningsworth, 1995:7). In contrast to the roles of textbooks, English language teaching (ELT) textbooks, on the other side, may contain some shortcomings. Science asserts the inadequacies of such textbooks as they deskill teachers, are bore some, do not involve perfection, do not give teachers the possibility to consider the uniqueness of class and the individuality of learners though important in-course design and preparation (Charalambous, 2011:4,5,6). Many researchers agree with Charalambous

that teaching materials deskill teachers if given the whole attention. In support of this, it is proved that the strict use of books as the most reliable teaching foundation, teachers lose their positions as such and are considered as slaves whose work is only to use other people's designed materials (Richards, 1998:126).

Similarly, treating textbooks in this way takes off teachers' creative thinking (McGrath, 2002:10), hinders them "to provide enough roughly-tuned input and output practice" (Allwright, 1981:8) and leads to the teaching of textbooks and rather than learners. The boredom of textbooks form is the result from repeatedly teaching the same things over years (Charalambous, 2011:5). Referring to the imperfection of textbooks, it is worldwide argued that teaching materials embody limitations and inconsistencies (McDonough & Shaw, 1993:65; McGrath, 2002:15; Charalambous, 2011:6). It is up to teachers to think of strategies to overcome the materials' limitations. In such a struggle, teachers become able to handle the uniqueness of lessons and to take students as different individuals as efficiently as required (Prodromou, 1990:28; Charalambous, 2011:6). The arguments developed in this section prove sufficiently that textbooks play pertinent roles within the teaching-learning process. The case in DRC aligns with such realities. By experience, it is common that English for Africa is referred when Congolese teachers plan and implement English lessons. Therefore, the challenge is huge so far that nothing is done if not applied on EfA. In this framework, teachers' creativity is impinged. Yet, the same textbooks, EfA, imply some weaknesses which need to be addressed. The issue remains to know if all teaching materials and textbooks embody these roles. Response to this doubt urges an evaluation that is crucial to ensure

that all these requirements are undoubtedly carried out. That is why the following section looks at the evaluation of textbooks.

2.4.2 Textbook analysis and evaluation

This section elaborates on the reasons why textbooks should be examined. This section tackles the general perspective of textbook evaluation and then deepens the rationale linked to the English textbook evaluation. The teaching-learning process requires the use of a textbook. Science agrees with this statement supporting that any teaching-learning situation is incomplete if it is not based on relevant textbooks (Hutchinson & Torres, 1994:315). Aligning with Hutchinson and Torres, one affirms the merits textbooks bear. The emphasis of these merits brings out a sort of dependency culture that a textbook creates among teachers and learners (Littlejohn, 1992:84) and the existing partnership between teaching and textbook (Hutchinson & Torres, 1994: 326) that can be explained by mutual dependency of teachers and textbooks because “[...] as textbooks (or at least their producers) need to find out more about the teachers’ needs, so teachers need to learn more about textbooks” (p.327). As the perceptions related to textbooks do not necessarily meet the expectations, it is therefore important to evaluate textbooks at hand so to be aware of their level of fitting the context, their contribution to the achievement of the goals and make decision for improvement. To put this clearly, there is, indeed, need to evaluate the existing textbooks given that “evaluation is widely acknowledged as a powerful means of improving the quality of education” (AbdelWahab, 2013:55).

The reason why to conduct textbook evaluation is connected to the sake of checking and/or assessing

whether they effectively facilitate teachers attain their teaching objectives and on the other hand for the sake of developing new textbooks (Lawrence, 2011:9; Lee, 2013:69). Such an evaluation cannot be done only for the objectives of being done. Therefore, it should be conducted according certain benefits. Examples of the benefits linked to the analysis and evaluation of textbooks help to understand that thanks to such evaluation, the possible inappropriateness of textbooks that de-skills both teachers and students may be addressed and combatted (Charalambous, 2011:4). Also, with evaluation, there is high probability to make rational selection of textbooks, as the selection of a suitable textbook is dependent to evaluation (AbdelWahab, 2013:55).

Suitability of textbook is sought because wrong choice may, not only harm teaching and learning but also contribute to financial waste because books, being produced originally for commercial purposes, are destined for sale (Lawrence, 2011:9). Briefly mentioning, there are so many reasons why to conduct an evaluation of textbooks. Such an evaluation can be carried out for the objective of understanding the ways how teaching materials work or for research issue so to contribute to theory and improve the praxis (Tomlinson, 1996:238). Another reason drawn for the idea that textbooks have strengths and weaknesses is that evaluation is done in order to adopt new course books (AbdelWahab, 2013:56).

Aparaphrase of this reason states that no textbook is perfect (McDonough & Shaw, 1993:65); due to that, evaluation is hence worthy to find out and decide which textbook is best and appropriate to students (Grant, 1987:8). Furthermore, evaluation is done to lay a foundation for new teaching

materials development based on the analysis and the fixing of problems connected with existing textbooks (Lee, 2013: 69). In so doing, teachers' professional development is possible, and this is one more reason why to evaluate textbooks (Cunningsworth, 1995:7).

English textbooks, like all other teaching materials, have certain shortcomings; therefore they (textbooks) need "evaluation, selection, adaptation and supplementation" (Charalambous, 2011:2). Evaluation is in this sense concerned with English-related books as well as other teaching materials at use. In this perspective, it is very striking to draw attention on the empirical findings available for this field. For English language teaching textbooks to be evaluated, priority must be made concerning the methods appropriate to lead to results meant to be dug out. Considering of ELT textbook evaluation and following AbdelWahab (2013), three methods are devised. Their list includes the impressionistic method, checklist method and in-depth method. The difference between them is that the impressionistic method seeks and allows general impression of the book and this disqualifies it as "not adequate in itself". The second, as the title mentions, is systematic "in the way that the criteria on the list are checked off in a certain order" and this facilitates the study of different materials. The in-depth method, in its concern, implies a careful examination of particular patterns (example: unit or chapter) that would not be representative for the full book (p.56).

Of the three methods, the checklist method has drawn the attention of scholars interested in the evaluation of ELT materials and/or textbooks (Mukundan, Hajimohammadi, & Nimehchisalem, 2011; Mukundan, Nimehchisalem,

& Hajimohammadi, 2011; AbdelWahab 2013). Before proceeding, the meaning of checklist restricted to this environment seems necessary to be provided. This will help readers of this book share common understanding with the writer. A checklist is taken as an “instrument that helps practitioners in English language teaching evaluate language teaching materials, like textbooks” (AbdelWahab, 2013:55). The checklist, being very common for the evaluation of English teaching materials, is an instrument elaborated by the evaluator in order to verify a number of features within the materials (Mukundan, Nimehchisalem, & Hajimohammadi, 2011:100).

A checklist should then be understood as a tool used by coursebook or any other teaching materials evaluator. It highlights and considers the elements that draw the attention of the evaluator and that need analysis and evaluation. Textbooks and other teaching materials evaluation use checklists that date from the early 1970s. Since forth, many researches have been conducted. The list, but not exhaustive of starters in the field, includes Stevick (1972), Bruder (1978), Daoud & Celce-Murcia (1979). All these researchers developed checklists for English textbooks analysis and evaluation.

For Stevick, evaluation of English textbooks must be based on three qualifications, which are (1) strength/weakness: the degree of appropriateness to the learner in terms of level of textbook content, vocabulary and sentence structure, (2) lightness/heaviness: the degree of pressure, caused by the difficulty of pronunciation or the lengthy sentence and (3) transparency/opacity: the cognitive property that shows how easily the learner is able to understand the connection between units (Stevick, 1972 cited by Lee, 2013:

73). Stevick, 1972 (*ibid.*) says that the same evaluation is connected to three dimensions, namely (1) linguistic dimensions: linguistic skill that learners have command of, (2) social dimensions: the speaking companion of learner and (3) topic dimensions: the content discussed by learners and four components (1) occasions for use: a textbook should suggest clearly for what occasion the language is to be used, (2) a sample of the language in use: a textbook should present a concrete sample of language in use, (3) lexical exploration: a textbook should possess the function to have the learner recognize and find out the right word when he feels the necessity and (4) exploration of structural relationships: whether a learner picks out the correlation of language form with meaning should be shown. The most attracting elements in Burder's checklist is the integration of language background among eight elements that have to be examined from an English textbook (Burder, 1978 cited by Lee, 2013:74). As for Daoud and Celce-Murcia, the checklist for textbook evaluation is built in terms of categories to be analyzed and these are (1) topic category, (2) the category of vocabulary and sentence structure, (3) exercise category, (4) picture category and (5) physical feature category. The analysis is fivefold grading appearing in the form of 4 as excellent, 3 as good, 2 standing for adequate, 1 to mean weak and 0 indicating total lacking (Daoud & Celce-Murcia, 1979 cited by Lee, 2013:75).

The theories developed by the above earlier linguistics (fresh explorers of the field of ELT textbooks evaluation) inspired further researchers. Progressively textbook analysis and evaluation has become focus of practitioners and teachers of English and even linguist researchers. Such an evaluation should be based on and determined by several criteria (AbdelWahab, 2013:55; Lee, 2013:70)

even if they can obviously vary depending on the target of the study. Yet, criteria for textbooks evaluations are integral parts of checklists (Williams, 1983; Sheldon, 1988; Brown, 1995; Cunningsworth, 1995). In this framework, different researchers have developed different checklists. This can be understood better in comparing Skierso's and Cunningsworth's checklists which are different despite the commonalities they may have. Skierso's checklist focuses on things like "bibliographical data, aims and goals, subject matter, vocabulary and structures, exercises and activities, and layout and physical make up" (Skierso, 1991:432-433) while Cunningsworth's looks at the "aims and approaches, design and organization, language content, skills, topic, methodology, and practical considerations (Cunningsworth, 1995:10). In his research, Miekley elaborates a textbook evaluation checklist that is applicable for both students' and teachers' book. He suggests four categories for each. For the former, he categorizes between content, vocabulary and grammar, exercises and activities, and attractiveness of the text and physical make-up whereas for teachers' book, he talks about general features, background information, methodological guidance, and supplementary exercises and materials (Miekley, 2005:2). Another study states that one of the elements to include on the checklist when analyzing English teaching materials is language skills (Al Harbi, 2017:30).

From the varied literature surveyed in this section, particularly concerning the evaluation of ELT textbooks, agreement can be shared that evaluation of this type operates on basis of checklist. This builds on some criteria, as the analysis should not be done anyhow. There is importance to mention that a checklist can be qualitative or quantitative. Of the two, it is advised to use qualitative

checklist. Reasons are in line with results from a four-decades survey (1970-2000) that show that qualitative checklist is mostly used at the expense of quantitative one (Mukundan & Ahour, 2010:340). A further reason is that qualitative checklists allow in-depth evaluation of textbooks (Mukundan, Hajimohammadi, & Nimehchisalem, 2011: 21).

In summary, this chapter has reviewed relevant literature concerning complex tasks and ELT. Through the state of research, it has been found out that there are connections between complex tasks and the cognitive load theory. Furthermore, literature has scrutinized the embedment of CT within ELT. However, as textbooks play important roles in the teaching and learning of English, the state of research has finally addressed the necessity for textbooks to be analyzed and evaluated for improvement of quality teaching. The hope is that this state of research enables the present book to shed light on the understanding of CT in EfA. The methodology design of the present study has been motivated by the talks and voices drawn from empirical findings. That is why in chapter three below, I highlight things about a checklist that includes relevant data. The rationale for this to enable readers have a good understanding concerning English for Africa. To reach the expected results, appropriate methods need to be used. Therefore, the coming chapter describes the method used to carry out this study.

3.

METHODOLOGY

In this chapter, the methods, which have been used to carry out the study, are described. To allow the understanding of how the present study (associated with the comprehension of processes of quality improvement) has been fulfilled, this chapter is subdivided into four sections. The chapter starts with the description of qualitative approaches as well as reasons for their choice as appropriate methods applied for this research. Since the study investigates textbooks and that all of them cannot be included here, sampling must be applied. The second section of this chapter therefore describes the sampling of this study. In chapter two it is argued that textbooks evaluation and analysis require checklist. In align with this, the workbook used for data collection and analysis is presented and discussed. As this study cannot cover all the aspects embedded in the English for Africa, the description of the limits and encountered difficulties is done in closing the chapter.

3.1 Description and reasons for the qualitative approaches

Before elucidating how the collection and analysis of the data were processed (see point three), it is important that readers of this book are framed about and have a common understanding of what is meant by qualitative

approach, document analysis and descriptive method as they are the ones chosen for this investigation of English textbooks. Qualitative approach is chosen regarding some preliminaries that have to be taken into consideration. In this sense, it is said that there are five philosophical assumptions, which push researchers to choose qualitative research, which are “ontology, epistemology, axiology, rhetorical, and methodological assumptions” (Creswell, 2007:15). The present study involves textbook analysis as textbooks are subjects for investigations (Mikulas & Mikulasova, 2016:234) that may be done quantitatively or qualitatively. The reason why qualitative textbook analysis in this research is that I want to deepen my understanding of the textbooks and the embedded lessons used to teach and learn English in Congolese secondary schools and then come up with practical suggestions that would orient the actions of the users of EfA and therefore help them improve the quality of the teaching-learning of English. To achieve this, it is better to describe the qualitative approach, the document analysis and the descriptive method, as in the following sections.

3.1.1 The qualitative approach

Qualitative research comes into existence and application from the 20th century in response to the dissatisfaction that sociologists, historians and social scientists expressed against the use of physical and natural science methods that were considered as model for any analysis of social sciences (André, 2010:41). The very spread of qualitative methods in education is traced back to the methodological progress that emerged in qualitative research in sociology which manifested in the UK, France and the USA between

the 1950s and 1970s, and in Germany in the starting mid-1960s (Bohnsack, Pfaff, & Weller, 2010:12). The aim of qualitative approach is to provide thorough descriptions of the phenomenon under study (Dey, 2003:32). In the same way, science goes on stating that “the ultimate aim of qualitative research is to offer a perspective of a situation and to provide well written research reports that reflect the researcher’s ability to illustrate or describe the corresponding phenomenon” (Devetak, Glažar, & Vogrinc, 2010:82). Concerning the targets, the qualitative approach looks into social phenomena in their natural situation. The objective for such a look (investigation) is discovering and/or understanding qualitative data. Since the understanding is not enough, the approach therefore intends also to treat data collected from the investigation done. The type of data talked about here is ordinary descriptive (Deslauriers, 1991:6).

In studying social phenomena, qualitative research does not intend to explain them but rather seeks to understand them (Poisson, 1991:13). The sought understating is not done anyhow. There are requirements that should be observed. In this framework, science states that understanding the phenomena to be studied demands qualitative research to take into consideration the experiences as lived, felt, undergone, made sense of, and accomplished by people (Schwandt, 2001:84). Experiences account in qualitative research because they constitute the basis for such a research that intends to solve real problems (Deslauriers, 1991:15). In addition to experiences, the social phenomena being studied need to be interpreted. That is why, referring to interpretation (hermeneutics) and to human experience (phenomenology), qualitative research aims at surveying

the meanings, which social phenomena entail, and how do people experience them (Malterud, 2001:398). Emphasizing the focus to meanings, science states that “qualitative data deals with meanings, whereas quantitative data deals with numbers” (Dey, 2003:3). Dey (2003) goes on counter stating that dealing with meaning within qualitative research requires identification of indicators that allow the analysis (p.4). This means that qualitative research focuses on how people interpret and how they make sense of both own experiences and of the world they evolve in. In this sense, it is accordingly said that “the basis of qualitative research is the interpretative approach to social reality” (Holloway, 1997:2) whereby the researcher has to be fully engaged into social life and not remain neutral as positivist research intends to (Soulet, 1987:18). It is worth mentioning here that methods of qualitative research cover a very wide array in the field of education. In this sense, science argues that “qualitative methods are not only relevant in the processes of research, theory development and evaluation of educational programs and policies, but also in teaching process and formation of professionals” (Bohnsack, Pfaff, & Weller, 2010:14). This statement by Bohnsack and his fellows Pfaff together with Weller paves the way of investigating any process that is related to the teaching-learning phenomenon. Further statements made around qualitative research go on emphasizing the involvement into research that must characterize qualitative researchers.

This can be supported in the following lines where it is said that in taking into consideration the researcher’s views in a qualitative research (Devetak, Glažar, & Vogrinc, 2010:79), they confirm their involvement and role with

the research, contrary to quantitative research whereby researchers dissociate from research (Golafshani, 2003: 600). Qualitative research deals with non-quantifiable data and these include for example journals, books, interview records (Dépelteau, 2010:223). The idea meant here is the one according to which the implication of qualitative research is the production of findings that are not resulted from any statistics or any means of quantification but rather findings that result from naturally real grounded phenomena (Patton, 1990:39; Strauss & Corbin, 1990: 17). Qualitative approach encompasses several methods; document analysis is one of them. Its description and reasons for use are discussed in the following section.

3.1.2 Document Analysis

Document analysis is the method chosen to collect data in the present study. Specific methods to analyze texts are needed. According to science, qualitative analysis of texts is tied to the understanding of the text under study and this can be done through several approaches and/or methods, among others hermeneutic analysis, linguistic analysis, cross-cultural analysis or discourse analysis (Pingel, 2010:66). In addition to these, texts can be coped with by using approaches like “language-oriented, descriptive/interpretive and theory-building” (Tesch, 1991:17). The language-oriented approach is concerned with the use of language and the meaning of words. The descriptive/interpretive approach is meant to provide “thorough descriptions and interpretations of social phenomena, including its meaning to those who experience it” and theory-building approach aims at revealing the connections that exist among social phenomena (Tesch, 1991:17-25).

Document analysis applies particularly for qualitative cases for which rich description of the case study like a program is provided (Stake, 1995:95; Bowen, 2009: 29). Concerning documents, it is said that all types of documents help researchers “uncover meaning, develop understanding and discover insights which are relevant to the research problem” (Merriam, 1988:118). In the same way, document analysis is a thorough assessment of documents (hard or soft copies) (Bowen, 2009:27) and it aims at reconstructing the knowledge imbedded in such documents (Bohnsack, Pfaff, & Weller, 2010:20).

Document analysis implies two criticisms, namely external and internal criticisms (Dépelteau, 2010:281). For external criticism, the researcher’s work is to check the authenticity of the documents under study but checking such an authenticity the researcher is demanded to question the provenance, to make a criticism of restitution and the filing critic of sources (Langlois & Seignobos, 2014:67). The internal criticism is concerned with analyzing the content of the document by checking its veracity (Dépelteau, 2010:283). The two criticisms imply the position of a researcher who is both an outsider and insider a qualitative analysis (Berger, 2015:230).

A further important thing to be mentioned regarding the researcher’s position is that it must be fluid than static (p.231). With this type of criticism, hermeneutics that is interpretation of the document and a thorough examination of the sincerity and exactness of the same document are undoubtedly necessary (Langlois & Seignobos, 2014:68). The necessity to do hermeneutics is due to its potential it has to push the researcher endeavor to penetrate the

mind of the author of the document as it is a good way the text can be comprehended (Scott, 2014:31). The argument here means that the kind of techniques used for data collection (usually involving data selection for texts) affects the constituents of data and the reasons why research is designed (Dey, 2003:16). There are reasons for conducting qualitative document analysis. First of all, documents have immense value in case studies and as a method, it can stand alone, particularly for specialized forms of qualitative research (Bowen, 2009:29). Secondly, resorting to documents as source data can provide researchers information they would not get if using other methods (Savin-Baden & Major, 2013:404). In addition to the two rationales for document analysis as discussed above, science shows that by dealing with documents, recognition must be put on the functions those documents play. Scanning those functions, it has to be known that (1) documents provide background information as well as historical insight from which the researcher may document past and current situation and happen to bridge them, (2) the information contained in documents can raise curiosity that needs to be met thanks to research on observable situations, (3) documents provide supplementary research data, (4) documents provide a means of tracking change and development and (5) documents can be analyzed as a way to verify findings or corroborate evidence from other sources (Bowen, 2009: 29-30).

The present research implies document analysis given the fact that the focus of the study is to document that the textbooks (English for Africa) are used for teaching and learning of English in the Congolese secondary schools. The study entails an internal criticism of EfA so to dig out

necessary data and come up with accordingly findings; this demands the use of descriptive method, which is discussed in the following section.

3.1.3 Descriptive method

Descriptive method is used to analyze and interpret data of this study. The reciprocity according to which description lays the basis for analysis and analysis also lays the basis for further description (Dey, 2003:31) invokes the understanding that one of the ways of dealing with document analysis is carrying out a descriptive method. Descriptive method is a very essence for any research, qualitative as well as quantitative because it has been proved that without description during the research process, theories do not have sense, that is, theories cannot have neither meaning nor application (Dey, 2003:32).

In the context of this book, descriptive methods are restricted to qualitative research. Science states that the value of qualitative description, in addition to generating knowledge, is that it serves as vehicle through which research methods are presented and treated as living entities that resist simple classification and can result in establishing meaning and solid findings (Giorgi, 1992; Holloway & Todres, 2005; Sandelowski 2010 cited by Vaismoradi, Turunen, & Bondas, 2013:2). That is why, for qualitative analysis, the first step consists in developing thorough and comprehensive descriptions of subjects being studied (Dey, 2003:32). The description of the phenomenon under study has to be done “from the inside out, from the point of view of the people who participate” with the aim of enhancing a better understanding of the social realities by paying attention to process, meaning

pattern and structural features (Uwe & Ines, 2004 cited by Kustika, 2017:3). From the research conducted by Anaba whereby qualitative descriptive explorative is used as method, it can be learned that resort is geared to the description of many realities while providing understanding and being able to capture everyday life and human perspective (Anaba, 2016:41). In addition to that, qualitative research provides evidence and when investigating on this evidence, purposes to produce a core description of the situation as experienced by people do arise (Polkinghorne, 2005:138).

The above scientifically grounded arguments give insights, which reinforce the need to use descriptive qualitative document analysis concerning the present study, which investigates a specific type of documents. The textbook known as “English for Africa” is used as a basis to answer the main research question that seeks the understanding of complex tasks by EfA. With the descriptive approach, the lessons targeted by the study must be described thoroughly in accordance with complex tasks. In doing so, there is a chance to make suggestions for improvement of those textbooks or for the development of new ones. Getting to that attainment, there is paramount importance of using textual approach insofar as the researcher has to read the different lessons/texts included in the textbooks in order to be well positioned into conducting qualitative research and come up with accurate findings. Accurate findings result from experiences that the researcher himself may have lived and consequently is aware of. But this requires researchers involved in qualitative approach to make proof of good research skills. Though qualitative research works with words, the factor ‘context’ should not be ignored as

it plays a big role in the analysis of documents. Science supports this idea stating that “qualitative researchers generalize words and observations to the population of words/observations (i.e., the “truth space”) representing the underlying context” (Onwuegbuzie, 2003:400). This passage also emphasizes the work one has to fulfill once decided to use qualitative descriptive research. It means that researchers should pay attention to particular words since they bear significant attributes. Similarly and according to science, the motivation driven by using descriptive qualitative method in research is due to the feasibility of making data reduction, data presentation and then drawing conclusion with great possibility of designing new educational program based on the collected data (Ghufron & Saleh, 2016:6).

In reference to all the descriptions and discussions in this point (3.1), it is pertinent that a study be conducted on “English for Africa” so to discover its strengths and identify areas necessitating improvement or rather decide on the design of new textbooks. The objective for this is to make EfA meet the requirements of educational quality. The existing discourse emphasizes this idea of new books design or adjustment of some aspects since the way to educational quality is not the responsibility of teachers only, but it also requires well-designed curricula with assessment strategies susceptible to contribute to the improvement of education (UNESCO, 2014:3). After having gathered the textbooks to be studied, lessons for research must be selected. Their selection requires criteria, hence sampling. The section 3.2 below gives more details.

3.2 Sampling

Sampling is a necessary scientific procedure as it enables the researcher to decide who/what and how many/how much should participate in the study. In this sub-chapter, a few arguments circumscribe the sampling. Afterwards, the process (description of how sampling is done for this study) taken for deciding what textbooks, texts (lessons) and tasks to be analyzed is described.

3.2.1 Description of Sampling

Sampling is a step that deserves a choice place for all qualitative researches. As such, qualitative researchers should make a good choice of which sampling scheme to use (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007:241) because, for a qualitative researcher, sampling aims primarily at collecting data for specific cases, events or actions susceptible to thoroughly clarify the researcher's understanding of the phenomenon being studied (Ishak & Bakar, 2014:29). This implies that deciding which participants and how many of them to include in the study is not a random process. That is why, for a study like the present concerning textbooks, science states that one of processes of data collection/selection is the identification of documents to take into consideration (Savin-Baden & Major, 2013:312). In such a process, the qualitative approach should be disentangled from quantitative. For the qualitative approach there is need to set certain principles to select data; these principles include describing and understanding the phenomenon under investigation (Polkinghorne, 2005:139) in order to frame restricted samples which are to be analyzed deeply given that qualitative research is rather intensive (Deslauriers, 1991:6).

According to science, all the sampling schemes are classified in “random sampling (i.e., probabilistic sampling) schemes or non-random sampling (i.e., non-probabilistic sampling) schemes” (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007:241-242). For qualitative research, non-probabilistic techniques account for sampling as their findings are not subjects for generalization to a big universe (Ishak & Bakar, 2014:34) but the purpose is to obtain “insights into a phenomenon” (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007:242). Discourse goes on distinguishing three approaches concerned with the selection of sample that are “convenience sample, judgment (purposeful) sample and theoretical sample” (Marshall, 1996:523).

For this study, purposeful sampling is applied. Its choice has been motivated by the way it enables researchers to address research questions. Science asserts that among different sampling types that can be used for qualitative research, purposive is the most suitable as it enables to answer the research question (Marshall, 1996:523). The choice given to purposive sampling is due to three distinct situations through which it is used “(1) when a researcher wants to select unique cases that are especially informative, (2) when a researcher would like to select members of a difficult-to-reach, specialized population, (Ishak & Bakar, 2014:32) and (3) when a researcher wants to identify particular types of cases for in-depth investigation” (Coyne, 1997:624; Ishak & Bakar, 2014:32). Applying purposeful sampling for this study has enabled me to identify the grades and related lessons to be examined.

3.2.2 Sampling description in “English for Africa”

Concerning the present research, the study will be carried out on textbooks (EfA). This means that the raw data for this study is drawn from EfA textbooks. As said in chapter one, there are four series of textbooks (namely book one, book two, book three and book four) which correspond to the last four years of secondary school (3rd, 4th, 5th and 6th grade). Each textbook is compiled of lessons to be taught in a specific grade and each lesson entails a series of questions (in terms of tasks) to be solved by learners. These tasks vary from a book to another. Book one and two include tasks ranged respectively from six to nine and six to ten while tasks in book 3 are ranged till eight. This study deals with books of the first three grades. This means books for grade three, grade four and grade five. Since all lessons of the three grades cannot be tackled in the present book, only one lesson per book and per year is analyzed. Before getting into the core matter of analysis, the chosen lesson is first described to allow readers of this study have good track on the process. It means that a brief story of what the lesson is about is given.

It is worth mentioning that the selection of lessons for the present study is done through purposeful sampling. Regarding such a sampling and considering that the series of tasks varies depending on the book, I take the very first lesson of each book that has the top number of the tasks. To put it clearer, the lessons to be analyzed are the very first ones having a series of nine tasks for book of grade three, series of ten tasks for book of grade four and a series of eight tasks for book of grade five. In other words, the qualities I used for the sampling of this study

are to include three grades (three, four and five) out of four and ensure that from each grade I draw the first lesson embedding the maximum number of tasks (9 for grade three, 10 for grade four 4 and 8 for grade five). Yet, all the three lessons under study are appended at the end of the corpus of this book. To put this clearly, the table below illustrates how I dealt with my sampling. Dealing with tasks from three lessons requires appropriate tools like checklists. The section below gives much clarification on how the data has been processed.

Table 1. Sampling in EfA

Books (B)	Grade (G)	Lesson (L)	Identification	No of lesson	No of tasks	Understanding the identification
1	3	13	G3L13	1	9	In grade three, I have chosen lesson thirteen
2	4	4	G4L4	1	10	In grade four, I have chosen lesson four
3	5	3	G5L3	1	8	In grade five, I have chosen lesson three

Source: Author

3.3 Workbook for data collection

The different tasks to be analyzed for each lesson selected for the study are processed through what I call “workbook”. This workbook is not far from what empirical study call checklists. As said in chapter two, from the 70s till today, using checklists is a tool that has been proved essential and appropriate for evaluation and/or analyzing textbook and/or teaching materials. Some of the advocates of checklist include Lee, 2013 (citing Stevick, 1972;

Bruder, 1978; Daoud & Celce-Murcia, 1979); Mukundan, Hajimohammadi, & Nimehchisalem, 2011; Mukundan, Nimehchisalem, & Hajimohammadi, 2011; AbdelWahab, 2013; Al Harbi, 2017; etc. In elaborating a checklist, the researcher must think of some criteria (Williams, 1983; Sheldon, 1988; Brown, 1995; Cunningsworth, 1995) to orient his/her study depending on what he/she wants to achieve. This implies that if more researchers are involved, the checklists become more differently; each checklist with different criteria that, in turn, needs to be supported by indicators and verifiers.

For the specific case of this study intending to find out how the complexity of tasks is reflected in EfA, a checklist/workbook (see appendix) is elaborated. It is framed in a way that the lesson and the related grade to examine are determined. The serial number of the concerned question (task) is also specified. Before scaling, the evaluation tool highlights the elements for analysis, splitting among criteria, indicators and verifiers. Then, the ranking scale is followed by a column of remarks. In this latter, annotations are written for elements that much attract the attention and for which clarification is necessary. In the end, a compilation of the data collected from the three grades concerned with the study is done.

In other words, the data for this study is treated by using the excel software and is presented following five labels devised for six different columns. Those are questions for serial numbers, criteria, indicators, verifiers and remarks. The first label consists in determining the serial number of the question (task) for each lesson. As said earlier (3.2.2), three lessons on account of three books corresponding to

three grades out the four in use are targeted by this study. It is then the question, for this label, to differentiate and analyze separately the different questions/tasks that the lesson at hand embeds. For recall about the number of questions/tasks and books and lessons involved in the study, see table 1. All these questions are treated individually as a single task despite that some of these questions are made of a series of questions as sub-questions. The example of such questions includes the very first questions of all the lessons which are purely comprehension questions to test the understanding of the text/lesson by students. The second, third and fourth labels are much restricted to the examination of tasks drawn from the target lessons. Indeed, the thorough examination of tasks in “English for Africa” is done through verifiers devised from indicators, which also derive from criteria. Two criteria are elaborated, and they are respectively characteristics of tasks and language skills. In order to check if tasks in EfA respond to such characteristics and dig out the English competences those tasks bare, indicators with respective verifiers are formulated as following.

3.3.1 *Characteristics of tasks*

As far as characteristics of tasks are concerned, the first indicator is problem to solve. With this, the study seeks to know whether tasks in EfA embody problems that learners must solve, given the crucial role they (problems) play in learners’ development of competences (Marzano, 2007: 92; Hosseini & Rahbar, 2012: 253). This can be verified through checking if the problem is based on existing knowledge (Marzano & Kendall, 2007: 22; van Merriënboer, Clack, & de Croock, 2002:51; Cummins & Floten, 2016:141), permits

different pathways to solve (Rosenshine, 2002:7) and if it is connected to other domains (Marzano & Kendall, 2007: 23; Helsdingen, van Gog, & van Merriënboer, 2011:385; Abdallah & Mohammad, 2016:56). It is also question to see how and at which extent tasks involve critical reflection (Abdallah & Mohammad, 2016:3, 23; Al-Mashaqba, 2017: 41). As second indicator, critical reflection verifies if task requires explanation (Marzano & Kendall, 2007: 28; Wong, 2008:190), implies decision making (Marzano & Kendall, 2007:51; Hosseini & Rahbar, 2012:253) and appeals to creativity (Broughton, Brumfit, Flavell, Hill & Pincas 2003: 26; Nunan, 2004:36; Lawrence, 2011:31; Abdallah & Mohammad, 2016:23). Another indicator denotes how learners' real life is depicted in EfA. With this, it is checked if task is in relation with local stories (Broughton, Brumfit, Flavell, Hill & Pincas 2003:73; Kember & McNaught, 2007: 35), entails things of local issue (Broughton, Brumfit, Flavell, Hill & Pincas 2003:193; Kember & McNaught, 2007:36,51) and links to daily life (Broughton, Brumfit, Flavell, Hill & Pincas 2003:7; van Merriënboer, Kester, & Paas, 2006:343; Kember & McNaught, 2007:viii). Lastly, a look is put on obviosity or non-obviosity of the solution to the existing tasks. According to science, students should be trained at thinking independently and strive to solve problems (Kember & McNaught, 2007:39; Nunan, 2004:59). As the type of question in ELT is determinant of learners' participation or not in learning activities (tasks), it can be induced to solve a problem that depends on how the question is asked.

That is why, to observe the degree at which solution to problem is obvious or not, closed and open questions are firstly looked at. In this book, closed and open questions

are referred to as display and referential question since with the former, the answer a student will give is clearly known while for the latter, answer form students cannot be predicted (Al-Muaini, 2006:1). Referential questions are therefore encouraged within the teaching-learning process as they offer more room for learners to express themselves without being obstructed (Dalton-Puffer, 2007:96). In addition to the types of questions, solution to problem can also be measured on basis of the different levels of competences it involves. A recent classification of levels of competences identifies six levels, amongst retrieval, comprehension, analysis, knowledge utilization, metacognition and self-system; the first three being embedded in a cognitive system (Marzano & Kendall, 2007:35). Obviousness is also verified if solution to tasks in EfA are framed or not on some model for imitation. For ELT, it is rather better to provide students with opportunities for creativity than making them rely on models. In support of this idea, it is said that “in foreign language teaching, pronunciation is the one area where it is generally agreed on that imitation is the essence of the learning process” (Broughton, Brumfit, Flavell, Hill & Pincas, 2003: 58).

3.3.2 Language skills

The checklist for the analysis of EfA also investigates language skills. In other terms, the analysis consists in finding out the different language competences that are enhanced in EfA and at which extent they are developed. The reason to examine the enhancement of English competences is connected to the topic of this study. Indeed, the objective of complex tasks is to drive learners' outcomes. Therefore, in the case of this investigation based

on language, focus must be put on language competences as well. In this framework, the workbook is designed in a way that the four primary skills of language are used as indicators and each contains several elements, which help to verify its manifestation in the book. Then, those skills are devised into listening that entails resort to audio-visual, comprehension and summarizing/synthesizing; speaking verifiable through phonetic transcription, communication, presentation to the class and dramatization; writing questions if task requires composition, refers to grammar and paraphrasing, and finally reading that looks in task implying comprehension, cursory reading and summarizing/synthesizing. Literature supports the indicators and verifies in that the rationale for language learning is underpinned in the language competences that complex tasks foster within students. As said earlier, language competences include but not exhaustively, reading, understanding, writing and speaking together with sub-skills (Patel & Jain, 2008:57). Communicative competence of learners is the primary driven goal for the teaching and learning of a language, and therefore it is deeply enhanced (see 2.2.1). In developing students' communication, other aspects of the language like grammar should not be ignored. Teachers should know that "students need to have the grammatical input because they do not have the exposure like in other foreign countries" (Willis, 1996:53). This implies that teachers need to provide learners with the needed grammar as it helps them cope with writing and reading (Willis, 1996:58).

However, it is pertinent that grammar is introduced in accurate contexts (Willis, 1996:53), otherwise students get difficulties in using their English at the expense of

not developing fluency (p.58). All this is possible through the use of complex tasks; the latter being able to carry and foster several competences to students (Willis, 1996:53). Summarizing his views on the learning of a language, Willis states four key functions. Indeed, learners need to have (1) exposure to a rich but comprehensible input of real language, (2) opportunities for real use of language, (3) motivation to listen and read and (4) focus on language form (Willis, 1996:59). Further concern about ELT encourages that the learning of English requires students to resort to “audio-recorded native speakers, video-recorded native speakers, read aloud phonetically weighted texts, practice ear-training, phonetic drilling, imitation, tongue twisters, explicit teaching” (Reid, 2016:22). All such materials concur to English competences students are meant to develop because in doing so listening, speaking and reading simultaneously enhanced. This is also reinforced by the common European framework of reference for language learning, teaching, assessment (CEFR) stating that techniques to reach that extent include listening and repeating, drilling, minimal pair drills, ear training, phonetic training, reading aloud, imitation, tongue twisters, sound-color charts, phonics, songs/rhymes, recording learners’ pronunciation (CEFR 2001 cited by Reid, 2016:23).

Reading can be handled in various ways like reading passages of texts and it can focus on problematic sounds, stress, rhythm, intonation (p.25) without forgetting to include comprehension (Gadušová, 2009 cited by Reid, 2016:22). The work may be done individually, in pair or chorally. What is important is the share among students and the best way to this is class presentation. Presentation can involve reading texts for comprehension, writing

products, vocabulary, grammar (Ning, 2011:65) through the mobilization of all students to participate in as they feel each that the responsibility falls on him/her (p.66). It is better that class presentation is coupled with class discussions as students allude to their experiences for whatever task they are involved in, essay-writing for example (Richards, 2010:117).

In accordance to the literature, discussing language competences are to be developed by learners, it can be summed up aligning with Benson (2001) that reading, writing, listening and speaking be enhanced. Their enhancement can be done in plunging learners into a series of activities distributed as following: reading (implying reading efficiently, comprehension and speed, scanning and skimming, evaluating, understanding and analyzing); writing (editing a composition) (Marzano, 2007:60) (consisting of summarizing, paraphrasing and synthesizing read scripts to write and revise drafts) and listening and speaking (paying attention to pronunciation and intonation through the use microfilm and computer, giving speech, involving into communicating, explaining, describing and justifying situations and experiences learners have control on) (Benson 2011 cited by Wong, 2008:190-191). All the verifiers (related to characteristics of tasks and to language skills) are ranked. The scale is fivefold dimensions of frequency ranged from 1,2,3,4, and 5 meaning respectively never, rarely, sometimes, often or totally observable.

In conclusion, it is expected that designing the checklist in such a way gives room for in-depth description of the findings. This leads to responding to the research

questions and documents knowledge of the strengths and weaknesses of EfA. From the results of this study, reflections on actions to take concerning EfA can be undertaken with the purpose to fill the gap that may exist within the said textbooks. So, learners' needs may in one-way, or another be met and students therefore develop competences they are meant to develop.

3.4 Limitations of the study

Since the present study looks at the tasks in EfA and not the way teachers use these books, the evaluative criteria are only restricted to three lessons whose results serve for the description of the accordingly situation. Restriction to only three lessons was connected to constraints of time allotted to the research and the methods to be used. Being selected on basis of purposeful sampling, the concerned lessons may not reflect all the realities of the entire books. Therefore, results from this investigation cannot be generalized as they come to life thanks to qualitative approaches. Other issues from the textbooks related to linguistic features like semantics, semiology, figurative language, idiomatic expressions, etc. are not concerned with this study. In this perspective, I have not done a systematic analysis of the textbooks. From the present study, I draw the attention of people concerning the issue of complex tasks in "English for Africa" CT is rooted in the heart of the discourse of quality teaching.

4.

REFLECTION OF COMPLEX TASKS IN “ENGLISH FOR AFRICA”

The preceding chapter deals with the methodological framework applied for this study. It circumscribes qualitative research as the approach undertaken to carry out the present investigation. The choice of qualitative approach is driven by the interest to explain deeply the reality that “English for Africa” embeds regarding cognitive activation by complex tasks. So, descriptive document analysis is applied. Document analysis driven by a checklist is used as the study at hand is concerned with the analysis of documents (textbook) (see 3.1.2). It is in this perspective that description is provided for the workbook (referred to as checklist) that is designed for the collection of data (see appendix). For data interpretation, the descriptive method (see 3.1.3) consisting in describing the reflection of complex tasks in EfA is applied.

This chapter concerning findings is twofold dimensional. First, it describes the accumulated data. Here, the data collected from tasks of the three selected lessons of three different textbooks corresponding to three grades are described (according to the criteria), indicator after indicator and verifier after verifier. On the other hand, the

data are synthesized as results in highlighting the aspects of CT and the language competences that are most visible in the different grades.

4.1 Data description

It is worth to be recalled that the present research is a textbook analysis. It tries to find out how are cognitively activating complex tasks reflected in “English for Africa”, a series of textbooks used for the teaching and learning of English in Congolese secondary schools. So, in this section, data show how or not the textbooks under concern display complex tasks. As already said, the analysis concerns a very limited number of only three lessons out of a huge number drawn from three different grades. Indeed, for the third and fourth grades, books are made up of 20 lessons each whilst the book of the fifth grade includes 15 lessons. As said previously (see 3.2.2), the selection of the concerned lessons and related tasks was done resorting to purposeful sampling. With this type of sampling and considering the variation of numbers of tasks regarding lessons and grades, I happened to take to this study the very first lesson of each grade having the maximum number of tasks. Therefore, nine tasks are analyzed for the lesson from grade three, ten for lesson from grade four and eight for lesson from grade five.

Then tasks referred to each lesson are analyzed to see which aspects of complexity do tasks from “English for Africa” develop and which English competences learners who use these books are susceptible to develop. I decided to work on the two criteria with the hope that if “English for Africa” responds to the characteristics of complex tasks in connection to the development of the four primary

language skills together with related competences, then EfA has potential to enable its users develop competences. For good process of data in the workbook, codes (G & L) are attributed to the selected lessons; G means grade level and L implies the number of the lesson whose tasks are analyzed. Therefore, the lesson taken from grade three is coded G3L13. This means that for the book corresponding to grade three, tasks to be analyzed are drawn from lesson thirteen. The second lesson for study stands for G4L4 to mean that also the analysis concerns tasks of lesson four taken from the book corresponding to grade four. The last lesson that the study analyzes is number three which is collected from the book used for the teaching in grade five and it is therefore coded G5L3. As said in chapter three, point 3.2.2, before the process of data, description of the lesson concerned is first given to allow readers of this book to be aware of what is the lesson about. In the second position, thorough scrutinizing different aspects are tackled.

For G3L13, the lesson is entitled “Dinner in the dormitory”. It is about two school young boys who live in a boarding where it forbidden to eat anything. One night, they feel however hungry. One of them has some nuts. The other asked some to eat. As he got all the bundle from his student colleague and ready to start eating, the prefect (head of the boarding) walked in. Suddenly, he hid the nuts under his bed. Unfortunately, the prefect saw them and seized them with the expense of detention of the boy the following day afternoon. As this boy is harassed by his colleague to hand in his nuts, he beholds a plate of pounded yam under the bed of another boarder who is already asleep. He decides to get some yam.

The G4L4 lesson “Bola’s grandfather in Lagos” is about the said grandfather who left his village to Lagos for a naming ceremony of his first grand grandchild. Arriving at the main park in Lagos, he did not see Bola. He showed Bola’s address to a taxi driver who took him to Bola’s house in Surulere. While there, an incident spurted out as the grandfather had no means to pay the driver because he could not find his purse (it was stolen at the main park). As any lesson in the book, this one entails some tasks to be analyzed. Concerning G5L3, the lesson “I want to be an airhostess” describes how do people become airhostesses. The lesson circumscribes at some extent the Congolese context and indicates not only the conditions to become airhostess in Congo but also reveals out the hardships that an airhostess undergoes.

The data for this study were processed using the software Excel. After that, each lesson has been treated in a separate excel sheet with ranking scale and a compilation sheet for the three lessons has been produced to better ease both the presentation and reading of the results. In this perspective, in the forthcoming sections, findings are described regarding how complex tasks are reflected in the sampled lessons and the related analyzed tasks. On the other side, findings concerning language competences are also described. To do this, criteria, indicators and verifiers were designed. The first criteria consist to know the characteristics of the tasks conveyed in EfA. This criterion is devised into four indicators and each indicator comprises certain verifiers.

For the indicator to dig out the elements of problem solving, it is envisaged to see if tasks rely on existing knowledge,

offer different paths to be solved and if they are connected to other domains than English. The description of critical thinking (as an indicator) tries to check if EfA tasks require explanation, entail decision making and appeal to creativity. Another indicator is real-life of learners. Here, the objective is to find out whether local stories, things of local issues and things of daily experience are visible in EfA. A further indicator is to examine the obviousness of solution to tasks. Evaluating such an obviousness checks if questions are closed or open, looks into the level of complexity and different levels of competences and if there is necessity of model imitation.

The second criterion focuses on the language skills enhanced by EfA tasks. The description of listening as first indicator verifies if tasks imply audio-visual activities, comprehension and summarizing/synthesizing. As for the description of speaking, it is checked if tasks emphasize phonetics, communication, class presentation and dramatization. The description of writing looks into requirement to composition, grammar and paraphrasing. Finally, reading as indicator is checked through verifiers like comprehension, cursory reading and summarizing/synthesizing. These elements are thoroughly elaborated in the following sections and can be crosschecked in the workbook appended to this book.

4.1.1 Characteristics of tasks in “English for Africa”

The concern in this section is to scrutinize how is each indicator reflected in “English for Africa”. In this sense, aspects related to existence of problems to solve, implication of critical thinking, embedment of students’ real-life and approaches to solve tasks are deeply analyzed.

a) Description of Problem Solving

In order to check how tasks in EfA meet the characteristic of problem solving, three verifiers have been referred to. Then, in the below paragraphs, I describe how tasks invoke existing knowledge, permit different paths towards solution and finally check how the tasks are connected to other domains. After analysis, findings show from grade three, that task 1 and task 9 rarely rely on existing knowledge but the latter is sometimes focused on for tasks 2,3,6,7 and 8 and often relied on in tasks 4 and 5. As for grade four, recourse to existing knowledge is rarely done for tasks 1,3,4,6,7,8 and 9 but sometimes emphasized in task 5 and often for task 2 and task 10. In grade five however, it is obvious that use of the existing knowledge is never observable in the first task; rarely visible in tasks 3, 5 and 6 but often observable in tasks 2,4,7 and 8. To sum up, connection to existing knowledge is often used in eight tasks and sometimes in six tasks from the entire grades.

Concerning different paths for tasks to be addressed, findings inform that task 1, task 3 and task 6 do not permit different paths for tasks to be addressed in all the three grades. This is the same case for tasks 7,8 and 9 for grade three and four and task 10 for the same grade four. Similarly, there is only one way to handle task 2 in grade three, task 4 in grades four and five, task five in grade five. The total from the three grades includes twenty tasks that never provide different paths to handle the task. Besides, it is seen that there are sometimes opportunities to solve task 2 of grade four and grade five and it is often needed to go into different ways to address task 4 of grade five, task 5 of grades three and four. Task 7 in grade five proves that

there are always many ways, which can be taken so to be addressed or solved.

Results assert that in all grades (through the three lessons), the analyzed tasks are never connected to other domains than English, except task 2 which is rarely and sometimes connected to other domains respectively for grades four and five and sometimes for task 10 from grade four. It can also be read from grade five that tasks 4 and 7 often and always entail some connectedness to other domains. Such results imply that connectedness to other domains is an aspect that EfA does not entail.

b) Depiction of critical thinking

For critical thinking in “English for Africa”, the data describes the potential that tasks have to allow answers to be explained, to allow students express decision-making and the level of creativity impelled by those tasks.

Regarding explanation, it can be read from the results that in most cases, tasks do not require learners to explain their ideas and points of view. Findings prove that all the nine tasks from grade three and eight to ten from grade four never imply explanation. Exception to this is underpinned in some tasks. This is the case of tasks 2 and 10 from grade four and task 8 from grade five stating that sometimes learners can provide explanations. It is also seen that explanation is always possibly implied in tasks 2,4 and 7 of grade five.

Decision making as another way to verify critical thinking in EfA is never enhanced in task 1 from the three grades; never for task 2 of grade three; for task 3 of grades four and five; task 4 for grade five; task 6 for grades three and

five and for tasks 7,8 and 9 for grades three and four. Tasks 3 (grade three), 4 and 6 (grade four) assert that decision-making is sometimes stressed. Task 5 of grade five often entails decision making while this aspect is always entailed in tasks 4 and five from grade three, in tasks 2,5 and 10 from grade four and in tasks 2 and 7 from grade five.

As for the creativity issue, one reads from findings that students' creativity is generally not fostered or rarely described in tasks 4 and 5 of grade three, task 5 of grade four and in task 3 of grade five. Small differences can be discovered regarding grade five wherein creativity is totally (tasks 2 and 7), often (task 4) and sometimes (task 8) enhanced. In addition, it is found that in task 2 and task 10 from grade four creativity is always boosted.

c) Real-life

In the analysis of the fitting of characteristics of complex tasks by "English for Africa", it has also been a question to see the involvement of students' real world. Examining real-life in the three grades, I display results that show how tasks are in relation with local stories, embed things of local issue and link to daily life of the learners.

The results of the study prove that in most cases, tasks in EfA are rarely or sometimes related to stories acquainted with learners from the context of research. This is visible generally in grade three and grade four. For grade five however, it is exceptionally discovered that embedment of local stories is often encountered in task 2 and task 4.

Considering the involvement of things of local use, one can see that EfA, through the sampled lessons, rarely includes all such aspects. However, the embedment of things of

local issue is sometimes visible in tasks 3 and 6 for grade four, tasks 4 and 8 for grade five. Moreover, grade three stands out from the others in that, in addition to marking sometimes for task 7, it asserts that local issue is often embedded, and this can be read in task 6. In relation to learners' real-life, there has been also some intention to see whether tasks are linked to daily life of students using the textbooks at hand. In contrary to the other aspects described above, it can be read that eleven tasks are sometimes imply things related to learners' real life, six tasks often do so and seven tasks are always linked to things students may experience in everyday life (now or in future). Little exceptions are visibly related to the lesson of fourth grade concerning task 1, task 4 and task 6 which rarely approve this aspect.

d) Pathway to solution of tasks

The findings in the framework of the pathway to solution of tasks are differentiated into whether the solution is obvious or not obvious. The obviousity or non-obviousity of the solution to a task also results from the type of question that builds up that task. Yet the first thing to be examined in EfA was the type of question of the task.

After research, it is revealed that closed questions prevail over open questions, except from tasks 4 and 5 from grade three, tasks 2,5 and 10 of grade four and tasks 2,4 and 7 of grade five. The preponderance of closed questions seen in fourteen tasks (always) thereafter allows obvious solutions which does not therefore require students to provide much effort to address tasks in EfA.

Level of complexity is found mostly inexistent in five tasks

the three grades; apart from tasks 4 and 5 (grade three), tasks 2,5 and 10 (grade four) and tasks 2,4 and 7 (grade five) that often display some complexity. Similarly, different levels of competences to be developed by students working on these tasks depend on the level of task complexity. That is why, one can notice from the results that the description of the levels of competences is not much different from the one of task complexity. This can be understood by the fact that once a task is built in an open question, it entails some level of complexity and therefore different competences are developed while solving that task. However, task 2 of grade four and tasks 2,7 and 8 of grade five always allow students develop different competences. Regarding imitation, findings prove that most tasks in the three grades avail models that learners must imitate in order to address the different tasks. Examples include tasks 4,5,6,7,8 and 9 of grade three, tasks 5,7,8 and 9 of grade four and tasks 3,5 and 6 of grade five that always provide models.

It is worth mentioning here that the assessment of “English for Africa” is not only limited to the characteristics of the complex tasks it embodies. The study also tried to find out the language competences (as result of CT in language) fostered in the textbooks under study. The section below provides the results for this concern.

4.1.2 Language skills in “English for Africa”

The investigation of the language competences enhanced in EfA has taken into account the four primary language skills which are listening, speaking, reading and writing (see 3.3.2). These skills are in their turn examined through different competence aspects that helped to identify (during the analysis) their existence or not. Accordingly ideas are presented in the following descriptions.

a) Description of Listening

Listening is approved as an important competence to enhance within learners (see 2.2.1 & 3.3.2). To verify how listening is enhanced, different verifiers have been used. It has been checked if tasks require audio-visual materials, comprehension and if they imply summarizing/synthesizing. In the perspective of non-visibility, results show that in the lessons selected from the three grades, there is not even a single task that invokes the use of audio-visual aspect. This is visible from findings whereby none of the nine tasks in grade three, ten tasks from grade four and eight tasks from grade five depicts audio-visual. It means that the lessons do not avail sequences of tasks whereby students can see, listen to or both see and listen to accents of English. This implies that students do not have chance for model spoken accents that they can imitate for practice of speaking or discussing among themselves what they would have listened to.

Lack of audio-visual aspect to enhance listening competence automatically affects the aspect of comprehension together with summarizing and synthesizing. From the time there is no task plunging learners into listening, it becomes obvious that comprehension and summarizing/synthesizing what students might have listened are impossible. This is read from twenty-six tasks from the three grades. With exception, findings show that grade five for task 7 may foster comprehension as the task clearly states that learners ask questions to their fellow just after the presentation. This is already a way straight to attract students' attention to listen to the others while presenting.

b) Description of Speaking

Speaking is very important for any language learning as the main goal to learn a language is primarily speaking it (3.3.2) with opportunities connected to that speaking competence (2.2.1). To verify the extent at which speaking competence is boosted in EfA, implication of phonetic transcription, communicative aspect, presentation of the work done to the class and dramatization have been checked out. After analysis, it is found out that phonetics is out of the concern of EfA. In the lessons concerned with this study whose tasks have been examined, there are no tasks out of the nine of grade three, ten of grade four and eight of grade five where learners' phonetically production of words and/or expressions and sentences is thought about. Also, there is no allusion to phonetic transcription of some words, expressions and even sentences by students.

As far communication is concerned, it is revealed that endeavor is sometimes, often or always done to foster learners' communication competence. One can see this as there are two tasks for each grade that indicate always, three tasks (3,7 and 9) from grade four mark often and three more (1,4 and 6) display sometimes, two tasks (3 and 4) from grade 5 mark often as well as two more tasks from the same grade (five and six) support communication. For grade three, seven tasks assert that communication is sometimes enhanced. The visibility of comprehension is due to the fact that most tasks require learners to produce utterances while addressing tasks. But still the way this is done throughout tasks remains a problem as exchanges among students and the alike are not included. Also, tasks 1 and 8 for lessons 4 and 3 never call for learners' production of utterances.

Another means to help students develop the speaking competence is class presentation. Regarding this aspect, results reveal that presentation to class is at some extent thought about and roughly not thought about in the sampled lessons. In this sense, it is possible to read that students always present to the class the ideas they have regarding a task in grade three with tasks 4 and 5, in grade four with tasks 2 and 5 and in grade five with tasks 2 and 7. Apart from task 4 of grade five, all the other 20 tasks do not entail students' presentations.

Dramatization as another element to foster speaking competence has been analyzed in the three grades. Related findings prove that nearly all tasks never appeal to dramatization; exception done for two tasks (4 and 5) of grade three, one task (5) of grade four and one (7) of grade five that always imply the aforementioned aspect.

c) Description of Writing

Writing is also pertinent is language learning (2.2.1& 3.3.2). Concerning writing, three verifiers have been devised; they are implication of composition, grammar and paraphrasing. Providing tasks wherein learners produce own composition reflecting on grammar and giving them texts to paraphrase, learners are expected to enhance their writing competence.

From the findings, it is discovered that most tasks (19) do not imply composition. On the other counter, one may be informed by the results that composition is often focused on in tasks 4 and 5 of grade three, in tasks 2 and 5 of grade four and task 2 of grade five. In addition, four tasks; that is, tasks 8 and 10 from grade four and tasks 7 and 8 from grade five always lead student to composition.

The results about grammar read in the following lines. Six tasks (2 and 3 of grade three and 3,4,6 and 10 of grade four) always imply grammar, four tasks (7,8 and 9 of grade four and 8 of grade five) often do it and three (tasks 2 and 5 of grade five and task 2 of grade four) sometimes entail it. In the rest of tasks, grammar is never mentioned.

As to paraphrasing, it is generally found out that tasks do not appeal to such an aspect. Particularities are, however, visible since paraphrasing is sometimes implied as it is the case for tasks 7, 8 and 9 of grade four and tasks 3, 5 and 6 of grade five. In addition, it is seen that writing implying paraphrasing is often done in tasks 4 and 5 of grade three, in task 5 of grade four) and always referred to from grade three for tasks 6, 7, 8 and 9.

d) Description of Reading

Like other language competences, reading is also needed to be developed when learning a language (2.2.1.& 3.3.2). In evaluating reading in grade three, grade four and grade five, the study looked into how tasks do entail comprehension, what is the extent of involvement of cursory reading and what is the implication of students in summarizing or synthesizing what they have read is. It is believed that if all the elements are met, learners develop necessary reading competence. Talking of the aspect of comprehension, it results out that most of the time, learners are not generally asked to prove their understanding of what they have read. This is clearly read in eighteen tasks. But this is not the same thing in task 1 where all the grades always test the students' understating of the lesson. This is the same for task 2 from grades three and five, task 4 from grade five and for task 10 from grade four where

comprehension is tested. cursory reading is never alluded to. Indeed, having analyzed the data, it has been revealed that the total of the twenty-seven tasks from the three grades never push students to read a text or a certain passage loudly. This means that all the reading tasks are limited at silent reading. Like cursory reading, students summarizing/synthesizing what they have read is not also fostered. Learners only read lessons but are not asked to tell the story about the read lesson or simply summarize it. But few differences shed light to some tasks. This includes task 2 where summarizing is often and always emphasized respectively by grade four and grade five. Also, task 8 of grade five (often) and task 10 of grade four (always) push students to summarize or synthesize what they read.

4.2 Summary of Results

In this section, the data is synthesized in results. For the present study, findings are interpreted so to enable readers of this work understand what goes in “English for Africa”. The analysis has focused on two criteria. The first consists in finding out the characteristics displayed by tasks in EfA in relation to complex tasks. The second criterion deals with the reflection of language competences in the same textbooks. Reading the descriptions above, it is obvious that some indicators of task complexity are observable while others are not. The same inconsistent balance may be seen regarding language competences in different lessons and the related tasks from the three grades. This summary elucidates the differences in the following passage.

4.2.1 Reliance on Existing Knowledge as an Element of Problem Solving

Problem solving as a dimension of complex tasks has been examined. Its examination consisted in looking into how it does rely on existing knowledge, if it allows different paths to address tasks and if these tasks are connected to other domains than English. Among all these aspects, results have proved that reliance on existing knowledge is the mostly highlighted. While grade three and grade four (with two aspects each) assert that for tasks to be handled, knowledge must often be related to, grade five however agrees with this with four tasks. Also, grade three states that recourse to knowledge is sometimes done in five tasks (tasks 2,3,6,7 and 8) but grade four brings in only task 5. Eleven tasks assert that reliance on knowledge is rarely effective to task handling and only one task (task 1 of grade five) describes that knowledge is never relied on.

Given that problem solving implies existing knowledge, it is therefore understood that knowledge is an integral part of complex tasks that should not be overlooked. For the case of ELT, knowledge must be emphasized so to prepare students to address complex tasks.

4.2.2 Complex Tasks Enhancing Decision Making

Findings have revealed decision making as a visible aspect in the textbooks intended for the teaching and learning of English. Making a decision is a competence that students must develop through dealing with complex tasks.

From results, one can read that decision-making description is fostered in the three grades on which this study is based. It can be seen that grade three provides opportunity to

students to make decision in tasks 3,4 and 5. Also, grade five enhances decision making through three tasks, namely task 2,5 and task 7. As for grade four, this aspect of complex tasks is fostered in five tasks, which are task 2,4,5,6 and 10. In these tasks, students are provided certain number of possibilities among which they have to decide. At the expense of other aspects like explanation and creativity that are sought from critical thinking, decision-making has prevailed as synthesized above. But it has to be clarified that fifteen tasks out of twenty-seven do not display this aspect.

4.2.3 Depiction of Things of Daily Experience

Another element of complex tasks reflected in the textbooks under study is the development of things that students may experience in everyday life. Results describe that seven tasks always entail things that students can experience in their everyday life while six tasks state often, eleven align with sometimes and three with rarely. Looking at the tasks, one may see that conversation between students in boarding house (grade three), taxi matters (in grade four) and being airhostess (grade five) encompass things that students in the framework of this study may be acquainted with and that may come in everyday use.

4.2.4 Utterance Production as Enhancement of Speaking Competence

According to the findings, speaking is the most enhanced dimension through communication. This is revealed in six tasks (always), in 5 tasks (often) and in twelve tasks (sometimes) as being enhanced. However, it is worth mentioning that the type of communication referred to

here is just a mere production of utterances. This may be justified by the fact that nearly for all tasks, students are appealed to talk. Regarding the results of this study, it is realized that there is a gap within the textbooks (English for Africa) used for the teaching and learning of English in the framework of study considering the complexity of tasks and the language competences to develop (see more in chapter 5).

It is pertinent that these findings are confronted to literature. The following chapter five (discussion) sheds light to this issue.

5.

CHALLENGES OF ARTICULATING COMPLEX TASKS IN THE ENGLISH TEXTBOOKS IN THE DEVELOPING CONTEXT

In the following reflections, I am going to discuss the contribution of my research in relation to the topic and the problem of this book. Furthermore, I am going to reflect the results of chapter four considering the discourse presented in chapter two. In other words, the present chapter discusses the findings in confrontation with accordingly scientific discourse. In this framework, contributions of this investigation to discourse on cognitive activation by complex tasks and on the English language teaching and learning as well as on the context of the study are discussed.

This book is concerned with the research question which consists to know what the understanding of complex tasks by English for Africa means. Two sub-research questions have been developed and respectively been read as (1) what type of tasks are described in English for Africa? and (2) which indicators and/or verifiers of complex tasks are reflected in the tasks available in English for Africa?

To answer these questions, the examination of three lessons from three grades has been carried out. It is worth

recalling that to analyze tasks in EfA, a checklist/workbook of two criteria (characteristics of tasks and language skills) has been designed. Each criterion embeds certain indicators that are devised into verifiers. Therefore, I am going to discuss these elements of the workbook regarding the research question.

5.1 Reflection of characteristics of CT in “English for Africa”

Considering the characteristics of tasks, my research revealed that some indicators and verifiers are most reflected in EfA while others are not. Examining the different verifiers, the study shows in the concerned grades that tasks generally appeal to existing knowledge, decision-making and link to daily life.

Following science, one may read that flow of existing knowledge in addressing complex tasks is pertinent. In this framework, literature approves that complex tasks should abound in problems whose resolution appeals to existing knowledge (Marzano & Kendall, 2007:22; Cummins & Floten, 2016:141). This implies that, in addition to equipping students with knowledge, the teaching process should provide and rely on problems that students must solve. This is done for the preparation of learners as their life during and after studies is connected to problems they will encounter and which they will necessarily have to solve (van Merriënboer, Kester, & Paas, 2006:343; Abdallah & Mohammad, 2016:36). Considering the present study, one may see from findings that for the handling of tasks, reliance to existing knowledge is stressed. However, there is lack of different paths to solve tasks and connectedness to further domains than English which are other aspects to

root problem solving (see last paragraph of this section). From these results, it can be asserted that problems solving is not described in the textbooks at hand. In this perspective, it can be said that students from the area of investigation are likely not to develop competences, as they do not get involved in problem solving tasks. Reasons supporting this statement are clarified by the fact that requirements of complex task is to be problem solving-related (Marzano, 2007:92) that should always be available and varied (Kember & McNaught, 2007: 43) during the teaching process for the enhancement of competences among learners.

Importantly, in including problems in the teaching-learning process, life realities of students are to be taken into consideration. Literature supports that complex tasks must be rooted within students' real life (Broughton, Brumfit, Flavell, Hill, & Pincas, 2003:7; van Merriënboer, Kester, & Paas, 2006:343; Kember & McNaught, 2007:viii). Among indicators related to characteristics of tasks, it is obvious that learners' real life (with one facet) is reflected. For learners' real life, research results reveal that EfA tasks generally bear things that learners are likely to experience in everyday life. Still there is something missing in EfA as tasks do not always incorporate things that are really dug from the world of learners; therefore, the textbooks lack local stories and things from local issues. This state of missing some aspects related to real life of students in the context of study describes a gap in the textbooks since students' local realities must be integrated in complex tasks (Robinson, 2005:2). Literature aligns with this point asserting that availability of students' real world in the teaching materials fosters their motivation (Bell &

Gower, 1998:123). It is in the framework of motivation that learners are expected to develop the English competences they need both for life and work, as well as to be involved in interactions with the users of English (Litz, 2005:8). In addition to considering learners' real life, complex tasks have also to cultivate, in learners, further competences like decision-making (Marzano & Kendall, 2007:51; Hosseini & Rahbar, 2012:253). In fact, decision is a very important thing for life. Students need to be trained in taking rational decisions as life is made of circumstances that will require them to take decisions. It means that decision-making is a competence that students need for life (Gregory & Clemen, 1999:6; Zhang, et al. 2016:218). In the context of the study, it comes out that decision-making is focused and this is encouraging.

There are however some aspects of complex tasks that are not described by the results of this study. Indeed, for tasks not to involve connectedness to other domains, not to appeal explanations, not to imply local landscape and not to allow diversity of the levels of complexity, the outcome is critical (Ronen & Langley, 2004:40; Hattie, 2012:4). These ideas are deepened in the following lines where closed questions demarcate as reference among the findings of this study.

Closed questions appear frequently visible among the mostly recurrent verifiers. However, closed questions are opposed to a teaching related to complex tasks-related because for the former (closed questions), no idea of cognition is inferred whilst the goal for the latter is cognition of students. From this, it comes out that open questions should be the ones to align with such a type

of teaching as they allow learners to reflect and express their thoughts without any obstruction (Dalton-Puffer, 2007:96). This meets the requirement according to which students working with complex tasks need to provide explanations (Wong, 2008:190) of what they have done. Further statements arise against the philosophy of closed questions, as they do not give opportunity for learners to explore possible ways out. Relating to these comments about the types of questions in which tasks should be built, it sorts out that “English for Africa” contains insufficiencies given that it is designed in a way to set limits in which learners navigate while solving related tasks.

However, there are some tasks (as the research shows) for which learners may be involved in with some ease to express, at some extent, their thoughts. Science supports the idea that there is not a single way to handle complex tasks but rather various paths to address them (Helsdingen, van Gog, & van Merriënboer, 2011:385; Abdallah & Mohammad, 2016:56). Nevertheless, findings reveal that different paths for tasks to be addressed are not fostered.

In devising different ways towards complex tasks, textbooks should leave the room for students to develop different levels of competences. In case of observance of this trend, it is possible for learners engaging in one task that requires organizing, reviewing, rehearsing, summarizing, comparing, and contrasting (Rosenshine, 2002:7) to enhance accordingly competences. But this is not the case with the books for the present study.

Also, according to science, complex tasks should enhance students’ creativity (Lawrence, 2011:31) and this may

be made possible through autonomous and responsible learning (Nunan, 2004: 5). Autonomy in learning has been approved as a way to help attain learning long-term success (Little, 1996:204). Such a success is dependently built on the responsibility of both the teacher and learner (Flowers, Kelsen, & Cvitkovic, 2019:3). The present research unfortunately proves that creativity is not fostered in EfA. Lack of tasks to boost students' creative competences is a great critical inconsistency that the textbook at hand abounds in. This can be read from most of the tasks in EfA where nearly all the tasks are preceded by models to be imitated. In this way, tasks do not allow, as consequence, students to train autonomy and responsibility by performing creative competence.

Imitations are, in fact, not a good way to deal with complex tasks. As EfA indulges learners in the work of CT with imitations, they would simply follow the models by running from critical thinking. Despite this counter argumentation against model imitation, it has been asserted however that imitation is undoubtedly very crucial for the learning of pronunciation of a language (Broughton, Brumfit, Flavell, Hill, & Pincas, 2003:58). Regarding this idea of imitating the pronunciation of a language, it may be expected from a textbook to display tasks which offer students chance to practice the target language through model pronunciations; which is not the reality with EfA and this would affect the students' outcome.

Connectedness to other domains is also something longed by complex tasks. Questioning literature, one discovers that there is a strong stress, which is put on the inclusion of other domains within a teaching based on complex

tasks (Marzano & Kendall, 2007:23; Helsdingen, van Gog, & van Merriënboer, 2011:385; Abdallah & Mohammad, 2016:56). In opposition to this, it must be noted that tasks in “English for Africa” do not connect to other domains. From the research carried out, it has been seen that tasks in EfA are totally language-related tasks. Therefore, it is not possible to come across a task that includes mathematics, relate natural sciences and so forth. Indeed, missing to incorporate further domains among tasks embedded in “English for Africa” constitutes a big gap as it may become difficult for its users to make a link between language and other domains, although language learning is beyond linguistic register (Mikulas & Mikulasova, 2016: 232). Therefore, students are likely not to develop the competence needed to use language for solving problems.

5.2 Enhancement of Language Competences in “English for Africa”

As complex tasks must be part of textbooks (Hutchinson & Torres, 1994:318), development of language competences should be awaited as outcome from such a link. In this perspective, language skills are another criterion, which has been investigated in this study. From this perspective, indicators are concerned with the enhancement of speaking, listening, reading and writing. The observation of these competences has been made possible thanks to the design of several verifiers for each indicator. The related results are discussed in the following lines. After research, it has been seen that communication is fostered. The communication highlighted through the tasks in this research is not meant as real communication wherein somebody holds a speech and talks to an audience. It is rather an

opportunity left for students to speak English by uttering sentences while giving an oral answer to a question. Yet, this being the case, one cannot expect the communicative competence of students using the target books to be sustained as aspects like summarizing and dramatization are not sufficiently thought about. Contrary to this situation revealed by results, competence of communication is longed for any learning of language, as it is the first target for ELT (Meristiani, 2011:41). In this framework, learners should be able to communicate, criticize, and present information and ideas (Ananiadou & Claro, 2009:10), as language is nothing than communication (Finney, 2002: 69). The idea here is that communicative competence is made of various variables and it embraces all the areas. According to Finney (*ibid.*), it is known for example that in developing communication, students must be brought to navigate in professional and social contexts; and this longs to prepare them for lifelong issues and making them become full members of the society (Ananiadou & Claro, 2009:10). It therefore means that learners need to be trained in such a way that they do not encounter difficulties for communication, despite the situation and the topic. As ELT is based on textbooks, it is then pertinent that these textbooks reflect communicative competence (Boxer & Pickering, 1995:56). Confronting the scientific discourse on communicative competence and the results from my research, it may be said that “English for Africa” is far to foster a sustainable communicative competence within its users.

As said in the preceding lines, many language aspects enhance communicative competence and one of them is grammar. Literature supports the idea stating that

“grammar exists to enable the language user to express different communicative meanings” (Nunan, 2004:4). As such, grammatical input is important for English learners (Willis, 1996:53). That is why, in his checklist for students’ book evaluation, Miekley suggests grammar as one of the elements to be looked in (Miekley, 2005:2).

Despite this focus towards grammar, EfA tasks lack strong grammatical inputs as only some tasks focus on it. Another linguistic aspect that contributes to the development of communication is synthesizing and/or summarizing. The idea is that students have much to practice speaking English and therefore develop communicative competences when asked to synthesize or summarize (orally) what they have read or listened to. Rosenshire (2002) enriches the argument saying that summarizing is one of the cognitive activities in which students are to be involved (p.7). Summarizing and synthesizing boost not only communication, but they also relate to writing as an important competence to be developed as well. Writing implies, in the framework of this book, grammar (discussed in the previous lines), paraphrasing and composition. The connection between summarizing/synthesizing and writing is emphasized as summarizing and notetaking (writing) work together (Marzano, 2007: 35).

Corroborating this statement, Marzano (*ibid.*) asserts that “both summarizing and note taking are linguists’ ways of synthesizing information”. Hattie strengthens the idea of relation between synthesizing with communication and with writing showing that “...synthesizing information produces better learning than rereading materials or other passive strategies” (Hattie, 2012:101). In connection to the

findings of this book, it results out that the enhancement of all these aspects is crucial but not described in the framework of this study. Phonetics is also a way to foster communicative competence. Indeed, as communication implies language use, its production must be unavoidably done through for example interactions with natives (Litz, 2005:8). For efficient communication with such users of English, learners need to be initiated on how English sounds are produced, hence the necessity for phonetics and phonology. Regarding my research, results reveal that phonetics is never thought about. This may lead users of EfA to encounter difficulties in grasping the message when communicating with native or near native speakers of English. A way to overcome such difficulties is resorting to audio-visual materials containing native speakers' conversations. So, in practice of phonetics and phonology, students need to exercise their productive and receptive skills. Sustaining the idea, scientific discourse impels learners of English to use "audio-recorded native speakers, video-recorded native speakers, read aloud phonetically weighted texts, practice ear-training, phonetic drilling, imitation, tongue twisters, explicit teaching" (Reid, 2016: 22) as this enables them be successful in the language learning (Broughton, Brumfit, Flavell, Hill, & Pincas, 2003: 77).

This is still evidence that textbooks are not predestined into fostering students speaking competence. Further competences, which the research tried to see if they are enhanced in the selected lessons - include comprehension and cursory reading. Scientific discourse has approved comprehension as an important competence that learners of a language need to develop. Alongside with

this, comprehension is (according to the classification of competences by Marzano and Kendall) listed among the six levels of competences and is part of those belonging to the cognitive system (Marzano & Kendall, 2007:35). Comprehension can be sought from both reading and listening. Literature ascertains comprehension among the focus of reading texts (Reid, 2016:22) and it invokes class presentation that embarks all the students through the same reading (Ning, 2011:65-66). The understanding of class presentation linked to reading implies cursory reading. Yet, it is acknowledged that cursory reading contributes to the improvement of students' productive skills. The case of "English for Africa" balances two dimensions. Regarding to my research, reading comprehension is highly emphasized. This can be read alongside the tasks (nearly all of them), which check the understanding of the lesson by learners. However, comprehension related to listening remains very critical, as it is not thought about. Lack of listening comprehension is justified by the fact that there are no tasks entailing reading and listening sets.

Regarding the results of this study (chapter 4) and the scientific discourse (chapter 2&3), it is realized that there are still problems connected to the enhancement of complex tasks conducive of language competences within "English for Africa", the textbooks used for the teaching and learning of English in Congolese secondary schools. These problems highlight the gap connected to the lack of problems (among tasks) to be solved by learners and the related dimensions like critical thinking and creativity. This complies with lack of necessary language competences that should be fostered. Therefore, the enhancement of educational quality using EfA needs to be very well

reflected for the students using these textbooks develop required competences. The next chapter, the conclusion, sums up the study by in regard to the understanding of complex task in EfA and the recommendations that may help in meeting teaching quality while using the textbooks at hand.

6.

CONCLUSION

This chapter provides a closing picture of the study. That is why, in the present chapter, I elaborate the conclusion of the findings in light to the answers provided for the research questions in chapter five and from there, I draw suggestions for praxis and for further studies.

6.1 Understanding of Complex Tasks

This study aimed at investigating the reflection of complex tasks within “English for Africa”, a series of textbooks used for the teaching and learning of English in secondary schools in the Democratic Republic of the Congo. The main research question that triggered this study consisted to know the understanding of complex tasks by “English for Africa”. For this question to lead to the needed results, it tried to look first into the type of tasks that are conveyed in EfA and then check the aspects of CT that are reflected in the concerned textbooks.

In the state of research, I have explained that complex tasks are the ones (resorting to different aspects) that cognitively activate students for the latter to develop competences (Kember & McNaught, 2007:43). It has also been shown, through scientific discourse, that there is existing relationship between complex tasks and

competency-based teaching/education (Kirschner, Paas, & Kirschner, 2009:33). Aligning with this idea, it is asserted that “CBE offers students the opportunity to draw upon existing life skills and knowledge, to pursue affordable education and training commensurate with their life goals, and to enter or reenter the workforce with demonstrated abilities” (Rainwater, 2016:42). Furthermore, literature proves that ELT is not excluded from the application of complex tasks (Zare-ee, 2012:226). Such an application is transferred from textbook and other teaching materials (Boxer & Pickering, 1995:56). This means that - while designing textbooks and other teaching materials - it is necessary that CT are thought about and are incorporated within the materials. To achieve this book, I used qualitative descriptive document analysis. This required a design of workbook that enabled me to display the characteristics of tasks that are embedded in EfA in order to know how it understands CT on one side and on the other side, the language competences embedded in the tasks drawn from the target lessons.

In studying the characteristics of tasks, I sought to see if these tasks imply problems to be solved by students (verifiable from existing knowledge, permission of different pathways to solve and connectedness to other domains), involve critical reflection (requires explanation, decision making and appeals to creativity), invoke learners’ real life (to imply relation with local stories, things of local issue and link to daily life) and check the degree of obviousness of the solution requested by tasks (verifying if questions are closed or open, the level of complexity, different levels of competences and if there is model for imitation). Concerning the language, competences

for study have been devised into listening (measured through audio-visual, comprehension and summarizing/synthesizing), speaking (verifiable through phonetic transcription, communication, presentation to the class and dramatization), writing (evaluating existence of composition, grammar and paraphrasing), and finally reading (implication of comprehension, cursory reading and summarizing/synthesizing). In analyzing the tasks embedded in EfA, results have revealed that some competences are enhanced within some tasks and other competences cannot be read throughout the lessons at hand. This is enlightened in the below passage.

From results, it has been possible for me to show how some characteristics of complex tasks are reflected in the textbooks under study through the selected lessons from different grades. In this way, it can be said that the type of tasks devised in EfA reflects simple tasks, as all the requirements for task complexity are not visible in the said books. The characteristics which are reflected include tasks requiring use of existing knowledge, entailing decision making, linked to things students may experience in their daily life. In relation to English language competences, results show that most tasks may bring learners to speak; hence the possibility to develop communicative competence if other aspects are gathered.

The major challenge with EfA is task-related, as tasks do not reflect real life problems as a learning instrument. Contrariwise, problem solving is commendable as means for learning at which learners need to be initiated (Kember & McNaught, 2007:39) given that such a type of problems enhances students' competences (Marzano, 2007:92; Hosseini & Rahbar, 2012:253).

Also, creativity, implication of very local stories and things gathered from students' real life are out of the concern of the EfA tasks. However, creativity should not be overlooked at regarding its connectivity with complex tasks (Lawrence, 2011:31; Abdallah & Mohammad, 2016:23). In fact, quality teaching should foster students' competences of creativity by taking them away from imitation, which is only good for the learning of the pronunciation of a language (Broughton, Brumfit, Flavell, Hill, & Pincas, 2003: 58). In relation to real life of learners, it is said that local stories and things from the real world of students must be visible in complex tasks (Broughton, Brumfit, Flavell, Hill, & Pincas, 2003:73,193; Kember & McNaught, 2007:35,36,51); and these tasks must be embedded in ELT textbooks (van Merriënboer, Kester, & Paas, 2006:343).

The non-visibility of some characteristics of complex tasks in EfA implies a major problem regarding to "English for Africa". Such a problem can be explained by the lack of implementation of quality teaching. However, the education that addresses this issue will be seen as quality education, which helps students to develop the skills they need. Such competences are scrutinized by the British Council stating that learners in the 21st century need to develop 'critical thinking and problem solving, citizenship, collaboration and communication, digital literacy, creativity and imagination, student leadership and personal development' (British Council, 2015:4).

There are also challenges related to the language issue in "English for Africa". According to Language learning: Myths and facts, "the best way to learn a foreign language is to speak it" (Language learning: Myths and facts, 2019). The

idea invoked in this statement is that learners (of a language) should provide opportunities to speak the language they are learning so to develop a communicative competence, which is the main objective for language learning (Meristiani, 2011:41). This argument is shared through a consensus according to which “the ability to communicate effectively in English is now a well-established goal in ELT” (Hedge, 2000:44). Learners’ attainment of this competence invokes use of many techniques. For example, students need to be involved in tasks requiring audio-visual practices. Science asserts that use of audio-visual materials for language learning enables students develop listening and speaking (Broughton, Brumfit, Flavell, Hill, & Pincas, 2003:77; Reid, 2016:22).

Since audio-visual tasks imply speaking, class presentation and dramatization can also be fostered and therefore communicative competence is enhanced. Dramatization has been reported as a way to improve speaking competences (Broughton, Brumfit, Flavell, Hill, & Pincas, 2003:84). Accordingly, the presentation by students is stressed on language learning based on tasks regarding its involvement in the development of communicative competence (Nunan, 2004:44,54). Reading these ideas behind language learning, one understands that audio-visual tasks together with other connecting techniques are important for developing communicative competences. Unfortunately, tasks from “English for Africa” do not, according to the results, involve audio-visual activities. Relating then to what literature says here, it is possible to say that EfA is not well framed to help its learner users to develop English communicative competence.

In response to the question of knowing the understanding of complex tasks by “English for Africa”, key points must be recalled here. Indeed, results have shown that it is easy to read some characteristics of complex tasks in EfA while others, as documented in this book, are not existent in the textbooks. Genuinely, the analyzed tasks reveal several English competences that EfA has potential to foster, though the most important ones regarding the tribute for TBLT are not mentioned throughout those tasks. Furthermore, considering the textbooks in use in Congolese secondary schools and the related tasks, it appears that the latter less address the cognition of students. Yet, it is critical that EfA cannot involve complex tasks to activate learners’ cognition because research has shown that one of the roles of textbooks is to serve as “resource for activities of learners’ practice and communicative interaction” (Ghufron & Saleh, 2016:2).

Regarding this situation, the answer to the question describes the understanding of complex tasks by EfA as not being convincingly demonstrated and this entails no hope for the feasibility of task-based language teaching for secondary schools in DRC. The rationale is that in examining the Congolese educational system, I happen to understand that there are many problems around the teaching and learning of English in DRC. A recurrent problem is the low quality of education that does not boost learning outcome (World Bank, 2005:80; Kaleba & Tombola, 2017:130) and this may be due to bad pre-and/or in-service teacher training (Aber et al., 2017:510). Despite that teachers have much influence on the learning outcome (Hattie, 2012:115; Fullan, 2015:22), critical teacher training in DRC cannot allow this influence.

This situation impels to formulate some suggestions concerning “English for Africa”. In this regard, the following section elaborates this concern.

6.2 Suggestions for Praxis and Further Research

Reading the data and regarding their analysis and in confrontation with the scientific discourse, it is pertinent that some suggestions be formulated for praxis and for further research. In this framework, this section first highlights suggestions for praxis; it means suggesting what can be done and at which level so to improve educational quality regarding to the results driven from “English for Africa”. In the second position, I state prospective studies to be undertaken for the improvement of the teaching quality of English in the Democratic Republic of the Congo.

6.2.1 Suggestions for Praxis

Given that the decision towards a textbook and its implementation depends on policy makers, suggestions are formulated in this sense so to let the Congolese deciders know that something can still be done for the improvement of the teaching of English in secondary schools. Once selected, the implementation of the selected teaching materials becomes genuine and this remains the responsibility for teachers. That is why certain suggestions as how to cope with EfA are as well directed to Congolese teachers in charge of the English teaching in secondary schools.

Considering the weaknesses revealed in EfA, it is suggested to the Congolese ministry of education, through specialists:

- to revise or possibly design new textbooks for quality

teaching and learning of English at secondary schools. Science has shown that the process of teaching and learning is useless if not rooted in relevant textbooks (Hutchinson & Torres, 1994:315). Aligning with Koike (1989:287) and Lawrence (2011:30) who claim the development of complex tasks and the related characteristics in language textbooks, such a revision should embed the Congolese local stories on one hand and on the other hand, the development of complex tasks so to enhance learners' different competences.

- Also, the pre-service teacher training should be strengthened by registering in the curriculum, teaching quality as a course in teacher training colleges and in the faculties of education sciences and assure regular in-service trainings of teachers in the perspectives of education quality. The objective for this is to have quality teachers who are able to drive learners' achievements. This can be supported by science that shows that quality teachers committed to the work (Hattie, 2012:22) are the "single most important school variable influencing student achievement" (Verspoor, 2008:217).
- Furthermore, it is important to initiate a course of curriculum design and evaluation in the departments of English so to allow teachers of English to be able to assess the teaching materials they implement and make suggestions to the ministry as this is part of their job (Grant, 1987:8; Lee, 2013:69; AbdelWahab, 2013:55). This would enable both student teachers and on-job-teachers to improve the teaching materials they use and graduate students who, having English competences, respond both to life and market requirements; hence, quality teaching.

For Congolese teachers of English in secondary schools, it is suggested:

- To take advantage of the steps already made in regard to cognitive activation by complex tasks in designing and implementing complex tasks in their lessons.
- As many textbooks are produced for finance gains (Dendrinou, 1992:35; Tomlinson, 2003:3) and EfA is not excluded from this frame, the textbooks under investigation might not fit students' needs. According to literature (Wen-Cheng, Chien-Hung, & Chung-Chieh, 2011:93), it is therefore up to Congolese teachers of English to be as tactful as possible so to improve tasks already existing in EfA in order to foster students' competences they are meant to develop.

6.2.2 Suggestions for Further Research

According to Tomlinson (1996:238), further research to contribute to discourse and improve practice is important. So, to enrich the findings of this study, further research can be conducted to contribute to the discourse and the practice of teaching and learning of English as foreign language, particularly in the DRC. In this framework, the present book leaves the door open for further investigations. Prospective researchers can investigate how teachers handle English classes regarding to cognitive activation by complex tasks. In addition, it is possible to investigate the attitudes of both teachers and learners towards "English for Africa". Further investigations can even take into account methodologies like audio-visual that are applied by DRC teachers of English. This kind of research may help to collect the overall strengths and weaknesses of

EfA in the perspective of its users through a thorough evaluation. It can be believed that such studies, focusing on the content (UNESCO, 2004:36), would contribute to the implementation of quality teaching within the Congolese educational system by drawing implications to the development of material design and assessment for the sake of learners' competences (UNESCO, 2014:217). Regarding all the arguments described and discussed in this book, it comes out that task complexity is one of the significant variables to be considered for designing language-learning materials (Zare-ee, 2012:226).

APPENDICES

Workbook for data analysis

	Indicators	Verifiers		Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	
Characteristics of tasks	Elements of problem solving	Tasks are relying on existing knowledge	Grade Three		4 and 5	2, 3, 6, 7 and 8	1 and 9		
			Grade Four		2 and 10	5	1, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8 and 9		
			Grade Five		2, 4, 7 and 8		3, 5 and 6	1	
		Different paths for tasks to be addressed	Grade Three		4,5				1,2,3,6,7,8 and 9
			Grade Four			5	2		1,3,4,6,7,8, 9 and 10
			Grade Five	7	4	2			1,3,4,5,6,8
		Tasks are connected to other domains than English	Grade Three						1,2,3,4,5,6, 7,8 and 9
			Grade Four				10	2	1,3,4,5,6,7, 8,9
			Grade Five	7	4	2			1,3,5,6,8
	Depiction of critical thinking	Tasks require explanation	Grade Three						1,2,3,4,5,6, 7,8 and 9
			Grade Four			2 and 10			1,3,4,5,6,7, 8 and 9
			Grade Five	2,4 and 7			8		1,3,5 and 6
		Tasks entail decision making	Grade Three	4,5			3		1,2,6,7,8 and 9
			Grade Four	2,5 and 10			4,6		1,3,7,8,9
			Grade Five	2 and 7	5			8	1,3,4 and 6
		Appeal to creativity	Grade Three					4,5	1,2,3,6,7,8 and 9
			Grade Four	2 and 10				5	1,3,4,6,7,8 and 9
			Grade Five	2 and 7	4	8	3		1,5 and 6
	Real-life	Local stories	Grade Three			4,5,6,7,8 and 9	1,3	2	
			Grade Four				3,5,6,7, 8,9,10	1,2,4,	
			Grade Five	2 and 4	3,7 and 8	1		5 and 6	
	Things of local issue	Grade Three			6	7	4,8 and 9	1,2,3 and 5	
						3 and 6	5	1,2,4,7,8 and 9	
						4 and 8	1,2,5 and 7	3 and 6	
Grade Four			6,7	4,5	1,2,3,8 and 9				
		Grade Three							

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		experience	Grade Four	10	2,5 and 7	3,8 and 9	1,4 and 6			
			Grade Five	2,4,7 and 8	5	1,3 and 6				
	Obviosity of solution to tasks	Closed question	Grade Three	1,2,3,6,7,8,9				4 and 5		
			Grade Four	1,4 and 6				5	2,3,7,8,9 and 10	
			Grade Five	1,3,5 and 6		8		4	2 and 7	
		Open question	Grade Three			4,5				1,2,3,6,7,8 and 9
			Grade Four	2 and 10		5			3	1,4,6,7,8 and 9
			Grade Five	2 and 7		4	8			1,3,5 and 6
		Level of complexity	Grade Three			4 and 5				1,2,3,6,7,8 and 9
			Grade Four			2,5,10				1,3,4,6,7,8 and 9
			Grade Five			2,4 and 7			8	1,3,5 and 6
		Different levels of competences	Grade Three			4 and 5			1,6,7 and 9	2,3 and 8
			Grade Four	2		5			1,3,7 and 9	4,6 and 8
			Grade Five	2,7 and 8		4			3	1,5 and 6
	Model imitation	Grade Three	4,5,6,7 8 and 9						1,2 and 3	
		Grade Four	5,7,8 and 9					3	1,2,4,6 and 10	
		Grade Five	3,5 and 6						1,2,4,7 and 8	
	Language skills	Description of listening	Audio-visual	Grade Three						1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8 and 9
				Grade Four						1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10
				Grade Five						
Comprehension			Grade Three							1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8 and 9
			Grade Four							1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10
			Grade Five				7			1,2,3,4,5,6 and 8
Summarizing/synthesizing		Grade Three							1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8 and 9	
		Grade Four							1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10	
		Grade Five							1,2,3,4,5,6,7 and 8	
Description of speaking		Phonetics	Grade Three							1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8 and 9
			Grade Four							1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10
			Grade Five							1,2,3,4,5,6,7 and 8

		Communication	Grade Three	4 and 5		1,2,3,6,7,8 and 9		
			Grade Four	2 and 5	3,7 and 9	1,4 and 6		8 and 10
			Grade Five	2 and 7	3 and 4	5 and 6		1 and 8
		Class presentation	Grade Three	4 and 5				1,2,3,6,7,8 and 9
			Grade Four	2 and 5				1,3,4,6,7,8,9 and 10
			Grade Five	2 and 7		4		1,3,5,6 and 8
		Dramatization	Grade Three	4 and 5				1,2,3,6,7,8 and 9
			Grade Four	5				1,2,3,4,6,7,8,9 and 10
			Grade Five	7				1,2,3,4,5,6 and 8
	Description of writing	Requires composition	Grade Three		4 and 5			1,2,3,6,7,8 and 9
			Grade Four	8 and 10	2 and 5			1,3,4,6,7 and 9
			Grade Five	7 and 8	2			1,3,4,5 and 6
		Grammar	Grade Three	2,3				1,4,5,6,7,8 and 9
			Grade Four	3,4,6 and 10	7,8 and 9	2		1 and 5
			Grade Five		8	2 and 5		1,3,4,6 and 7
Paraphrasing	Grade Three	6,7,8 and 9	4 and 5		1	2 and 3		
Description of reading		Grade Four		5	7, 8 and 9		1,2,3,4,6 and 10	
		Grade Five			3,5 and 6		1,2,4,7 and 8	
		Grade Three	1 and 2				3,4,5,6,7,8 and 9	
	Description of reading	Comprehension	Grade Four	1 and 10				2,3,4,5,6,7,8 and 9
			Grade Five	1,2,4		6	8	3,1 and 7
			Grade Three					1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8 and 9
	Cursory reading		Grade Four					1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10
			Grade Five					1,2,3,4,5,6,7 and 8
			Grade Three					1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8 and 9
	Summarizing/synthesizing		Grade Four	10	2			1,3,4,5,6,7,8,9
			Grade Five	2	8		4	1,3,5,6,7

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Abstract

This book investigates the reflection of complex tasks in the textbooks used for the teaching and learning of English in Congolese secondary schools. It looks into the characteristics of tasks available in English for Africa and see how they meet complex tasks. The aim is therefore to reflect how educational quality can be improved so to enhance English competences within learners in secondary schools of the Democratic Republic of Congo through the use of complex task-based language teaching. The study consisted of the analysis of three lessons selected from the books corresponding to grade three, grade four and grade five of high school. To achieve this study, I resorted to qualitative descriptive document analysis. After analysis, it comes out that some features of complex tasks are reflected in the tasks from English for Africa but the most important are not visible. In this framework, the findings reveal that English for Africa embeds simple tasks. As consequences, the textbooks under lack a number of things so to enable its users develop the competences they are meant to develop.

Abstrait

Ce livre étudie le reflet des tâches complexes dans les livres qu'on utilise pour l'enseignement et l'apprentissage de l'Anglais dans les écoles secondaires de la DRC. Il lit les caractéristiques des tâches conçues dans « English for Africa » afin de voir comment elles répondent aux critères des tâches complexes. L'objectif est donc de réfléchir comment peut-on améliorer la qualité de l'éducation dans le but de doter aux élèves du secondaire de la République Démocratique du Congo les compétences d'Anglais à

travers un enseignement linguistique basé sur les tâches complexes. L'étude s'est bornée sur l'analyse des trois textes tirés des trois livres correspondant aux classes de troisième, quatrième et cinquième du secondaire. Pour l'accomplissement de cette étude, j'ai fait recours à l'analyse qualitative descriptive des documents. Après analyse, il ressort que quelques éléments des tâches complexes sont reflétés dans les tâches de « English for Africa » mais les éléments plus importants ne sont pas visibles. Dans cette optique, les résultats montrent que « English for Africa » incarne des tâches simples. En conséquence, il se dégage que les livres concernés par la présente étude manque certains éléments afin de permettre aux usagers de développer les compétences qu'ils sont appelés de développer.

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