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A Conceptual Model for Integrating Information Literacy and Task-Based Language Teaching: Rethinking English Language Instruction in Nigerian Secondary Schools

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Abstract

English occupies a distinctive place in Nigerian secondary education, as both a school subject and a medium of instruction across much of the curriculum. Classroom English is often geared towards examination preparation, while the skills needed to locate, question, compare and use information receive limited systematic attention before tertiary education. This conceptual paper addresses both concerns together. It reports no empirical data; instead, it develops a model, grounded in an explicit, integrative synthesis of the literature, that incorporates selected information literacy practices into Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) at the Senior Secondary School Two (SS2) level. The model adapts the six frames of the Association of College and Research Libraries (ACRL) Framework for Information Literacy for Higher Education to age-appropriate learning outcomes and links them to the pre-task, task, planning and report, and language-focus stages of Willis's task framework. It connects tasks to recognised English curriculum outcomes, including comprehension, summary, argumentative writing, formal writing and oral presentation, and it relies on newspapers, textbooks, library resources, radio transcripts and other locally available materials rather than assuming technology-rich classrooms. The paper offers operational definitions of the expected outcomes, five testable propositions and an illustrative three-period unit, with adaptations for very large classes and schools with minimal library resources. It argues that the English classroom can be a practical setting for developing language and information judgement together, while stressing that the proposed relationships remain hypotheses that require empirical testing in Nigerian secondary schools.

Keywords: information literacy; task-based language teaching; English language teaching; Nigerian secondary schools; conceptual model.

1. Introduction

The educational challenge has shifted from merely accessing information to judging what deserves attention, what can be trusted and how information should be used. These judgements are both linguistic and informational. Students search through words, interpret claims through language, compare accounts, paraphrase other people's ideas and formulate arguments of their own. The ACRL Framework treats information literacy as a set of interconnected understandings concerning authority, information creation, value, inquiry, scholarly conversation and strategic searching (Association of College and Research Libraries [ACRL], 2016). Although the Framework was designed for higher education, the practices of questioning sources and using information responsibly can be introduced earlier in developmentally appropriate ways.

English plays a particularly important role in Nigerian education. National policy recognises English as a major language of schooling (Federal Republic of Nigeria [FRN], 2013), and students need it not only to pass English Language but also to engage with much of the secondary school curriculum. English proficiency has long been associated with the academic achievement of Nigerian secondary school learners (Fakeye & Ogunsiji, 2009). At the same time, classroom practice does not always provide sustained opportunities to use English for inquiry, comparison and evidence-based communication. Oribabor (2014), for example, described the traditional "chalk and talk" approach as the common pattern in the Osun State schools examined. This evidence is not a national census of classroom practice, but it illustrates a problem that deserves attention.

Examination results provide a further reason for caution. WASSCE results are often treated in public discussion as a measure of English proficiency, yet the headline indicator reported by WAEC combines performance in at least five subjects, including English Language and Mathematics; in 2023, for instance, 79.81% of candidates reached that threshold (Channels Television, 2023). Such an aggregate is an imperfect proxy for language proficiency. The case for reform therefore rests not on fluctuations in a single pass rate but on the broader educational need for students to read critically, communicate for authentic purposes and use information responsibly.

A further gap concerns information literacy. Nigerian and African studies have documented information literacy provision mainly in universities, university libraries and library schools (Baro, 2011; Baro & Zuokemefa, 2011; Eze & Aduba, 2022; Igun & Odafe, 2014; Ojedokun, 2007), and recent work continues to report weaknesses among undergraduates, including those studying library and information science (Makinde et al., 2025; Nwanekezie & Igbokwe, 2022). Evidence at the secondary level is thinner. Ireri's (2025) review of the African literature concluded that many secondary school students have little or no basic knowledge of library use, computer literacy and information searching, and attributed this largely to poorly equipped school libraries and a shortage of computers. Joel et al. (2025) similarly examined the relationship between students' literacy skills and the use of school library resources in Uyo, Akwa Ibom State. These studies do not show that information literacy is absent from Nigerian secondary schools, but they do show that the published literature is concentrated in higher education and that secondary-level provision is weakly documented. The argument of this paper is therefore deliberately modest: systematic preparation for information use should begin before students meet the greater independence expected in higher education.

Task-Based Language Teaching provides a useful pedagogical bridge. TBLT organises learning around purposeful tasks in which language is used to achieve an outcome rather than practised merely as isolated forms (Ellis, 2003; Long, 2015; Nunan, 2004). Evaluating two reports, deciding which source is more credible, locating evidence for a community issue and synthesising two accounts are simultaneously information tasks and language tasks. A quantitative synthesis by Bryfonski and McKay (2019) found generally positive effects of TBLT implementation, although outcomes varied

across settings and research designs. The point is not that TBLT is inherently superior, but that it offers a principled structure for integrating purposeful information work with language learning.

The literature also warns against uncritical transplantation of an instructional model. Carless (2004, 2007) showed how teachers in examination-oriented systems reinterpret innovations in response to classroom realities, and Butler (2011) discussed the contextual challenges of communicative and task-based teaching in the Asia-Pacific region. Nigerian secondary schools have their own constraints, including class size, unequal access to libraries and information and communication technology (ICT), teacher preparation, multilingual classrooms, examination pressure and unreliable electricity. A useful model must therefore work with both print and digital resources while keeping a clear place for language form and examination-relevant writing.

Against this background, the paper proposes a conceptual model for integrating information literacy with task-based English instruction at SS2 level. Three questions guide the discussion: (1) What educational problem would such integration address? (2) How can information literacy concepts be translated into teachable tasks that remain recognisably part of the English curriculum? (3) What testable propositions follow from the model, and how might they be measured? The paper first explains how the literature was selected and the model developed, then reviews the relevant literature and theory, presents the model with operational definitions of its outcomes, illustrates it with a sample unit, states five propositions and sets out an agenda for empirical evaluation.

1.1 Approach to Literature Synthesis and Model Development

This is a conceptual paper, not an empirical study, and no data were collected or analysed. The model was developed through an integrative, nonsystematic review of literature, which is appropriate for building a conceptual framework across fields that have seldom been connected but which does not claim the exhaustive coverage of a systematic review. Sources were selected according to four explicit criteria. First, relevance: each source had to address at least one of four strands, namely TBLT and its implementation, information literacy and its instruction, the relationship between language learning and information use, or the Nigerian and wider African educational context. Second, type: priority was given to peer-reviewed journal articles, scholarly books and chapters, and official frameworks and policy documents, with news reports used only for publicly reported examination statistics. Third, context: Nigerian and African sources and studies at secondary level were sought wherever available, supplemented by foundational international works. Fourth, verifiability: every source was checked against its original publication details, and sources whose existence or content could not be confirmed were excluded.

The model was then developed in four steps. The educational problem was defined from the Nigerian literature; the six ACRL frames were translated into outcomes suitable for SS2 learners and mapped onto English curriculum objectives; these outcomes were aligned with the stages of Willis's (1996) task framework; and the contextual conditions identified in the implementation literature were specified as moderators, from which the propositions were derived. The nonsystematic nature of the review is acknowledged as a limitation in Section 2.11.

2. Discussion

2.1 English Instruction, Examination Pressure and Purposeful Language Use

The argument here is not that grammar, examination practice or explicit explanation should be banished from English lessons. Accuracy matters, and high-stakes examinations are part of the teacher's professional landscape. It is a question of balance. Where instruction consists largely of explanation, drills and rehearsal of predictable examination formats, learners have fewer opportunities to use English to solve problems, weigh evidence and communicate decisions. Oribabor (2014) provides Nigerian evidence of teacher-centred practice in the schools studied, and Carless (2007) shows, in

another examination-oriented context, how assessment pressures can narrow the implementation of task-based approaches.

This matters because the language demands of further study extend beyond identifying grammatical forms. Students must follow arguments, distinguish claims from evidence, summarise without copying, compare sources and justify conclusions. These are also information literacy practices. Treating them as part of English teaching does not mean creating another school subject; it means designing English tasks whose communicative purpose includes the intelligent use of information.

2.2 Task-Based Language Teaching

TBLT has its roots in communicative language teaching and in research on interaction in second language acquisition. In task-based work, meaning comes first, and learners use their available linguistic resources to achieve an outcome (Ellis, 2003; Skehan, 1998). Interaction can generate negotiation of meaning, clarification and modified output, processes central to interactionist accounts of acquisition (Long, 1996; Pica, 1994).

Willis (1996) divided task-based instruction into three phases: a pre-task phase, a task cycle and a language-focus phase. In the pre-task phase, the topic and task are introduced and useful language may be activated. Learners then carry out the task, plan a report and communicate their outcome. Attention subsequently shifts to linguistic features that emerged from the work. This sequence suits the present model because it allows meaning-focused activity to coexist with explicit attention to form, and Ellis (2009, 2018) has challenged the assumption that task-based teaching must exclude form-focused instruction.

The evidence for TBLT is promising but should be read within appropriate limits. Bryfonski and McKay's (2019) quantitative synthesis of classroom evaluations found a strong overall effect, and individual studies have examined outcomes such as motivation; Chua and Lin (2020), for instance, studied beginning learners of Mandarin and reported changes in motivation across task cycles. Differences in language, age, institutional setting and research design make direct transfer of such findings to Nigerian secondary schools inappropriate. The model therefore treats this literature as a rationale for testing, not as proof of effects in Nigeria. Implementation research reinforces the point: Carless (2004, 2007) found that teachers adapt task-based innovations to their beliefs, examinations and classroom conditions. A context-sensitive Nigerian version should therefore allow for explicit grammar work, examination genres and low-technology materials, while retaining the defining feature of a task, namely that language is used to achieve a meaningful outcome.

2.3 Information Literacy as a Context for Language Learning

The ACRL (2016) Framework consists of six interconnected frames: Authority Is Constructed and Contextual; Information Creation as a Process; Information Has Value; Research as Inquiry; Scholarship as Conversation; and Searching as Strategic Exploration. It does not reduce information literacy to a list of search skills, but stresses ways of thinking about how knowledge is produced, evaluated and used.

This orientation suits language education because information practices are mediated by language. Judging authority requires attention to stance, evidence and attribution; comparing sources requires comprehension and synthesis; ethical use requires quotation, paraphrase and acknowledgement; inquiry requires question formation; and taking part in a scholarly conversation requires argument and response. Bordonaro (2006) found that ESL students used an academic library for language learning as well as for information seeking, Conteh-Morgan (2002) explicitly linked second language learning theory with information literacy instruction, and Hughes (2013), who studied international students in Australian universities, documented the complexity of learning through online information resources.

The African literature points in the same direction but, as noted in the Introduction, is concentrated in higher education. Baro (2011) examined information literacy education in African library schools, Baro and Zuokemefa (2011) surveyed programmes in Nigerian university libraries, Eze and Aduba (2022) investigated information literacy education in Nigerian library schools, and Igun and Odafe (2014) studied Nigerian undergraduates. At the secondary level, Ireri (2025) and Joel et al. (2025) point to weak library-related skills and poorly resourced school libraries. Taken together, these studies justify concern about the institutional development of information literacy education, but they do not justify the claim that it is absent from all Nigerian secondary schools. The more defensible conclusion is that secondary-level integration is little researched and lacks a clearly articulated instructional model in the literature reviewed here.

2.4 Positioning the Model: What It Adds

The model's contribution should be stated precisely. Integrating information literacy into the curriculum is not new: Derakhshan and Singh's (2011) synthesis of studies showed that integration into subject teaching has been widely advocated and studied, but mainly in higher education. Links between language learning and information literacy have likewise been made mainly for university students learning English (Bordonaro, 2006; Conteh-Morgan, 2002; Hughes, 2013). In the TBLT literature reviewed for this paper, task-based instruction has been combined with communicative, technological and content goals, but no model was found that maps the six ACRL frames onto the stages of a task cycle for secondary school learners of English as a second language.

The model therefore adds four things. It specifies the integration at secondary level rather than in higher education; it maps each ACRL frame to a concrete SS2 outcome, task and language focus (Table 1); it builds in the constraints of Nigerian classrooms, including examination pressure, large classes and limited resources, as explicit moderators rather than afterthoughts; and it states operational definitions and testable propositions so that the model can be evaluated rather than simply advocated. Its novelty lies in this combination and specification, not in any claim that its separate components are new.

2.5 Theoretical Foundations of the Model

Three perspectives help explain why the proposed integration could be productive. Sociocultural theory emphasises learning through mediated activity and scaffolded participation (Vygotsky, 1978). In an information task, learners work with peers, texts, search tools and teacher guidance, and support can be withdrawn gradually as they become able to make independent judgements.

Situated learning holds that knowledge develops through engagement in meaningful practices rather than through the acquisition of decontextualised rules (Lave & Wenger, 1991). In a simplified but recognisable form, a learner who compares competing reports, prepares an evidence-based explanation and responds to classmates is rehearsing practices of inquiry and communication. The third perspective is content-based instruction, which advocates language learning through meaningful subject matter (Brinton et al., 2003). Information problems provide such content while keeping language development visible.

Together these perspectives suggest a mechanism, not a guarantee: purposeful inquiry provides a reason to use language, collaborative work provides opportunities for mediated interaction, and the subsequent language focus allows learners to examine forms that became relevant during the task.

2.6 The Integrated Information Literacy and TBLT Model

The model has four interacting elements: curriculum and information inputs, a task-based instructional process, learner outcomes and contextual conditions. A feedback loop connects outcomes

to the design of later tasks, so that teachers use evidence from one task (where learners succeeded, which language caused difficulty and which information judgements remained weak) to inform the next. Figure 1 presents the model.

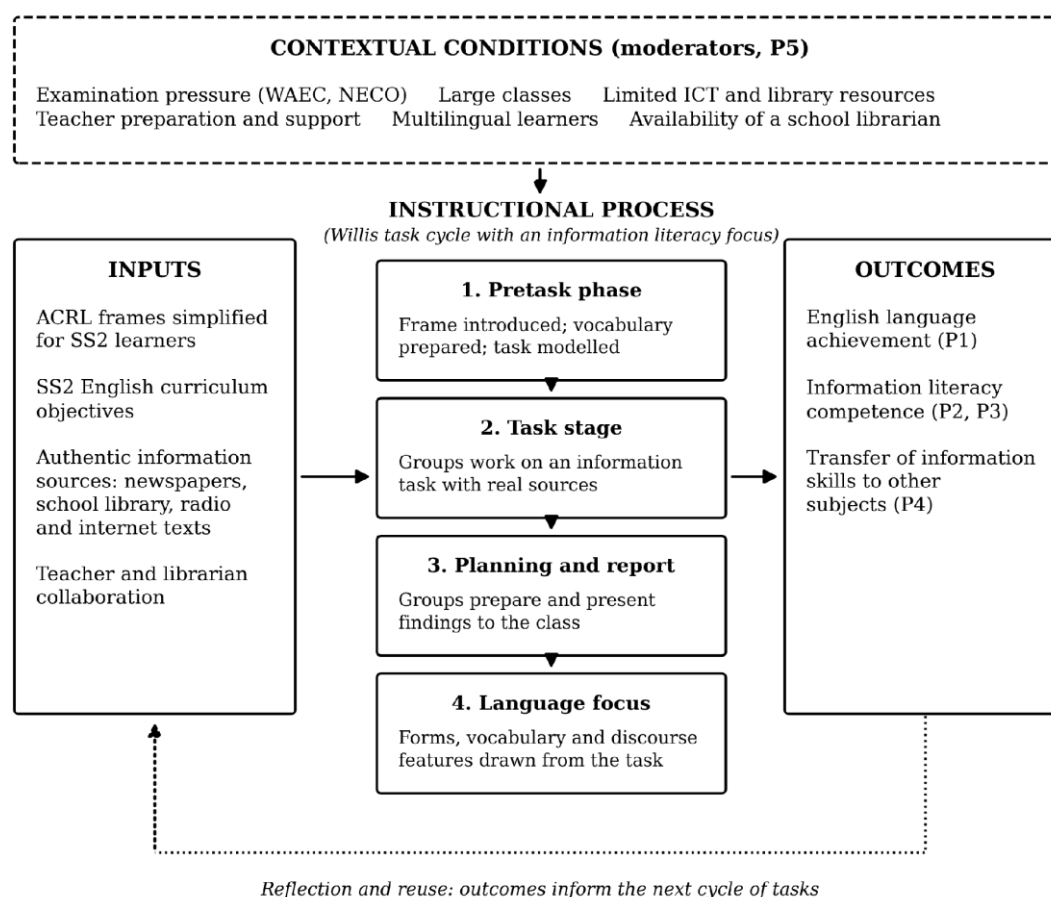


Figure 1. The Integrated Information Literacy and TBLT Model. Inputs (left) feed a four-stage instructional process based on Willis's (1996) task cycle (centre), which is expected to produce language, information literacy and transfer outcomes (right). Contextual conditions (top, dashed) moderate the process, and the dotted line shows outcomes informing the next cycle of tasks. P1 to P5 refer to the propositions in Section 2.8. Source: Authors' conceptual synthesis, drawing on Willis (1996) and ACRL (2016).

2.6.1 Inputs and Curriculum Alignment

The starting point is not the ACRL Framework in its university form but a set of simplified outcomes suitable for SS2 learners. These outcomes are linked to familiar English objectives and to resources that schools can realistically obtain. A newspaper cutting, textbook extract, government notice, radio transcript or library reference work can support an information task; internet access widens the range of sources but is not essential. The model treats collaboration between English teachers and librarians as desirable rather than universal, since many schools do not have a professionally staffed library. Table 1 maps all six frames.

Table 1. Mapping the six ACRL frames to SS2 outcomes, tasks and language focus

ACRL frame	SS2 learning outcome	Illustrative task	Language focus
Authority Is Constructed and Contextual	Identify who is responsible for a text and justify how much trust it deserves in a particular context	Compare a news report, an official statement and another account of the same event	Reporting verbs; attribution; expressions of certainty, probability and doubt
Information Creation as a Process	Explain how purpose, audience and production shape different information products	Trace how one local story is represented in two or three formats	Genre features; passive constructions; sequencing and comparison
Information Has Value	Acknowledge sources and distinguish acceptable paraphrase from copying	Write a short report using and acknowledging two supplied sources	Paraphrase; quotation; direct and indirect speech; attribution phrases
Research as Inquiry	Turn a broad issue into focused questions and gather relevant evidence	Investigate a community issue such as flooding or refuse disposal and present findings	Question forms; cause and effect; purpose; explanation
Scholarship as Conversation	Recognise that writers respond to earlier claims, and construct a reasoned response	Write a letter or short commentary responding to a published opinion	Argument structure; concession; contrast; stance markers
Searching as Strategic Exploration	Plan a search, select keywords and revise the strategy when results are inadequate	Complete a library or supervised internet search log for an assigned question	Keywords and categories; procedural sequencing; writing concise notes

Note. Frames are from ACRL (2016); SS2 outcomes, tasks and language focus are the authors' conceptual adaptation.

2.6.2 Instructional Process, Outcomes and Context

A lesson does not begin by announcing an abstract frame but by making an information problem understandable. The teacher may present two conflicting accounts, a questionable claim or a search problem, supplying only the vocabulary and background knowledge needed to begin. During the task, groups work towards a concrete decision or product while the teacher observes and scaffolds. Planning and reporting raise the linguistic demand, because learners must organise evidence for an audience. The language focus then returns to forms that have become consequential, for example reporting verbs for attributing claims, modal verbs for expressing uncertainty or cohesive devices for comparing sources. In this way, attention to accuracy follows purposeful use rather than competing with it.

The model predicts three broad outcomes: improvement in curriculum-relevant English performance, improvement in information literacy performance and transfer of information practices

to other subjects. These are hypotheses, not established effects, and their strength is expected to depend on contextual conditions. Large classes may restrict feedback, scarce resources may limit source variety, examination pressure may shape teachers' choices, multilingual repertoires may help or complicate group interaction, and teachers' knowledge of TBLT and information literacy will affect task quality. These conditions are therefore moderators within the model, not incidental implementation issues.

2.6.3 Operational Definitions of the Outcomes

For the propositions to be testable, each outcome must be defined in terms of observable performance. Table 2 sets out working definitions. The central term, information literacy performance, is defined as students' demonstrated ability, on a set task, to identify, evaluate, use and acknowledge information appropriately, judged from what they produce rather than from their self-reported confidence. This distinction matters because self-report scales capture perceived competence, which may differ from actual skill.

Table 2. Operational definitions of the model's outcomes and moderators

Construct	Operational definition	Illustrative indicators	Possible measure
English language achievement	Performance on curriculum-aligned reading and writing tasks of the kinds assessed in SS2 and the WASSCE	Accuracy of comprehension answers; organisation, argument and accuracy in essays and summaries	Comprehension and writing tasks scored with analytic rubrics and double marked
Information literacy performance	Demonstrated ability, on a set task, to identify, evaluate, use and acknowledge information appropriately	Identifies author and purpose; supports a credibility judgement with evidence; paraphrases and acknowledges sources; frames a focused question; records and revises search terms	Performance tasks scored with an analytic rubric giving a score for each frame
Transfer	Use of the same information practices in a subject other than English	Evaluates and acknowledges sources in a social studies or science task	The information literacy rubric applied to a task set in another subject
Contextual moderators	Conditions expected to strengthen or weaken the model's effects	Class size; access to print, library and ICT resources; teacher preparation	School records; resource audit; teacher questionnaire and classroom observation

Source: Authors' construct.

2.7 Illustrative SS2 Unit: Evaluating Competing Accounts

Consider a school with three 40-minute English periods a week and limited internet access. The teacher selects two brief accounts of the same local incident, perhaps a market fire, that differ in emphasis or detail. The unit aims to develop source judgement while practising comprehension, oral justification, reporting language and argumentative writing.

In the first period, students spend 15 minutes reading the two accounts and identifying the source, intended audience and obvious differences, and the teacher introduces a small set of useful terms such as source, eyewitness, evidence, allegedly, confirmed and bias. The remaining 25 minutes begin the group task: groups of four or five use a comparison sheet to record who produced each account, what evidence is presented, which claims are corroborated and what information is missing.

In the second period, groups complete their comparison and, if a library source is available, consult an additional source. They must reach a collective judgement about which account is more dependable for the question they have been given. The aim is not simply to find errors; students must defend their judgement with evidence. They then prepare a two-minute report.

The third period begins with selected reports and a brief comparison of the reasons different groups gave. The teacher draws out useful examples of attribution, certainty and unsupported assertion from the reports, and the language focus examines reporting verbs, modal expressions and sentence patterns for weighing evidence. For homework, students turn the oral reasoning into an argumentative response, explaining which account they would rely on and why, using evidence from the texts. The same structure can serve other frames, for instance comparing how a topic is represented in an encyclopaedia and a collaborative online source, paraphrasing and acknowledging two short texts, or documenting how search terms were refined.

2.7.1 Adapting the Unit for Very Large Classes and Minimal Library Resources

Many Nigerian classrooms are far larger than the unit above assumes, and many schools have no functioning library. The unit can be adapted in five ways. First, where copies are scarce, the teacher can read both accounts aloud, write the key contested sentences on the chalkboard, or give one photocopy to each group of eight to ten students, with one student reading aloud. Second, very large classes can be organised in fixed groups with rotating roles (reader, recorder, checker and reporter), so that every student has a defined responsibility. Third, instead of every group reporting orally, two or three groups can report in each lesson on a rotating basis, while the others display their comparison sheets for a brief gallery walk or exchange them with a neighbouring group for written comment. Fourth, where there is no library, the additional source in the second period can be replaced by a second newspaper, a radio news transcript, a public notice or information that students collect from their community, such as an announcement or a local leader's account. Fifth, feedback in very large classes can rely on short exit slips, in which each student writes one sentence justifying the group's judgement, allowing the teacher to sample understanding without marking every script in detail. These adaptations keep the defining features of the task, a real information problem and a judgement defended in English, while reducing its demands on materials and teacher time.

2.8 Propositions Derived from the Model

Proposition 1. When curriculum time, teacher preparation and other relevant conditions are comparable, SS2 students receiving integrated information literacy and TBLT instruction will show greater improvement on curriculum-aligned English tasks than students receiving conventional instruction.

Proposition 2. Students receiving the integrated instruction will show greater improvement in information literacy performance, as defined in Table 2, than students who receive no systematic information literacy instruction.

Proposition 3. Improvement will vary by frame and will be strongest for the information practices that are repeatedly and explicitly embedded in classroom tasks.

Proposition 4. Students who practise information literacy through English tasks will show transfer to appropriately designed tasks in other subjects, although the extent of transfer will depend on their opportunities to apply these practices beyond the English classroom.

Proposition 5. The effects of the model will vary with contextual conditions, including class size, resource access and teacher preparation; nevertheless, a print-based implementation can be tested independently of reliable internet access.

2.9 Implementation in Nigerian Classrooms

Resource constraints must be treated realistically. Information literacy is often associated with digital searching, but source evaluation, attribution, comparison and inquiry can all be practised with print materials, so newspapers, textbooks, library books, public notices and prepared transcripts can form the core of early implementation. Nwanekezie (2022) identified unreliable electricity as a serious constraint on information technology use in the university library studied. That finding cannot simply be generalised to secondary schools, but it underlines the importance of a model that does not collapse when electricity or connectivity fails.

Examination alignment is equally important. Tasks can culminate in genres already valued in English assessment, such as argumentative essays, formal letters, articles, summaries and oral explanations, while the language-focus stage addresses the grammar and vocabulary learners need for accurate performance. This is consistent with Carless's (2007) argument for context-sensitive forms of task-based teaching in examination-oriented schools.

2.9.1 Addressing the Risk of Limited Teacher Preparation

Teacher preparation may be the most important implementation issue, and the risk that many English teachers have been trained in neither TBLT nor information literacy must be addressed directly rather than assumed away. The model proposes four measures. First, preparation should be practical and phased: a short workshop introducing the task cycle and one or two frames, beginning with Authority Is Constructed and Contextual, which fits naturally with existing comprehension and essay work, before other frames are added. Second, teachers should receive a ready-to-use materials pack for each unit, containing contrasting sources, comparison sheets, sample language-focus activities and marking rubrics, so that they are not required to design everything themselves. Third, teachers should be supported through peer observation, joint planning with colleagues and, where available, with the school or a nearby public librarian. Fourth, because preparation will inevitably vary, the model treats teacher preparation as a measured moderator (Table 2 and Proposition 5), so that evaluations can show how much preparation is needed for the model to work. Pre-service teacher education should, in the longer term, include both task-based methodology and information literacy pedagogy.

2.10 Agenda for Empirical Testing

The model should be regarded as a programme theory to be tested rather than as an established intervention. A first evaluation could use a cluster design in which intact classes or schools receive either the integrated programme or comparison instruction. Assignment at school or class level would reduce contamination between conditions, and multilevel analysis would be appropriate because students are nested within classes and schools (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). The number of clusters should be set by an a priori power analysis rather than by convenience.

Measures must correspond to the operational definitions in Table 2, and none should be assumed valid for Nigerian SS2 learners without evidence. English outcomes should be assessed through curriculum-aligned reading and writing tasks scored with analytic rubrics and marked

independently by two trained raters. Information literacy performance should be assessed through performance tasks requiring students to select, compare, justify, search, paraphrase or acknowledge information. Cameron et al. (2007) provide an important precedent for developing and validating a performance-based information literacy test, but an instrument for SS2 learners would need its own development. Validation should include review of content by specialists in English language teaching and in library and information science, piloting with comparable students, estimation of inter-rater reliability for rubric scores, analysis of the instrument's structure on an adequately large sample, and evidence that scores are sensitive to instruction. Transfer should be tested with tasks set outside English, for example in social studies or science.

Evidence of implementation is also necessary. Classroom observations, teacher logs and samples of student work can show whether the intervention actually includes the task and information literacy features the model specifies, and interviews with teachers, librarians and students can help explain why the model works in one setting and struggles in another. Rural and less well resourced schools, and schools with very large classes, should be deliberately included, since the claim of low-technology feasibility must be tested rather than assumed. Longer studies could examine retention and transfer, and process studies could investigate motivation, engagement and metacognitive awareness as possible mechanisms; Dörnyei's (2001) work on language learning motivation provides a basis for the first of these.

2.11 Limitations

Several limitations should be acknowledged. The model rests on an integrative rather than a systematic review, so relevant studies, particularly unpublished Nigerian theses and local journal articles on secondary schools, may have been missed. Much of the evidence on TBLT and on the links between language learning and information literacy comes from other countries and from higher education, and its relevance to Nigerian SS2 classrooms is an assumption to be tested. The propositions are untested, the operational definitions are proposals rather than validated measures, and the feasibility of the model in very large, poorly resourced classes, although addressed in Section 2.7.1, has not been demonstrated. The model should therefore be read as a structured set of hypotheses for evaluation, not as a recommendation for immediate adoption at scale.

3. Conclusion and Recommendations

3.1 What the Paper Claims

This paper has argued that two educational needs can be addressed within the same instructional space. Nigerian secondary school learners need opportunities to use English for purposes that resemble the intellectual work expected beyond the English classroom, and they also need earlier practice in finding, questioning, comparing and acknowledging information. The paper's claims are conceptual: that information literacy tasks can supply such purposes, that TBLT offers a suitable structure for them, and that the resulting model can be specified precisely enough to be tested. It does not claim that the model has been shown to improve learning.

3.2 Implications

If the propositions are supported, the model has implications for three groups. For curriculum developers, it suggests that information literacy outcomes can be embedded within existing English schemes of work rather than requiring a separate subject. For teacher educators, it suggests that task design, source evaluation, ethical information use and assessment can be taught together. For school libraries and librarians, it suggests a teaching role in partnership with English teachers, while the model remains usable where no librarian is available.

3.3 Recommendations

Three recommendations follow, each proportionate to the current evidence. First, the model should be piloted and evaluated in a small number of Nigerian secondary schools, including rural and poorly resourced schools, before any wider adoption. Second, the outcome measures proposed in Table 2 should be developed and validated as part of that evaluation. Third, teacher development for any pilot should combine practical task design with source evaluation, ethical information use and assessment, supported by ready-to-use materials. Evidence from Nigerian classrooms across different resource levels is needed to determine which components are workable, which require adaptation and whether the anticipated language, information literacy and transfer outcomes occur.

Statement on the Use of Artificial Intelligence Tools

The authors used AI tools in preparing this manuscript. It was used for language refinement and consistency checking. No AI tool was used as a source of scholarly evidence, and no data were generated or analysed, since this is a conceptual paper. The authors take full responsibility for the accuracy, originality and integrity of the manuscript. No AI tool is listed as an author.

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