AN ANALYSIS OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE LESSON DISCOURSE: WITH SPECIAL
REFERENCE TO THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH IN TUNISIAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

By
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A Thesis submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy
to the Department of Linguistics,
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To my Mum and Dad.
In this thesis a new model for the analysis of foreign language lesson discourse has been developed. It draws on existing models but provides flexibility by focusing on three levels: Frame, Move, Act.

An attempt has been made in this thesis to clarify further the domain of pragmatics by looking at the various fields that have contributed to it. This has led the author to (i) differentiate between foreign language lesson discourse and other discourses and (ii) locate the new model in relation to other approaches to discourse analysis. The foregoing discussion has revealed to the author that many researchers and theoreticians have misunderstood many key terms in pragmatics which have contributed to unwarranted positions concerning the role of the teacher and the importance of textbooks in the classroom.

A detailed analysis of discourse in eight English lessons in Tunisian secondary schools (two in each of the four years) has been undertaken. The results of the analysis reflect the influence of the textbooks and suggest different degrees of benefit for the learner.

There are seven chapters in the thesis. Chapter One reviews the theoretical foundations of the audiolingual method. Chapter Two discusses Chomskyan theory and its influence on approaches to L2 learning and teaching. Chapter Three deals with pragmatics, particularly its relevance to second language learning studies and its importance for the analysis of second language classroom discourse. Chapter Four looks at the communicative approach to second language teaching and related developments in second language acquisition studies. It also discusses Tunisian learners' communication strategies. Chapter Five gives the reader a general background about the Tunisian linguistic community and the educational system there. It also discusses the textbooks used for the teaching of English in Tunisian secondary schools. Chapter Six gives an account of the procedure adopted for data collection and presents in detail the model for the analysis of Tunisian foreign language lesson discourse. Chapter Seven discusses the results of the quantitative analysis of the Tunisian foreign language lesson discourses, and proposes some reforms.

The thesis contains a short introduction and conclusion, as well as eight appendices where the orthographic transcription and analysis of each lesson discourse is given.

Habib Abdesslem.
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LIST OF PHONETIC SYMBOLS

/ m / voiced, bilabial, nasal
/ n / voiceless, alveolar, nasal
/ 0 / voiced, velar, nasal
/ p / voiceless, bilabial, plosive
/ b / voiced, bilabial, plosive
/ t / voiceless, alveolar, plosive
/ d / voiced, alveolar, plosive
/ tS / voiced, palato-alveolar, plosive
/ tS / voiceless, papatoalveolar, plosive
/ k / voiceless, velar, plosive
/ g / voiced, velar, plosive
/ q / voiceless, uvular, plosive
/ ? / voiceless, glottal, plosive
/ f / voiceless, labiodental, fricative
/ v / voiced, labiodental, fricative
/ 0 / voiceless, dental, approximant
/ s / voiced, dental, approximant
/ r / voiced, alveolar, approximant
/ R / voiced, uvular, fricative
/ s / voiceless, alveolar, approximant
/ z / voiced, alveolar, approximant
/ S / voiceless, palato-alveolar, fricative
/ z / voiced, palato-alveolar, fricative
/ 0 / voiced, velar, fricatic
/ x / voiceless, velar, fricative
/ h / voiceless, pharyngeal, fricative
/ s / voiceless, pharyngeal, fricative
/ h / voiced, pharyngeal, fricative
/ j / voiced, palatal, approximant
/ w / voiced, labial-velar, approximant
/ i / front, close
/ i / front, half-close, retracted
/ e / front, half-close
/ e / front, half-open
/ æ / front, open
/ a / front, open
/ a / back, open
/ A / back, half-open
/ o / back, half-open, rounded
/ o / back, half-close, rounded
/ o / back, half-close, rounded, advanced
/ u / back, close, rounded
/ ~ / nasalization
INTRODUCTION

In the 1960s, most discourse in second language classrooms was closely determined by the structuralist syllabus and the audiolingual method, which were primarily based on structuralism in linguistics and behaviourism in psychology. Discourse analysis was at a very early stage of development, and in any case, no urgent need was felt to investigate what went on in the second language classroom.

In the seventies the approaches to and findings in pragmatics were scattered among many disciplines, and this made it difficult for researchers in second language learning/teaching to have access to them. However, the ideas of the philosophers of language and ethnographers of speaking gave rise to the so-called communicative approach in language teaching. The latter was concerned mainly with syllabus design, and as Roberts (1982) said, "'communicative methodology' does not convey any precise meaning." (p.103).

Chomsky's revival of the mentalist theory of language acquisition led second language acquisition theoreticians and researchers to concentrate on the learner's interlanguage (i.e. transitional linguistic competencies). Their major aim was to discover the "built-in" syllabus, and support the natural order hypothesis.

As a consequence of the above mentioned changes, structuralist textbooks and the audiolingual method fell into disrepute. They were thought to interfere with the mechanism that regulated language acquisition, and to concentrate too much on linguistic form. The classroom was often dismissed as "artificial" and of little value for the interlanguage researcher. But on the other hand, no clear methodology was presented as a satisfactory alternative to the audiolingual method and many second language textbooks still carried the hallmark of structuralism.

Corder (paper presented 1974, published 1981) gave a very interesting account of the state of the art. He said,
"That there is more to a 'knowledge of a language' than a knowledge of its structural rules, or of a code, is, of course, well known to teachers, who frequently meet students ... who appear to have a good knowledge of the language code but nevertheless seem unable to use it effectively in the world outside the classroom. The 'language of a situation' then is more than a code, it is analysable in terms of the sort of functions language has in that situation ... The analysis is in terms of such categories as speech acts or communicative functions. Unfortunately, analyses of this sort are still in a fairly preliminary stage ... and, of course, what we cannot describe we cannot teach systematically." (p.48).

In recent years there has been a lot of work in pragmatics (e.g. Levinson, 1983), and particularly spoken discourse analysis (e.g. Edmondson, 1981; Brown and Yule, 1983a). This has helped interlanguage researchers to study more thoroughly learners' performance. It has also stimulated more ideas about teaching method (e.g. Littlewood, 1981) and syllabus design (e.g. Widdowson, 1983).

The present thesis investigates the influence of pragmatics on interlanguage research and theory, on syllabus design and on teaching method. It focuses in particular on how to exploit the findings in pragmatics for analysing foreign language lesson discourses. Special
reference is made throughout to the teaching of English as a foreign language in Tunisia.
CHAPTER ONE
THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS OF THE AUDIOLINGUAL METHOD

Introduction

Foreign language (FL) classroom discourse is still remarkable for the persistence of the audiolingual method (Roberts, 1982, p. 99) despite the growing importance given to what is called the communicative approach. This chapter attempts to trace back the audiolingual method tradition. It describes the various fields in the midst of which this tradition originated and prospered: it presents what we consider the basic principles of structuralism in linguistics followed by behaviourism, mediation theory and gestalt theory in psychology with their varying degrees of influence on second language (L2) textbook design and particularly method of teaching; the audiolingual method.

1. Structuralism in Linguistics

The 1920s was the decade marked by the slow but steady emergence and establishment of linguistics, yet another "autonomous" science fairly new in its approach to language study. The impact of empiricism which could be seen in the achievements of the prosperous natural sciences and to a lesser extent social sciences, encouraged linguists to reject mentalism and to base their work on "actual" data that was believed to lead to "exhaustive" generalizations.

The emphasis on the synchronic study of language by de Saussure, who had undertaken, in the comparative philologists' tradition, the reconstruction of the proto-Indo-European vowel system, marked the transitional move from "diachronism". His introduction of the famous dichotomy Langue vs Parole suited the basic principles of structuralism. Langue was defined as an abstract, social, and comparatively stable system, while parole was actual (historical events), individual, subject to
variation, and could shed light on langue (cf. Chomsky's competence vs performance in 1.1, chap.2, below). Linguistics or the study of langue "in itself and for itself" was seen to be dealing synchronically with the set of interrelated systems - each system having theoretically a paradigmatic order. The components of each system contribute to the formation of the syntagmatic order embodied in the sentence which made up form as opposed to substance; i.e. phonetics and semantics. Form was made up of the phonological, the morphological and the syntactic systems. Owing to the different aspects at the level of meaning - psychological, social, cultural, situational, etc. - the structuralist taxonomic linguist, to whom both empiricism and the autonomy of his field were so dear, simply abstained from dealing with meaning or showed some indeterminacy as we can notice in Hockett's (1959) statement;

"Linguistics has always concentrated on the three central subsystems without much concern with the peripheral systems... The choice of broader or narrower definition of the term is a matter of personal taste, and not important, likewise anyone is free to focus on the central subsystems or to invade the peripheral ones as he pleases."

(p.138)

1.1. The discovery procedures

The discovery procedures emanated from empiricism. The scientist from his "uncontrolled" observations of the world around him would make inductive generalizations, through "trial and error"; i.e. without any hypothesis formation in principle. He would dissociate a particular phenomenon from its environment, atomize it, as it were, (see the influence of Newton in Chomsky, 1968, chap.1) classify and compare its components and consequently discover objectively the law(s) according to which all the
components were structured. The linguist was supposed to act likewise. He would start by listening to parole (preferably an unknown tongue to avoid subjective decisions creeping in) so that he could attune his ear and become a skilled phonetician capable of transcribing speech in its very minute details (something hardly possible). Once this was achieved our phonetician would set off to discover, according to the empirical method sketched above, the phonological system of the language under investigation. Only when this was done, would our researcher proceed to discover the morphological rules which lead him to a higher level in the syntactic system embodied by the sentence.

Thus, the structural taxonomic linguist would proceed according to a series of stages whose order could not be violated by any means. Theoretically speaking there was no way to resort to syntax when dealing with phonology, for instance. However, in practice there were many confusing difficulties; i.e. it was not easy to decide whether a sound was a phoneme or an allophone without referring to the meaning of the word or the stretch of sounds in which it occurred.

Although the structuralists maintained that they were dealing with the utterance, they limited themselves to the sentence level (Hockett, 1959, pp.139-41). This was obvious because of the necessity of abstraction and the very definition of linguistics. The utterance was dealt with most of the time because it was the only means to reach the sentence (parole sheds light on langue). Many structural taxonomic linguists were aware that a sentence could be uttered in various ways and different contexts carrying different messages and fulfilling various functions, but because of their empirical approach, they were unable to fathom the linguistic meaning of the sentence itself, (see Joos, 1958).

"Structuralist grammar provided the framework of slots within sentence patterns which could be manipulated by substitution and transformation." (Roulet, 1975). A sentence like
e.g.1 - She wants a new hat (1)

has got the same pattern as

e.g.2 - He prefers a fast car

3 - They enjoyed a new book

4 - I called an old taxi

5 - *We called a happy taxi (see below)

(etc.)

It could allow various transformations, within one or several patterns;

e.g.6 - who wants a new hat?

7 - Who prefers a fast car?

(etc.)

or

e.g.8 - What does she want?

9 - What did she want?

(etc.)

or

e.g.10 - She does not want a new hat

(etc.)

It is necessary to mention here Hockett's (1959) comment where he made it 'clear' that utterances/sentences were not, as many structuralists assumed, simple mechanical combinations of smaller units. He attributed the
combinations to the experience each community had of its language; avoiding thus odd or non-acceptable utterances/sentences such as number 5 above which would have a very low probability of occurrence.

Obviously, it is impossible on a practical level even for the so-called pure scientist to stick to the empiricist principles and methods because as Lyons (1968) pointed out, observation necessitates selective attention; therefore hypotheses and intuition. The position of the taxonomic linguist was not better than that of the pure scientist.

Chomsky (1957, 1968, 1976, and 1980) described the whole work done by the taxonomists as utter failure. This judgement seems to be very severe given the fact that Chomsky himself, in his early versions of transformational generative grammar, excluded (like the taxonomists) the study of meaning from his work.

It is however crucial to point out here that the ideas of the structuralists were not in a total conflict with the predominant views of the time in the fields of psychology and L2 teaching/learning. So let us have a close look at these two fields.

11. Psychological theories

This section deals with four major theories in psychology. They are behaviourism, mediation theory, gestalt theory, and Mowrer's theory.

11.1. Behaviourism

Behaviourism is associated with the experiments on conditioning animals' behaviour, which were based on stimulus – response – reward. They were carried out by Pavlov in Russia towards the end of the last century and improved upon later by Watson in America in the twenties. The latter believed that learning processes were based on complex chains of stimuli and responses - the more complex the stimuli and responses get, the more complex learning becomes (Brown, 1980). Skinner was the influential
psychologist who took the lead of neo-behaviourism from the thirties till the sixties. He claimed that S-R theory could be transferred to the study of human behaviour including speech (see Skinner, 1957) with minor adjustments, reviving thus Locke's "tabula rasa"-based principle in learning theory, and rejecting the study of the mind; i.e. the unobservable.

In the Skinnerian Framework language acquisition was seen in the following way: the child would produce a combination of sounds that resemble a meaningful word, the parents reward it by a reinforcing smile, a kiss, or by producing the object referred to - operant or instrumental conditioning (Rivers, 1964, pp.174-75). From the one utterance stage, the child moves to the two-word utterance, till he reaches the sentence/utterance stage - "a building up" habit formation that reminds us of Skinner's experiments on pigeons. As the child acquires more syntactic and morphological habits, he proceeds by generalizations and substitutions through trial and error relying on his parents' secondary reinforcements or reinforcing himself. Deviant responses are not rewarded and are consequently subject to extinction. According to the behaviourists these stages were not predetermined; and since the one word utterance functions like a sentence-utterance, there is little to be said about stages of cognitive development.

Skinner's theory faced much criticism, the harshest of which was by Chomsky (1959). Skinner's emphasis on the observable made him concentrate on the response to infer the stimulus. One human being's responses could be different from another's. Suppose that three or thirty people were shown a picture; their reactions would range from "Remember our holiday in Spain" to "Gosh" or to silent admiration, amazement or horror. The incapacity to predict the responses or to identify the stimuli without the responses, made the whole theory look unscientific. However, the avoidance of dealing with abstraction - "the not here and not now" - and the view of man as "a
"bundle of twitches" encouraged the mediation theoreticians to put forward some ideas which were still within the stimulus-response frame.

11.2. The mediation theory

According to the advocates of the mediation theory (see Clark, 1977) a response can be:

a. an external visible response to an external visible stimulus.

b. a covert response to a stimulus which may not be physically present. The covert response or mediational response (rm) invisible but concrete (inner reactions) functions as an internal stimulus (sm) that yields an observable response (R).

The simplest illustration that we would like to start with is Pavlov's contiguity-based experiments on dogs:

1. S (actual meat) - R (biting, chewing)
2. S (bell) rm - sm - R (salivation)

The mediation response (rm) was neither the presence of the actual meat nor "the remembrance" of the concept meat as we are tempted to say along the lines of the mentalist school, but was an amorphous mass of reactions which would take place if meat was presented - habit.

A second example related to verbal behaviour would be the following: Adam (e.g. taken from Clark, 1975), a two year-old child, sees a lion in a park for the first time: S - R; (actual lion) - (panic, fear etc.). Adam is told that the animal is "a lion" which he internalized: S - R; (Lion - "lion" or Lion - "yaye"). For him the utterance "a lion" functions as an S bringing about rms. These are images or conditioned sensations that could
be accounted for theoretically as: images of value or connotative aspects; most of them idiosyncratic; and images of fact or denotative aspects usually shared by the community where one lives and represent the core of any linguistic or paralinguistic communication.

This kind of analysis stressed the role of language to facilitate learning especially about concrete but displaced objects. The word "igloo", for instance, would be explained to a child or an L2 learner in the following words; "round", "dwelling", "ice" which he/she knows (rms: denotative meanings) and which would act for him as rms to the stimulus "igloo", (more comments are provided in 11.5, below).

11.3. Gestalt theory

Gestalt theory was basically founded on Einstein's holistic view of the universe. If we take a molecule of water and atomize it, we obviously obtain an atom of hydrogen, another atom of hydrogen and an atom of oxygen. Does this mean that $H + H + O = H_2O$? $H_2O$ is a homogeneous system and cannot be the summation of its constituents. Contrarily to Newton,

"In Einstein's theory of gravitation the actions at a distance disappeared, and the gravitational field took their place. Empty space as mere geometrical nothingness vanished from physics, being replaced by a definitely distributed system of strains and stresses, gravitational and electromagnetic, which determines the very geometry of space." (Koffka, 1936, p.42).

Gestalt theory adopted from Einstein the notion of field and tried to analyse behaviour accordingly.

For gestalt psychologists, it is undeniable that beings who are part of the physical world are not passive, they act in that world. A rat could
run the same maze because of hunger, explorative curiosity, sexual drive, etc. The same scenery seen by a poet would look different for a fighting soldier. It follows that the behavioural field cannot be equated, as the behaviourists assumed, with the physical environment. There are, however, a few universal laws which the senses make use of and which determine to a very large extent our shared perception of the world. Let us try to list these laws briefly and comment on them; they are: proximity, similarity, closed forms, good contour, common movement, experience and pregnancy. The first six laws have to do with "arranging" elements into homogeneous wholes. Experience alone cannot account for our concept formation and universal vision of the world; "we often comprehend objects as units before we have any way of knowing what they are like" (Katz, 1951, p.22). On the other hand, individual experience contributes to one's own conception of the environment. The trace in each one's memory "is determined by the manner in which the figure is experienced" (ibid, p.97). Pregnancy, our last law listed in the series above, is the fact of "making" of an irregular form a regular one. In conversation for instance, we hardly notice our or the interlocutor's innumerable false starts, hesitations, etc.

"Behaviour is determined by inner tensions, based on needs. These tensions decide how the subject will respond to various stimuli" (ibid, p.142). Motivation, therefore, cannot be viewed as an external phenomenon. A phototropic insect would follow a moving light so that its upset balance is restored. Action is a search for equilibrium (cf. Piaget in 11, chap.2, below).

The physiological field or the self is not a bundle of twitches. It is a complex but homogeneous system which adapts itself to the environment not on a trial and error basis but on self-regulation. A dog whose forelegs were amputated would walk like a kangaroo. A child who wants to reach some biscuits put away by his mother, would bring the nearest chair and stand on it.
"The self is viewed as a part of the topological structure of the behavioural field. The objects which constitute the field influence the self, whose needs, in turn, play a part in determining the nature of the field." (ibid, p.142)

Gestalt theoreticians made it possible for the psychologist to gain some insight in the self without relying either on the empiricist or the old mentalist approach. To be consistent with Einstein's theory, they abolished the dichotomy mind versus body and proposed

"... isomorphism, a term implying equality of form, [which] makes the bald assumption that "the motions of the atoms and molecules of the brain" are not "fundamentally different from thoughts and feelings..." (Koffka, 1936, p.62)

Gestalt psychology had an influence on some mediation theoreticians as we will see below. It was more or less neglected in the English speaking world because of the dominance of behaviourism.

11.4. Mowrer's theory

Mowrer, adopting the major ideas of both mediation and gestalt theories, tried to overcome some of the already mentioned behaviourist instrumental learning difficulties by rejecting their conception of habit as "a fixed automatic, unconscious, neural connexion or bond between some stimulus and response." (Mowrer, 1960, the accompanying phonograph record). For Mowrer emotions constitute meanings from which habits are selected. They are selected according to emotions of hope and tend to reoccur whenever there is hopeful feedback (see below). They are not physical observable responses. Since meanings are made of emotions, they are not stable. Therefore habits are also subject to change. Mowrer classifies rms
into emotions of hope and emotions of fear which triggered by the environment would act on meanings.

"Meanings... constitute for the individual a sort of inner, subjective field; and it is this on-going, ever changing motivational state which moment by moment modifies, controls and directs behaviour." (ibid. p.310)

"Ordinarily the amount of energy involved in the stimuli impinging upon living organisms from without is miniscule... But somewhat in the manner of a radio receiving set, living organisms take these minute and such causally ineffective stimuli and convert or amplify them into forms of psychological energy which are quite powerful." (ibid, p.311)

Let us clarify this position by giving two examples starting with a decremental reinforcement (fear decreasing) case. In teaching dogs how to shake hands, we start by giving them a piece of meat or any kind of food they like, every time we lift and flex their right forepaw. Neither the Pavlovian, nor the Skinnerian, nor even the Thorndikian (2) principle would be said to be applicable. The dog is passive or seems to be; we teach it how and what is to be done. However, a habit in the classical sense is assumed to be acquired when the patient (the dog) becomes agent; i.e. the dog lifting its forepaw toward us. The action is not in our case a response to an external stimulus. Therefore, the dog was not totally passive during the teaching process; it was learning. In lifting its forepaw toward us, the dog is stimulated by emotions of hope (rms) which are at the same time reinforcements - hopeful feedback.

Our second example to illustrate incremental reinforcement (fear arousing) would be that of a student expected to take exams. In this case,
he either works hard to avoid failure or if he experienced failure before and suffered from a series of disappointments, he would be more likely to resort to passive avoidance behaviour - no positive motivation; no interest in the course - which leads him eventually to an expected and dreaded failure.

Although Mowrer's theory cannot be dissociated from the S - R theory, we think that it is important to recognize some of its merits. First, it relates closely the acquisition of meaning with motivation and experience. Second, it gives some importance to the role of the individual's inner process and does not reject the role of the environment in learning.

11.5. Some concluding remarks

Mediation theory, though within the behaviourist sphere, provided many valuable insights in teaching and learning; in habit formation or meaning internalization and impartation. There were, however, many difficulties that faced the theory among which we cite the following:

To begin with, there was no clear distinction between the categories of organisms (species) despite Pavlov's which was overlooked. There was no attempt to deal with or recognize the role of syntactic structures in carrying utterance meanings and functions. The sentence as an abstract unit hardly existed for them. The mediational responses (rms) "round"; "dwelling"; "ice" would have been carrying an absurd or inadequate meaning, had not it been assumed that an underlying structure arranged them in the following sentence; "An igloo is a round dwelling in ice". Mediation theory, despite its explanatory power, was unable to deal with sentences/utterances like examples (11) and (12) below;

\[\text{e.g. 11 - A round dwelling in ice is called an igloo.}\]

where S (stimulus) comes after its rms.
e.g. 12 - A round dwelling in ice, I am not sure if you heard of it, is an igloo.

where the S and rns are split and delayed - contiguity, a basic principle for the behaviourist theory, which exists in immediate constituent structure analysis, is questioned.

Behaviourism did not lead structural taxonomic linguists as it is sometimes assumed. It did however influence them. They carried on their study of Langue represented by the sentence (see 1 above). However, their initial hesitation (see Hockett in 1, above) to introduce meaning became very attractive after the 1960s contribution of mediation theory (including Mowrer's theory), of gestalt theory, and the flourishing fields of sociolinguistics and philosophy of language (see 1, chap. 3, below). Joos (1958) stated "Let the sociologist keep the outside or practical meaning; then we can undertake to describe the pure linguistic meanings" (p.356). Because meaning was not empirically accounted for, the sentence was often confused with the utterance - phonemes, morphemes, syntactic structures (patterns) and probability of occurrence.

Behaviourism, on the other hand, had a stronger impact on the taxonomists' conception of linguistic communication (interaction through parole). This could be noticed in the work of Bloomfield (1935) who adopted the S - r...s - R formula in accounting for his famous Jack and Jill example. Hockett (1959) who, introducing his viewpoint on the theory of communication said: "As a first step in describing this view, we present... a mechanical and mathematical model of a human being regarded as a talking animal."

Gestalt theory was not very influential and that was because of its holistic principle which acknowledges the atomistic, structuralist analysis but considers it very insufficient. Language is not only phonemes grouped into morphemes which make up words that give sentences. Language is also
meaning in context (cf. pragmatics in chap. 3, below). Experience is very important in learning and communication (cf. Frame theory, chap. 3, below).

As we pointed out earlier in this chapter, structuralist linguistics, behaviourism and, to a certain extent, the other theories in psychology influenced language teaching and particularly syllabus design.

111. Syllabus design in L2 teaching

The textbook writer's belief that the L2 learner should be led gently and patiently during the teaching process, was consolidated especially because of the behaviourist psychologists' strong impact (see Mackey, 1965, p.206). To achieve this, each language had to be scientifically "dismantled" by the qualified linguists of the time. The syllabus designer who was aware of what was going on in psychology and the growing field of pragmatics, would rely rather heavily on the linguist's work. He would select and reorganize their material into a series of graded units. The learner, under the guidance of the teacher, would be assumed to follow the stages prescribed for him. Through the process of assimilation, he would resynthesize the whole units and eventually master the language; i.e. langue (see Wilkins, 1976, pp.2-3).

111.1. Selection

Selection "depends ultimately on what one can eliminate and still have a language, and on the degree to which one can do without it in a given circumstance" (Mackey, 1965, p.164). Selection can be both external and internal.

External selection takes into account the purpose of the course, the level of the learners, and the duration of the teaching process. In addition, it takes into consideration the type of dialect, register, and style to be taught, on one hand, and the medium or media through which it would be taught, on the other.
Internal selection is based on the number of elements in the system (nouns, adjectives, etc.) and their frequency. It is also based on the "ability" of the members of one system to make up units next above (see the notion of rank in Berry, 1975). It makes use of the amount of information carried by an item and its probability of occurrence. Finally, it takes into consideration the capacity of an item to combine with other items, and thus, take part in a structure.

The criteria for selection are: (1) the frequency of an item in a dialect, register, style, medium, and at a particular time; (2) the range covered by an item; (3) the availability of an item; (4) the coverage of an item which consists of inclusion, extension, and definition subcriteria; and (5) learnability which includes similarity, clarity, brevity, regularity, and learning load (see Mackey, 1965, pp.176-188).

111.2. Gradation

Once selection has been carried out according to the criteria mentioned above, the syllabus designer is faced with a much more demanding task of observing the current psychological principles along with the linguistic theory adopted. There are two major stages in gradation. They are grouping and sequencing.

111.2.1. Grouping

For a taxonomist grouping is done within each system: (1) phonetic/phonological; (2) lexical; and it includes association and collocation; (3) grammatical; and (4) semantic. But since language is a system, it is reasonable to relate the items already selected and grouped in a suitable artificially graded system (see sequencing, below). That is to say, the textbook designer would attempt to combine (1) the sounds (phonemes/allophones) into words; (2) the words into phrases; (3) the phrases into clauses and sentences; and (4) the sentences into texts. Like
the microlinguist, and notwithstanding the increasing contributions of the so-called peripheral sciences, particularly, our textbook designer would grow less confident (cf. Hockett's statement, p.2 above) as he moves up on the rank scale; i.e. from sound to sentence to context. This state of affairs could be attributed to the inherent structure of language itself and/or to the linguistic approach so far adopted. The following examples from a textbook written in the 1940s show clearly the difficulty of presenting form, meaning and context; and the resulting artificiality which both teacher and student would unavoidably struggle with;

\begin{itemize}
\item e.g. 13 - The big dog wants but the little dog does not.
\item e.g. 14 - The garden of my father is larger than the pen-knife of my uncle.
\item e.g. 15 - He gave a large sum to his cousin.
\end{itemize}

Here is Baby calling nurse.(3)

\section*{111.2.2. Sequencing}

Grouping the already chosen linguistic items according to the non-exhaustive rules worked out by the microlinguist would amount to creating an "alienated" form (as opposed to substance) which would be more of a puzzle than a natural language for the learner and would disclose the vulnerability of the L2 teacher whose social status makes his capacity very much unchallengeable. For these reasons, sequencing would become a necessity that could justify to a large extent the role of the textbook writers. However, in the absence of a sound psycholinguistic theory (see Wilkins, 1976, p.6), we notice a large variation in organizing the sequence of the linguistic items and "rules" to be taught. This situation led to a compensatory act which consists in relying more heavily on linguistics especially with the advent of transformational grammar, as Newmark (1963) pointed out.
According to Mackey (1965) sequencing has to be done in each system: a) phonetics (phonological), e.g. /i/ and /ə/ before /ʌ/; (2) lexical, e.g. concrete words that lead to abstract ones: "oranges", "dates", "bread" etc. are introduced before "food" which is followed by the verb "to feed"; (3) grammatical, e.g. (a) structure words, "this", "is", "a", "where" come before "who", "in", "at"; (b) inflection, "ed" with regular verbs follows this order of pronunciation: [id],[d],[t]; (c) sentence and clause sequence, "It's a book", "This is a book", "What's this?", "Is it a book?", "Is this your bag?" etc. where declarative sentences come before interrogative sentences; (4) semantic e.g. structure words: the indefinite article is introduced before the definite, etc... (4)

Sequencing has to be done also at the sentence structure level. A given pattern (see e.g. 1-10, above) could be expanded, could have one or more of its constituents varied, and could also be lengthened in one or more directions.

Thus, as we have demonstrated in this section, selection precedes gradation and gradation follows two principal steps, namely grouping and sequencing. However, in practice the stages described above are not scrupulously observed especially when it comes to designing textbooks for advanced learners (see Tunisian textbooks in IV, chap.5, below).

IV Methodology

The audiolingual method has often been associated with behaviourism and structural taxonomic linguistics (I and I1.1, above). But, it seems that this method was not totally new. It developed in part from the nineteenth century "direct method" which stemmed from the old - though not out of date - "activist theory" and provided useful ideas about teaching and learning.
1V.1. The activist theory

The activist theory had been challenging the well-established formalist theory backed for centuries by prescriptivism. The activists emphasized aural communication and advocated generalizations based on inductive learning. They were given credence only after the end of the nineteenth century major developments in comparative philology.

1V.2. The direct method

The direct method could be located within the activist frame of thought and is representative of the methods which oppose translation-based teaching. Advocates of this theory believed (see Rivers, 1968) that the acquisition of an L1 is similar to that of an L2 if the learner lived among native speakers - "integrative" motivation being prerequisite. Therefore, the aim of an L2 teacher would be to provide his students with an environment similar to that of the L2 native speakers - an ideal target - and to develop in them the skill and ability to think, encode and decode in L2; i.e. behave in L2 (see the similarities between this method and the natural approach, 111.2, chap.2, below).

1V.3. The audiolingual method

As it will become clear shortly, the audiolingual method focused on langue.

"It is 'langue' that we set out in our textbooks, on our tapes... - the average which has been set up by many individuals using the same sign system... Thus "every language is a model of a culture." (Rivers, 1964, p.133)

This was due to a reliance on the following interrelated sciences: Behaviourism which provided the theories of learning mentioned in 11.1.
above; Microlinguistics, the science most relied on, represented by
taxonomic analysis of langue and based on the sentence structure - "we talk
in sentences" said Lado (1964, p.12) - (see 1.1, above); and Anthropology
which had a rising but very limited influence because it was believed to be
still far from the atomistic empirical analysis (see Joos, 1958).

These fields, though having habit (11.5, above) as a common
denominator, were incapable of providing the teacher with a sound theory of
language learning and communication. Hockett (1959) talking about his field
limitations, and acknowledging this dissatisfaction said "the shortcut of
asking what a form means must ultimately be supplemented by active
participation in the life of the community." (p.141)

The emphasis on teaching the four skills - listening, speaking,
reading, and writing - and in this order, was based on the complementary
contributions, though varying in degrees of importance, of the outlined
fields above. LI acquisition in a literate society follows the above order.
The spoken form is prior to the written but the written tends to be more
akin to langue (see Lado, above). A language (langue) is a mirror of its
community's social structures and cultural values (see Hockett, ibid,
p.579). Therefore, the L2 learner was supposed to listen to langue spoken
to him/her, speak it, read it, and write it.

Microlinguists provided textbook writers with information about the
language structure. Psychology covered the method and use of textbooks in
the classroom by the teacher and the students. The impact of anthropology
could be seen in the textbooks, particularly dialogues and texts, and to a
lesser extent in the classroom activities. This is due to the restrictions
imposed by the setting itself and the dominating influence of both
behaviourism and taxonomic analysis reflected in the textbooks.

According to Rivers (1983, pp.4-6) the audiolingual method went
through two stages: (1) the early audiolingual method and (2) the late
audiolingual method.
IV.3.1. The early audiolingual method

In the early audiolingual method, the teacher would be required to speak in "L2" during the whole class, but this would not necessarily imply that he must be fully competent in it - some suggested as a matter of fact that language had to be taught by undergraduates rather than fully devoted teachers. Unlike the formalist, the early audiolingual teacher, fascinated by slogans like "teach the language not about it", would be very reluctant to explain any grammatical or semantic difficulty the students might encounter (if he/she believed they ever did). He/she was confined to the textbook and had to practice mechanically with the students patterns through drills paying special attention to the students' pronunciation and required structural changes and substitutions (cf. e.g. 1-10 above); and rewarding them by approvals, praises, or marks (reinforcements). A new pattern would be thought to have been acquired if it came out, instantly and mechanically, (see Skinner, p. 6 and Hockett, p.4 above) right every time it was required; i.e. the stimulating conditions (unusual in everyday situations) for its occurrence were provided

e.g. 16 - (Lado, 1964, pp.106-7)
"[cues and responses by the teacher]
- Do you understand?
- Hear
- Do you hear?
- See
- Do you see?

[cues by the teacher, responses by the class]

- S: Understand
- R: Do you understand?
- S: Hear
- R: Do you hear?
  
  (etc.)"

It was argued that the best way to learn a language - habit formation - would be the quickest; a minimum but sufficient number of drills that would lead to overlearning and saturation - mim-mem technique. There was no mention of creativity but only of generalization.

e.g. 17 - (generalization)
T: This is a blue car (5)
S: This is a blue car
T: This is a white van
S: This is a white van
T: This is a...
S: This is a blue van

Examples sixteen (16) and seventeen (17) would not lead to mistakes according to the advocates of the audiolingual method; wrong generalizations were minimized by textbook writers in an attempt to exclude them; and thus eliminate bad habits (our data, however, abounds with errors even when drills are practiced; see L1A, L1B, L2A, etc. app. I-III).

Constrastive Analysis (CA), (see Lado, 1968, p.120) was developed to make teaching languages an easy and quick task. It was thought it would be wise to compare language systems and contrast them. The identification of the common core of two or more languages would reduce the amount of interference. This would also mean less drills, and no redundancies resulting in boring tasks which are not appealing by their novelty (cf. however e.g. 16 above). Despite the superficiality and lack of exhaustiveness, the attempt was quite helpful in preparing textbooks (and developing the theory of translation). However, as it was later suggested,
there would be more benefit if instead of contrasting systems, we would list the difficulties of the learner, classify them in order to introduce them in textbooks or lessons, and emphasize the necessity of drawing the learner's attention to them; directly or indirectly, (Nemser, 1971). This is often referred to as the weak version of CA.

The very attempt to present students with spoken L2 in the classroom was a courageous move, but were the students able to interact with L2 native speakers after they had gone through their few textbooks? The answer could be hardly yes as many researchers agree (see chaps. 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 in the present thesis).

IV.3.2. The late audiolingual method

The growing concern about the problem of meaning-lexical, sentential, and beyond sentential - among microlinguists; the valuable contribution of mediation theory (see 11.5, above) in psychology; and the attempts to widen the scope of microlinguistics by social dialectologists, ethnographers of communication and philosophers of language (see chap.3, below) all contributed to make audiolingual advocates review their method and try to readjust it to their aims. Starr et al. (1960) defined the aims of the late audiolingual method;

"The student should understand the foreign language as it is spoken by native speakers in situations similar to his own experience... He should speak the foreign language in everyday situations with reasonable fluency and correctness, and with pronunciation acceptable to the native speaker of the language... He should read the foreign language easily and without conscious translation... He should be able to communicate in writing anything he can say... Mastery of the skills must be accompanied with the culture the language represents, as well as a larger view of life resulting from
the realization that there are many cultures and value systems... (pp.17-19)

The aims listed by Starr et al. were roughly the same as those advocated by the activist theory (IV.1, above) and the direct method (IV.2, above). They are also roughly the same as the aims of the proponents of the communicative approach (e.g. Munby, 1978, Xiaoju, 1984, see chap. 4 below) and the natural approach (Krashen and Terrell, 1983, discussed in III.2, chap. 2, below). As we shall see, there has been a lot of progress as to what is to be taught but not much has been achieved as to how to teach as Taylor (1985) and Lightbown (1985) have argued, (I.3, chap. 4, below).

Having seen how the early audiolingual method was strongly supported by theory, namely structuralism and behaviourism, we can claim that it is with the advent of the late audiolingual method that the discrepancy between theory and practice began to emerge (see further details in chap.2).

We notice that there was an increasing but still limited emphasis on the role of the learner and the importance of contextualization in the late audiolingual method (Rivers, 1983, pp.5-6). The syntactic structures, still regarded as the backbone of the lesson, dominated the dialogue or text. They were practised in sentences and accounted for in a rule "improvised" by the students under the almost total guidance of the teacher and the textbook. New vocabulary was often introduced in the dialogue or text and practised in "uttered sentences" (cf. our review of First year and Second year textbooks, IV.1 and IV.2, chap.5). Overlearning was less and less recommended, as the efficiency of the mim-mem technique which was based on the old conception of habit formation was coming under harsh criticism. The teacher was forced to renounce some of his power which he drew from the classical behaviourists and the textbook writers influenced by microlinguists, by giving some freedom to the student to express himself;
to make errors (see 11.4, above; see also 11. chap.2, below). The textbook writer tried to meet the learners' needs, hopes, and expectations (cf. Mowrer's theory, above; see the communicative approach in 1, chap.4, below) by constructing dialogues and texts in situations the learner might encounter. This kind of grammatical/situational syllabus caused a dilemma in which both teacher and student found themselves: their problem was what to concentrate on. This "dilemma" is still noticeable in FL classroom discourse. (See the notion of "Frame shifting" in chaps 3 and 6, below).

e.g. 18 (From Riley, 1980, pp.207-8)

1 T: er Mr P er what's the man doing... he's sitting but
   what's he doing with his hand
2 Mr P: She's pointing their hand
3 T: Pardon
4 P: He's pointing his hand

........................................

5 Mlle X: Because she's late
6 T: OK. The girl is late and perhaps (gesture) he's been...
   what (drums his hands imitating impatience) he's been...
7 Mlle X: Wait
8 T: Waiting
9 Mlle X: He has waited
10 T: He has been waiting
11 Mlle X: Many many times

........................................

12 T: Miss E, can you ask a question with how long
13 Mlle X: How long ago

........................................

14 T: OK he arrived at 8 o'clock and what's he doing right now
15 Mlle E: Now he waits
16 T: Now he's

17 Mlle E: Now he's waiting

(etc.)

The above interactions (6) were recorded in a French school that provided courses for adults. The teacher was American, probably familiar with the communicative approach (chap.4, below). The lesson was planned in the following way: the students were asked to describe a picture in their textbooks and then one of them would read the text that describes the picture while the others follow silently.

The teacher was reluctant to let his students go 'astray' (see 8) and was sticking to the description of the text he had read. He was at pains to follow the description provided by the text and to inculcate the use of some tenses he had been teaching. The emphasis on the utterance of full sentences was obvious (4, 13), yet as Brown and Yule (1983(b), p.26) argued, this requires a capacity that the majority of people have not got in their native language. Finally, there is a lot of focus on grammaticality.

From example eighteen (18), we can conclude that a focus on the TL form often disrupts the focus on message. From this point of view classroom discourse has remained "a failure" "because teachers and students fail to create an environment where everybody is eager to communicate" (Ellis, 1980, p.79), (see however the position we adopt in 1.3, chap.4, below).

V. Some concluding remarks on syllabus design and methodology

There is no doubt that structuralist textbook designers dealt with what to teach in accordance with the prevalent theories of the time. Their method of selecting and grading vocabulary has been described by Galisson (1983, p.15) as objective. The major objection that could be made to textbook designers, and indeed to all audiolingual advocates, is that they assumed that they knew all the stages of language acquisition.
The audiolingual method even in its improved version had many shortcomings as Krashen and Terrell (1983, pp.13-16) remarked;

(i) - Students repeated drills but often did not understand them.

(ii) - Even if the message or grammatical rule was understood, "real communication" did not take place.

(iii) - Habit could not last long. Even if habit was maintained, learners would have to wait for an appropriate context to use the learned pattern. As we know discourse is too complex to be reduced to a few memorized patterns.

(iv) - Presenting the spoken form before the written led learners to invent their own written code. (Most beginners among Tunisian learners of English use Arabic script to remember the pronunciation of dialogues and words).

These problems have not been totally overcome in L2 classrooms, including the Tunisian FL classroom as we shall see in chapter six below. The cognitive movement did not produce much change in the situation save for an emphasis on teaching explicitly the linguistic rules of the TL; a practice that Chomsky, the main figure behind the mentalist approach, has never supported (see 1.1, chap. 2, below).

VI. Summary and Conclusion

The major mistake, if we may say so, made by behaviourism and the other psychological theories discussed in this chapter, was a misconception of learning. They assumed that a general theory of learning based on empirical procedures would be adequate for all organisms in any domain.

Taxonomic linguists followed the same approach the behaviourists chose, and consequently set for themselves a major obstacle that compelled
them to investigate phonetics/phonology and morphology, devoting less effort to syntax. Their definition of linguistics led them to concentrate on the sentence level. They provided, thus, a dim insight into the grammar of languages; hardly any concern about semantics; and some vague ideas about the functions of language(s) in interaction.

Interwoven, as they were, linguistics, behaviourism, and empiricism exerted a strong impact on language teaching/learning. This could be seen at the levels of syllabus design and methodology. The on-going developments in the fields mentioned above and the growing pressure from the so-called peripheral but very influential sciences have yielded a series of drastic and radical upheavals that must, we believe, improve our understanding of language acquisition process, refine our views on syllabus design, encourage us to consider a better method of teaching, and consequently provide us with consistent ideas against which we can analyse L2 classroom discourse.
NOTES TO CHAPTER ONE

1. See its pattern in 2 diagrams presented by Hockett, 1959, p.163.

2. Sj - iR (drive stimulus - hunger, thirst, etc. - a suitable response that resulted from trials and errors.

3. Cited in Mackey, 1965, p.212. Other eccentric examples could be found in Bell, 1981, appendix.

4. All the examples given are based on a close study of the early units of *English for Modern Life, Level One*, 1977. More details about this book are provided in chapter four, below.

5. T for teacher and S for student.

6. Interaction, discourse, conversation and transaction of messages are taken to mean talk. All these terms will be defined in chapter three, below.
CHAPTER TWO

CHOMSKYAN THEORY AND ITS INFLUENCE ON APPROACHES TO L2 LEARNING AND TEACHING

Introduction

We have seen in the previous chapter how behaviourism overemphasized the role of the environment in the learning process. We have discussed the impact of this on linguistics, syllabus design, and L2 teaching methodology. We have also shown how some other psychological theories gave more importance to the role of the individual in the learning process and we have mentioned how this contributed to the change in "the late audiolingual method". Finally, we have claimed that this change marked the beginning of the mismatch we describe in the present chapter between what theoreticians advocate and what goes on in many FL classrooms, including as we shall see in Chapter Six below, the English classroom in Tunisian secondary schools.

Following Færch and Kasper (1983a, pp.xv-xviii) we suggest that L2 acquisition studies have three main areas of interest:

1) Product-Orientated research: the researcher describes and classifies observable IL phenomena. Error analysis could be taken as an example.

2) Process-orientated research with a special emphasis on development: the researcher attempts to discover the mechanisms responsible for acquisition through longitudinal and cross-sectional studies. A typical example would be the morpheme studies.

3) Process-orientated research with a special emphasis on communication: the researcher analyses the discourse in which learners take part. Classroom discourse studies and strategies in inter-language communication would be two typical examples.
The present chapter focuses mainly on (1) and (2) above. (3) will be discussed in the remaining chapters of the present thesis, and this is because it has been influenced by the field of pragmatics (chap. 3, below).

In our review of (1) and (2) we examine the possibilities suggested to improve FL teaching methodology.

This chapter begins with a review of Chomsky's and Piaget's theories. Then, a discussion of Adjemian's interlanguage (IL) paradigm and error analysis (EA) and its influence on teaching is presented. Krashen's Monitor Model and Krashen and Terrell's Natural Approach are closely examined in relation to the different theories and ideas that influenced them.

I. The Controversy over the role of the environment

The controversy over the primacy of the role of the environment in the learning process became a major issue in the wake of the revival of mentalism in the sixties. This controversy can be best illustrated by the contrast between Chomsky's theory and Piaget's theory. Chomsky's theory, which draws attention to the poverty of the stimulus (environment), became very popular among L1 and L2 acquisition researchers. But in the last few years we have witnessed a rather balanced view concerning the roles of the environment and the individual; a view quite reminiscent of the Piagetian approach (see chap. 4).

I.1. Chomsky's theory and the role of the environment

Most mentalist philosophers, with some degree of difference, postulated that our knowledge of the world exists nowhere but in the mind. Socrates' success in eliciting abstract and sophisticated ideas from an uneducated slave boy would be taken as an illustrative instance of the poverty of the stimulus (the environment). Chomsky's (1968, 1980) endorsement of the views of the mentalists (e.g. Socrates, Plato, Descartes, Kant, etc.) led him to reconsider the dichotomy of mind versus
body. His argument goes as follows: none would dismiss out of hand that the embryo of any species is genetically programmed and that the programme unfolds till the organism reaches the adult stage. The environment in 'normal' circumstances would provide the necessary conditions for the development of a given organism without altering its genetic programme. All the organs that make up the organism in any particular species would grow up in harmony depending on each other while retaining their individual characteristics and roles.

"From this point of view, we can proceed to approach the study of the human mind much in the way that we study the physical structure of the body." (Chomsky, 1980, p.31)

For Chomsky, linguistics is the study of one capacity or one "mental organ";

"I would like to think of linguistics as that part of psychology that focuses its attention on one specific cognitive domain and one faculty of mind, the language faculty. Psychology in the sense of this discussion, is concerned, at the very least, with human capacities to act and to interpret experience and more deeply, with second-order capacity to construct these mental structures, and the structures that underlie these second order capacities." (Chomsky, ibid, p.4)

According to Chomsky an L1 learner like an L2 learner would not be taught all the rules of a language but he would acquire that language (cf. the cognitivists' emphasis on conscious linguistic rule learning, V, chap.1, above).
The cognition of the language faculty—semantic, syntactic, and phonological—would be equated with the structures that underlie the second order capacity which the advocates of the innateness hypothesis would call language universals. The second order capacity is a system of principles and mechanisms put into work under the triggering effect of the environment (a particular natural language) to process, unconsciously a set of rules. This process is often referred to as the Language Acquisition Device (LAD) and its final result as linguistic competence. The LAD makes use of the evaluation procedure during the acquisition process. It constructs a set of rules and evaluates it against the data provided by the environment to modify it. But as people's performance does not reflect exactly their competence, one has to assume that the LAD's "transitional competences" (1) are very much restricted by the universal rules. The linguist's job is very similar to that of the child's except that it is conscious and starts from performance to reach competence and linguistic universals. Because performance varies from person to person and from situation to situation, the linguist has to resort to idealization and introspection (see the influence of these principles on error analysis and L2 acquisition studies in general, below).

To conclude this section, we could say that Chomsky's innateness hypothesis is based on the argument that the environment is too poor to provide, on its own, an explanation for language acquisition process. His approach to the mind is modular; that is to say our faculties are autonomous but may depend on one another during the developmental process, (e.g. development of long term memory may facilitate acquisition of complex sentences).

The advent of transformational generative grammar in the early sixties dominated the scene and led to a shift towards the individual; i.e. to the human and universal but not the social. It led to introspection, hypothesis formation, and evaluation procedure in linguistics. Performance became
associated with imperfection while the linguistic competence of the ideal speaker-hearer came under focus. The major aim was to discover the universal innate human linguistic capacity.

1.2. Piaget's theory and the role of the environment

We would like to describe, briefly, Piaget's theory because it is quite different from Chomsky's; because it has had an influence on Krashen's "theory", which we will be discussing in this chapter; and because it is becoming influential in language acquisition studies (chap.4).

Piaget (1977) acknowledged that the adult cognitive development is based on the controversial three classical factors together - 1) external experience with the physical world, 2) social and cultural influences, and 3) hereditary programming - but introduced a fourth correlating factor he called 4) equilibration.

For Piaget (see Clark, 1975, pp.311-12) the individual relies on two types of organization:

(i) - Functional invariants: they are characteristics of the mental functioning that human beings make use of at any stage of their development, and include two dialectically related processes - assimilation and accommodation.

(ii) - Cognitive structures or schemata: they are the result of the interrelation between assimilation, accommodation, the external object, and the previous schemata.

During the process of schemata formation, we can notice a state of indeterminacy which leads to a new state of equilibrium marking the end of the process and a readiness for another schema formation process. "However, the equilibrium, is conserved even it becomes incorporated into a further
search for better equilibria." (Piaget, 1977, p.19). There is an implied acknowledgement of some sort of programming in cognitive development. But Piaget insisted that "the important thing is that content is not programmed." (ibid, p.19).

It is clear from this brief review of the main principles of Piaget's theory that the mind is considered to be non-modular. Therefore, language acquisition is part and parcel of the child's cognitive development.

According to the Piagetians, it seems (see Uzigris, 1977, pp.70-73) that as the cognitive structures and the organism develop, the grip of the immediate situation on the senses gets looser - development of abstraction and reasoning. The child's acts at the age of around eighteen months become progressively based on anticipations of further changes and probable outcomes. At this stage the child starts to show some imitation of social behaviour, and linguistic communication (holophrastic stage);

"...instead of examining, banging, dropping, and stretching, he begins to push toy cars around, to hug dolls...The adoption of socially approved ways of acting on toys probably reflects both imitation of models and modification of actions through their outcomes" (ibid, p.73).

Around the age of twenty-two months, the child becomes more capable of grappling with abstractions and begins to show a few signs of reasoning - constructing reverse paths in his/her search for objects, making detours through space to achieve goals; showing less signs of overt groping; attempting successfully to imitate adults' facial expressions; trying to convey messages through speech (telegraphic speech); etc.

e.g. 1 (A two-year old child making a remark about his mother's speech which is an imitation of his).
- Mother (delivering a stimulus): Joseph, go ronta ball!
- Joseph: Wha', Momma? "Go ronta ball?"

(Gleitman et al, 1977, p.91).

Notice that Joseph shows some sort of conscious differentiation between his speech and his mother's which represents the target for him.

From this point of view the Piagetians would argue that language cannot be separated from cognitive development and social integration. The Chomskyans would retort that they have never denied the interaction between the different faculties of the mind. They would add that "development deals with language in use - with pragmatics and performance." (Cook, 1983, p.7). They are interested in the linguistic competence and more importantly what underlies it; i.e. linguistic universals.

The Chomskyans succeeded in convincing many linguists of the importance of their endeavour. They have had a strong impact on researchers in the fields of L1 and L2 acquisition. The influence of L2 acquisition research on teaching methodology has been indirect and modest (as we have remarked in Chapter One and will see in this chapter). In recent years, it has been realized that performance deserves more attention (e.g. Færch and Kasper, 1983a) and interlanguage (IL) (see definition, below) needs to be studied in terms of linguistic and pragmatic knowledge (e.g. Bialystok and Sharwood Smith, 1985). Our claim in this thesis is that this new trend could be of greater significance for FL classroom research.

II. The nativist approach to L2 acquisition

Longitudinal studies in the field of L1 acquisition research showed that many of children's utterances were unique (i.e. different from adult native speakers), systematic (i.e. have some consistency at every stage of acquisition), and based on a process of hypothesis formation and hypothesis testing (i.e. strategies). These findings, which were restricted to
phonology, syntax, and morphology, pointed to the importance of the role of
the postulated LAD (see I, above). They also encouraged L2 acquisition
researchers to study learners' "approximative competences" (Corder,
1968/1981\(^2\)), "idiosyncratic dialects" (Corder, 1973/1981) or
"interlanguages" (ILs) (Selinker, 1972).

IL has been defined and redefined by L2 theoreticians. Tarone (1983),
Bialystok and Sharwood Smith (1985) and Ellis (1985) seem to agree that
there are three main definitions or paradigms of IL. The three paradigms
are:

i) - The one IL competence paradigm (II.1, below).

ii) - The dual competence paradigm (III.1, below).

iii) - The continuum paradigm (II.2, chap.4, below).

These three paradigms show a progressive move from Chomsky's theory
and a gradual emphasis on the role of the environment in language
acquisition. This change is very significant for teaching methodology as we
will attempt to demonstrate throughout the rest of the present thesis.

II.1. The One IL competence paradigm: a definition in line with

Chomsky's theory

In this section we discuss Adjemian's (1976) conception of IL which,
according to Tarone (1983, 1985) at least, is in line with Chomsky's
overall theory of competence. Adjemian's paradigm is a revised version of
Selinker's (1972). The main difference between the early version and the
later version is that IL for Selinker includes L1 rules (see Bialystok and
Sharwood Smith, 1985) while for Adjemian it does not.

For Adjemian (1976) ILs are "systematic", "permeable" and relatively
"stable".
i) - ILs are systematic because at any stage of acquisition there is some consistency that can be inferred from learner's output. Consistency has to be derived from a large corpus of data. Since the learner's IL is permeable (see below) and since there are situational and personal factors that are likely to affect performance, the analyst has to rely heavily on intuition to infer the learner's system and the mechanisms that generate it.

ii - ILs are permeable. They are systems which are "somehow incomplete and in a state of flux" (ibid, p.308). An IL may allow the penetration of rules which are foreign to its systematicity mainly because of its "incompleteness". The learner who has to use his system to communicate may resort to his L1 or TL. He/she may also attempt a distortion or violation of some IL rules. According to Adjemian, only rules which have not yet become stable and which block communication the most are simplified or streamlined. Therefore, permeability accounts for strategies of learning and strategies of communication (see II.1, chap.4, below). In other words permeability is the major factor in the building up and refinement of the IL system.

iii - ILs are stable. Adjemian excludes IL rules which are permeable when he deals with stability. Thus, IL rules which are stable are systematic. They could be incorrect if compared to TL, but as far as IL is concerned they are correct. For Adjemian the notion of stability is supported by fossilization and backsliding.

Fossilization is usually related to instrumental motivation (Schuman, 1975, p.140). When a learner can get by in the TL, his/her L2 acquisition process of the grammatical and phonological systems comes to a halt, as it were. He/she may learn new vocabulary though. Students who stop learning a
FL, or immigrants who go back to their native country may also experience fossilization.

Backsliding, according to Adjemian, takes place when the learner feels that he/she is in a "stress-provoking social setting" (ibid, p.316). The learner in such situations may fall back on a former IL. Backsliding is always towards an IL that has lost its permeability (cf. Tarone in II.2, chap.4, below).

It is clear from the above review of Adjemian's paradigm that there is a set of assumptions which are Chomskyan: a homogeneous and ideal competence, constrained by universals, which can be inferred through introspection, preferably the learner's (see II.2, below).

Adjemian's paradigm is not clear about the role of the environment in language acquisition. One feels, however, that Adjemian has come close enough to Piaget's theory (I.2, above) when he dealt with permeability. He was constrained by the Chomskyan approach and this is the reason for his lack of clarity in dealing with permeability; particularly the interaction between the environment and the individual in language acquisition and communication.

Error analysis (EA) was the field that was very much influenced by Chomsky's theory and which attempted to study L2 learners' IL.

II.2. Error Analysis and Teaching Methodology

One has to concede that error analysis (EA) is as old as the teaching profession itself. Teachers have always been anxious to find an explanation for their students' most persistent errors. Seen from this perspective both Contrastive Analysis (CA) and EA share the same incentive. They differ, however, in their ways of dealing with learners' errors. This can be justified to a very large extent by the context in which each approach developed.

EA does not reject the notion of interference (see IV.3,chap.1.), which
is basic for CA. Errors which are transferred from L1 are called interlingual. EA shows, however, that many of learners' errors are developmental (similar to the child's acquiring an L1). Developmental errors, like for instance overgeneralization, are referred to in the literature as intralingual errors. Intralingual errors have been observed even among learners who do not share the same L1, particularly those who have been exposed to the TL in informal settings; i.e. not in the classroom (see however Felix and Hahn, III.1, below).

Corder (1876*/1981) dismissed the analysis of L2 classroom data because it was artificial. He claimed that:

"...what goes on in the classroom in the target language can scarcely be called 'language in use' at all. There is good reason to suppose that the interlanguage data generated in this sort of specialized verbal activity in the classroom does not offer us a representative sample of material on which to base an adequate account of the learner's knowledge of any particular stage of his career." (pp.68-69)

This is one of the main reasons that led EA to move away from its initial goal which was, as we said in the beginning of this section, to help teachers in their day to day activity - methodology. EA became involved in the discovery of the mechanism that regulated acquisition (i.e. "the built-in" syllabus). James (1976) expressed his disenchantment with this turning away from the issues of teaching when he said, addressing error analysts:

"Those who attack CA, wishing random exposure methods, would share the view that the reason for relative ease of learning one language over another is not to be found
in the teaching, since they want to abandon teaching altogether, it seems." (p.162)

Looking back on EA and the influence of Chomsky's theory on it, one can mention a further reason that discouraged many researchers from studying L2 classroom discourse and deterred many error analysts from investigating the output of learners who went through formal teaching.

It was not easy to elicit, let alone study, spontaneous message-orientated discourse from learners who were taught according to the audiolingual method: the present writer attempted to elicit some "conversation" or role-play talk from first and second year Tunisian learners. He quickly realized that the learners felt frustrated. He feared that this might affect negatively their attitude to their classroom, and decided to record only third year and fourth year learners. (See extracts from learners' performance in II.1.2, chap. 4).

EA as a field of applied linguistics had many shortcomings from which we list some, very briefly:

i) Description of errors were often superficial - e.g. omission, addition, ordering. (Corder, 1972*/1981 and Dulay et al. 1982, chap.7).

ii) EA was often incapable of providing a correct interpretation of learners' intentions or meanings (Corder, 1972*/1981, p.37).

iii) an error is often caused by more than one factor. That is why EA was not able to maintain the dichotomy interlingual vs. intralingual (Dulay et al. ibid).

iv) EA focused on the synchronic study of learners' IL. It concentrated on product and not process which could be investigated through longitudinal studies (Ellis, 1985, p.53).
v) EA limited itself to the study of some morphological and syntactic aspects of learners' IL (Dulay et al., 1982, p.146).

Notwithstanding the above shortcomings, EA provided some valuable insights into L2 acquisition and strengthened teachers' belief in the necessity of analysing error and tolerating it in the classroom. Teachers needed to become justifiably realistic about their role in the classroom (Corder, 1976*/1981 p.78): structural and linear syllabuses (see III, chap.1, above), emphasis on correctness, and constant correction (Ellis, 1980, pp.73-4) may not be of as much help as it was thought to be, since learners appear to be programmed.

Because EA did not provide an alternative to the late audiolingual method, which, as we saw in Chapter One above, had already gone through some reforms, its effect on overall classroom discourse was modest.

Teachers had to carry on coping with their learners' errors, to ensure that context was more meaningful, and to make the best they could of the textbooks which became covertly structural (II.2, chap. 5). Teachers could not wait for IL studies to bring them a detailed description of L2 acquisition process; i.e. the so-called natural syllabus.

III. A "balanced" view of the roles of the individual and the environment in L2 acquisition

Longitudinal studies were undertaken in IL research to back up the natural syllabus which was merely a hypothesis for EA. Learners' attitude to the learning situation was also investigated. A concern about what constituted the input for the learner became evident in the light of the findings of the longitudinal studies.

Krashen (1981) tried to unify the emerging ideas in IL studies and other domains, as Gregg (1984, p.94) pointed out, in what he called "the Monitor Model" (Krashen, 1979, p.152). We believe it is appropriate for the
purpose of the present thesis to review Krashen's work and refer during our
discussion to the major ideas that were behind it.

As we shall see in the fourth chapter of the present thesis, the
findings in L2 acquisition research and the proposals put forward by the
advocates of the so-called communicative approach in language teaching are
converging. According to Lightbown (1985, p.181) this is a happy
coincidence. However, "...it may be only the Krashen and Terrell 'Natural
Approach' (1983) which is claimed to be based on second-language
acquisition research." (ibid, p.182). Therefore it is for this reason that
we have decided to review their approach later in this chapter.

III.1. A dual IL competence paradigm: Krashen's Monitor Model

We saw in section II.1, above, how Adjemian defined IL as a
homogeneous system. We saw how error analysts studied learners' IL from the
perspective of the homogenous competence paradigm. In this section we
present "a dual knowledge paradigm" (Tarone, 1983, p.156) which has been
developed by Krashen.

For Krashen acquisition and learning are two separate mechanisms
which give rise to IL and are conditioned by various variables.

Krashen (1981; 1985) posited five hypotheses:

i) - The Acquisition Learning Hypothesis

ii) - The Natural Order Hypothesis

iii) - The Monitor Hypothesis

iv) - The Input Hypothesis

v) - The Affective Filter Hypothesis.
To understand Krashen's Monitor Model, we need to explain its key terms:

"Acquisition" Krashen believes, takes place when talk is message-orientated, clearly understood by the learner, and contains linguistic forms which the learner's "Organizer" (the equivalent of the LAD) is ready to process. Children as well as adults acquire language through interaction with their caretakers (Hatch, 1978; McLaughlin, 1981; Snow, 1984). Teacher-talk may also resemble caretaker's speech when communication is at a premium (Corder, 1971*1981, p.83).

"Learning" is a process that is absolutely different from acquisition. It does not involve the Organizer but relies instead on the "Monitor". The latter is a mechanism(s) that adolescents and adults make use of, involving a conscious intellectual effort by the learner to capture the structural rules of the TL. Learning results in a high aptitude; i.e. an ability to manipulate the structure of the TL (see Gardner, 1985, pp.18-28). Learning is very common in classrooms where the audiolingual method is followed. It is in such environments that the learner, guided by the teacher, focuses on TL form. By focus on form Krashen means drills in or explicit rules about pronunciation, morphology and syntax (see e.g. 16, 17, chap. 1, above; see also our discussion of Tunisian data, e.g. 1-8, chap.6, below). Although drills usually carry some sort of meaning, they often do not transmit a message that interests the learner (see however, II.1.2, chap.3). As Krashen and Terrell (1983) pointed out,

"No matter how "meaningful" we try to make grammar exercises, by their very nature they will not qualify as optimal input for language acquisition since they are not used for real communication." (3) (p.98).
Adults, like children, are acquirers. Krashen (1981, chap.5) argues that research shows that lateralization, or the specialization of each hemisphere of the brain, may be almost totally complete at around the age of five, if not before (ibid, p.76). He deduces that this is an evidence which shows that lateralization has not much impact on the acquisition of languages. This conclusion allows him to maintain that the Organizer is used for L2 acquisition.

The Monitor becomes active at around the age of twelve. Adolescents at this stage become formal thinkers (see Gardner's 1985, 1979 discussion on the interrelation between intelligence and aptitude and their significant role in formal language contexts). They are very concerned about people's attitudes towards them (Krashen, 1981, p.77). As a result, they experience feelings of vulnerability and insecurity, which induce many of them to tend to be low-input generators (see Seliger, 1980a, p.90).

"The Affective Filter" has got to do with the learner's motivation. Learners who have an integrative motivation (Schuman, 1975, p.140) are more open to TL than those who have an instrumental motivation. Gardner (1985) does not make an absolute distinction between integrative and instrumental motivation. He adds that motivation requires a desire to learn a language, an effort, and a favourable attitude (effort, want, affect; ibid, p.11).

The general atmosphere in which language is learned/acquired (see Gardner in III.1.1., below) together with learners' attitude to TL culture and society are very important (Corder, 1979*/1981 p.93). Krashen (1981) said:

"If the affective filter is "up", no matter how beautifully the input is sequenced, no matter how meaningful and communicative the exercise is intended to be, little or no acquisition will take place." (p.110).
As we said earlier in this chapter, studies that focused on the process of language acquisition in informal settings agree that there is some sort of "Natural Order" which learners follow (see Krashen's 1981, chap. 4, review of the morpheme study). For example it is now a well established fact that "ing" form is acquired before "s" of the possessive form which, in its turn, is acquired before the third person singular morpheme "s" (see comments in III.1.1. below).

Krashen argues that if there is a natural order in language acquisition, one has to think of providing learners with a suitable "Input". A good input must contain structures that constitute intake; i.e. linguistic structures for which the Organizer is ready. Krashen (ibid, p.39) admits that providing exactly the right input is not easy.

According to Krashen an ideal environment for language acquisition requires: 1) an atmosphere that lowers the affective filter and 2) an input that is a) interesting, b) comprehensible, and c) contains structures which are slightly beyond the learner's already acquired rules. c) is what Krashen calls interlanguage plus one (i + 1) and claims (with Terrell) that the Natural Approach in L2 teaching is capable of achieving. As we shall see the Natural Approach does not deal directly with the natural order. It succeeds, however, in making input interesting and comprehensible and in creating in the classroom a very relaxed atmosphere.

Learners differ. There are many variables which contribute to lowering or raising the affective filter and to making learners 1) Monitor over-users, 2) Monitor under-users, or 3) balanced learners who use the Monitor but rely most of the time on the Organizer. For instance, an outgoing personality, self-confidence, field-dependence, etc. are characteristics of high risk-takers; i.e. good acquirers, (see Gardner, 1985).

It goes without saying that teachers who succeed in creating a good environment, do reduce any resistance to learning on the part of their students.
Now that we have described Krashen's Monitor Model, it is possible to reproduce this diagram from Dulay et al. (1982, p.6) to recapitulate what we have said so far.

**DIAGRAM 2.1:** Working Model for Creative Construction in L2 Acquisition*

![Diagram](image)


### III.1. The Monitor Model and the theories behind it

Krashen (1979, p.162) insisted that his Monitor Model was only a hypothesis. Recently (1985) he called it a theory. It seems to us that the Monitor Model is far from being a theory of L2 acquisition.

Krashen borrows from Piaget's theory only the ideas that suit his hypothesis. He adopts from Chomsky's theory the LAD but confuses linguistic competence with language development (see I.2, above). Gregg (1984) pointed out that:

"Conceptual knowledge, real world knowledge, common sense, pragmatic competence, etc., are all necessary for understanding and using language, but they are not part of LAD" (p.90).

Krashen insists that the right input must be a) interesting and b) comprehensible. Surely, these two criteria have nothing to do with the LAD
as defined by Chomsky (I.1, above), and consequently cannot be said to make linguistic input equal intake. They are related to the wider domain of pragmatics (see chap. 3, below); particularly relevance and appropriateness. The latter is, in its turn, of a significant importance for the communicative competence theory (Hymes, II.1, chap. 3, below).

The belief held by Krashen that speech which is interesting and comprehensible is very likely to contain the input needed by the Organizer, has its origins in i) EA (see II.2, above) and particularly the early views put forward by Newmark (1966*/1983)4 and Macnamara (1973*/1983) and ii) the advocates of the interactionist approach (Hatch, 1978, 1983).

According to Newmark language learning is not an assemblage of structures in a linear order (see gestalt theory, II.3, chap. 1, above). The traditional audiolingual classroom isolates the learner from the TL in use. It constitutes an interference with the natural learning process. Newmark (ibid) insists that meaning has to be under focus and suggests the introduction of drama or role-play in the L2 classroom.

Macnamara (ibid) makes a comparison between formal (classroom) and informal (home, street, nursery) learning. He thinks that learners' progress in informal settings is an embarrassment for teachers. Like Newmark, Macnamara's opinion about the classroom is negative; "Classroom conversations seem remote, unreal, and often lifeless compared with the conversation of a mother and a child" (p.262). Teachers and students seldom have anything important to tell each other. So Macnamara supports the introduction of problem-solving activities in the classroom to stimulate learners' interest in the message instead of form, and overcome "artificial talk", (see IV, below, see also II.1.2, chap. 3, below).

The interactionist approach has some common ideas with Newmark and Macnamara especially when it comes to L1 acquisition. Its principal proponent, Hatch (1978), claims that language acquisition evolves out of learning how to carry on conversations. This view is now widely shared by
L1 acquisition researchers (e.g. Wells, 1981, Snow, 1984, Sugarman, 1984). Snow (ibid) has pointed out that "the very young child is clearly incapable of figuring out the structure of language unless presented with linguistic input that is decipherable on linguistic grounds" (p.81). Macnamara's (1973*/1983) position on the same issue does not sound outdated; "the infant uses meaning as a clue to language, rather than language as a clue to meaning" (p.260). Hatch (1983) like Newmark, Macnamara, Krashen etc. does not believe that there is a big difference between children and adults as far as language acquisition is concerned. She maintains that since children's linguistic competence evolves from their interaction with their caretakers, there is no reason why the same does not apply to adults.

Such views have contributed to inducing researchers (e.g. Long, 1983) to study Native vs Non-Native discourses. The interactionists did also encourage researchers to investigate thoroughly learners' communication strategies (see II, chap. 4, below). However, as we can see from Krashen's Monitor Model, interaction studies have been obsessed by the role of the LAD. This criticism applies particularly to product-orientated research in IL and process-orientated research which has a special emphasis on development (see introduction to present chapter).

If we take into account the general atmosphere in which the Monitor Model was "constructed", we can claim that it was conditioned by two major factors:

1) - the almost unanimous disenchantment with the traditional audiolingual and cognitive methods that dominated (and still persist in) L2 classrooms.

2) - the attraction of spontaneous speech in informal settings and the search for a method that provides "real communication" in the classroom.
It is from this point of view, we suggest, that Krashen's Monitor Model and Terrell's Natural Approach have come to support each other. It is not a coincidence (cf. Lightbown in III, above).

When Krashen refers to morpheme study (and almost exclusively to morphemes acquired in informal settings where the so-called Monitor is "dormant") he is only seeking support for (2), above.

Felix and Hahn (1985) have found that learners, whether they are in L2 classroom settings or natural settings, follow similar strategies. They have come to the following conclusion;

"We have to give up the assumption that tutored foreign language learning and naturalistic language acquisition are totally different and unrelated phenomena" (p.325).

Van Patten (1985) presents a valuable insight based on the research carried out in morpheme acquisition: Final "s" is used to mark plurality, third person singular, etc. Learners do not acquire morpheme "s" regardless of its syntactic positions. Van Patten suggests that it is more sensible to study the order of acquisition of morphemes that share the same syntactic root (e.g. Noun bound morphemes). He also makes the claim that some linguistic items are more salient than others in message-orientated discourse. Words are more salient than morphemes. However, some morphemes are more salient than other morphemes because of their semantic role. In the early stages of language acquisition, discourse between caretakers (including teachers) and learners tends to focus on the here and now. "ing" morpheme is first acquired at this stage. It is an important morpheme since it provides temporal reference. Past tense morpheme is acquired next because discourse moves from the here and now to the not here and not now. Third person singular morpheme is acquired very late because it has hardly any role in or effect on message.
Felix and Hahn seem to question the view held so far by IL researchers concerning the artificiality of classroom discourse (see for e.g. Corder's description, II.2, above). They also challenge Krashen's claim that when focus is on form there is little chance for acquisition to take place. Pica, on the other hand, supports the natural order hypothesis. She does not accept Krashen's position concerning interface (i.e. the possibility for the Monitor and the Organizer to develop each other). Van Patten's study urges us to adopt a weak version of the innateness hypothesis. The order of acquisition of linguistic items (particularly morphemes) may be very much determined by the kind of discourse that takes place between the learner and the caretaker.

Let us now move to another problem in Krashen's Model. Krashen insists that the Organizer and the Monitor are two separate mechanisms; i.e. he opposes interface. Pica (1983) shows in a review article that Selinker and Lamendella; McLaughlin; and Bialystok (cf. Bialystok, 1985, and II.3, chap. 4, below) hold the view that there are two devices similar to what Krashen calls the Organizer and the Monitor. But Pica (ibid) asserts that all these scholars disagree with Krashen on the interface issue. Baalen's (1983) experiment to test Krashen's rejection of interface has shown that interface does indeed take place (cf. Pica, 1985, above). Therefore, the dual IL competence paradigm is too rigid to say the least.

Krashen insists that the Monitor works only when there is a certain amount of acquired language (Krashen and Terrell, 1983, p.72). Tunisian learners of English, for instance, focus almost exclusively on form in their first year - drills, rules about the grammar, etc. It would be frustrating for them and their teachers to hear that little or no acquisition took place. Krashen's Monitor Model has got a "consolation" for such learners: it is quite possible that learners master routines and patterns (Krashen, 1981, chap. 7). Routines and patterns do not belong to
either the Monitor or the Organizer. They are not a mechanism in IL, either. But Tunisian learners who have a long experience in learning languages (see I, II, III, chap. 5, below) are capable of using their Monitor, so to speak, to infer the rules governing routines and patterns. In other words, Krashen's claim that the Monitor works only when there is a certain amount of acquisition is not tenable, and neither is his position concerning interface.

Krashen has got an answer to our criticism. His answer, we think, jeopardizes the Monitor Model. Talking about drills, he (and Terrell) said:

"If at the same time, however, the students keep in mind the meaning of what they are repeating, perhaps other aspects of form and structure...might be advancing in the acquisition process." (1983, p.147).

Notice the uncertainty in this statement and compare it with the familiar strong claims from Krashen.

As far as performance is concerned, Krashen insists that the learner can use either 1) his/her Organizer or 2) the Organizer and the Monitor. The latter makes the IL speaker sound more accurate. This accuracy is achieved when the speaker focuses on TL form, knows the rules and has time to apply those rules. For Krashen L1 is not a major factor in either acquisition/learning or production, and consequently strategies of acquisition/learning and communication depend on the mechanism(s) which is at work. This view is not shared by many scholars who see that focus on form is a matter of degree and there is no need to postulate two separate mechanisms (see Bialystok, 1985, p.256)

Krashen has been influenced by the work done in the field of social psychology (cf. Gardner, 1979,1985). Gardner (ibid) claims that L2 learning is affected by i) social milieu, ii) individual differences, iii) context and iv) outcomes.
The social milieu is the cultural context in which an L2 is learned. It englobes the attitudes and expectations in the minds of teachers, parents and students (see the Tunisian linguistic community and the attitudes toward foreign languages in chap. 5, below).

Individual differences include a) language aptitude, b) personality, c) motivation and d) anxiety that a learner may feel when speaking in the classroom or outside it.

Context is either formal or informal. For Gardner (1979, 1985) classrooms are formal and artificial contexts. He believes that the classroom induces aptitude (1979, p.196). He does not however postulate two mechanisms of learning. Unlike Krashen, Gardner (1985, pp.167-8) believes that only actual experience in the TL community is a natural (non-artificial) context, (see our view in II.1.2, chap. 3, below). He (ibid) asserts that:

"Equating the individual who develops bilingual proficiency in the home or the street with the one who develops such skills primarily in a formal school context is meaningless. This is not meant to imply that the processes are necessarily different, but simply that the contexts are different..." (p.4).

Outcomes are the achievements realised by the learner. If he/she feels that there is progress, he/she becomes more motivated. Sometimes even negative outcomes can induce certain learners to do better. For Gardner (ibid, p.13), who studies L2 learners and not FL ones, achievement is of little value if the learner "does not make use of the language in real-life communicative situations..."(p.13).
Gardner (1979, 1985) is not much interested in the role of the LAD. He agrees, however, with Krashen that a good methodology that stimulates the learner and a friendly teacher could create a favourable attitude and lead to high achievements.

In short, learning and acquisition are not determined by whether the affective filter is high or low. And if the affective filter is low there is little guarantee that only the LAD is functioning, (cf. e.g. 1, above).

Notwithstanding all the criticisms we have made so far, we think that "there seem plenty of opportunities for other researchers to operationalize some of Krashen's hypotheses or to develop related ones" (Lightbown, 1984, p.246), (see the e.g. of Bialystok, chap. 4, below).

As we said earlier on, the Monitor Model expresses what teachers have become dissatisfied with and shares with them the goals they wish to achieve. Gregg (1984), referring to Krashen's views on this issue said;

"I agree with him that most language learning is unconscious, that comprehensible input is vital for learning and that a teacher's most important job is to provide that input, that affective barriers can prevent successful acquisition of a second language and that a teacher has the duty to lower those barriers wherever possible. But then does anybody disagree?" (p.94).

So there is not much new in what Krashen advocates on the practical level. This may be the main reason why Terrell's "Natural Approach" happens to be supported by Krashen's Monitor Model.

III.2. The Natural Approach

The Natural Approach comprises the silent approach and the Total Physical Response (TPR) approach. It favours a focus on message in L2 teaching. So comprehension must precede production. Speaking in the TL
emerges on its own among learners. Errors are tolerated and correctness is not thought to be an end in itself.

The Natural Approach caters for the general learner who would be interested in travels, studies in TL country, development of an open attitude to other societies and cultures, leisure, etc.

The syllabus is based on situations and topics which progress in the following way;

1 - "The personal identification stage" (e.g. name, address, identification of objects in the classroom environment, etc.)

2 - "The experience stage" (e.g. holidays, parties, health, foods, travels, shopping, etc.)

3 - "The opinion stage" (e.g. friendship, love, marriage, religious beliefs, environmental problems, etc.)

Students need to be informed from the start of the course about the major principles of the natural approach. This is believed to adjust their expectations and to enhance their confidence.

Classroom activities which follow broadly the syllabus outlined above, could be divided into two major activities or stages. They are;

i.- "Getting started with the natural approach"

ii. - "Oral communication development"

The two stages minimize the learner's reliance on conscious monitoring and reduce his/her chances of falling back on the L1 (see below).
"Getting started with the natural approach" contains three activities which are:

a. pre-production

b. early production

c. extended production

a. pre-production. The teacher does the talking. He/she may rely on "the here and now" to provide the learners with a comprehensible input. Learners are encouraged to observe the silent period. The so-called Total Physical Reponse (TPR) which requires the learners to answer in physical actions can be very useful in the classroom. Visual aids are also very much recommended. Teacher's expansion (i.e. saying something in different ways) are very helpful to the learners' comprehension of the message. They are said to provide a wide net of input which is very likely to contain some intake; i.e. linguistic items for which the organizer is ready.

The pre-production stage lowers the affective filter. Learners feel comfortable and enjoy understanding messages in the TL. Acquisition of TL structure is believed to be taking care of itself.

b. early production. Production, as we said earlier, emerges on its own in the Natural Approach. Adults tend to attempt to make their first utterances in their TL very early. Adolescents are slower. Teachers can use different techniques to help their students make early productions. They can ask them "Yes/No" questions and "Either/Or" questions. Teachers are advised to expand further the net of comprehensible input and "The net of syntax and morphology will expand naturally..."(Krashen and Terrell, 1983, p.80).
c. extended production. Learners are encouraged to utter more than one word at a time. All the techniques mentioned in a and b apply here. In addition, learners who are ready for this stage (c), are asked to answer open-ended questions, to contribute to open dialogues and to fill in prefabricated patterns.

During a, b, c students are free to respond. Errors in TPR do not need to be corrected by the teacher. Students can get the right PR from the rest of the class. Corrections of spoken errors are couched in the teacher's expansions. New vocabulary can be written down on the blackboard. This is believed to prevent learners from attempting to invent their own code (cf. V, chap. 1, above).

ii - Oral communication development. It is at this stage that learners are encouraged to talk a great deal. This, in itself, is quite motivating. The teacher's major task is to make sure that there are acquisition activities taking place. According to Krashen and Terrell (1983, pp. 97-124) there are four major acquisition activities that can be pursued in the L2 classroom at the "oral communication development" stage. They are;

a - affective humanistic activities

b - problem-solving activities

c - games

d - content activities

By acquisition activities Krashen and Terrell (ibid) mean;
"...a broad range of events which have a purpose other than conscious grammar practice...For acquisition to take place, the topics used in each activity must be intrinsically interesting or meaningful so that the students' attention is focused on the content of the structure instead of form." (p.97).

a - affective humanistic activities. The learner is the topic of interest in these activities which include open dialogues, interviews, preference ranking, personal charts and tables, revealing information about yourself, etc.

b - problem-solving activities. The environment (not that of the classroom) becomes the focus of interest. Examples of problem-solving activities include tasks and series, maps, graphs, developing speech for particular situations, advertisements, etc.

c - games. It is important to fully integrate games in the L2 course. They are an excellent opportunity for learners to provide one another with a comprehensible input. Examples of games include illogical combinations, adapted TV games, etc.

d - content activities. It is essential that learners acquire something new other than language. Examples of content activities include academic subjects, slide shows, panels, individual reports and presentations, visits of native speakers to the classroom, etc.

According to Krashen and Terrell (ibid, p.98) all acquisition activities must ensure that there is 1) a focus on transmission of relevant information and 2) a means of facilitating comprehension. These two criteria are crucial particularly at the early stages of teaching/learning an L2.
Krashen and Terrell suggest, towards the end of their book, that some focus on form may give learners, especially those low risk-takers, the chance to use their Monitor to achieve some accuracy. They also recommend extensive reading with as little intervention on the part of the teacher as possible. Finally, they propose that tests must assess learners' attitude (i.e. output where attention to grammar is least paid). They reckon that learners' aptitude (i.e. correctness in TL grammar) need not be tested. They believe that learners' aptitude improves a lot faster if the natural approach is adopted by teachers and textbook designers. These views conform with the Monitor Model and stress that instruction may get in the learners' way (see EA, above).

Although the majority of the acquisition activities described above encourage communication of messages and are very likely to divert the learners' attention from the linguistic form, some of these activities do not achieve "real communication". When a learner is shown a series of pictures (an e.g. listed in the problem-solving activities) and is asked to describe them, he/she will most probably produce a "quasi-communicative" speech to use Pattern's (1985, p.94) term. (See further details about this in our analysis of FL lesson discourse, chap. 6, below).

It is clear from our review of the Natural Approach that the main concern of Krashen and Terrell is to provide an environment that helps the Organizer acquire and produce the TL. Widdowson (1984) made this cynical remark about Krashen's Monitor Model "...all we can do is feed the learners with comprehensible input and hope for the best" (p.325). In other words, Krashen and Terrell are not terribly concerned with developing the learner's communicative competence. One can see, however, that the authors of the Natural Approach are caught between their adherence to the Chomskyan school and the attraction of pragmatics. On page 93, they say that communicative competence is acquired after the linguistic competence. On pages 115-16, they claim that "the rules of communicative competence, or
appropriateness, are complex and only partially described by scholars." (p.116). So at this point they agree with the error analysts, and particularly Corder (1974*/1981) in stressing that "...what we cannot describe we cannot teach systematically." (p.48). But on pages 166-67 Krashen and Terrell (ibid) insist that "the two competencies are related" and that "the main thrust of the Natural Approach is that one should first aim for communicative competence." (p.167). This view could be traced in the writings of Newmark (1966*/1983) and Hymes (1979).

IV. Conclusion

Most of the work done in "IL product-orientated research" and "IL process-orientated research with special emphasis on (longitudinal) development" (see introduction, above) has an obsession with the Chomskyan innateness hypothesis underlying it.

In studying language acquisition in informal settings, IL researchers think they are capable of discovering the process followed by the LAD - the built-in syllabus. Other faculties of the mind and psycho-social variables are considered to be of secondary importance.

Formal settings (classrooms) are believed to hinder normal linguistic development (its rate and its route) and to be responsible for learners' communicative incompetence because of their artificiality. Artificiality is usually caused by 1) forcing the learner to use cognitive faculties other than the LAD and 2) creating a discourse that is remote from everyday talk.

The predominant methods of teaching promote "artificiality", (see our position in II.1.2., chap. 3, and I.3, chap. 4, below). Thus, the audiolingual method and the cognitive method have fallen into disrepute.

Teachers have become convinced of the need to make the classroom as "natural" as possible. But they have also realized that IL has gone "pure"; i.e. of little relevance to methodology and abounding with controversial findings (e.g. the morpheme studies).
Krashen's Monitor Model, despite its numerous deficiencies has appealed to many teachers, especially in the United States, for various reasons;

i) - Because of the very nature of their job, teachers (and teachers trainers) have not got enough time to investigate the subtle theoretical bases of models of language acquisition.

ii) - The Monitor Model claims to combat artificiality in the classroom. It is backed up by a method of teaching and a broadly defined syllabus; i.e. the Natural Approach.

iii) - The Monitor Model gives an importance to positive motivation without resorting to the unpopular S-R theory. It relies instead on the affective filter which has its origins in the field of social psychology.

iv) - The Monitor Model recognizes the learner's major role in the language acquisition process which is in line with Chomsky's theory. It does not degrade the teacher's role. The teacher's main task is to "create" a relaxed atmosphere while providing an interesting and comprehensible linguistic input.

v) - The Monitor Model inspires confidence because it supports the Natural Approach. The general disenchantment with the audiolingual and cognitive methods have given teachers a sense of guilt especially those who fully support the Chomskyan theory.
Both the Monitor Model and the Natural Approach touch upon the field of pragmatics but their major concern is the learner's linguistic competence development. Pragmatics, particularly speech act theory (see chaps. 3, 4, below), has been exploited in Britain and Europe in communicative syllabus design. Communicative syllabus designers stress the functional aspect of language. IL development process is of little concern to them. They share the belief, however, with IL theoreticians and researchers that once the learner is involved in a communicative activity, form acquisition looks after itself. Communicative syllabus designers have not got much to offer as far as methodology is concerned (see Littlewood's attempt, I.3, chap. 4, however). So the Natural Approach is in a favourable position in the eyes of L2 teachers.

As we pointed out on several occasions in the present chapter, IL research and theory have extended to the domain of pragmatics. This trend, as we shall see in chapter four, raises many serious questions concerning the emphasis on the LAD, attempts to approach context in a more positive way, and comes closer to the Piagetian theory of learning.

Before discussing this new trend we need to present the reader with a review of the controversial domain of pragmatics, and to this task we turn in the next chapter.
NOTES TO CHAPTER TWO

1 First used by Corder, see for eg. Corder 1981, p.68.

2 All references to Corder in this chapter are published in Corder 1981. We have chosen to provide the first dates of publication of his articles so that the reader can follow the development of the ideas and does not deduce that there are contradictions.

3 As we shall see in III.2, below and chapter three, it is not easy to talk of "real communication" in the L2 classroom.

4 Newmark's and Macnamara's papers have been published in various sources. We have chosen to consult Oller and Richard Amato (1983). The dates of first publications are kept in the text for chronological reasons.

5 Recently, Krashen (1985, pp.38-42) has "softened" his position: "... where learning does help acquisition, it does so indirectly: learned competence does not become acquired competence." (p.42).
CHAPTER THREE
PRAGMATICS: ITS RELEVANCE TO L2 LEARNING STUDIES AND ITS IMPORTANCE FOR THE ANALYSIS OF L2 LESSON DISCOURSE

Introduction

The present chapter reviews the controversial field of pragmatics. It sheds more light on L2 learning studies discussed in chapter two, above. It prepares the ground for a fresh look at L2 learning/teaching which will be presented in chapter four, below. It introduces the foundations for the model we have developed for the analysis of foreign language (FL) lesson discourse in Tunisian secondary schools and locates it in relation to the two major approaches to the study of discourse; i.e. "Orthodox discourse analysis" and "Conversation analysis".

I. Pragmatics

Fraser (1983, p.56) limits pragmatics to the study of speech acts and Grice's maxims for conversation (I.2.2., below). Levinson (1983) includes in pragmatics the study of discourse—written and spoken. If we accept Wilson and Sperber's (1984) definition of pragmatics as "the theory of utterance interpretation" (p.26), then we can claim that we are adhering to an extended conception of pragmatics.

As we shall see throughout this chapter Orthodox discourse analysis and conversation analysis have been influenced by a variety of ideas from different fields including ethnography of speaking and ethnomethodology (I.3 and III.2.1, respectively). Each approach tends to focus on a particular aspect of verbal communication and adopt particular techniques. As Levinson (1983, p.368) has suggested there is a possibility of synthesis between the two approaches. In fact Edmondson (1981), whose model we adapt to the analysis of FL lesson discourse, has drawn on both approaches (see IV, below).
1.1. The shift towards pragmatics in linguistics

Situated meaning has always been a challenge for linguists (see chap. 1, above). Chomsky in his early work held that the domain of pragmatics pertained to the speaker's performance; i.e. the actual "sloppy" use of language. Hockett (I., chap. 1), before him, had been at pains to exclude what he called the peripheral systems in the study of languages.

Generative semantics has chosen to deal with truth-condition semantics (i.e. meaning out of context). Lyons (1977, Vol. 2, p.590) believes that we can gain good insight into the study of language out of its context. Robins (1984, p.13) has gone for a compromise: languages can be studied from within and from without; "we are not on the horns of a dilemma", she states. But Brown and Yule (1983a) find it inconceivable to separate meaning from context. They ask: "Do we not immediately and quite naturally, set about constructing some circumstances (i.e. 'context') in which the sentence could be acceptably used?" (pp.25-6). (See how Tunisian learners react to sentences whose truth-values are questionable, e.g. 31, chap. 6). Robin Lakoff in an uncompromising statement says:

"Linguistics is heading in the direction of practicality...

in fact, it will be increasingly recognized that theory severed from application is suspect, that data generated in the rocking chair, tested at the blackboard and described in learned jargon are probably riddled with errors and inaccuracies." (in Benson and Greaves, 1981, p.52).

The need to go beyond what Lyons (1977, Vol. 2, pp.387-8) calls the traditional system-sentence analysis has been growing, particularly after the philosophers of language, who treated language as action, revealed a new dimension for linguistics, leading to developments such as the performative hypothesis discussed in Coulthard, 1977, pp.27-9 and Gazdar, 1979, chap. 1.
1.2. The contribution of the philosophy of language to pragmatics

The contribution of the philosophers of language to the domain of pragmatics came through speech act theory and Grice's maxims of conversation.

1.2.1. Speech act theory

Austin (1963*/1971), after having distinguished between performative utterances (e.g. I name this ship Liberte.) and constative utterances (e.g. All John's children are bald.), came to the conclusion that truth-value was not always relevant. Both categories are subject to instances of infelicity; i.e. voidness, lack of sincerity, and breach of commitment. This led Austin (ibid) to propose "a new doctrine both complete and general of what one is doing in saying something" (p.22). This "doctrine" is what has become known as speech act theory.

A speech act is a locutionary act and a propositional/semantic act which may be an illocutionary act, or a perlocutionary act.

According to Strawson (1964*/1971) a locutionary act is "the act of saying something". Van Dijk (1977, p.196) defines it as an action at the combined levels of phonetics, phonology, morphology, and syntax.

A propositional act consists of intensional acts (meaning as conceived by generative semanticists), (ibid, p.197). For the early philosophers of language it seems that the propositional act was assumed to be part and parcel of the illocutionary act.

An illocutionary act is by definition a locutionary act and includes meaning. It has an illocutionary force which may be exhausted by the meaning of the sentence/utterance (e.g. I promise I will come).

However, according to the philosophers of language, in many cases, the illocutionary force embodied by the function indicating device can be "missing"; i.e. a non-explicit or an indirect speech act, (e.g...?..we will see).
Except when the intended illocutionary force is understood, we cannot speak of an illocutionary act. "For to secure uptake is to secure understanding of (meaning and) illocutionary force..." (Strawson, 1964*1971, p.30). Thus, the role of intention or purpose (Van Dijk, 1977, pp.197-203) cannot be overlooked. But can it be accounted for?

According to Austin, an illocutionary act is conventional (e.g. I divorce you, I divorce you, I divorce you). But, as we have seen, there are illocutionary forces which are non-explicit, and to grasp the intentions carried by them (secure uptake) one needs besides meaning, the whole context of utterance.

Language philosophers, though aware of this shortcoming (Strawson, 1964*1971, p.36), chose to confine themselves to the study of full-blown, explicit illocutionary speech acts which are conventional.

Perlocutionary acts are speech acts aimed at producing in the audience a behaviour that cannot be detected in the speech act itself - insinuation - and are very likely to produce unforeseen reactions and outcomes (see Searle et al. 1980, p.vii). Perlocutionary acts have been excluded by philosophers from the study of speech because, like in the case of indirect speech acts, the speaker's intention is not determinable (see Richards and Schmidt, 1983, pp.125-6).

To conclude this discussion we could say that the philosophers of language dealt with paradigm cases represented by performative verbs. They concentrated almost exclusively on illocutionary acts (i.e. direct speech acts).

Speech acts are still capturing the interest of scholars. For example, Fraser (1984) has studied "apologizing" in seventeen languages to show the universality of its illocutionary force. Levinson (1983) who is very critical of discourse analysts who adopt the speech act as a unit of analysis, wonders whether conversation analysts, whom he praises, are not talking about the same categories (see II.2.2, below);
"Another puzzle that arises is whether the unreflective use of categories like request, invitation, greeting and the like, does not embody an implicit theory of speech acts" (Levinson, ibid, p.368).

If, as we shall see, conversation analysts have been using categories very much like those discourse analysts have been adopting, then this is a strong justification for our adoption of speech acts in our model for the analysis of FL lesson discourse.

One has to mention that discourse analysts are said to find some trouble in accounting for indirect speech acts and perlocutionary speech acts (Levinson, 1983, p.329). Such acts could be multifunctional. Brown and Yule (1983a, pp.54-8) point out that an interpretation of speech from the hearer's point of view which requires a full grasp of context, reveals that multifunctionality is not always a problem and if the discourse analyst becomes obsessed with it, there is every chance for overanalysis. (cf. Edmondson's 1981, principle of "Learner Knows Best"). In any case discourse analysts normally adopt a two-level model - speech acts and moves (see definition of move in IV, below).

Discourse analysts have been criticized for not being clear about the delimitation of the unit speech act, (see Van Dijk's attempt in II.1.1, below). Brown and Yule (1983a) suggest that

"From the speaker's point of view several sentences (or syntactic chunks) strung together may constitute a single act" (p.233).

Likewise a sentence could be more than one speech act (Van Dijk, II.1.1, below).

Finally, both discourse analysts and philosophers of language have
been criticized for their inability to reach a consensus on the number of speech acts.

In our analysis of FL lesson discourse we shall discuss instances of multifunctionality and variable length of speech acts. At that point we shall attempt to give working solutions (see chap. 6).

1.2.2 Grice's Maxims of Conversation

Grice (in Kempson, 1975; McCawley, 1981; and Brown and Yule, 1983a) emphasizes that conversation is in principle a cooperative process (see definition of conversation in III.1, below) which is usually observed by the participants. However, participants can choose not to adhere to one or more of the maxims, below. Well-formedness is not an issue here (Levinson, 1983, p.292 and the ethnomethodologists in III.2.1, below).

i) - The Cooperative Principles (CP) or maxims

**Quantity**: Make your contribution as informative as is required for the current purpose of the exchange.

**Quality**: Do not say what you believe to be false. Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence.

**Relation**: Be relevant.

**Manner**: Be perspicuous.

Avoid obscurity of expression.

Avoid ambiguity.

Be brief (avoid unnecessary prolixity).

Be orderly.

(in Brown and Yule, 1983a, p.33).

The assumed cooperativeness leads the hearer to make sense of the apparent illogicality of the speaker's utterance (see McCawley, 1981, p.219) through the use of implication. Roughly speaking (for more details
implicature is said to be either conversational or conventional.

e.g. 1. A. I'm out of petrol.
     B. There's a garage round the corner.

e.g. 2. A. John is English, therefore he is brave.

In example one (1), B's utterance implicates that the garage round the corner is selling petrol and must be open. This is an example of conversational implicature.

Example two (2) implicates that the speaker establishes a connection between the fact that John is English and the fact that he is brave. Thus, we have here an instance of conventional implicature (Kempson, 1975, p.145). According to Kempson (ibid) one of the differences between conversational and conventional implicature is that the former is not cancellable by the speaker while the latter is.

In very simple terms we can say that the hearer during the discourse process attempts to supply the needed information to interpret the speaker's utterance. To do so he/she relies on the relevant knowledge of the world and the immediate constraints of the actual context (see further discussion, below).

Wilson and Sperber (1981, 1984) think that Grice's maxims could be reduced to the maxim of Relation. A speaker may unintentionally run the risk of not observing one or more of the following maxims; Quantity, Quality and Manner:

Quantity: It is not always easy to judge what is new for one's hearer. Quality: there is no absolute truth; the hearer may be, sure that the speaker is not well-informed. Manner: the speaker may confuse the hearer; thoughts in unplanned/spontaneous discourse are not well structured (see Goffman, 1974, p.501).
The maxims of Quantity, Quality and Manner are relative:

They tend to be strictly observed in certain linguistic communities but not in others. Some groups within a particular speech community may consider these maxims very important, other groups may not. Finally, some speech events (see below) require a high observance of these maxims while others do not. According to George (1984, p.14) Quantity, Quality, and Manner are culturally loaded terms: Anglo-American middle class parents aspire that their children abide by such maxims.

Unlike its counterparts, Relation needs to be observed. Wilson and Sperber (1984) claim that relevance is the basis for what they call inferential pragmatics. They suggest a scale of relevance: "the more contextual implications a proposition has, the more relevant it will be." (ibid, p.31). So in the extreme cases relevance may be very remote. George (1984) thinks that the maxim of Relation is universal.

We believe that it goes without saying that relevance is an important factor for both the hearer and the analyst in the interpretation of the speaker's utterance. We also think that the activated background knowledge the hearer uses to interpret the speaker's utterance is delimited by the assumed relevance (see II.1.2.).

The notion of a scale of relevance is very interesting. It can explain many instances where communication breaks down. It can be exploited to determine when a particular speaker in a particular speech situation has decided to remain in the same or shift to a new speech event or genre (see definition, below). As we shall see in our study of FL lesson discourse, the apparent remoteness of an utterance often coincides with a shift to a particular frame (see II.1.2, below).
I.3. The contribution of ethnography of communication to pragmatics

Ethnography of communication is a branch of anthropology. The latter has a holistic scope of inquiry and seeks to encompass the unity of man (Yahoda, 1982, p.3). The notions which we will describe below are abstractions based on many studies of various speech communities. All the notions are selected from Hymes (1972a). They are significant for the development of discourse analysis (see II below).

1) **Speech situation.** A speech situation is an environment where, among other activities, verbal interactions take place (e.g. a wedding, a funeral, etc.)

2) **Speech event.** A speech event is the verbal interactions that take place in a speech situation. Conversations, lectures, sermons, etc. are speech events, according to Richards and Schmidt (1983, p.119).

3) **Speech act.** A speech act is the smallest component of a speech event. It could exhaust the speech event (e.g. "Fire!").

4) **Components of speech.** Components of speech are:

   i) **Participants.** Participants are called speaker and hearer. At least two participants are needed for a speech event to take place.

   ii) **Situation.** Situation includes setting (time and place) and scene. Scene is psychological; within the same setting participants may be carried away from the here and now. They may "ramble" from one topic to another and move from the present to the old days or the future.
iii) Message: A message has got a form (how something is said) and a content (what is said). Form and content must be studied together. They are inseparable. Sometimes form overrides content (e.g. in lesson discourse, intonation sometimes determines the illocutionary force of a speech act).

iv) Ends: Ends are conventional purposes (the purpose of a speech event like a prayer, a toast, etc.) and participants' purposes (e.g. speaker hesitates and hearer tries to convince, etc.).

v. Key: Key "provides the tone, manner or spirit in which an act is done" (Hymes, 1972). Notice how news readers change their tone of voice or facial expression; (paralinguistic features). Key could be considered as part of the form of a message.

vi) Channel: A channel could be oral or written.

vii) Norms of interaction and interpretation: Norms of interaction (e.g. when to interrupt) and norms of interpretation (e.g. how to interpret a speaker's interruptions) are not the same for each community (see the conversation analysts' findings on norms of interaction, III.2.2. below).

viii) Genres: Genres are verbal activities that are ritualized; e.g. prayers, proverbs, poems, etc. If conversation is a speech event, then we expect it to comprise genres like sounding etc. (see Labov, 1972).
Hymes (1972) does not define topic in the article from which the notions described above are selected. We suspect that "content" means topic for him. In another article Hymes (1964*/1972b) defines topic as "...having to do with reference (in the sense both linguistic meaning proper and denotation) and content" (p.38). Brown and Yule (1983a) said "...topic could be described as the most frequently used, unexplained, term in the analysis of discourse." (p.70).

Hymes' (1972a) notions could help us understand context and its components. Let us take an example of context to illustrate this:

The speech situation is an FL classroom. The speech event is an English lesson. The genre is "saying the linguistic form of the FL" (see definition in II.1.2, below). The topic is "question tags". The setting is a secondary school in Mahdia, Tunisia. The date is Monday, the 10th of November, 1983. The time is eight thirty in the morning. The participants are: a) second year English students; males and females aged between fifteen and seventeen; b) the teacher; a female aged about twenty eight. The conventional purpose is to teach/learn English. The teacher's purpose at eight thirty is to get her students to master the usage (see Widdowson, 1978, chap.1) of question tags. The students' purpose is to satisfy their teacher. The channel is oral.

Notice that some components of context (particularly participants and setting) may be given an endless description. We think that context is best defined from the hearer's point of view; i.e. the relevant background knowledge activated to interpret the speaker's utterance (see II.1.2, below).

From the illustrative example above, we can deduce that the usage of question tags is practised in context. Sentences in L2 classroom discourse are utterances. The participants' background knowledge is constantly called for (see Brown and Yule, I.1, above). In our analysis of FL lesson
discourse, utterances occurring in "Saying the linguistic form of the FL" and whose truth-values are questionable will be discussed and commented upon in section II, chap.6.

Context is both fixed and dynamic. As we shall see in II.1.1, below, topic is one of the most dynamic components of context. Context contains genre which is rigid and often stereotypic. Brown and Yule (1983a, p.61) assert that genres are determined through generalizations across experience (see II.1.2, below). Goffman (1974) uses the term Frame. For him people are capable of identifying a particular Frame by answering the question "What is it that is going on here?" (p.8), (see more details in II.1.2, below). We think that L2 classroom researchers would reach better insights if they avoided accusing teachers of presenting language out of its context and asked themselves "What is it that is going on here?" This line will be developed in section II, chap. 6, below.

Now that we have reviewed some of the major contributions to pragmatics, we think it has become possible for us to move to discourse analysis. The contributions of other fields such as artificial intelligence and ethnomethodology will be referred to in due course.

II. Discourse and discourse analysis

"Discourse" is often taken to cover all aspects of verbal communication; written or spoken. Researchers distinguish between different speech events, which they call discourses — e.g. interviews, toasts, conversations, etc.

Brown and Yule (1983a, 1983b) distinguish between what they call transactional and interactional discourse. Their distinction does not go against the common view mentioned above.

i) Transactional discourse is primarily geared towards the transmission of information; i.e. primarily transactional or
message-orientated. If the message is "distorted" by either the speaker or
the hearer, unfortunate and probably disastrous consequences may ensue
(e.g. in courtroom discourse).

ii) Interactional discourse is primarily geared towards expressing
social relations and personal attitudes; i.e. primarily person-orientated
(see conversation, III.1, below).

As we said in I, above, very often (e.g. Brown and Yule, 1983a)
discourse analysis is used as a cover term to refer to any study of
discourse, and this is how we conceive it.

Levinson (1983) distinguishes between what he calls "discourse
analysts" and "conversation analysts".

"Discourse analysts" have tended to focus on transactional discourse
and mainly written texts. They tend to adopt theoretical principles and
techniques similar to those employed by the Chomskyans in the analysis of
the sentence (see II.1, below). In Frawley's (1985) terms most of the
so-called discourse analysts tend to be orthodox or Platonian (see below).

"Conversation analysts" usually focus on interactional discourse.
They seem to reject the formal approach followed in orthodox discourse
analysis. Most conversation analysts are ethnomethodologists who prefer, as
we shall see in section III.2, below, to talk of regularities rather than
well-formedness and rules.

As we pointed out earlier on in this chapter, there is room for
synthesis between "conversation analysis" and "orthodox discourse
analysis". As a matter of fact our analysis of FL lesson discourse selects
its principles from both approaches.

II.1. Orthodox discourse analysis

According to Frawley (1985), orthodox discourse analysts tend to work
within the scope of Habermas' theory of communicative competence rather than Hymes'. So a brief review of the two theories is in order.

Hymes (1966*/1979) proposes his communicative competence theory which stresses appropriateness. For him the child acquires not only linguistic competence but also "when to speak, when not, and...what to talk about, with whom, when, where, in what manner..." (p.15), (see I.3, above; see Goffman, 1974, p.363).

For Habermas (1970) "...communicative competence means the mastery of an ideal speech situation" (p.367).

Frawley (1984) points out that orthodox discourse analysts insist on the incorporation of language use but assume that

"...discourse must have to be well formed in ideal communicative situations: this is clearly the Chomskyan paradigm rewritten at the discourse level. It is as if discourse researchers agree in principle with Habermas (whom they rarely read) yet quote and follow Hymes (whom they all read, but probably in not enough detail)." (p.119).

Frawley and Lantoff (1985) claim that orthodox discourse analysis is prescriptive.

"...such models, in making data accountable to pre-articulated structures, describe not what humans actually do in discourse processing, but what they must do." (p. 25).

Lantoff (1985) considers Edmondson's model for the analysis of spoken discourse and Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) model for the analysis of Ll
classroom discourse to be rather orthodox. As we shall see in due course such models have got their weaknesses and limitations but they are not prescriptivist. They attempt to discover regularities in discourse. Edmondson's model in particular captures many regularities discovered by conversation analysts. (It is for this reason that we have decided to review it after our discussion of conversation analysis, below).

Frawley and Lantoff (1985) consider the early work of Van Dijk to be very representative of orthodox discourse analysis, and we agree with them.

II.1.1. Van Dijk's work: an illustrative example of orthodox discourse analysis

Van Dijk was a textlinguist who saw text as a series of sentences. He progressively moved towards taking into account a potential writer (speaker) and a potential reader (hearer) in his analyses.

For Van Dijk (1977, 1981) a sentence represents one proposition or more. An utterance by a speaker (or a text by a writer) can be one sentence or a series of sentences. The relations between the sentences are determined by many constraints. Among these constraints we mention reference and entailment.

e.g. 3. Reagan was reported to be joking when he talked of bombarding the Soviet Union. The Russians took it seriously.

In example three (3), sentence 2 is related to sentence 1 anaphorically. "The Soviet Union" and "the Russians" could be said to be referring to the same people. Our knowledge of the world is involved here. "It" in sentence 2 can be considered to be referring to the proposition of sentence 1; i.e. "He talked of bombarding the Soviet Union".
Sentence 2 depends heavily for its understanding on sentence 1; that is sentence 1 contributes to the context in which 2 can be interpreted.

Let us now turn to entailment,

e.g. 4. Peter sent a letter to his aunt. Owing to the postal strike, it came too late.

An implicit proposition that can be formulated in the following sentence; "Peter sent a letter by post"; is entailed from sentence 1. This entailment is necessary to understand the relation between sentence 1 and sentence 2. In a system sentence analysis (see e.g. Kempson, 1975) a sentence has a series of entailed propositions. In textlinguistics (see Van Dijk, 1977) only the relevant propositions - the missing links - are entailed. They are not normally represented by sentences in the utterance (text). Entailed propositions, like explicit propositions, become part of the speaker's (writer's) and hearer's (reader's) presuppositions - shared knowledge - as the discourse goes on. They become part of context which is dynamic (cf. I.3, above).

Example five (5) below, may be considered overcomplete in certain discourses.

e.g. 5. Peter sent a letter to his aunt. *Peter sent a letter by post. Owing to the postal strike, it came too late.

Example 5 contains redundant information and is therefore "ill-formed". The degree of completeness of an utterance depends on the goal of the speaker and the assumed expectations of the hearer. "Natural discourse merely denotes those facts which are PRAGMATICALLY RELEVANT; i.e.
which the speaker thinks the hearer should know..." (Van Dijk, 1977, p.97), (cf. Grice's maxims, above).

The missing links (implicit information) contribute to the postulation of TEXT (ibid, p.3): a theoretical unit for the extended linguistic theory (see below). TEXT is the underlying representation of the UTTERANCE which must be abstracted from all actual utterances (or written texts).

The notions of TEXT and UTTERANCE have led to the postulation of CONTEXT and MACRO-PROPOSITIONS (see below).

Humans share a way of perceiving the world (Van Dijk, 1977, p.97, see Hymes in 1.3, above). This makes them share "The ASSUMED NORMALITY of the world" (Brown and Yule, 1983a, p.62). An example like six (6) below is odd;

e.g. 6. There was a glass in the room. Under the glass,

there was a table. Under the table there was a

floor.

Linguistic communities despite their differences have many similarities (see Hymes, in I.3, above). These similarities can be attributed to the fact that humans belong to the same species and that they share the same basic ways of perceiving the world (see gestalt theory in chap. 1, above). Each individual, to some extent, sees the world according to his/her cultural background which contributes to his/her assumed normality of the world. CONTEXT is what becomes presupposed as the discourse progresses. It is the participants' previous assumed knowledge, and it is also our universal assumed knowledge of the world. However, each individual perceives things and events according to his/her psychological state and personal experience. Both the shared and the personal together with the actual (the progress of discourse) are reflected in one's use of language.

The speaker is assumed to have a PLAN (Van Dijk, 1977) or a
MACRO-PROPOSITION just before he/she produces the series of sentences in the utterance. Thus, TEXT has a MACRO-STRUCTURE.

The well-formedness of seven (7) below, depends on its macro-structure;

e.g. 7. My grandmother wrote me a letter yesterday. Six men can fit in the back seat of a Ford.

The ordering of events by SPEAKER or HEARER (not an actual speaker or an actual hearer in an actual discourse) does not follow in most cases the linear and causal order. There is as a matter of fact, a cognitive ordering of events. For HEARER,

"...ACTUAL (cognitive) PROCESSING operations are...
HYPOTHETICAL or PROBABILISTIC: during input and comprehension of a certain sentence and underlying propositions...(he/she) tentatively constructs the macro-proposition which most likely dominates the proposition in question. This hypothesis may be confirmed or refuted by the rest of the discourse. In case of refutation another macroproposition is constructed." (Van Dijk, 1977, p.157)

The orthodox discourse analyst who postulates abstract notions like TEXT, CONTEXT, UTTERANCE, SPEAKER, HEARER, etc. tries to formulate recursive rules of DISCOURSE, which take into consideration the linguist's rules of grammar (Van Dijk, 1981).

The orthodox discourse analyst bases his study on the theory and methods of both system sentence grammarians (particularly the generativists) and textlinguists. He makes use of intuition, hypothesis
formation and data fabrication. The orthodox discourse analyst is also very interested in constructing a new linguistic theory which copes with ACTION in CONTEXT.

*e.g. 8.* Excuse me. Could you tell me the time, please.

I've left my watch at home.

Utterance eight (8) has three sentences. However, if we adopt the notion of macro-structure, all 8 is a macro-speech act. "Excuse me" cannot function by itself. It is an auxiliary speech act. "I've left my watch at home" justifies the act of asking the time, but the speaker could do without it. "Could you tell me the time, please" is the main speech act and contains the macro-proposition of the whole utterance. (See our discussion of speech acts in I.2.1, above; see the acts and moves adopted in the analysis of FL lesson discourse, chap.6, below).

An introduction of the theory of action consolidates grammaticality in micro-structure analyses;

*e.g. 9.* Open the door and close the window.

*e.g. 10.* *It's stuffy here and open the window.*

"and" in nine (9) is a grammatical and pragmatic connective. It joins two speech acts which are requests. The ungrammaticality of ten (10), above, is due to the fact that "and" joins an assertion and a request; i.e. two different speech acts (see our position in I.2.1, above).

Orthodox discourse analysts tend to rely on intuition and many of them do not show much readiness to tackle actual data. They, like the microlinguists, run into numerous difficulties.

*e.g. 11.* Because John is ill, he won't come tonight.
e.g. 12. John won't come tonight, because he is ill.

According to Van Dijk (1977) "Because John is ill", in example eleven (11), is presupposed by both speaker and hearer - it is part of context. The remaining part of eleven is considered to be carrying new information to the hearer. It seems to us that such intuitive judgements which are akin to topic and comment in generative grammar (see Kempson, 1975) are not very convincing.

Example twelve (12) above, is informative in its entirety (except for "John" who may be known by both participants).

The major weakness, if we may say so, of orthodox discourse analysis has been the fact that it could not distance itself from the overall theoretical frame on which generative grammar has been constructed.

But one must admit that orthodox discourse analysis has shed more light on context (see I.3, above). Context is seen here to be much more dynamic - old or presupposed information helps in the process of utterance interpretation. Because Van Dijk has concentrated on written texts, he has not taken into account those features of context which are "stable" and constitute what Goffman calls frame (see II.1.2, below).

The notion of macro-proposition which the reader (the hearer) builds up as discourse progresses has been well exploited by Meyer (1979, pp.5-11) in her study of the process of reading.

However, Van Dijk's strong conviction that every text has one and only one macro-structure is not well founded. As Brown and Yule (1983a, pp.107-13) suggest, what is assumed to be a macro-structure is nothing but a title Van Dijk gives to a text according to his understanding.

Recently Van Dijk and Kintsch (1983) have published a new book which emphasizes that "discourse understanding is strategic" (p.ix). This book which reproduces almost the same ideas discussed above, has been hailed by Frawley and Lantoff (1985, p.25), as the only study that does not follow
the principles of orthodox discourse analysis. But the limitations described by Van Dijk and Kintsch (1983, pp.9-10) themselves, urge us to be cautious in accepting Frawley and Lantoff's claim. The limitations can be summarized in three points:

i) The model does not deal with actual verbal interaction.

ii) The model is still limited and idealistic.

iii) Language users are idealized.

One of the contributions of Van Dijk and Kintsch's book is that it incorporates, like some new studies in discourse analysis, the notion of Frame or schemata.

II.1.2. Frame theory in discourse analysis

According to Van Dijk and Kintsch (1983) "Knowledge structures are variously called schemata,...frames,...scripts" (p.47). The differences between these three notions are not very significant. Whatever the term we choose, we are dealing with "a means of representing that background knowledge which we all use, and assume others can use too, when we produce and interpret discourse." (Brown and Yule, 1983a, p.250).

The notion of Frame has originated from artificial intelligence (Minsky, 1975) and sociology (Goffman, 1974).

Goffman, whose ideas we will review in detail, said:

"It seems that we can hardly glance at anything without applying a primary framework, thereby forming conjectures as to what occurred before and expectations of what is likely to happen now." (ibid, p.38)
Minsky (ibid) defined Frame as:

"...a data structure for representing a stereo-typed situation, like being in a certain kind of a living room, or going to a child's birthday party. Attached to each frame are several kinds of information. Some of this information is about how to use the frame. Some is about what one can expect to happen next. Some is about what to do if these expectations are not confirmed." (p.212)

According to Minsky a frame may contain subframes. It may be a component within a Frame-system - a series of Frames. Each frame has a network of nodes and relations. The top levels of a frame are fixed and represent things that are true about a situation. The lower levels of a frame have many terminals which are normally filled with default assignments. The latter are attached loosely to their terminals and "can be easily displaced by new items that better fit the current situation" (ibid, p.213).

Information is processed in a top-down and bottom-up manner. This view has become very popular recently among discourse analysts, particularly Van Dijk and Kintsch (1983). For the latter, the reader (hearer) is active making guesses, reformulating them and storing information (in his/her presuppositional pool; Werth, 1981, p.135) as he/she goes through a text (listens to an utterance). Words activate one's relevant background knowledge which in its turn sheds light on the meaning of words (see Galisson, 1983, pp.77-8). It is a dialectical process (Van Dijk and Kintsch, 1983, pp.10, 15, 303). The presupposed knowledge that the reader (hearer) adds to his/her activated background knowledge is constructed in macro-propositions (see II.1.1, above). While constructing the macro-propositions, the reader (hearer) guesses at the discourse type
(roughly the equivalent of genre) and the macro-structure of the text (utterance), (ibid, p.92).

Lenhert (1980) has shown how many difficult issues in micro-linguistics (system-sentence analysis) can be explained through Frame theory. Pronominal reference (see e.g. 3, above), focus establishment (e.g. 11, 12) etc., can be inferred from the reader's (hearer's) activated background knowledge. (See Wilson and Sperber's ideas on what they call inferential pragmatics, I.2.2, above).

The notion of top-down and bottom-up processing information seems very appealing. In studying the reading process, the discourse analyst has to rely on his informant's introspection. The results reached so far show that Frame theory has got a strong cognitive basis (Van Dijk and Kintsch, ibid).

Levinson (1983, pp.328-32) argues that those who study verbal interaction (e.g. conversation) do not need to rely on Frame theory. Conversational surrounding can give a lot of help to the analyst. For a discourse analyst who is an insider to the scene, even silence or pauses are normally not difficult to interpret (but see III and III.1, below). The major task of the discourse analyst then, is to capture those interpretations in a neat model. As Levinson (ibid, p.288) suggests researchers like Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) and Edmondson (1981) have fallen short of achieving this goal. Their models which make use of categories like acts and moves do not reveal the depth that characterizes spoken discourse.

To overcome this weakness we have introduced the notion of frame. Our conception of frame is very much akin to Goffman's. It does not undermine Minsky's, though.

We see FL lesson discourse as a Frame-system (Minsky's term). It contains four frames which are:

1) Saying the Linguistic Form of the FL.
2) Speaking in the FL.

3) Transacting in the FL.

4) Interacting in the FL.

In very simple terms (more details are given in the rest of the present chapter and chapter six, below), Frame (1) Focuses on usage (Widdowson's term, 1978a, chap.1); Frame (2) is "quasi-communicative", i.e. no "new" information is being exchanged (see III.1.1, chap.2; see also II.1, chap.5); Frame (3) is very much like what Brown and Yule (II, above) call message-orientated talk; and Frame (4) is very much like what Brown and Yule (II, above) refer to as person-orientated talk.

In our model, frames consist of moves which contain acts. The fact that a given category of act or move (see chap. 6, below) occurs in more than one frame makes the model very flexible.

Goffman (1974) in his study of (verbal) human behaviour identifies four frames which are: (i) Theatrical Frames; (ii) Fabrications; (iii) Primary Frames; and (iv) Keyings. We will focus on the last two frames because they are very relevant to our study of FL lesson discourse.

i) Theatrical Frames. In a theatrical frame the actors follow a given script (text). They represent fictional characters. Their performance is watched by an audience whose members have paid for the spectacle. (Goffman, ibid, chap.5).

ii) Fabrication. It is possible for one participant or more to give the rest of the audience and participants the impression that he/she is involved in the same frame as they are but he/she is not (ibid, chap. 4). Fabrication can creep in in any of the three Frames. (See discussion of
iii) **Primary Frames.** In a primary frame participants and audience tacitly agree that an activity in which they are involved is meaningful, usual, and fundamental (ibid, chap. 2, particularly pp.11-35). Normally, primary frames disappear in the smooth flow of everyday activities (p.39). (cf. genres in I.3, above).

iv) **Keyings.** Keyings are activities patterned on primary frames (ibid, pp.43-44) and are seen by the individuals present (audience and participants) to be so.

Children play games where they imitate primary frames (e.g. wedding ceremonies, war games, etc.). Obviously not all games are Keyings. Some games, whether between adults or children, could belong to primary frames. A game of cards where the loser is expected to pay a substantial amount of money could be considered an example of primary frames (see down-keying, below).

Practising, like playing, is seen by Goffman as an example of keying. In practising, learners or neophytes are usually guided (see Vygotsky's theory in Wertsch, 1980, p.159; see Bialystok's views in II.3, chap. 4, below) by an experienced person. In the early stages of the learning/practising process focus is directed towards just one feature of the primary activity. At a later stage, learners are led to focus on more than one feature. However, Goffman (1974, p.65) insists that practising is totally different from "doing" (behaving in a primary frame).

According to Goffman (ibid, p.347), as long as the participants and the audience are engrossed and involved in a particular frame, then every action that takes place is relevant (I.1.1, above) and "real after its fashion".
The individual, Goffman (ibid, pp.345-70) argues, has needs of his own (see e.g. 31 from our Tunisian data in II.1.5, chap. 6, below) to shift from one frame to another. This action disrupts the involvement of the audience but it is short lived. Goffman calls it breaking Frame (ibid, chap. 10). He identifies two ways of breaking frame: (i) upkeying or flooding out and (ii) downkeying.

Upkeying is usually a movement from Keying to a primary frame.

e.g. 13. (taken from the Milroys, 1977).

T.D. You see the way you moved to Hollywood?

What's so special about Hollywood that you like

PAUSE

R.L. Well, it's quiet. There's no trouble in it, is there?

T.D. Would you ever come back to the New-townwards Road?

R.L. Don't think so.

(etc.) (pp.44-5)

T.D. a Northern Irish worker chose not to behave as he usually does towards his sister, R.L., by interviewing her, i.e. Keying which consists of playing (see above). The interview, the Milroys remark, did not last long and both participants shifted from this somehow self-inflicted strenuous task to a less demanding one. The interviewee's dry and "impatient replies" (ibid, p.45) reveal her refusal to get involved in the role-play. In short, we have here one participant (T.D.) who was willing to maintain Keying while his sister (R.L.) was on the verge of upkeying.

Downkeying is a shift from a primary frame. Goffman (1974, pp.36-7) gives the example of the gamblers whose game degenerates into playfulness: they start making higher and higher bids while laughing louder and louder. In such circumstances, we think, downkeying takes place to enable one of the players to save face, (see Goffman's "On Face Work", 1955, pp.233-5).
So far, it is clear that Goffman's frames cover all kinds of behaviour. For an analyst of the FL lesson discourse frame-system, they are "arch-frames". In fact, if we look at FL lesson discourse from Goffman's point of view, we can say that it falls within keying.

It is worth emphasizing at this point that for the FL learner, at least, "doing" takes place when in contact with the L2 native speakers and not in the classroom where the teacher and students share an L1. Daden (1975) describes FL classroom discourse as "careful and controlled" (p.112). Crystal (1981) talks of the FL classroom as "a pedagogically orientated world" (p.43). Allwright (1984) states that

"...communication practice in the classroom is pedagogically useful because it represents a necessary and productive stage in the transfer of classroom learning to the outside world...In short, all too often the learner has to make too big a leap from classroom drill to genuine communication." (p.156-7)

The following examples from our data support the idea that FL lesson discourse is not exactly the discourse that occurs in "the outside world".

e.g. 14. A student notices that the tape recorder is not on.

He whispers to his mate sitting next to him, then addresses the teacher and the fieldworker (FW), in Arabic.

\[ \text{Sl: } \begin{align*} &\text{Si: } \text{\textit{(it's not on it's not on)}} \\ &\text{F.W.: } \text{\textit{Sorry}} \\ &\text{Sg: } \text{\textit{(laughing)}} \\ &\text{T: } \text{\textit{(to fieldworker) You want me to repeat}} \\ &\text{F.W.: } \text{\textit{No no it doesn't matter}} \end{align*} \]
T: I don't mind [if you want
F.W.: Can you] do it a bit quicker
T: Yes
F.W.: Yeah
(to T and Ss) Sorry
Ss: (laughing)
T: Choose the best answer (etc.)

(From a second year lesson)

The grammatical point the lesson dealt with was the practice of verbs like "to put on" and "to put off" when the "appropriate" occasion arose to convey a message in the primary frame, the student (S1) spoke in LTA (local Tunisian Arabic variety). The teacher, however, did not find it difficult to upkey to the primary frame within L2.

Notice that except for the teacher's last move, all example fourteen is side-talk (see Goffman's "side-conversation", 1955, p.226); i.e. outside the lesson discourse. Side-talks "are modulated so as not to interfere seriously with the accredited messages" (ibid). The accredited messages refer here to lesson discourse. Side-talk and lesson discourse make up classroom discourse.

e.g. 15. Teacher makes a spelling mistake in writing
'disaster'. Student (S2) spots it:

S2: No zed
T: Sorry
S2: No zed
T: Disaster ai zed
S2: es
T: ai es (corrects)
S2: (turns to his mates) ([k'fes]) (see)
S3: ([s] tr'd:ʌ]) (big deal)
**DIAGRAM 3.1: FL Lesson Discourse as Keying**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KEYING: PRACTISING</th>
<th>PRIMARY FRAME: DOING</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Saying the Linguistic Form of the FL</td>
<td>2. Speaking in the FL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Trans- acting in the FL</td>
<td>4. Inter- acting in the FL</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
S2: ([nɛlɛbɔmɛlɛ:kɪnlɪ]) (mind your business)

T: Next opportunity

S1: No

S3: ([mɛlɛtɛlɛmɛlɛmɪlɛt]) (don't talk to me, understood)

T: We know this word

S2: ([mɛlɛtɛlɛmɪlɛt]) (shame on you)

S1: Obvious

T: Obvious

(etc.)

(from Fourth year data, L4A).

In example fifteen (15) the exchanges that took place between students S2 and S3 were side-talk and in LTAV. They were not part of the lesson. The study done in the present thesis focuses only on lesson discourse (see reasons in I, chap. 6, below).

FL lesson discourse as represented in Diagram 3.1 below, is a continuum. In (1) "Saying the Linguistic Form of the FL" the practising aspect is very obvious. At the other extreme (4) "Interacting in the FL" there is also practising, but it underlies talk. As we shall see in section II.1, chapter six, below) there is downkeying that goes from the frames where practising is least obvious to the frames where practising is most obvious and upkeying which follows the opposite direction.

If we accept Goffman's claim that every activity is "real after its fashion", then it would be wiser for L2 acquisition researchers to avoid describing FL classroom discourse as artificial (see Gardner, 1985, p.167; Corder in II.2; and Krashen's search for "real communication" in III.1, chap. 2). There is no reason why teaching Form to formal thinkers (Piaget in I.1, III.1, chap. 2; and Bialystok, II.3, chap. 4) must be looked down upon. Equally there is little sense in urging teachers to achieve "doing"
without acknowledging the importance of practising (see Widdowson in I.3, chap. 4, below).

L2 acquisition researchers and theoreticians (e.g. Hatch, chap. 2) have been claiming that if conversation is encouraged in the classroom, "artificiality" disappears and language acquisition follows its natural rate and route (cf. Felix and Hahn in III.1.1. chap. 2). But what is conversation in the first place?

### III. Conversation and conversation analysis

Goffman (1974, p.502); Sacks, Schegloff, and Jefferson (1974, p.700); and Coulthard (1977, p.38) have acknowledged the difficulty of defining conversation.

#### III.1. Conversation: a definition

For most L2 theoreticians and researchers (chap. 2, above) conversation refers to any talk that is not form-orientated. Students of discourse define conversation as a much more 'restricted' activity.

Edmondson (1981) gives the following definition:

"'CONVERSATION' is used loosely and non-technically to refer to any stretch of talk involving at least two participants, and taking place in a non-formalised setting, such no special rules or conventions may be said to operate. Thus a debate in the House of Commons is scarcely conversation while an interview conducted on television may approximate conversation if interviewer and interviewee 'relax' so far as to forget their respective roles in front of the cameras..." (p.6)

Levinson (1983) reveals a further dimension to the definition of conversation.
"...conversation may be taken to be that familiar predominant kind of talk in which two or more participants freely alternate in speaking, which generally occurs outside specific institutional settings like religious services, law courts, classrooms and the like." (p.284).

Goffman (1977) gives a much more comprehensive definition of conversation. For him it is

"...talk occurring when a small number of participants come together and settle into what they perceive to be a few moments cut off from (or carried on to the side of) instrumental tasks; a period of idling felt to be an end in itself during which everyone is accorded the right to talk as well as to listen and without reference to a fixed schedule; everyone is accorded the status whose overall evaluation of the subject at hand... is to be encouraged and treated with respect, and no final agreement or synthesis is demanded, differences of opinion are to be treated as unprejudicial to the continuing relationship of the parties." (p.264).

If we attempt to summarise the main points from the above definitions, conversation is that informal talk that is predominant in non-institutionalized settings. It takes place between a rather small number of people (Goffman, 1974, p.503) who grant one another equal status. Every participant has the right to take the floor, and although mutual understanding in conversation seems to prevail (Goffman, ibid) differences of opinion are attenuated so as to preserve one another's face (Goffman,
1955, p.226) and to keep the conversation going. Compromise underlies conversation and accounts for its looseness and absence of schedule.

The definition we have suggested reduces the difficulty that the discourse analyst experiences in identifying interactional discourse and distinguishing it from transactional discourse (see Brown and Yule, II, above). Interactional discourse, which is predominant in conversation, can occur in formal and institutionalized settings. Transactional discourse in such settings could give way to interactional discourse and vice versa. In such circumstances it may still be difficult to mark the boundaries between the two activities, (see III.2.2, below).

In addition to these difficulties there is the problem of fabrication which goes unnoticed in conversation (Goffman, 1974, p.502). In our study of FL lesson discourse an instance of fabrication took place, and despite the fact that we were insiders to the scene, we failed to discover it. In lesson L4B (see app. VIII ) a student who was described later by her teacher as "a chatterbox", argued strongly (cf. definition of conversation above) that the future of Tunisia in the year two thousand and twenty two would be as bleak as that of the United States, which were described in "Soylent Green". By the end of a two-hour discussion which was begun with an interview and closed in the least formal and "most" spontaneous style (see The Milroys, 1977), the same student, in "the heat" of the conversation said:

e.g. 16. (taken from cassette No. 2, 4, LMM).

S: "...As far as I am concerned I er I er take all the opportunities to talk in er English, even when er the other pupils er don't pay attention to what I say er or when I am not sure of my ideas or of what I want to say er I say it because I want to practise English er I believe that to become one day and have a high level in
English I must *practise* it in er my er with my family or with my friends so it er I must er er take from the only one who is with er (student interrupted)...and to have a discussion I I I disagree I disagreed with her [meaning her mate] so that I polluted the class with my pessimism but as my friends know I am I am I have another *face* a different *face* etc."

There are two remarks we would like to make about the student's "confession". First, as we said in III.1.2, above, even when FL lesson discourse comes near "doing" (primary frame) it still has practising (keying) underlying it. Second, a participant in discourse can always choose to divert from his/her line; i.e. his/her established *Face* (Goffman, 1955). This second remark applies to both transactional discourse and interactional discourse. Fabrication in FL lesson discourse occurs in both "transacting in the FL" and "interacting in the FL". Students and teacher have a justification for fabrication. They are practising. (See Di Pietro's method of inducing learners to stick to their established line while practising, I.3, chap. 4, below).

Let us, finally, stress that our model of analysis does not go as far as describing fabrications.

**III.2. Conversation analysis**

As we have said on various occasions in the present chapter, conversation analysis is a method of analysis which is associated with the ethnomethodologists who focused on the study of informal talk. So what are the theoretical principles of the ethnomethodologists?

**III.2.1. Ethnomethodology**

According to Rogers (1983)
"...ethnomethodology is the empirical investigation
("-ology") people ("ethno-") use to make sense of and
at the same time accomplish communication, decision
making, reasonableness, and action in everyday life" (p.84)

Ethnomethodology reacts strongly against intuitive judgements and
absolute rules. Its criticism of the methods and findings of sociology
could be extended to many fields of inquiry such as microlinguistics,
orthodox discourse analysis and social dialectology. All these assume a
shared system of norms and rules which are independent of everyday
interactions, and which are used by a stereotyped individual. Accordingly,
"natural data" that departs from their theoretical constant and rigid
systems, is judged to be faulty or exceptional.

Because they emphasize the study of the "naturally occurring data",
ethnomethodologists are interested in the notion of process. Meaning, for
them, can not be dissociated from the situation - indexicality. Common
understanding - reasonableness - is an ongoing operation between
participants and not an overlapping of sets (see Widdowson's suggestion of
"Capacity" to capture this concept, 1983, pp.23-8). According to Garfinkel,
conversation is like a floating iceberg, only the tenth of which is
observable while the rest is hidden (in Rogers, 1983), (see Fabrication in
III.1, above).

Hymes and Gumperz (1972) said in their introduction of Garfinkel's
article (1972):

"Common understanding is never simply recognition of
shared contents or rules, but it is always open-ended...
Adhocing remains the ultimate concern. People understand
each other because "for the while" they assume the
reasonableness of each other's statements." (p.304)
The ethnomethodologist has to share a lot with the interacting members (be an insider) so that his interpretation of the process of talk is acceptable by them. Garfinkel (1972) calls this reflexivity.

Ethnomethodologists have uncovered very important regularities in conversation. Some of their findings have influenced Edmondson, whose model we have adapted to our study of FL lesson discourse. Some other findings have been exploited to discuss informally some aspects of FL lesson discourse; (e.g. turn-taking and repairs).

III.2.2. The major findings in conversation analysis

As we said in our introduction to section II, above, conversation analysis focuses on informal talk, particularly conversation. The theoretical principles of the ethnomethodologists have made us consider conversation analysis to be an approach to the study of verbal behaviour which is quite different from that of orthodox discourse analysis (II; II.1, above).

Like the social dialectologists (Labov, 1972, Milroy, L. 1981), conversation analysts have been very careful in their data collection. They are particularly concerned with the presence of the tape recorder. The presence of the fieldworker need not be a major problem. The so-called "Observer's paradox" - speech is affected by the presence of the fieldworker but need not be - has been overcome by relying on an insider (see how we collected our data, I.1, chap. 6, below).

As was mentioned in section II, above, conversation analysts try to discover regularities. The regularities they have found are in sequences, turn-taking, and repairs.

A. Sequences

Sacks, Schegloff, and Jefferson (SSJ) divide the patterns of conversation into tied pairs or adjacency pairs (Levinson, 1983) and
"facultative conversational behaviour rituals" (cf. exchanges in Edmondson, IV, below).

i). Tied pairs

Greet - Greet
Invite - Accept/Decline
Complain - Deny/Apologise
Request - Grant/Refuse
Offer - Accept/Refuse
Question - Answer

Pairs such as Greet - Greet are referred to as exchanges of free goods. Seconds (second turn in a pair) like Accept, Deny, Grant, etc. are considered to be socially unmarked or preferred whereas seconds like Decline, Apologise, etc. are thought to be socially marked (or dispreferred).

ii). Facultative conversational behaviour rituals

Facultative conversational behaviour rituals are sequences that take place at different stages of verbal discourse (particularly conversation). They are ways of ensuring that no participant loses face.

The following are Facultative conversational behaviour rituals:

Insertion sequences
Side sequences
Closing sequences
Pre - sequences
Repair - sequences
As we shall see in IV, below, all these sequences occur in spoken discourse and are not necessarily always rituals.

Before we move on to turn-taking, we would like to make the following remarks:

i). Some of the marked (dispreferred) seconds in tied pairs may, in certain contexts, be considered unmarked (e.g. Complain - Apologise).

ii). The pair Question - Answer is grammatical but may be represented by any sequence.

iii). As we said in I.2.1, above, categories like greet, invite, accept, etc. could be called simply speech acts; (see Edmondson, below).

iv). Sequences are more or less what Edmondson (below) calls exchanges (cf. Lantoff in II, II.1, above).

B. Turn-taking

Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson (SSJ), (1974, pp.700-2) have expressed their concern about the difficulty of delimiting the contexts in which conversation takes place (see III.1, above). They believe that because the turn-taking system of conversation is context free, it can be used to determine conversation and differentiate it from other forms of discourse.

We need to explain the following concepts before we describe SSJ's findings: i) **Constructional units** or unit types and ii) **Transition-relevance place**.

Constructional units are grammatical units: sentence, clause, phrase, and word. Usually a unit type/constructional unit used in an utterance projects the unit underway.

The completion of a constructional unit in an utterance represents a transition-relevance place.
The Turn-Taking System in conversation (SSJ, 1974).

1. For any type, at the initial transition-relevance place of an initial turn-constructional unit

a - If the turn so-far is so constructed as to involve the use of a "current speaker selects next" technique, then the party so selected has the right and is obliged to take next turn to speak.

b - If the turn so-far is so constructed as not to involve the use of a "current speaker selects next" technique, then self selection for next speakership may, but need not be instituted; first starter acquires right to a turn.

c - If the turn-so-far is so constructed as not to involve the use of a "current speaker selects next" technique, then current speaker may, but need not continue, unless another self-selects.

2. If at the initial transition relevance place of an initial turn-constructional unit, neither la nor lb has operated, and, following the provision of lc, current speaker has continued, then the rule set a - c reapply.

According to SSJ, the system ensures that overwhelmingly one party speaks at a time, that usually transition is done with no gap or overlap, and that turn size, turn content and conversation length are not predetermined.

Notice that the speaker in conversation is very vulnerable. He/she could lose the floor to the hearer at any transition-relevance place. This is because participants grant one another equal status (see III.1, above; cf. Mchoul, below).

Notice that in addition to sharing an equal status with the speaker,
the hearer's unchallenged right to intervene at any transition-relevance place reveals the rapidity that he/she has in top-down and bottom-up processing of information which allows him/her to make anticipations which in their turn enhance him/her to take the floor (see II.1.2, above).

Mchoul (1979) has studied turn-taking in the L1 classroom discourse. He has found that the classroom is formal and discourse there differs from conversation. The role of the teacher as "head" (ibid, p.185) who allocates turns and has the right to intervene gives rise to an unequal encounter which is characterized by "utterance triads" - Question, Answer, Comment (see Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975).

As we shall see in due course (chap. 6, below), in FL lesson discourse when teacher and students are involved in the frame "interacting in the FL" (see Diagram 1), turn-taking becomes very much akin to conversation.

Psychologists (Duncan, 1972; Duncan and Niederche, 1974) have claimed that turn-taking is conditioned by signals. The speaker can show cues for turn-yielding (e.g. falling intonation, drawl on last syllable, termination of gesture, etc.). The hearer can show cues for turn-taking (e.g. shift away of head direction, audible inhalation, initiation of gesticulation, etc.). If the hearer is not willing to take the floor despite the speaker's turn yielding cues, he/she may use back-channels" (e.g. nod, uhuh, sentence completion, request for clarification, brief restatement). It is difficult to decide when there is a turn and when there is a back channel on some occasions. Duncan and Niederche (1974) have suggested that back-channels are optional and do not affect the speaker's whole turn. (See how we dealt with moves and back-channels in our analysis of FL lesson discourse chap.6, below).

To conclude this discussion on turn-taking we can mention Levinson (1983, p.302) who pointed out that signals by themselves do not account for the turn-taking system. In other words the findings of the conversation analysts and the psychologists are complementary.
C. Repairs

According to SSJ (1977) repairs are initiated even when the trouble source is not apparent. The outcome of a repair is not always a correction. SSJ (ibid) distinguish between self-initiated repairs and other-initiated repairs. They show with clear evidence (see pp.362, 373,377) that self repair is preferred to other-repair in conversation.

We believe that SSJ's findings support Goffman's theory of face (see III. 1 above). As SSJ (ibid, p.381) suggest, in a teaching/learning situation, other-repairs tend to be frequent (see our analysis of FL lesson discourse).

The study of repairs in conversation has induced researchers in L2 acquisition to attempt to discover from the learner's false starts, hesitancies, and repetitions his/her communication strategies. As we shall see in II.1.2, chap. 4, below, little progress has been achieved.

IV. Edmondson's model for the analysis of Spoken discourse

As we said in I, above, Edmondson's model for the analysis of spoken discourse (Edmondson, 1981; Edmondson and House, 1981) draws on the findings in both orthodox discourse analysis and conversation analysis.

Edmondson's model is based on simulated two party face-to-face talk occurring in non-formalised settings. He does not exclude from his data cases where participants have unequal social roles (cf. conversation in III.1, above).

The following combinations are in fact the basis of his study:

" A: [X\(>\) Y]/[ + Familiar]
B: [X\(>\) Y]/[ - Familiar]
C: [X =Y]/[ + Familiar]
D: [X =Y]/[ - Familiar]

1A: Sixth-former requires reference from French-master.
B: Baby sitter wants to back down on a previous arrangement.
C: Sheila wishes to borrow records off a flatmate.
D: Boy meets girl: he wishes to take her off from a party.

etc." (Edmondson, 1981. pp.176-7)

Let us now describe the major components of the model proposed by Edmondson and start from the smallest unit.

1 - Illocutionary acts

An illocutionary act is the smallest identifiable unit of talk which does not necessarily further the discourse in which it occurs in terms of approaching a goal.

E.g. 16 A: "(Well), I don't know, (do I)".

In example sixteen (16) "Well" is an uptake and it is optional; "I don't know" is a head act, and "do I" is an appealer which is optional (see discussion of e.g. 8 in II.1.1, above). (See our list in chap. 6, below).

2 - Move

Edmondson (1981), Edmondson and House (1981), and Edmondson et al. (1984) distinguish between two categories of moves: A - "Interactional moves" and B - "Supportive moves".

A - Interactional moves

An interactional move is the smallest significant element by means of which discourse is developed. It could be verbal or non-verbal. Like Sinclair and Coulthard (1975, p.21), Edmondson and House (1981, p.38) have found that a turn (see III.2.2, above) could comprise more than one move.

E.g. 17. (from our Tunisian data; lesson discourse 1 1 B, app. II)

T: Are they different
Ss: No
T : Boys and girls aren't different
     We can say boys and girls are
Ss: Equal
T : Equal good right OK...

The teacher's second turn above is composed of two moves. The first reacts positively to the students' response and the second is an initiation that calls for a response (see our categories in chap. 6, below).

B - Supportive moves

Supportive moves are strategic moves. They are not very easy to distinguish from interactional moves (Edmondson, 1981, pp.129-30). There are three categories of supportive moves:

(i) A grounding move usually prepares the ground for an interactional move.

    e.g. 18. (Georges' first move is a grounding)
    Georges: "I've got my hands full
             could you open the door for me"

(ii) An expanding move usually expands on the interactional move. Expanding moves occur in rituals.

    e.g. 19. (Ahmed's last move is an expanding move)
    Aly "Peace be with you"
    Ahmed "Peace be with you
            and God's mercy and blessing on you".

(iii) A disarming move is a defensive, self-protective device
(commonly known as hedging) used by the speaker. Very often a disarming move exhausts the interactional move that is supposed to follow it.

e.g. 20. (John's move is a disarming move and interactional move)
   John    "You know I am allergic to smoking"
   Karen   "I'm sorry, I forgot (stops smoking).

3. Exchanges
An exchange has at least two moves — An initiate and a response. (cf. sequences in III.2.2, above).

(i) A head exchange is a necessary component in the phase (see below). It can be equal to the phase itself. (cf. tied pairs in III.2.2, above).

e.g. 21. (a head exchange that has an initiate and a response)
   Andy: "Give us a quid?"
   Paul: "Here's a quid"

(ii) A pre-head exchange is initiated by a speaker who prefers to achieve his/her goal with the least damage to face, (cf. pre-sequence in III.2.2, above).

e.g. 22. (a pre-head exchange)
   Student: "Could I have a word with you?"
   Teacher: "Yes sure"

(iii) A post-head exchange is usually used for confirmatory actions; rituals, minimisations (summing up), etc. (cf. closing sequence in III.2.2, above).
e.g. 23. (a minimisation)
Nigel: "Same time same place"
Eric: "See you there, cheers"

A closing sequence or post-head exchange could spark a new phase; i.e. more exchanges.

(iv) A pre-responding exchange occurs when the hearer prefers that his/her interlocutor self-repairs (cf. repair-sequences, III.2.2, above) or when the hearer expresses some apprehension.

e.g. 24. (Al invites Ken to self-repair)
Ken: "'E likes that waiter over there"
Al: "Waiter?"
Ken: "Waitress, Sorry"
(from SSJ, 1977, p.377)

Many examples like 24 occur in FL lesson discourse particularly within the frame(1) "saying the Linguistic Form of the FL".

(v) A reciprocal exchange is a mutual stroking - you scratch my back, I scratch yours. Most reciprocal exchanges are rituals (cf. tied-pairs in III.2.2, above).

e.g. 25. (a reciprocal exchange)
Lady cleaner: "Mornin Flower"
Student : "Morning love"

(vi) Chained exchanges could be either pre-responding exchanges linked together or post-head exchanges linked together.
e.g. 26. (of chained pre-responding exchanges)

"X: Well can you prescribe anything for the allergy I mean will it go away I mean
Y: does it itch at all
X: yes it itches quite a lot
Y: do you get scabs forming on it or anything
X: No
Y: hm hum it's just on your face and hands is it
X: and my arms
Y: Well I think I can prescribe some ointment for you...


4 - Phases

A phase usually has at least one head exchange. It may have more than one subordinate exchange - pre-responding exchange, pre-head exchange, etc. In example twenty-six (26) above, the first and the last move are the head exchange and the moves between them constitute a chained exchange. All 26 is a phase.

Edmondson's model for the analysis of spoken discourse is based on simulated (role-play) but not fabricated data. This puts it half way (so to speak) between orthodox discourse analysis and conversation analysis. Because it is built on a loose definition of conversation (see III.1, above), Edmondson's model is expandable; it can deal with any form of discourse. It does not impose itself totally on the data and is open to extension and revision.

V. Conclusion

Many fields have contributed to the domain of pragmatics which encompasses discourse analysis. The two approaches - orthodox discourse analysis and conversation analysis - in discourse analysis are complementary, despite their distinct theoretical backgrounds. Their
complementarity resides in the fact that they study verbal communication and they look at it from different angles.

At any discourse activity in which we engage (spoken or written), we process information (understand and produce it) in a top-down and bottom-up manner. We constantly call on our relevant background knowledge and impart and store in new information as discourse progresses. If the discourse activity is spoken, we, in addition to this, produce acts and moves. We abide by the rules of turn-taking appropriate to the encounter. We cooperate to produce exchanges. We resort to strategic moves if the need arises. We hesitate and correct ourselves, etc.

Every discourse analyst who is an insider to the scene and who uses categories like acts and moves is aware that such categories do not capture everything that goes on during the talking process.

Categories listed alongside a transcribed piece of discourse give the impression that the data are analysed exhaustively. In fact, what happens is that we supply the missing interpretary power of the categories through our understanding of the transcribed piece of discourse.

As we have seen throughout the present chapter, discourse is too complex to be reduced to a finite set of rules and categories. But on the other hand discovering regularities is important. The introduction of the concept of frame in the analysis of FL lesson discourse overcomes many of the weaknesses that prevail in spoken discourse analyses. Categories like acts and moves become alive and flexible.

In the present chapter we have seen that it is hardly possible for conversation to take place during the FL lesson discourse given the fact that participants are of an unequal status and that practise underlies every activity. We have also seen that every utterance the teacher or the student makes is in context, and that urging teachers to reach "real communication" in the FL classroom needs to be reconsidered.
NOTES TO CHAPTER THREE

1 These are articles which were edited by Searle, 1971. We have chosen to give the first dates of publication for chronological reasons.

2 If such act is done by a husband in a Muslim society, the wife is automatically divorced.

3 The writer's emphasis.

4 The notion of "naturalness" is very controversial and poses some difficulty to the conversation analyst, (Roger, 1983, p.102).
CHAPTER FOUR
THE COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH TO L2 TEACHING AND RELATED DEVELOPMENTS
IN L2 ACQUISITION STUDIES

Introduction

It has been pointed out on various occasions in the present thesis that pragmatics has had an impact on the work recently published in the field of L2 teaching/learning. Having reviewed pragmatics in the previous chapter it is now possible to review this work.

This chapter has two major parts. The first deals with the communicative approach to L2 teaching; its aims, achievements and limitations. The second reviews the attempts to refine the definition of interlanguage (IL), many illustrative examples being taken from Tunisian data.

The position taken in this chapter is mediatory. It will guide our discussion of (1) the textbooks used in Tunisian secondary schools and (2) the English lessons recorded there (see chaps. 5, 6, 7 below).

I. The communicative approach to L2 teaching

The criticism of the audiolingual method and the theories that led to this criticism (see chap. 1, 2, above) have strengthened the belief that the practice of structural drills makes the process of L2 learning very slow (chap. 2) and provides few chances for the learner to master what Hymes (chap. 3) calls the rules of use. The communicative approach attempts to exploit the new dimension explored by speech act theory and ethnography of speaking to delimit the learner's needs and design the syllabus that answers those needs.

I.1. The learner's needs in the communicative approach

FL learners, especially adults, do not expect to achieve total
communicative competence. They need the FL for special purposes (e.g. to do business). Syllabus designers attempt to predict as accurately as possible their learner's needs in accordance with his/her purposes (see Widdowson's comment, below).

According to Munby (1978) needs are determined in accordance to two parameters: (i) \textit{a-priori parameters} and (ii) \textit{a-posteriori parameters}.

In brief terms, a-priori parameters include (a) participant or the relevant information (see I.2.2, chap. 3) about the learner who will take part in the process of communication in the TL; (b) setting or the physical and psychological contexts in which communication in the TL will occur; (c) purposive domain or the specific occupation the TL is needed for; (d) interaction or the people with whom the learner is expected to communicate, his position (status) if compared to theirs, etc.; and (e) instrumentality which specifies the medium (spoken or written), the mode (monologue, written text to be read, etc.) and the channel (face to face, radio broadcast, etc.) of communication.

A-posteriori parameters include (a) dialect or variety the learner is expected to communicate in; (b) target level which the learner has to reach; (c) communicative events which the learner is most likely to participate in; and (d) communicative key or tone which is determined principally by the communicative event and the social relation between the participants.

It is obvious that needs analysis is based on Hymes' framework (I.3, chap. 3). It is also important to point out that structuralist syllabus designers did investigate learners' needs (see external selection in III.1, chap. 1, above). They were, however, less systematic and less precise since form is needed for any verbal communication.

The advocates of the communicative approach believe that needs analysis leads to the delimitation of the notions and functions (see below).
the learner will "have" to master. In their enthusiasm they often forget, as does Munby (1978) that a needs analysis has to decide on the structures and, particularly, the vocabulary the learner will have to master. After all, Hymes has never excluded linguistic competence from his communicative competence theory. Perhaps the difficulty of integrating the structuralists' findings into the notional syllabus and the strong influence of L2 acquisition studies (chap. 2) have contributed to a distortion of Hymes' views (cf. Frawley's view in II.1, chap. 3).

Foerch and Kasper (1983b, p.31) have argued that it is impossible to predict all a learner needs. Widdowson (1983) suggests that a given analysis of a learner's needs and the syllabus that ensues from it does not give the learner enough freedom to deal with unpredictable situations. Although we hold the strong belief that a learner discovers his/her needs while communicating with L2 speakers, we think that a syllabus designer is justified to make some predictions about the learner's future needs, especially when the latter is going to practise an FL (see "Keying" vs "Doing", Diagram 3.1, chap. 3) in the classroom.

I.2. The Notional syllabus

The general learner especially the young student at school does not know the practical purposes for the use of the FL in the future. Thus, he/she could be said to have vague needs. Wilkins (1976), who is aware of this fact, has attempted to describe the notions and functions in an "ideal communicative competence" (see Habermas, II.1, chap. 3).

Wilkins (ibid) distinguishes between (a) notional meanings and (b) functional meanings.

Notional meanings contain semantic-grammatical categories; e.g. time (now, then, etc.); Frequency (often, sometimes, etc.); quantity (some, many, etc.); space (in, along, etc.); sentential relations (agent, beneficiary, etc.); modals (must, should, etc.)...
Functional meanings are explicit illocutionary forces in speech acts; e.g. valuation (estimate, assess, etc.); verdict (pronounce, sentence, etc.)...

Wilkins (1976, p.42) contends that language acquisition research has concentrated on the use of language to report and describe and has overlooked the other uses of language (see Kasper, 1982 and our findings in the analysis of Tunisian data, chap. 6). As he says his framework is ad hoc and based on intuition (1976, p.42). Crombie (1985, pp.12-15) rightly argues that a textbook writer is not very much helped by a list of notions and a list of functions. She also thinks that the functions Wilkins provides are "semi-idiomatic expressions whose discourse value is relatively fixed" (p.13). This is reminiscent of the remarks made about speech act theory (I.1, chap. 3).

Johnson (1981) has claimed that Wilkins' presentation of notional meanings and functional meanings under the heading "notional syllabuses" has contributed to the confusion among textbook writers who have found it extremely difficult to grade both notions and functions. Their task becomes even harder if they accept Wilkins' (1976, p.132) claim that the notional syllabus is an extension of the structural syllabus (Dubin, 1978, p.132). They find it impossible to cover all these aspects of language at the same time.

There is no doubt that notional syllabuses and structural syllabuses are inventories of language units in "isolation and abstraction", both of which aim at developing the learner's communicative competence (Widdowson, 1978, pp.13-1; see also the direct method II.2, chap. 1 and Starr et al. V.3.2. chap 1). So from this point of view the communicative approach is not new. The mere adoption of a notional syllabus, Morrow (1981, p.60) asserts, does not guarantee that we are going to teach our students to communicate in L2; we need a methodology. Roberts (1982) finds it difficult to define a communicative approach that has "no clear views on methodology" (p.103).
I.3. Methodology

In this section we review the principles Morrow (1981) proposes for an efficient methodology. We also discuss Littlewood's (1981) attempt to put forward a methodology and suggest some of Di Pietro's (1976, 1981) ideas to refine it.

Very briefly, Morrow's principles are:

(i) Know what you are doing: the teacher must think of the importance of any activity he/she introduces during the lesson; i.e. role-play, drills, etc. must keep learners "involved".

(ii) The whole is more important than the sum of the parts: Language is best taught/learned when communication takes place in "real situations" (ibid, p.61), (cf. III.1.2., chap. 3, above). Teaching one aspect of language at a time does not result in acquisition of the whole system.

(iii) The processes are as important as the forms: it is advisable that teachers introduce form while trying "to replicate as far as possible the processes of communication" (Morrow, ibid. p.62). This can be achieved by (a) creating an information gap between the participants; (b) giving the learners the freedom to choose what to say and how to say it; and (c) making the students see the purpose of the activity.

(iv) To learn it do it: students learn to achieve their communication purposes through the practice of communication activities. The teacher is encouraged to become an organiser in the classroom.

(v) Mistakes are not always mistakes: teachers need only be concerned about structural errors if they impede communication.
Notice here the influence of (a) research in L1 classroom methodology, (b) the ideas prevailing in L2 acquisition research, together with (c) a misconception of communication. James (1983, pp.110-13) and Hawkes (1983, p.100) think that there is little sense in attempting to replicate Barnes' (1969) recommendations concerning L1 classroom methodology since L2 learners do not have a full linguistic competence in their TL and, therefore, cannot be expected to communicate in the so-called real time and real situations. The belief that L2, especially FL, is an academic discipline has to be maintained among learners. It is very motivating. The so-called communicative activities (e.g. role-play, games) can, like structural drills, become monotonous and boring. Hawkes (1983, p.91) claims that the communicative approach is not based on a thorough analysis of communication: there is communication inside the classroom as well as outside and there is communication whether focus is on form or on meaning, (cf. our views in section II.1.2, chap. 3, above). He also adds that there is no evidence that the communicative approach has raised achievement levels among learners. On the contrary the standard is thought to be falling and many voices are calling for the reinstatement of grammar; (e.g. Ghariani, 1985; Kahn, 1986; and Sherwood Smith, 1985, II, below).

In chapter two, section III.1.1, we have seen that some recent research has shown that form acquisition takes place in both formal and informal settings and that learners follow similar strategies. If the long held view in favour of non-intervention is challenged, then we have to be careful in supporting the argument that the mastery of notions and functions must look after itself in the classroom. There is a need for a teacher to organise and supervise the process of learning. There is a need for a textbook and a methodology. As we have argued in chapter three, conversation hardly occurs in the classroom and "Keying" is predominant.

Widdowson (1983) says:

"...this shift of emphasis [on communicative language
teaching] has had the effect of identifying objectives more closely with aims. One result of this is the widespread (and I believe mistaken) belief that if language is to be taught for communication it has necessarily to be presented as communication, that every classroom activity must bear the hallmark of 'authenticity'.” (p.30)

Littlewood (1981, p.10) is quite realistic about the intrinsic limitations of the FL classroom and shows some scepticism towards the ideas put forward by IL theoreticians (especially the interactionists) concerning methodology. He suggests that teachers could start with (i) "pre-communicative activities" and then move on to "communicative activities"

In "pre-communicative activities" there could be two possibilities for teaching/learning the TL. In the first, "structural activities" could be pursued (e.g. drills). In the second, form is more or less contextualized – "Quasi-communicative activities" – (e.g. describing pictures, using the shared knowledge of the world to produce grammatical sentences, choosing from different alternatives to compose dialogues, etc.).

"Communicative activities" comprise what Littlewood calls "functional communication activities" and "social interaction activities". In "functional communication activities" form is no longer of primary importance for either the teacher or the learners. Students are encouraged to get their meaning across (e.g. disagreeing, convincing, etc.). Like Morrow, Littlewood believes that activities such as problem solving and games are useful because they create an information gap between participants. "Social interaction activities" give a further dimension to functional communication activities. As Littlewood (ibid) puts it, in social interaction activities (e.g. role-play, classroom management):
"Success is now measured in terms of the functional effectiveness of the language, but also in terms of the acceptability of the forms that are used." (p.21)

"Pre-communicative activities" prepare the ground for "communicative activities". But Littlewood sees no harm in having, for instance, some "functional communication activities" taking place along with "structural activities" in a beginners' classroom. As we shall see in detail in II, chapter six, FL lesson discourse sometimes shifts from one frame to another for reasons that have little to do with the methodology adopted.

The communicative methodology put forward by Littlewood is quite different from the Natural Approach advocated by Krashen and Terrell (III.2, chap. 2). The difference illustrates how the communicative approach is interpreted in Britain and Europe on the one hand, and the United States and Canada on the other, (Roberts, 1982, pp.102-3).

In the case of Krashen and Terrell's approach, functions and social interactions are not of prime importance. As we have argued in chapter two, all the activities (e.g. games) recommended are thought to reduce learners' anxiety and provide a suitable environment for the LAD to pick up form. Littlewood's methodology presupposes the use of a textbook (or a series of books) which tends to go from an emphasis on form to an emphasis on functions and social meanings. In other words, he sees the notional syllabus as an extension of the structuralist syllabus and the communicative methodology as an improvement on, but not a replacement for, the audiolingual method. Because Littlewood does not object to the co-occurrence of "communicative activities" with "pre-communicative activities", then it is possible for teachers to select and use some of the techniques suggested by Krashen and Terrell (e.g. T P R, Yes/No questions, open-ended questions, games, slide shows, visits of native speakers to the classroom, etc.).
The ideas proposed by Di Pietro (1976, 1981) could also be an enrichment to Littlewood's methodology if they are introduced among "the social interaction activities" which are expected to become predominant in advanced FL classrooms. Di Pietro (1981) thinks that "...functions and notions must be situationaly and personally relevant" (p.29). The learner needs to practise acting in L2 according to his/her established "line" (cf. discussion of e.g. 16, chap. 3). It is not enough to create an ideal speaker-hearer who has a communicative competence (see I.2, above). For Di Pietro (1976)

"It is easier to teach the student to be anybody in the target language...than it is to prepare the student to be somebody." (p.53)

Because as we said in III.1.2, chap. 3, the FL classroom is not the L2 environment, then role-play is, according to Di Pietro (1976, 1981), the best method to bring the learner nearest to spoken discourse in the actual L2 community (see Diagram 3A, chap. 3). He suggests that the teacher presents his/her students with a situation in which they will find themselves in the L2 environment, explains to them what has happened to lead to such a situation, assigns roles to them, explores with them the various ways (alternative strategies) to achieve a particular goal, and then gives them the opportunity of acting the roles assigned to them. Participants may move towards a shared goal (reciprocating). They may have different goals and use tactics or countertactics (non-reciprocating). In the first case, interacting is likely to occur while in the second, transacting is likely to take place. Di Pietro, who has himself undertaken research in discourse analysis, proposes that students could be encouraged to express their underlying thoughts (internal talk) while role-playing (external talk), (1976, pp.37-8). This is an important contribution to the
communicative methodology suggested by Littlewood. Some of the activities mentioned by Krashen and Terrell (e.g. revealing information about yourself) could be better exploited in this context. In short, learners can choose to stick to their "line" or "fabricate" while "Keying" (Goffman's terms, chap. 3).

Di Pietro (1975, 1976, 1981) holds the same views as Daden (1975) and Crystal (1981) concerning dialogues in L2 textbooks. For him, dialogues are a distorted version of everyday talk. They are as Kasper (1982) claims, among the causes of the poor performance of learners outside the FL classroom setting. Many scholars (e.g. Hatch, 1978) agree that textbook writers ought to select episodes from "naturally" recorded spoken discourse (particularly conversation) and introduce them to the learners. There is one thing to remember, however, and it is that textbook writers and syllabus designers do not find it easy to include conversations (nor even literary texts) in beginners' FL books. In our opinion textbook writers could construct dialogues without distorting the basic rules of discourse if they tried to understand better the process of communication (see discussion of first year and second year English textbooks used in Tunisia). For advanced learners, they could make more use of "naturally" recorded spoken discourse. This ties in with the kind of role-play Di Pietro recommends.

In conclusion we could say that the communicative approach has to be realistic in its claims. Its advocates have to gain more insight from pragmatics, particularly discourse analysis (II, chap. 3). Littlewood's methodology takes into consideration the limitations of the FL classroom and the problems that L2 acquisition researchers and textbook writers wrestle with. It does not purport to give teachers magic solutions. As it has been shown in this discussion, Littlewood's methodology is practical and could be extended and improved upon. In short, the version given in the present section proposes cautious reforms rather than hasty and unrealistic
changes. As we shall see in chapters five and six below, the review of the textbooks and the analysis of lesson discourses reveals a great need for reform in the teaching of English as a foreign language in Tunisia.

The improved version of Littlewood's methodology, which presupposes a series of textbooks that move progressively from a tendency to focus on form to a tendency to focus on social interactions, is well supported by the recent developments in L2 acquisition studies.

II. The recent developments in L2 acquisition studies

Interlanguage (IL) researchers and theoreticians have become less dogmatic in recent years (see Selinker, 1984). Sharwood Smith (1985) said in the "Preface" to *Applied Linguistics*, Vol. 6, No. 3):

"The reader may well sense a return swing of the pendulum...from a position which would support natural methods without intervention to methods which include a judicious use of focus on form...

Research has made us more and more aware of our ignorance about the black box that seems to play such an important part in controlling the learner, but at the same time it has made us uneasy about facile extrapolations from a small body of evidence which amounts to proclaiming the uselessness of teacher interventions." (p.213)

This section is a continuation of the discussion initiated in chapter two. We introduce here Bialystok's "second language acquisition framework" (Bialystok and Sharwood Smith, 1985, p.104) which claims to take pragmatics into account (ibid, pp.104-7) and not to be "so much a replacement but a reconceptualization that attempts to incorporate the essential issues dealt
with by earlier scholars" (ibid, p.101). So a review of the studies in learning strategies and communication strategies, together with Tarone's IL paradigm is necessary to understand clearly Bialystok's framework.

II.1. Strategies

Selinker's (1972) five processes of L2 learning include (i) language transfer; (ii) transfer of training; (iii) strategies of L2 learning; (iv) strategies of L2 communication and (v) overgeneralization of TL linguistic materials. The attempts to distinguish between processes and strategies have resulted so far in a lot "of confusion rather than clarification" (Foerch and Kasper, 1983b, p.39). The fact that simplification (see II.1.1, below) occurs in at least (i), (iii) and (iv) above, shows the complexity of the problems encountered by L2 acquisition researchers. Corder (1979/1983), who identifies other strategies like perception strategies, advises researchers to focus for the time being on learning and communication strategies and deal with them as if they were separable.

II.1.1. Learning strategies

There is little consensus concerning either the definition or the identification of learning strategies. For the purpose of this chapter we limit ourselves to Ellis's (1985, chap. 7).

According to Ellis there are "social strategies" and "cognitive strategies". Social strategies are used by a learner to practise the L2 with its speakers (joining a group; acting as though he/she was fluent, etc.). Cognitive strategies include "formulaic speech" and "creative speech".

Formulaic speech includes pattern memorization, pattern imitation and pattern analysis. According to Ellis (ibid) Formulaic speech is "slowly unpackaged so that valuable information can be fed into the creative rule system" (p.169), (cf. Krashen in III.1, chap. 2).
Creative speech contains strategies that have to do with "hypothesis formation", strategies that have to do with "hypothesis testing" (2); and strategies that have to do with "automatization".

In hypothesis formation there are "simplification" strategies and "inferencing" strategies.

Simplification strategies are used by the learner to reduce the burden of learning. "Transfer" is an example of simplification: the learner makes use of his/her L1 to hypothesize about the L2 rules. "Overgeneralization" is another example of simplification where the learner extends an IL rule to new IL forms.

Inferencing strategies are used by the learner to induce an IL rule from the input. There is "intralingual inferencing" where the LAD is heavily involved in the analysis of intake (see Krashen, III.1, chap. 2). There is also "extralingual inferencing" where the learner builds up a hypothesis by relying on contextual meaning (see the views of Newmark, Macnamara, and Krashen in III.1.1, chap. 2).

Once the learner has developed a hypothesis he/she tests it out in a variety of ways: "receptively" (compares hypothesis with L2 data); "productively" (makes utterances containing the hypothesized rule(s) to check its correctness in terms of feedback); "metalinguistically" (consults teacher, native speaker, or dictionary); and "interactionally" (elicits a repair from interlocutor).

Automatization is brought about by "practising" (cf. Diagram 1, chap. 3). For Ellis (1985, p.175) there are "Formal practice" and "Functional practice" strategies. In either case the learner tries to consolidate hypotheses about L2 structure and vocabulary by accumulating confirmatory evidence (cf. Adjemian's "permeability in II.1, chap. 2). This is done productively and receptively. Practising, Ellis (ibid) suggests, could follow the continuum of styles (Tarone, below) where talk goes from focus on form (formal practice) to focus on "communicative endeavour" (functional.
practice). This view is in line with the position taken concerning FL lesson discourse (II.1.2, chap. 3, above).

II.1.2. Communication strategies

All speakers and hearers follow strategies, particularly communication strategies. In the field of L2 acquisition studies, communication strategies are thought to differ in some of their aspects from the strategies used by native speakers. It is very difficult to find in the literature an agreement on the definition of communication strategies (see Foerch and Kasper, 1983a, p.36; Tarone, 1983, pp.63-66; Bialystok, 1984, pp.37-45). Perhaps the only criterion for the definition of communication strategies that keeps recurring is problematicity. It arises from the disparity between the speaker's ends and means. This disparity is very manifest when it comes to L2 learners. The following example reflects it clearly:

e.g. 1. (from Cassette No. 2, 4, LMM)

S1: "...For example er I am er as far as er I am er concerned in er in Arabic I am I am not er I never find difficulties and er I speak er with an easily er er without er being shy or and in another lang when I am speaking French for example or English because er it is er a foreign language and it's n new especially English because it's new I er find a difficulty when I am speaking more than when I am writing..."

The description of communication strategies we present here is based on Foerch and Kasper's (1983a , 1983b, 1983c) articles. Reference to other
scholars (e.g. Tarone, 1983; Corder, 1983; Bialystok, 1983a) as well as to some examples from our Tunisian data is made to enrich this discussion.

According to Foerch and Kasper (1983b) there are global goals and local goals in a communicative event;

"The goals consist of actional, modal and propositional elements. The actional element is associated with speech acts, the modal element with the role relationship holding between the interactants, and the propositional element is associated with the content of the communication event." (p.24)

The participant who has a goal assesses the situation and selects the linguistic rules and items he/she knows. This is the planning phase. The planning phase results in a plan which is followed by the execution phase.

When the L2 learner experiences a problem at the planning stage he/she has two alternatives: resort to (1) avoidance behaviour or (2) achievement behaviour. In the former, he/she adopts reduction strategies which are the result of a change of the speaker's initial goal. In the latter he/she adopts achievement strategies which are the result of the speaker developing an alternative plan while keeping the initial goal constant.

At the execution stage the learner may experience "a last minute" problem, and he/she adopts retrieval strategies.

Before we proceed any further, it is worth mentioning that the mental processes involved in communication strategies may not work as rigidly and mechanically as Foerch and Kasper have tried to depict them. As a matter of fact from now on the reader will begin to notice that things are very complex especially when the inevitable step from theory to data analysis is made.

For Foerch and Kasper (ibid) there are formal reduction strategies.
and **Functional reduction** strategies. They are all manifestations of avoidance behaviour.

Formal reduction strategies may occur at the levels of phonology, morphology, syntax, and lexis. The speaker may attempt in some contexts to avoid as far as possible a sound that he/she finds difficult to pronounce; e.g. "route" instead of "rue" to avoid [Ø] for an English learner of French. He/she may avoid a morpheme that is very irregular; e.g. il faut aller" instead of "ill faut que j'aille". He/she may avoid a syntactic rule that requires many transformations; e.g. the passive voice. Finally, the speaker may avoid to use a word whose existence in L2 he/she is not sure of; e.g. "white stuff for correcting words" instead of "liquid paper".

Notice that the speaker does not change his/her initial goal. He/she adopts a reduction strategy that allows him/her to convey the message he/she intended. Notice also that learners cannot avoid the sounds that give them trouble: for example [Ø] and [Ø] are not in the phonological system of the LTAV spoken in Mahdia; they are very frequent in English. Finally, one is not always sure that a particular strategy pertains to avoidance behaviour and not to achievement behaviour (e.g. of "liquid paper", above).

Functional reduction strategies, according to Foerch and Kasper (ibid, p.43), affect the speaker's goal and occur at either the planning phase or the execution phase. But the analyst may find it impossible to assign a particular strategy to one phase or another.

Functional reduction strategies could affect the actional, modal or propositional elements of goal.

e.g. 2 (actional reduction strategy)

Sl: Something is wrong er but you forget the s or
the i and please don't er do it again

(laughter)
S2: According to me er I get use to going to the blackboard and correcting the mistakes by my own.

The two students in this example were asked to imagine (a role-play situation) that their English teacher made a spelling mistake. S1, though in the role of pupil, used language more appropriate to the teacher's role, probably because correcting is an act that teachers perform very often in the classroom. S2 opted out of the role-play, thus acknowledging indirectly that he is not equipped to act verbally and "appropriately" in such a situation (cf. "downkeying", II.1.2, chap. 3, above).

e.g. 3 (modal reduction strategy)

custom officer: Welcome to our country what do you want
visitor : Eh er can you help me, please
custom officer: I am at your disposal

This is another role-playing situation. The students failed to observe the appropriate social distance in this context; "what do you want", "can you help me please".

Functional reduction of the propositional element comprises (i) topic avoidance, (ii) message abandonment and (iii) meaning replacement. Foerch and Kasper (ibid, p.44) and Corder (1978*/1983) think that there is a continuum that goes from topic avoidance to meaning replacement.

Topic avoidance rarely features in learners' performance, but one can infer from the Tunisian learners' keenness to talk about topics that recur a lot in the classroom that there is a strategy of avoiding unfamiliar topics taking place. However, one can also argue that the topics most
discussed by Tunisian learners are very important issues that concern them (e.g. the generation gap and the importance of learning languages). Finally, topic avoidance may not always be due to a disparity between ends and means. There are psychological factors that must not be overlooked by researchers;

e.g. 4 (a student mentioned that she failed her baccalaureat exams)

F.W.: OK. tell us about your exams last year
S : It's difficult to explain what er has happened er (long pause) let me think

Message abandonment is common in Tunisian learners' performance outside the FL classroom;

e.g. 5 (two students who would like to see some improvements on the FL classroom activities)

S1 : Yes I I think that my friend have something to say non [n ɔ̃]
FW : Mhm
S2 : Yes er I wonder why er there isn't any conversation in er this er school in English er about between er the pupils and the er English teacher so for example er we are not er very well at English er that's why when we saw see er some films in TV we don't understand all the words that er (silence)
FW : Yeah because you're not used to spoken English you are always reading books aren't you
S2 : Yes er (long pause) yes after your permission I want to ask you this er now you are er a teacher or
you are er er (silence)

FW : I am doing this I stopped teaching in nineteen eighty eighty one yes nineteen eighty one

S1 : In our school er our teacher helps us to er to improve our lang English languages and most of people can't er speak very well and that's er (silence)

FW : That's what that's all (jokingly)

(everybody laughs).

S1 and S2 did not finish their last sentences on three occasions. An IL researcher would be right to claim that S1 and S2 abandoned their message. But we think that message abandonment needs to be analysed in relation to discourse strategies. S2 complained about the lack of conversation in his English classroom. He conveyed most of his message. The fieldworker was supportive; he responded as though S2 had said all that he wanted to say and agreed with him. Sensing this support, S2 wanted to know whether the Fieldworker was a teacher or something else. The Fieldworker played it safe ("I'm doing this..."). S1 felt that the ground was prepared for him to express his concern about the remoteness of classroom discourse from L2 discourse outside it. After all the Fieldworker was not a teacher any more and thus, he would not take this criticism personally. S1 abandoned his message; he did not want to pass a severe judgement on his teacher and preferred to throw the ball into the fieldworker's court. The latter did not want to commit himself and did not like to appear uncooperative either, so he resorted to joking as a tactic.

From the discussion of example four (4) it is clear that 12 learners can be very skilled discourse participants (see the concept of face in chap. 3). What they need is a bit of coaching in accordance with our suggestions in I.3, above. It is also clear that message abandonment has to be understood within the strategies of discourse.
According to Foerch and Kasper (1983b, p.44) both meaning replacement and semantic avoidance result in a certain vagueness in the speaker's message. But in our view meaning replacement is not always semantic avoidance;

e.g. 6 (the same student S1 in e.g. 5, above)

S1: Please I want to know why you make such interview with us your purpose of this

FW: Well the purpose is to know whether you can express yourselves in English and I think you can so I'm glad to know that

S1: Yes but here I want to say that in fact we learn English here and we have good teachers but I think it's not it's not a lot to improve our English we need to discuss with other people especially who speak English

Notice that S1 was a bit vague "...but it's not a lot to improve our English...". But notice also that earlier S1 had used meaning replacement in an attempt to be as clear as possible "...why you make such interview with us your purpose of this".

Before we move on to achievement strategies, we would like to point out that Foerch and Kasper (ibid, pp. 52-3) were undecided about incorporating the learner's "problems in discourse" (p.45) within their model. Since we have already suggested the introduction of the discourse
analysis —perspective in dealing with "Function reduction strategies", we believe it is appropriate to review here some of the main "problems in discourse" reported in the literature (e.g. Kasper, 1982; Edmondson and House, 1981), but once again we will be giving examples from the Tunisian data that were collected outside the FL classroom setting.

Tunisian learners seem to have some difficulty in realizing moves in opening phases (e.g. 3, above; and e.g.12 below) and in closing phases (e.g. 7-9, below).

e.g. 7 (role-play; asking directions)

stranger : Good morning
local man: Good morning
stranger : Please eh I'm er a stranger here and I want to go er to the cinema er to the cinema can you show me er the way to go to there

Notice that the "stranger" made an overcomplete second move.

e.g. 8 (role-play; son trying to get his parents' permission to go to the cinema)

Mother: Eh yes he he is he has the right to er er to to go to the cinema because he is young and he must find some relief it is not er good to be usually working
Son : Yes mother have er yes mother have has reasons
Father: You go.
In example eight (8) the father's closing move is abrupt. This shows the importance of the father's authority in the Tunisian family; he has, as it were, the final say. The influence of the LTAV is very clear in the son and the father's last moves. The following exchange would be immediately recognizable in LTAV; Son: [ɔrmətɔɾændəlʊdʊ]. Father: [ˌɪdɪˈbɪ].

In other role-play situations which are reminiscent of the dialogues introduced in the second year textbook (see IV.2, chap. 5, below) and where one participant takes the role of an English speaker, students make more effort in attempting to produce closing moves that are not based on LTAV as examples nine (9) and ten (10) below, show;

e.g. 9 (role-play; asking directions)

stranger : Thanks it's very kind of you
local man: Not at all

e.g. 10 (role-play; at the airport)

student : Thanks thanks
custom officer: You're welcome

But of course Tunisian learners do not find it easy to cope with all situations;

e.g. 11 (role-play; a student who has been refused entry to Britain)

custom officer : I'm sorry I can't help you
student : There is no possibility
custom officer : There is no possibility you must have your paper
student : Thank you
From this discussion it seems to be a good idea for textbook writers and teachers to introduce role-play situations (in accordance with our suggestions in 1.3, above) where one participant at least is an L2 speaker and where there is room for the unexpected.

Tunisian learners have some difficulty in introducing new topics;

e.g. 12 (discussing a film that was shown on TV)

Si : You saw the film "Roots" what do you think about it

Sl is very direct in introducing his topic. It is as though he felt he had the right to be so. He does not wait for his mate to tell him whether they saw the film or not. He does not give his opinion about it but instead asks his mates for their opinion. In addition to all this, he makes the "wrong" intonation in the first speech act - "You saw a film Roots". This example is very typical of learners who have practised their FL in teacher-centred classroom settings; (compare 11 with "T: well your father told you to go to the market...what did he want you to do"; from lesson 13 B, app. VI).

Signalling the end of an exchange gives learners some trouble. In the Tunisian FL lesson discourse most of learners' moves are Responds which are sandwiched between the teacher's Initiate and Satisfy moves (see II.1, chap. 6, below).

e.g. 13 (Sl closes the exchange in a rather clumsy way)

Sl : Please I want to know er why er yo you make such er interview...

FW : Well the purpose is to know whether you can express yourselves in English and er I think you can so I'm glad to know that
Tunisian learners tend not to use uptakers, appealers and other gambits in discourse, as many of the examples mentioned above testify. Furthermore, Tunisian learners often fall back onto either French (e.g. 5, above) or LTAV,

\[ \text{e.g. 14 (students trying to put pieces of paper together to reproduce a picture)} \]

S2 : OK but where must we put this
S1 : It's a problem
S3 : [uF] you have spoilt all this (laughter)
S2 : Try to begin [trān]
S1 : These two are
S2 : OK yes (etc.)

[uF] is used in TAV to signal that the hearer is intending to take the floor. It is a sound that indicates that the hearer has become impatient. [trān] is used in this example by the speaker as a cue for turn yielding. It is inviting and encouraging. Uptakers and appealers are automatized items in one's L1, so it is not very surprising that they feature in one's IL, especially when focus is on the message (e.g. 14, 5). Furthermore, as was mentioned in chapter three above, students rarely take the floor without their teacher's approval. So in a sense the classroom environment does not give learners enough chance to practise some aspects of discourse like gambits (see lesson discourse analysis 'in chap. 6 for more detail).
Most of the "problems in discourse" that Tunisian learners encounter are not unique (see the studies conducted on German learners of English by Kasper, 1982 and Edmondson and House, 1981). The lesson discourse and the textbooks used at school seem behind some of the learners' difficulties (e.g. 3, 7, 11, 12, 13 and 14). But as Hatch (1984) and Di Pietro (1975) argue, all learners are very well equipped in their L1 to adopt the most sophisticated discourse strategies. So the "problems in discourse" can be reduced, (see our suggestions in I.3, above). In fact, Tunisian learners have shown on some occasions (e.g. 5, 6) some very remarkable skills.

Let us go back now to Foerch and Kasper (1983b) and review briefly what they call "achievement strategies".

As was said earlier, achievement strategies take place at the planning stage. The following list contains the major categories of achievement strategies.

a - code switching is using an item from one's L1 or other L2 while talking in the TL; e.g. [Χαυ], TAV for "Fear" or [κσςεργυ], French for "tin-Food".

b - interlingual transfer is using an item from one's L1 or other L2 and making it sound as if it were TL; e.g. "the aliment" [αιμαντ] which is based on the French [αμαντ].

Notice that when code-switching Tunisian learners switch to either French or LTAV, but they use only French when it comes to lexical transfer.

c - generalization is a substitution used by the learner to fill in a gap in his/her IL; e.g. of lexical substitution "clothes" for "a shirt".

d - paraphrase is trying to convey one's meaning by using descriptions or circumlocutions;
e.g. 15 (a student telling the FW that he is a stutterer)

S1: Some people are the tongue for example the tongue er is unable to to speak like me er or like someone is it it didn't find the er a long answer and he usually cuts his and er the partner can't understand very well what is said

**e - word-coinage** is resorted to when the learner does not know or does not remember the word or expression used in the TL; e.g. "disposure" for "disposal".

**f - restucturing** strategies occur, according to Foerch and Kasper (1983b) as a result of a problem that the learner experiences at either the planning stage or the execution stage.

e.g. 16 (Teacher restructuring his question)

T: Ah so she wants to be responsible of er she wants to be independent of what

From this example one can reiterate that it is practically impossible to distinguish between restructuring at the planning stage and restructuring at the execution stage. Furthermore, restructuring, like many other communication strategies, could be adopted by native speakers.

e.g. 17 (a student telling the FW a joke)

S1: One day the teacher said to the pupil where's the subject in that that er [1s] (5) the teacher, er said th the thief er st stole the bank the people answer that the sub the subject is er
in th the prison.

Notice that S1 does not start all over again when she realizes that she skipped some vital information. She goes where she left the needed information and proceeds. This kind of restructuring is common among native speakers as well as learners.

g - Cooperative strategies are used by the speaker to draw the hearer's attention to the problem and the latter tries to help.

e.g. 18 (The FW helping S1)

S1: ...Why er I I first have er a request that's
   the teacher don't have er a type er a type er
FW: A tape recorder you mean
S1: A tape recorder and er to let us...
   (etc.)

Tarone (1983a) argues that communication strategies could be studied and classified as they surface in discourse. However, as Foerch and Kasper (1983c) demonstrate, the majority of the problems speakers experience do not show up in discourse. Furthermore, it is rarely the case that a participant comes to the rescue of the other (see e.g. 5, FW's second move; see also the preference for self-repair in III.2.2, chap. 3). Finally, a problem may not be a problem for the speaker and could go unnoticed by the hearer as the following example shows;

e.g. 19 (from lesson discourse L 2 A, app. III)

T: "Many Arab countries export oil"
S1: They're they're oil exporters
T : They're oil exporters [ˌɛksˈpɔːtə]  
S1 : They're oil exporters  
T : Yes they're oil exporters  
: Is Tunisia an oil exporter  
Ss : Yes (6)  
S2 : Yes Tunisia it's an oil exporter  
T : Is an oil  
S2 : Is an oil exporter  
T : Is Libya an oil exporter  
Ss : No  
S3 : No Libya isn't an oil exporter  
T : Libya isn't an oil exporter  
Ss : No no  
S1 : Petrole [pəˈtɾoːl] (French for "crude oil")  
T : That's oil  
S2 : Oil [ˈɔːt] (Tunisian Arabic for "oil" but not crude oil)  
T : Libya is an oil exporter it's a big oil exporter  
.........................  
T : Now Tunisia is an olive oil exporter... and it's an oil exporter too... (etc.)

In the beginning of the above extract both teacher and students were focused on form. They were practising the construction of compound nouns. The experienced teacher rightly suspected that his students confused "oil" with "olive oil". After all Tunisia and many other Arab countries (e.g. Morocco) are exporters of olive oil. The teacher decided to abandon momentarily the exercise in the textbook and to "negotiate" with his students "meaning". So in this example it was the teacher who spotted the problem and drew his students' attention to it. An English native speaker could not have detected the misunderstanding.
non-linguistic strategies are realized by mimes and gestures. They often signal an appeal to the interlocutor. Since our data was audio-taped we are not in a position to supply examples here.

Retrieval strategies are as we said in the beginning of this section "last minute problems". They occur at the execution phase and may be difficult to distinguish from achievement strategies. Pauses, hesitancies and repetitions could be signs of the speaker experiencing a problem. Seliger (1980a, 1980b) has maintained that through the analysis of the learner's performance we could discover his/her strategies. The difficulty that arises from the study of learner's performance is that even L1 speakers hesitate, pause, repeat, etc. So problematicity is not a strong criterion. However, one could claim that L2 speakers experience more problems than L1 speakers (see e.g. 1, above).

In conclusion we could claim that when it comes to the L2 classroom setting most communication strategies may lead to learning. To encourage learners to use achievement strategies might be a good idea but we do not think that it is a convincing argument for abandoning needs analysis in syllabus design as Foerch and Kasper (1983b, pp.55-6) suggest.

"Function reduction strategies" and "problems in discourse" need to be studied from different perspectives. Tunisian learners have shown on more than one occasion that they really need to practise role-playing and other games in situations where they would use English. They seem to be very aware of their problems in discourse and very keen to have more chances of "interacting in the FL". In fact, chapters five, six and seven demonstrate that their concern is not ill-founded. (7)

"Achievement strategies" and "retrieval strategies" seem to be concentrated in Frame (3) "transacting in the FL" of the lesson discourse, particularly in third and fourth year classes. (Examples in a, b, c, e, f are taken from Frame 3 of third and fourth year lessons). This finding
conforms with our claim that lesson discourse could get near to "Primary Frame". But since FL lesson discourse is within the "Keying Frame" learners (and teachers) are not constantly pushed to the limit of their means, and this, in itself, is an incentive for all of them (risk-takers and non-risk-takers) to take part in the learning process. So the classroom, contrary to the error analyst's views (chap. 2, above) has its advantages (see e.g. 19, above).

The fact that many communication strategies are concentrated in Frame (3) leads us to suggest that L2 acquisition studies and FL lesson discourse analysis could benefit more from each other despite their differences. (Incidentally Konigs and Hopkins (1986) hold a similar position).

Finally, the view of FL lesson discourse as a frame-system whose four frames represent a continuum that goes from focus on Form to focus on interaction (see Diagram 1, chap. 3) is not alien to the recent studies in L2 acquisition.

II.2. The IL continuum paradigm

Tarone's (1979, 1983) capability continuum paradigm of IL is adopted from social dialectology. Labov's concern with the observer's paradox (III.2.2, chap. 3) led him to discover that speakers shift their style according to topic and situation. The degree of attention paid to one's own speech reveals a continuum of styles. The two extreme ends are (1) the superordinate style, which tends towards the standard form and (2) the subordinate style, which tends towards the vernacular. Tarone (1983) has shown that there is a variability among L2 learners which ranges from spontaneous speech to careful grammatical judgement, at the levels of syntax, morphology and phonology. German learners of English, she argues, produce correct aspects of negation in the classroom where there is focus on form. In conversation outside the classroom the same learners produce forms of negation which do not belong to either L1 or IL. Tarone maintains
that the spontaneous style (or subordinate style) that occurs in conversation is the most consistent and least permeable form of speech.

Tarone's capability paradigm includes L1 and TL rules. It differs from Adjemian's which excludes L1 and TL rules. The notion of backsliding in Adjemian's paradigm (II.1, chap. 2) is covered by the range of styles in Tarone's. If compared to Krashen's paradigm (III.1, chap. 2), Tarone's looks somewhat more refined; focus on form is a matter of degree and depends on context. But Selinker and Douglas (1985) in their discussion of Tarone's paradigm warn us "...not to assume...that sociolinguistics has inherently in it a psycholinguistic theory" (p.98). This criticism is acceptable to a certain extent. Labov for example did not go beyond Chomsky's (1980, pp.24-8) overall view of competence. All members of a group tend to behave "similarly"; and all groups shift in the same direction when it comes to style (see the study of (th) variable in New York City, Labov, 1970). As Matthews (1979) put it,

"Labov has raised real problems of the individual and the community. For that we are indebted. But we will not solve them by 'strengthening' or 'enlarging' Chomsky's notion of the speaker's competence." (pp.50-51)

So Tarone's paradigm which is adopted from Labov's work has got Chomsky's theory underpinning it.

As we mentioned earlier (II, above) Bialystok's "second language acquisition Framework" has evolved from the findings and the problems in L2 acquisition studies and pragmatics. Thus, it is important to have a close look at it.
II.3. Bialystok's "Second language acquisition Framework"

The early versions of the "second language acquisition Framework" were similar to the views put forward by Krashen in the "Monitor Model" (see chap. 2, above). But while Krashen has not been willing to "rescue [his ideas] from their incoherence" (Gregg, 1986, p.121), Bialystok (1981, 1983a, 1983b, 1984, 1985) has kept on refining her framework.

In this section we concentrate mainly on Bialystok's late version of the "second language acquisition Framework". We also consider its contribution to the study of IL and the possibility of its use in the discussion of the FL classroom discourse.

Bialystok (1983a, 1983b, 1984, 1985) thinks that IL studies need to make a step from the description of the learner's strategies (II.1.1, II.1.2, above) to making hypotheses about the mechanisms involved in language acquisition and language use. Unlike the Chomskyans, Bialystok gives a lot of importance to the role of the environment or external factors in the processes of acquisition and use of language. (Notice the influence of social psychology, III.1.1, chap. 2, above).

According to Bialystok there are two components which are responsible for language acquisition and use. They are (1) knowledge and (2) control. Knowledge is both linguistic and pragmatic (Bialystok and Sharwood Smith, 1985, pp.104-5). Pragmatic knowledge is very similar to Habermas's view (II.1, chap. 3, above). Knowledge varies along a continuum of lesser to greater analysis or explicitness. Explicit knowledge, Bialystok (1981, pp.33-40) argues, must not be equated with "articulate knowledge" which is the speciality of linguists (cf. Krashen's Monitor). In an Ll grammaticality judgement test, Bialystok (ibid) reports that informants tend to make use of their implicit/unanalysed knowledge when asked to give their first impression. However, if given time to reflect, informants tend to resort to their explicit knowledge. They try to explain why they think "there is something wrong" and show confidence in doing so (ibid, p.34).
Odlin (1986) suggests that grammaticality judgement tests may bring about misleading results since the communication value of form in discourse is not taken into account. He shows in a series of examples taken from psycholinguistic and ethnomethodological studies that explicit knowledge develops "concomitantly with cognitive development" (p.131) and is concerned with the very "salient aspects of discourse" (p.134). Saliency is determined by the social function of discourse in the community. Odlin (ibid) thinks that in a literate society knowledge of form tends to be analysed/explicit; it has the function of facilitating "social advancement (which is) one measure of a person's communicative competence" (p.134). So it is possible, we think, to suggest that Bialystok's grammaticality judgement test is fairly reliable since it was conducted in a literate society.

According to Bialystok (1985) the degree of emphasis on the explicitness or implicitness of one's knowledge of the language depends on the task pursued. In transactional discourse (II, chap. 3) one may be inclined to call on one's analysed knowledge, while in interactional discourse (chap. 3) one may call on one's unanalysed/implicit knowledge of the language.

The ability to retrieve one's knowledge of the language is called control. It involves

"(1) Knowing the procedure for retrieving information
and (2) the speed and efficiency with which the
retrieval procedure may be put into operation."

(Bialystok and Sharwood Smith, 1985, p.105)

Depending on the task at hand the speaker may use "a lot of control" or "little control". The amount of cognitive control used is reflected in
what is called the degree of "automaticity" or "fluency" (Bialystok and Sharwood Smith, 1985, p.109). For instance in conversation which is predominantly interactional (see II, chap. 3) and in which participants are most likely to call for their unanalysed/implicit knowledge of the language, one can claim, as Bialystok does, that there is little control involved and therefore speech is highly automatic.

The development of the ability to analyse knowledge and to make use of an advanced level of control is closely related with the child's cognitive development (see Piaget's theory in chap. 2). Schooling helps the child achieve an advanced level of control particularly. It promotes in him/her "the ability to focus deliberately on relevant aspects of a problem and not to be misled by distracting alternatives" (Bialystok, 1985, p.257); (cf. the notion of "breaking Frame" in II.1.2, chap. 3 and II, chap. 6). As far as language is concerned the child and the L2 learner in general may have to suspend meaning "to allow for structural examination of the language forms...The ability to select the structural...information...is a function of cognitive control..." (ibid, p.257).

Bialystok's Framework is very important for a better understanding of IL and FL lesson discourse.

(i) Children acquire language in an unanalysed way and make use of little control (cf. Hatch, chap. 2).

(ii) Adults are capable of making different degrees of analysis and relying on different levels of control in the acquisition of an L2.

(iii) Analysed knowledge could become unanalysed and vice versa (cf. Krashen, chap. 2).

(iv) An analysed knowledge of L2 may not be very handy in conversation - too many hesitancies, pauses, etc.
(v) IL variability is diachronic (over time) and shows the learner's cognitive progress towards the TL. IL variability is also synchronic (at a particular time); it is affected by (a) the task at hand and (b) the degree of analysis of knowledge and the level of control involved. So there is variability across styles (Tarone, II.2, above) and variability within styles (Bialystok and Sharwood Smith, 1985, p.113).

(vi) The process of language production is the same whether there is a problem or not. Bialystok and Sharwood Smith (ibid) distinguish between (a) knowledge-based strategies (e.g. word-coinage, circumlocution) and control based strategies (e.g. inclusion of L1 items, gestures). They think that there is no need to talk about learning strategies and communication strategies as if they were separable.

(vii) A particular methodology adopted in teaching may tend to promote an analysed knowledge (e.g. cognitive method) or an unanalysed knowledge (e.g. the Natural Approach) among L2 learners. It may also tend to promote a high level of control (e.g. the audiolingual method) or little control (e.g. the Natural Approach); (see Bialystok, 1985, pp.258-9).

(viii) Aside from the difference in competence between the teacher and the students, the task at hand may induce all participants to call on a particular level of control and degree of analysis (see Bialystok's suggestions concerning our four Frames in lesson discourse, chap. 6, below).

Conclusion

For Bialystok all degrees of analysis of knowledge and all levels of control are important for language acquisition. However, particular tasks tend to promote particular abilities. So Bialystok's Framework does not
reject a methodology that is realistic about "the limitations" of the FL classroom (see section I, above) and that progresses from a tendency to focus on form to a tendency to focus on what Littlewood calls "Social interaction activities".

Tunisian learners of English appear to have a limited knowledge and a lot of control of their TL form. They are very concerned about their problems in using English in other tasks. As we shall see in detail in chapter six, below, this situation is a result of the kind of discourse that goes on during the lesson.
NOTES TO CHAPTER FOUR

1 TPR; Total Physical Response.
2 Notice the influence of Chomskyan theory, I.1, chap. 2.
3 LTAV; Local Tunisian Arabic Variety, see I, chap. 5, below.
4 Phase is defined in chapter three, section IV, above.
5 "No" in LTAV.
6 Ss is used for students talking at the same time. S1, S2 and S3 are used to refer to individual students. " " inverted commas are used when sentences are read from the textbook. Phonetic transcription is given when the speaker mispronounces a word or corrects a mispronunciation.
7 Moves in frame (4) "Interacting in the FL" have got the lowest frequency in all lessons we analysed, chaps. 6, 7, below.
8 cf. Adjemian's "backsliding" and "permeability", II.1, chap. 2, above.
9 Bialystok, 1986, personal correspondence.
CHAPTER FIVE
GENERAL BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY OF ENGLISH LESSON DISCOURSE
IN TUNISIAN SCHOOLS

Introduction

Before delving into the analysis proper of lesson discourse (chap. 6, below), it is necessary to present the reader with some background information on the Tunisian linguistic community, the educational system, and the English textbooks used in secondary schools. We believe that this information is important for the reader to understand many of our comments on FL lesson discourse in Tunisian secondary schools.

I. The Tunisian linguistic community

The description we are making here of the Tunisian linguistic community is brief and general. It does, nonetheless, introduce the reader to a community that has not been well studied before and illustrate the point that early ethnographers (e.g. Hymes, 1972a) have made concerning the complexity of linguistic communities. In addition, the following description gives the reader an idea about the setting in which we have carried out our study.

In Tunisia there are two main languages which are Arabic and French.

1 - Arabic

Arabic comprises:

(i) "Classical Arabic". It is not exactly the language of the Koran and differs from the varieties of the "Classical Arabic" spoken in the Middle East. The differences are not structural but tend to be phonetic/phonological and lexical.
(ii) "Tunisian Arabic variety" (TAV). This term is used here to cover all the local varieties, (LTAV will be used when we are specific about a local variety). TAV differs markedly from "Classical Arabic" but cannot be considered as a language in its own right, since it does not conform to the criteria set by Hudson (1981), particularly selection and codification.

2 - "French"

"French" tends to be similar to standard French in many of its aspects. There are however, a few structural differences, and intonation is very much influenced by TAV.

People can be classified loosely into two major categories according to their use of language. Which language(s) they speak is determined by their age, social class, geographical origin, level of education, sex, etc., (see Stevens, 1974, p.95). The two major categories are:

A - Monolinguals. All monolinguals speak TAV. They tend to be old (40 years or more) working class (usually peasants) from the South and West of the country, and illiterate. It is necessary to point out that the number of monolingual women is greater than that of men because of the tighter restrictions on women in the past.

B - "Trilinguals". Because we have bilingualism and diglossia at the same time, we cannot think of a better term than trilingualism. Trilinguals speak TAV, "Classical Arabic" and "French". They tend to be younger than most monolinguals (from 17 to 40), town dwellers, and well educated. Women are much more inclined than men to use the prestigious Parisian accent of French (e.g. [R] instead of [r]) and to speak French among themselves and to trilingual men who would be more inclined to use their TAV in informal settings (Bentahila's 1983 study of Moroccan bilinguals indicated the same phenomenon).
Trilinguals do not speak each language fluently in all contexts. Some people are better than others in using one code than another, depending on their occupation, level of education, etc. Trilinguals shift from one code to the other according to their interlocutors, topic of discourse, etc. (see Stevens, 1974, pp.104-89). They could be said to have a differential competence (Hymes, 1979, p.9).

TAV is used at home. In Tunisia children stay with their parents even after they are married. Young couples usually live with the husband's parents at least for a couple of years. TAV is very well maintained. It is the variety that everyone acquires before he/she goes to school. The strong hold for monolinguals, particularly fathers, is home where they exercise full power (cf. our comments on e.g. 8, chap. 4, above).

TAV is used in the café, the town hall, the post office, etc. This has always been the case even during the French rule. Tunisians were employed at the lower scales of the administrative hierarchy to cope with their illiterate fellow countrymen. TAV has always been a sign of friendliness, respect for the old customs, continuity with the past, and communion.

"Classical Arabic" is most often used in informal settings. It is associated with learned political and religious discussions. It is a means of persuasion. It dominates the media and has a paradoxical effect on TAV monolinguals: on one hand, they are virtually excluded from the issues that concern them most, and, on the other, they acquire a lot of jargon by listening to the radio or by watching TV.

"French" tends to be used by top scale administrators and specialists (e.g. chemists, doctors, etc.) who strongly identify themselves with the middle class. They speak French among themselves usually in formal settings; especially when they discuss serious matters related to their occupations. They are the elite that has replaced the French specialists and top administrators working in Tunisia even after independence. They are the
same elite that has inherited some of the unpopularity of the colonists. This unpopularity among the working class (and peasant) illiterate monolinguals still persists. However, the sociolinguistic barrier between the two groups is diminishing very slowly.

In a town like Mahdia where our research was carried out, tea, coffee and soft drinks are served at the same price in all cafes. However, a working class monolingual would be unwilling to go to a cafe where middle class trilinguals usually sit. In Tunis, the capital, and two other large cities (Sousse and Sfax) "emancipated" women would sit with middle class men in the most expensive cafes. Monolingual women never go to cafes or cinemas. They go out for work and they go out for shopping as well.

It can be said that in Tunisia, there are three co-existent codes deeply rooted in the culture of the country and associated each with special activities. Code switching among trilinguals is a common aspect of their verbal behaviour. On the whole, we have a very complex linguistic community. It is not heterogeneous, though: everybody speaks TAV even the very tiny minorities (Berber speakers who are less than 1%, French speakers who do not speak "Classical Arabic" and "Classical Arabic" speakers who do not speak French). As Stevens (1974, p.3) pointed out the Tunisian linguistic community cannot be compared to the heterogeneous communities of India or Nigeria, for instance. These communities use a lingua-Franca to overcome the problem of heterogeneity. Tunisians, as we shall see below, speak French because they feel it is needed for many activities and because it is an important means to maintain a reasonable contact with the West.

II. Tunisia: a Westernized Arab country

Throughout its whole history, Tunisia has always been open to both West and East. If we look back at the history of North Africa and particularly Tunisia, we notice that the following languages and cultures - Berber, Punic, Latin, Arabic and French - have succeeded each other and
often coexisted with one another. The influence of other languages and cultures such as Spanish, Hebrew, Italian, and Turkish is due to short invasions, immigrations, and political domination.

Unlike its neighbours, Tunisia, since 1957, has been heading "willingly" towards Westernization (see Bourhis, 1982, pp.44-5, see also Stevens, 1974, p.330). Most of the political leaders, if not all of them, studied in France and speak French as fluently as "Classical Arabic" and TAV. (Calvet, 1974). The "émancipation de la femme" and the introduction of "universal education" (Stevens, 1974) have given the chance to everybody in Tunisia to learn French and Classical Arabic; hence the large number of trilinguals today and the strong influence of Western culture in Tunisia. Ghariani (1985) says:

"Il se trouve que, paradoxalement, à aucun moment de son histoire, notre pays, n'a, autant "consommé" les valeurs de l'Occident qu'à l'époque de son indépendance."

Language and culture are inseparable. Tunisians are aware of this. Thus, they feel that they should be very cautious in adopting Western values;

"User de la langue de l'autre, c'est plonger dans l'immédiateté de la pensée de l'autre, or la pensée est contagieuse et l'acculturation inévitable à qui se hasarde un peu loin de son univers culturel"

(ibid)

The attitudes of Tunisians towards the West and the Arab world are best illustrated by their attitudes towards French and Arabic. They believe
that Classical Arabic lacks the vitality that French has. It is a language of a glorious past but cannot cope with the realities of the twentieth century. It is also a language that makes them identify with the Arab culture. French on the other hand, is the language of science and technology and cannot be replaced by Classical Arabic.

"The fact that Arabic is not used as the language of science and technology in Tunisia leads Tunisians to feel that it cannot be used and total Arabization, or even significantly greater Arabization, is not attainable... The very capability of Arabic serving as a vehicle for modern expression is open to serious question in the minds of Tunisians."

(Stevens, 1974, pp.328-9)

Tunisians have never felt that they are French or Europeans. But compared with other Arabs, they are very open to Western values and Western technological progress;

"Le développement des moyens de communication, de l'audiovisuel, catalysent le contact des cultures pour réaliser la culture "de la science" qui... serait peut être la culture uniforme de l'an 2000... la vraie culture est d'abord épanouissement et équilibre sans oublier que la culture n'est pas une mais plurielle n'est pas imitation simiesque, mais adaptation, n'est pas consommation passive... mais attitude critique et responsable."

(Ghariani, 1985, p.6)

This positive attitude towards the West is also reflected in the
attitude towards learning and using French in spoken discourse (particularly conversation);

"There is no resentment toward learning French or toward using it in scientific discussions, but there is resentment towards using it too well, towards using it expressly to assert status, towards using it to excess." (Stevens, 1974, p.329)

Notice that using French elegantly (see Ghariani's style) in the written form as opposed to the spoken form is very well praised. We suggest that this has been made possible because monolinguals do not feel "offended".

While French represents progress, modernization, and efficiency, Classical Arabic represents authenticity. While French and Classical Arabic enjoy an overt prestige, TAV, which developed mainly from Classical Arabic, enjoys a covert prestige. Because Tunisians think that TAV is of low status, they allow themselves to borrow new words and expressions mainly from French and Classical Arabic. In a sense, TAV is getting richer and richer, and we believe that it needs more attention from linguists. TAV is very important for Tunisians. It is spoken by all the population. It also eases the psychological tension that most trilinguals experience. They feel when they speak TAV that, after all, they are Tunisians.

Tunisians have succeeded, so far, in maintaining "the balance" and will probably continue to do so. Arabic language and culture will continue to coexist with Western culture and French language. Few Tunisians and many visitors think that it is a contradictory situation, but most Tunisians accept it and see in it a privilege.

From the seventies, we notice a very slow but steady shift towards the whole West and the United States. France's influence has been
Table 5.1: Quotas of First year students of languages required to register at the University of Tunis for the academic year 1983-4.

Total number of new First year students: 1830

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FACULTE DE LETRES</th>
<th>Arabic</th>
<th>300 First year students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>English</td>
<td>170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>French</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Italian</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>German</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| BOURGUIBA SCHOOL OF MODERN LANGUAGES | 200 |

Figures published by the daily "Essabah", April 2nd, 1983.
maintained. Many Arab countries have also been invited to invest in Tunisia. This situation is due to the "re-establishment" of "capitalism" and the encouragement of foreign investment in Tunisian industry, tourism, trade and agriculture (see Field, 1984).

Because of the strong cooperation between the West and Tunisia and the Arab world and Tunisia (notice that Tunisians cannot conduct business matters easily in Arabic), and because of the multi-international trade relations as well as the rapid development of tourism which is now the second source of national income, Tunisia has developed a need for a third international language, which is English.

III. The educational system and the importance of English

Because the majority of the members of the Tunisian community have a positive attitude towards learning languages, one can say that Tunisian learners of English are well motivated. At the official level there is a high interest in promoting English language. The figures in Table 1 above are very significant. Notice that the number of First year English students is higher than the number of First year French students. Notice also that "Bourguiba School of Modern Languages" concentrates mainly on English and translation. Therefore, if we add the number of first year English students to that of "Bourguiba School" students (170 + 200) we obtain 370, a figure that is higher than that of First year Arabic students (300).

There is a long term strategy to reinforce the learning of English in Tunisia. Most "Facultés" and "Instituts Superieurs" require from their new applicants who are holders of the equivalent of the "A" levels ("bacheliers"), a good knowledge of English. In addition to this, a secondary comprehensive school where all subjects are taught in English opened in September, 1983, in Ariana, Tunis. It is hoped that this pilot project will prepare a new generation of students who will be sent to the English speaking-world and particularly the U.S.A. where they can learn about high technology.
According to Hemissi (1984, p.171):

(1) Tunisia wants to catch up with the developed countries. America is today the centre of technology and more and more Tunisian students will be sent there.

(2) French is no longer thought to be a major scientific language... Tunisian researchers need English to be able to attend international seminars.

This very positive environment is not sufficient for learners to attain a high level in English. One has to study the quality of teaching; and we believe that an analysis of lesson discourse is necessary to assess the standard of our learners. All the money spent on promoting English language in Tunisia may be wasted if the quality of teaching is not satisfactory, (see our findings in chap 6, 7).

III.1. General characteristics of the educational system, with special reference to FL teaching

After a minimum of six years and a maximum of nine (due to failures; "redoublement") in the primary school, a student, if he/she passes his/her "examen d'entrée en première année de l'enseignement secondaire", is given the chance to carry on his/her studies. If he/she has completed his/her primary education in only six or seven years, he/she will be admitted to the first year of "l'enseignement secondaire long". A student who has taken more than seven years to finish his/her primary school education will be given access to the first year of "l'enseignement secondaire moyen". This category of students is taught basically manual skills. After a minimum of
three years and a maximum of four, a successful student will get "un diplôme de fin d'études".

A student who is admitted to the first year of "l'enseignement secondaire long" is supposed to study for a minimum of seven years without any failures ("redoublement") and a maximum of nine. The seven years of studies are divided into two "cycles": "premier cycle" and "deuxième cycle". Any student who fails ("redouble") twice in either cycle loses automatically his/her right to study. The "premier cycle" is three years long. Students are taught Arabic, French, Geography, History, Civic and Religious Education, Physical Education, Maths, Biology, Artistic Drawing, Music, Geometry, and Technical Drawing. The latter is taught in the third year only.

According to his/her third year results, and in the light of his/her preferences and expectations as well as those of his/her parents, a student can join one of the following main specialities ("branches"):

(i) "Section Maths-Sciences" (M.Sc.)

(ii) "Section Maths-Techniques" (M.Tech.)

(iii) "Section Lettres" (Arts)

Deuxième cycle students do almost the same subjects: Maths, Physics, Chemistry, Biology, Arabic, French, English, Civic and Religious Education, History, Geography and Physical Education. A few schools in the capital (Tunis) and two other large cities (Sfax and Sousse) offer their students a choice between English, Spanish, Italian, and German. Philosophy is taught to the seventh forms (correspond to the Upper Sixth forms) only, and it includes an initiation to Ancient Philosophy, the Enlightenment, Epistemology, Sociology and Psychology.
The emphasis on each speciality is manifest in the content of the syllabuses, the number of lessons per week, and the coefficients in the exams, particularly those of the "baccalaureat" (correspond to the "A" level exams).

Students who pass their "baccalaureat" exams are accepted at universities and "Instituts Superieurs" after a careful study of their results and their choices, on the one hand, and the quotas based on the needs of the country, on the other hand.

At the university level as well as the secondary school level most scientific and technical subjects are taught in French. English is taught to widen the scope of the students and give them a direct access to the research published in English. "La Campagne d'Arabisation" (Arabization Campaign) launched by the authorities and half-heartedly supported by the elite who are not in power, has achieved a very limited success. The only subjects to be taught totally or partially in Arabic, are Philosophy, History, Geography, and Law.

French is still a second language in Tunisia. It is taught in primary schools at a later stage than Arabic, though. It is competing with Classical Arabic and local varieties (LTAVs) at most levels; business, education, administration, media, and, sometimes, everyday conversation.

English is a foreign language in Tunisia, but enjoys numerous privileges. Unlike French, it is not directly associated with the colonialism in Tunisia. Its importance as an international language gives it an extra guarantee for further promotion which can be reached mainly at the expense of French (cf. Table 1 and subsequent discussion, above). Tourism provides a chance for many learners to assess their progress and in some cases to find a job in a local hotel, an international travel agency, or an American plant. Therefore, we can claim that there are opportunities to use English in Tunisia.
As we have seen, English is taught in "Lycées de l'enseignement secondaire long" to "deuxième cycle" students whose ages range from fifteen to twenty-one years. Table 2 shows the number of English lessons per week for students of every speciality;

**TABLE 5.2.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levels</th>
<th>No. of lessons</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st year Arts</td>
<td>4* per week</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st year M.Sc. + M. Tech.</td>
<td>4 &quot; &quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd year Arts</td>
<td>4 &quot; &quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd year M.Sc. + M. Tech.</td>
<td>4 &quot; &quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd year Arts</td>
<td>4 &quot; &quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd year M.Sc. + M. Tech.</td>
<td>4 &quot; &quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4th year Arts</td>
<td>3 &quot; &quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4th year M.Sc. + M. Tech.</td>
<td>2 &quot; &quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Includes one lesson taught to each half class.

The official duration of a lesson is sixty minutes. The number of students in a class varies from sixteen to thirty-five. Because of the nature of the system - requirement to repeat the same year ("redoublements") and dismissals from schools ("renvoies"); (III.1, above) - the number of students decreases as they make progress towards higher education. This is one of the reasons why the education authorities have divided only first year Arts students (4ème Année Lettres) into two groups for one lesson per week (see Table 2, above). There is no mention as to how this lesson must be carried out by teachers (see Programmes Officiels de l'Enseignement Secondaire, 1979; henceforth POES) and that is why it is often planned and taught like any other whole class lesson.
But before describing the English lesson in Tunisian schools, it is necessary to give the reader an idea about the approaches adopted in designing the textbooks in use.

IV. General characteristics and tendencies of the textbooks

IV.1. The First Year textbook

The first year textbook, English For Modern Life, Level One, (1976), tends to be situational/grammatical. The situation is not an end in itself; it is a means to present the graded vocabulary (see III.2.1, chap. 1, above) in a context. Ritchie (1967) recommended such technique and claimed that it was the best way to compensate for the little work done on semantics and, particularly lexical semantics in theoretical linguistics. Though we often have unit titles like "In Tunis"; "Breakfast with the Shedly Family"; and "At the shops", there are units entitled "Whose was what" and "The Future". Syntax which Ritchie called the nucleus of the unit, represents the backbone of the book and that of the lesson as we will see in IV.2, below.

IV.2. The second year textbook

The second year textbook, English For Modern Life, Level Two, (1977), though grammar orientated, focuses on many notional/functional features (see I.2, chap. 4, above) in some of its units, particularly dialogues. This can be illustrated by the following extract from Unit Four (p.82);

e.g. 1. (A foreigner, presumably living in London, is trying to help a visitor finding his way)

Stranger: Well, in that case, to get to Piccadilly Circus you should take the underground
Visitor : Where's the nearest station, please?
Is it far?

Stranger: It shouldn't be far. According to this plan, it should be round the corner.

Victoria. You take the third street on the right to get there.(etc.)

In this dialogue illustrating the function of giving directions (cf. Wilkins, 1976, p.47), there is an occurrence of "should" (stranger's first move) to indicate the act of instructing. The notion of modality (Wilkins, ibid, p.38) is realized by the stranger's uses of "should" in his second move to indicate what Wilkins calls "impersonalized probability" (ibid, p.39).

Notice that because of the notional tendency in the second year textbook, vocabulary is not as strictly graded as is the case with the first year textbook (see III.2.2, chap. 1).

IV.3. The Third year textbook

The third year textbook, English for Modern Life, Level Three (1977), is on the face of it topic based. Topics are represented in units by texts and dialogues. They deal with issues in Britain, the United States, and Tunisia, and at the same time attempt to give the learner an idea about a culture which, in some of its aspects, is different from his/her own (e.g. "Family Life"; "Drug Addiction", etc.). Dialogues and texts are constructed or adapted in order to introduce or consolidate some notions and (or) grammatical structures (see discussion of e.g. 6 below). So from this point of view the third year textbook tends to be an extension of the second year textbook (IV.2, above).

IV.4. The Fourth year textbook

The fourth year textbook Aspects of Contemporary Life (1979) was
published by a team of Tunisian teachers. In the PREFACE to the book they state that

"...whereas books I, II, and III were written as a Progressive series with a variety of material and a pedagogical apparatus, book IV [is] basically an anthology of reading texts...

"Aspects of Contemporary Life" is divided into 10 sections dealing with themes that cover the requirements of the programme. Particular attention has been paid to all aspects of the language..." (p.3)

In fact many of the themes in the fourth year textbook have been introduced in the third year textbook. Most of the texts presented in Aspects of Contemporary Life are extracts from novels (e.g. "A proposal" by James Cary; pp.8-10), poems (e.g. "Negro" by Langston Hughes, p.109) or articles (e.g. "Suicide" by Rachel Field, pp.154-6).

V. The Components of a unit in the textbook

The unit or chapter tends to include a variety of "choices" from which the teacher (and the student) makes his/her selection: grammar, texts, dialogues, exercises, vocabulary, pronunciation, jokes and passages for home reading. The latter are found in the second and third year books. They are not expected to be studied in the classroom, and that's because they do not constitute the core of the unit (see VI.2, below). Most reading passages are adapted and have little to do with the topic of the unit. Some of these reading passages are meant to be for science students (e.g. "Reading Passage (Sciences): LENSES", pp.119-23, in third year textbook).

A unit is usually studied in more than one lesson.
VI. The lesson

Although there are slight differences between the way lessons are conducted, we believe (see our comment on data collection, I, chap. 6, below) that there is a common pattern which is due to the organisation of the components of the unit, the proposed "technique de la classe" in the POES (from 1979) and the recommendations of English inspectors.

VI.1. The "Standard pattern" of an English lesson

The following stages are likely to be followed in an English lesson:

(1) Review of the main points dealt with in the previous lesson.

(2) Introduction and practice of a grammatical point(s) often "useful" to understand the text/dialogue.

(3) Introduction and practice of "the new vocabulary items" which are or can be "useful" to understand the text/dialogue.

(4) Study of text/dialogue.

A  a - a listen and repeat exercise of dialogue (while looking at a series of pictures; First year only)

b - listening to a taped text/dialogue
silent/loud reading of a text/dialogue

B Questions to lead the learners to comprehend the text/dialogue or to check their comprehension.

(5) A guided discussion whose topic is similar to or stems from that of the text/dialogue and is of "interest" to the learners.
(6) A pronunciation exercise which is based on the vocabulary already introduced. It is usually "a written-spoken" exercise which includes phonetic description.

Note that the order in which the lesson stages are presented may not be totally respected by the teacher. Not all stages occur in all lessons. Therefore, there are stages that tend to be followed more often than others, depending on the levels of the learners and the main aim sought by the teacher who is very much conditioned by the textbook approach. The same remark could be made about the length of the stages. For example, a first year lesson tends to have relatively more time devoted to the grammar stage than a second year does, (compare the frequency of moves in Frame(1) "Saying the Linguistic Form of the FL" in all lessons; chap. 7, below).

VI.2. The core of the unit

As is clear from the list of possible stages in an English lesson in Tunisian secondary schools, the text/dialogue represents the core of the unit in the textbook. A study of the core is crucial to understand the structure of the textbooks and that of the course.

For a first year textbook a dialogue or text includes the major grammatical points and most of the lexical items to be taught. "The coherence" of the dialogue (or text) depends heavily on its imagined situation;

e.g. 3. "Saturday evening. In the cinema.

9 - Munsif: Can you see the pictures clearly?
10 - John : Yes, I can
11 - Munsif: Can you understand the words?
12 - John : No, I can't understand them at all
13 - Is that man a Tunisian?
If we ignore the title above, we are left with a collection of pictures which corresponds to a collection of sentences. A title like "In the cinema" would suggest for instance a conversation about a film to be shown or an interaction between a spectator and a ticket-seller, but hardly "a conversation" during a show between two viewers one of whom does not even speak the language of the film. One wonders how many English tourists go to Tunisian cinemas. It seems to us that the above dialogue is strange to say the least. Moreover, a question like "Can you see the pictures clearly?" (presumably, both can see the film) and an obvious "Yes, I can" - answer go against Grice's most important maxim; "Relation" (see discussion in I.2.2, chap. 3, above).

Fabricated dialogues can be justified to a certain extent by the assumed language (langue/form) teaching/learning purposes. The major concern for a textbook writer for beginners is what needs to be taught from the TL form, (see the dilemma of the supporters of the communicative approach, I.3, chap. 4).

The total focus on form in the first year textbook is further illustrated by the abundance of grammatical exercises which dominate the Unit and the lesson discourse (e.g. lesson L1 B, app. II in particular).

e.g. 4. (the following exercises are in the same unit as the dialogue in e.g. 3, above)

I - Answer with "Yes" and a short answer

In the second year textbook the number of dialogues is smaller than that of the first year textbook. The emphasis on the structure of the L2 decreases throughout the book. Texts which increase in number and length at the expense of dialogues become less and less fabricated (there is a progress towards adapted texts) as the learner's stock of vocabulary and basic structures are assumed to have increased. Gradation is abandoned gradually throughout the book but tends to persist in dialogues (compare "Shopping in London", pp.58-60) and "The Problems of Ireland", pp.342-43) which are fabricated to introduce the structural topic to be treated in each unit. The following extract will give the reader an idea of what we are talking about.

e.g. 5. (from "Shopping in London" pp.58-60, unit III)

"Samira: Oh look at those skirts. The colours are lovely, aren't they? (3)

Munya : Yes, and they're not very expensive, are they?
Samira: How do you like that one in the corner? It's very attractive, isn't it?
Munya: You mean the green one with the black check? But
it isn't my size, is it?

Samira: Not for you, for me, I mean. It would look nice
with my new blouse, wouldn't it?

(etc.)"

Notice that the dialogue goes on and on to cover the positive and
negative tags in the present tense, the present perfect, the past, and with
the modals. In conversation, or indeed any spoken discourse, tags have a
lot to do with face to face interaction and do not occur in each move – a
tag is an "appealer" and is optional, (IV, chap. 3). Furthermore, turn
taking and turn yielding do not occur at each tag or at the end of each
sentence (cf. III.2.2, chap. 3). The emphasis on usage rather than use can
further be illustrated by the tables and exercises immediately following
the above mentioned dialogue:

e.g. 6. (A structural exercise, p.62; cf. e.g. 4, above)

H - Add a tag

1. It isn't the most expensive,  
   It isn't the most expensive, is it?
2. She isn't buying this one,  
   (etc.)"

To present the learner with a dialogue where all the usages of a
structural point are given and then to ask him/her to practise that
structural point in a series of sentences is not sufficient to lead the
learner to the development of communicative competence. So it is not
surprising to know that Tunisian learners have many "problems in discourse"
and are aware of that (II.1.2, chap. 4, above).
Finally, we would like to mention the importance given to the British way of life in the texts, dialogues, and pictures. This is meant to compensate for the teacher's lack of knowledge. But because of the existence of a structural topic in each unit and the recurrence of its components in the dialogue, teachers tend to devote the minimum of their effort to the cultural aspects. There can be three main reasons for this. First, a teacher has to stick to the official "Directives Générales" in which we quote:

"L'acquisition des structures du language sera la preoccupation première...Les structures phonétiques, lexicales, et grammaticales nouvelles doivent faire constamment l'object d'un réemploi afin d'atteindre le plus haut degré d'automatisme conduisant à l'expression spontanée correcte...Dans l'étude des textes, il convient de limiter à l'essentiel les explications biographiques ou historiques éventuelles. Les connaissances de civilisation ou de littérature decoulent du texte lui même." (POES, 1979, p.3)

Second, an English teacher "is" a language (form) teacher (cf. chap. 1); and his/her knowledge about the British or American culture is sometimes limited. Third, the student's competence (interlanguage) is almost purely linguistic (see e.g. 3-6, above; see also the analysis of the first and second year lesson discourses, chaps. 6,7 below), therefore it is easier for both teacher and students to keep concentrating on what they are most familiar with, than to venture in a domain which makes either side insecure.

If we now look at the core of the third year unit (chapter), we notice the following: the number of dialogues is reduced; i.e. many a unit
has not got a dialogue in it. Only when a grammatical point is best illustrated (e.g. direct speech in "Interviewing a visitor", p.12) or when the context requires it (e.g. "Making a phone call", pp.49-50), does a dialogue occur. Texts tend to be more frequent and longer.

6. (extract from text "Pop Music", p.94)

“When Ken Stacey was thirteen years old he was given a record player by his father. Every Saturday he was given some pocket money, and he used to save it until he had enough money for a record. Then he would spend all day choosing a record...

Ken's father got angry with him. He asked Ken why he wasted all his money on "stupid records". Ken told him that the music made him feel happy. Then his father wanted to know why Ken didn't help in the house, instead of lying on his bed all day listening to records. Ken said he just wanted to be left alone. So his father got angrier and angrier...

"You're lazy. You do nothing but listen to those stupid Beatles. They've made you lazy. I wish I'd never heard of them. All they ever say is "Yeah, yeah, yeah"...

(etc.)

In the first paragraph there is a focus on the passive voice and time relation (when...; every...; he used to...; until...). In the second paragraph there is a focus on reported speech. In the third paragraph there is a focus on direct speech. Both direct speech and reported speech have been introduced progressively; unit ten of the second year textbook, unit three of the third year textbook and unit four of the same book (pp.112-13).
In the third year textbook, texts are accompanied by a tendency to present complex words ("Word Building") and complex sentences "Structural Notes"; e.g. "Restrictive relative phrases and clauses", pp.49-50). Coherence is also sought to improve the learner's writing skill; (e.g. "Second mention 'the' exercise, pp.118-19). The text "Pop Music" (e.g. 6, above) is followed by an explanation of some of the rules that govern the production of sentences in the passive voice and an exercise to give the learners an opportunity to apply those rules (pp.96, 98).

As the writing skill is assumed to develop from the reading skill, text (macro-pproposition) comprehension is stressed as well as sentence comprehension (cf. First year and second year texts).

e.g. 7. (from unit Four; "Entertainment")

"Read the passage on Dancing, paragraph by paragraph.

1 - Look at paragraph 1

(a) which sentence introduces the subject "Dancing"?

(b) which sentence could be used as a title for the paragraph?

2 - Look at paragraph 2

(a) which sentence adds more information about the subject "Dancing"? (etc.)" (p.102)

Not all texts are followed by a suggested discussion, but in the lesson, "discussions" occur very frequently after the text comprehension stage (e.g. L 3 A, L 3 B, L 4 A, L 4 B). The topic of the discussion follows immediately from that of the text;

e.g. 8. (from unit four, "Entertainment")
"Discussion Topics

1. Do Tunisians revolt against their parents' ideas?
   Which ones? Why?

2. Do you think pop music has a good or a bad
   influence on young people? Why?

3. Why do young people seem to be revolutionary
   and older people more conservative?" (p.101)

Almost the same remarks could be made about the core of the fourth
year unit, except that, as far as the textbook is concerned, the learner is
assumed to have reached a stage where he/she feels more confident and is,
therefore, encouraged to be less dependent on the teacher (see below).

In the text some words and expressions whose meanings are very L2
culture specific (e.g. stock market, dating, etc. p.16) are transcribed and
explained. Others are left for the learner to struggle with (cf. top-down
and bottom-up processing in II.1.1 and II.1.2, chap. 3, above). A multiple
choice exercise is devised both to draw the learner's attention to the
difficult words and expressions and to make him/her check his/her
"understanding" of them.

A true-false question exercise follows the above mentioned exercise
and aims to help the learner focus on what is assumed to constitute "the
macro structure" (see II.1.1, chap. 3) of the text. Then a series of "Wh",
"Yes/No", and open-ended questions follows to help the learner understand
the text further and express himself/herself better in writing. Finally, a
guided written comprehension exercise is given to help the learner with
his/her composition.

e.g. 9. (exercises presented after text "Honeymoon Problems")

"Written exercises
1. Match each sentence part in column A with a sentence part in column B to get a summary of the text.

2. Ted has just offended Patricia by saying that he made a mistake when he married her. Imagine what will come next.

4. How and where would you like to spend your honeymoon? (pp.18-19)

Like in the third year textbook units, there are suggested discussion topics which are meant to be for the whole class.

In the first three textbooks (First year, second year and third year) grammatical rules are supplied in each unit. In the Fourth year textbook grammatical rules, many of which have been encountered in the former textbooks, are presented towards the end of the book and are called "SPECIAL NOTES". However, in each unit there are exercises where some grammatical points (in the special notes) are singled out from the text and dealt with in the "GRAMMAR" section. This can be illustrated by the following extracts from unit I;

e.g. "GRAMMAR

see SPECIAL NOTES

- So that

- Modals (etc.)

I. Pick out all the sentences of the text where "should" is used and comment on its meaning
III. Rewrite what is underlined below using "so that" or "should have", then put all the sentences in a logical order to get an extract of a letter from Alicia to her best friend. Finally, you might write the whole letter. (etc.)" (p.19)

The fourth year textbook has in many of its units references (e.g. title, vocabulary explanation, talking points, etc.) to a passage (in the teacher's manual) for a listening comprehension exercise. But this sort of activity is scarcely pursued in the classroom because both teacher and students have to concentrate on the student's manual texts whose themes, grammatical points and vocabulary (see the PREFACE in the students' book, p.3) will constitute the subject of the baccalaureat exam which is exclusively written.

Conclusion

In Tunisia there is on the whole a positive attitude towards the acquisition and use of European languages, as long as TAV is maintained for conversation, and "Classical Arabic" for religious, literary and political discourse.

The Tunisian authorities are more keen to promote English at schools and universities than to Arabize scientific subjects; they have to meet the growing needs of the country (industry, tourism, trade, etc.). All students who are expected to go to the university are taught English. Most "Facultés" and "instituts Superieurs" require from their new students a good knowledge of English. The number of students admitted each year to the departments of English language is considerably high. It seems that English is becoming the rival of French.

English is very important to Tunisia and it is necessary to get an idea about the quality of teaching it. One way of doing so is to study the
lesson discourse in the secondary school. To prepare the ground for the analysis of English lesson discourse, a discussion of the textbooks in use has been undertaken in this chapter.

There is an emphasis on developing among Tunisian learners the skills of reading and writing in the four textbooks. There is also a progress from presenting learners with fabricated texts to "genuine" texts. In the fourth year textbook the learner is assumed to have become independent from the teacher in reading and writing. Only the first year textbook and the early units of the second year textbook could be said to be aiming at developing the skills of listening and speaking among the learners. But dialogues there tend to serve the teaching/learning of grammar more than anything else. Furthermore, all dialogues are fabricated and are remote from "natural" spoken discourse. So the textbooks used in Tunisian secondary schools make unsatisfactory provision for the English language learner to practise spoken discourse among TL speakers in the classroom (see our recommendations in I.3, chap. 4, above).

Students from sections "Maths-sciences" and "Maths-techniques" could benefit a lot from the passages for home reading provided for them in the second and third year textbooks, if there were some adapted scientific texts that constituted the core of some units at least. This would be a change even for Arts students who do not stop studying scientific subjects altogether. Topics such as women in society are heavily exploited; the first three units of the third year textbook deal with them.

The introduction of scientific topics in the second and third year textbooks would pave the way for the design of a textbook for fourth year science students, since the present fourth year textbook is suitable for Arts students only.

As we shall see in chapter seven below, not only do lesson discourses fail to make up for the shortcomings of the textbooks concerning the practise of spoken discourse, they give learners little chance to develop their own strategies in reading texts.
1 Students who leave school at this level can be classified as monolinguals (see I, above), since they never become fluent in either classical Arabic or French.

2 This explains why these languages (except for English) are studied by such a small number of students at the University (see Table 1, above). It also shows the association that exists between European languages, urban life, and prestige.

3 This dialogue was studied in lesson L2A, app. III.

4 In appendices V, VI, VII, and VIII.
CHAPTER SIX
THE FRAMEWORK FOR ANALYSING FOREIGN LANGUAGE LESSON DISCOURSE

Introduction

We have relied on (a) the literature reviewed in the previous chapters of the present thesis and (b) the data collected from two Tunisian secondary schools in the Mahdia area to work out a model for the analysis of FL lesson discourse. The model can be seen as contributing to ongoing research in classroom discourse analysis. The insights into classroom practice should be of interest to L2 learning theoreticians and practitioners.

Before describing the model let us give the reader an accurate account of the procedure adopted for data collection.

I. Collection of lesson discourse data

Three procedures were followed in collecting our FL lesson discourse data:

(i) - Observation: Four lessons were observed in April, 1983. This contributed to determining the overall pattern of an English lesson in a Tunisian secondary school (see VI, chap. 5, above). Another four lessons were observed in November, 1983. This was to check whether the same pattern was still followed, as indeed it was. Observing lessons gave the fieldworker (the present author) an idea about the effect of his presence as an observer on the teacher and the class.

(ii) - Recording in the presence of the fieldworker: Sixteen lessons were recorded in the presence of the fieldworker. Some lessons were recorded by the teacher and a student from the class, but most lessons were recorded by both the teacher and the fieldworker (see details below).
(iii) - Recording in the absence of the fieldworker: Four lessons were recorded in the absence of the fieldworker. They were done in November, 1983. The aim was to see if there were any significant differences between the three procedures followed, since we were keen on obtaining recorded lessons which can be said to be fairly representative of English lessons in Tunisian secondary schools.

Data collection procedures were carried out in the two largest secondary schools in the Mahdia area in the last term of the academic year, 1982-83 and in the first term of the academic year 1983-84. The two timings provided us with an accurate idea of FL lesson discourse in Tunisia, as we shall see presently. Four lessons (from 1st year English to 4th year English) were selected from the data recorded by the fieldworker in April and another four were also chosen from the lessons recorded by the fieldworker in November. The selections were based on the following criteria;

(i) Good quality of the recording was sought to make sure that the maximum of discourse pertaining to the lesson was transcribed and analysed.

(ii) Only those lessons where the fieldworker took an active role in their recording were chosen. Lessons recorded in the fieldworker's absence were avoided lest misinterpretations were made in the analysis. Recorded lessons in which the fieldworker sat "passively" were not selected for analysis: there was an almost total lack of side talk; a sign of inhibition. In both unattended plus recorded, and attended plus recorded lessons in which the fieldworker took an active role in the recording process, side talk occurs at an almost similar rate.
(iii) Only those lessons which conformed to the overall pattern described in VI, chapter five above, were considered acceptable for selection and analysis.

(iv) A preference for different teachers conducting different lessons was maintained to (1) see if teachers' styles were significant at all and to see (2) if the lessons chosen were representative of the process of teaching/learning English in Tunisia. Eight different classes were also chosen mainly for the second reason above.

Notice that the four criteria were applied to all selected lessons. As we pointed out in chapter five, above, the lesson is on the whole representative of the unit which, in its turn, clearly reflects the general approach adopted in designing the textbook. By choosing a lesson based on the earlier units of the textbook (November data) and another lesson based on the later units of the same textbook (April data), we can claim that our study takes into consideration the gradual progress assumed by textbook writers.

Although our study is not longitudinal (i.e. we are not following the progress of the same students learning English throughout their secondary education), we can compare lesson discourses at different levels (from 1st year level to 4th year level) and at different terms (1st term: November; and 3rd term: April).

We have not given any mention to the school each lesson was recorded in. Schools are very similar in many respects: everything is decided on on a national scale. The two schools where we have conducted our study are in the same area and are open to students from all social strata. Using the two schools enabled us to record different participants — eight different teachers and eight different classes.
DIAGRAM 6.1: The Books and Units in the Lessons
A "naturalistic method" of data collection

Two microphones were used to do the recordings (Bellack and his team used a similar technique; Bellack et al. 1966, p.11). One microphone was given to the teacher and the other was held by a student or by the fieldworker (the present writer) who would move around during the lesson and make sure that all students actively participating in the lesson discourse were recorded. The fieldworker's presence was not felt to have much effect (cf. Labov's observer's paradox in chaps. 3 and 4, above). When the fieldworker's role was simply that of a passive observer, on the other hand, he felt that he was the cause of some panic among students. They would look at him every time they spoke. For this reason the classes that had been passively observed were not recorded at all (see criterion (ii) in I, above).

The fieldworker was known both by the teachers who were his former colleagues either at school or at the university (one of them had also taught the fieldworker) and by many of the students to whom he had formerly taught English. He wore trainers to reduce the amount of noise, a pair of jeans and a grey T-shirt, and looked like a student (cf. Milroy, L., 1980, pp.40-69). He shaved off his beard and made sure he was not wearing his glasses; these seem to be associated with scholars who are believed (in Tunisia at least) to have a very deep knowledge of things and in the presence of whom one would feel ignorant, ill-mannered and helpless. Strangers who come into the classroom usually interrupt the lesson. They are either a headmaster or an inspector whose power and social status exceed by far those of the teacher. The fieldworker has nothing of the sort; he would come from the staffroom with the teacher, walk all the way with him/her, smile at the students and greet them in LTAV (see I, chap. 5, above). The aim was to make sure that neither the teacher nor the students would feel they were being tested or assessed.

Curiously enough, the students did not show any sign of "fear" of the
microphone (cf. Labov, 1972) nor did they overreact (see below). This could be attributed partly to the relaxed atmosphere described above and partly to the mere fact that most of the students had never been recorded before. People may panic when they talk into the microphone, especially in formal settings. This is due mainly to their former experience in listening to their recorded speech - "ugly voice", hesitancies, false starts, etc. - and the conscious feeling of the social significance of being recorded (being listened to and being judged). Students, however, are aware of the fact that they are constantly assessed and corrected by their teacher (see "practising" vs "doing", II.1.2, chap. 3).

The teachers' behaviour was as expected. On the whole, they said that they had felt slightly nervous at the start of the lesson but had gradually become less conscious of the microphone and the fieldworker. The latter was very cooperative in presenting the microphone to those students who were given the floor or those who displayed enough signals (verbal and non-verbal) to take the floor (see III.2.2, chap. 3). By doing so the fieldworker ceased to be an observer in the eyes of both teacher and students. And that was why we decided to analyse the lessons where the fieldworker was an "active" part in the recording process, (see criteria for selection, I, above).

There was, however, one teacher who over-reacted; he would speak very loudly to the microphone and almost continuously. One of his lessons we recorded lasted two hours, but we did not transcribe or analyse it, since it did not conform to the common pattern (VI.1, chap. 5). There could be two reasons for this unexpected behaviour: the teacher, who was the same age as the fieldworker and who took over when the latter decided to go to Britain for his studies, might have felt that he was being assessed. The second reason would apply only to the two-hour lesson: because all the texts in the fourth year textbook had been studied, the teacher, who was kind enough to cooperate, decided to do a passage for listening
comprehension (see our comments on the fourth year textbook, VI.2, chap. 5). This sort of activity is supposed to involve the learners in a considerable amount of writing (see "Who are the British" second part, pp.116-18) and is not common in Tunisian English lessons. That is why the teacher failed to conform to the usual standard lesson, where speaking is the major activity.

To conclude this section, we can claim that the present writer exploited the advantage of being an insider in his collection, selection, and, as we shall see, analysis of the data. Bremme and Erickson (1977) in line with the recent trends in discourse analysis (chap. 3) said:

"...outsiders... may make sense of what they see and hear in ways that are very different from those of members, who are insiders to the scene. From the member's point of view, the outsider may 'misunderstand'" (p.154).

II. A model of analysis for FL lesson discourse

The model that we introduced in chapter three and which we describe here in detail is a result of numerous attempts carried out by the present author to discover the regularities in English lesson discourse in Tunisian secondary schools. The model focuses on frames, moves and illocutionary acts in FL lesson discourse.

II.1. Frames

As we said in chapter three we consider the FL lesson discourse as a frame-system that comprises a continuum of four frames.

II.1.1. Frame 1 "Saying the Linguistic Form of the FL"

In frame 1 both teacher and students focus on form. They talk about
linguistic rules and/or make sure that particular rules are followed. This is done at the levels of syntax, word-building, pronunciation and intonation. The following sets of examples are meant to clarify further what is intended by "Saying the linguistic form of the FL"

(i) Let us start with the first set

e.g.1 (from lesson discourse L1B)

T : "Answer the question and use 'somebody'" First when do we use some what form

Si: Affirmative

T : Affirmative form yes

e.g. 2 (from lesson discourse L2B)

T : Particle verbs are like "to stand up" "to sit down" so when it rains I put on my raincoat so the verb that comes before the particle supplies the particle

e.g. 3 (from lesson discourse L2A)

T : Now you know that some verbs make nouns when we add [i] [dr] the nouns tell you a person's usually usual work action for example a worker what does a worker do a worker usually works

T : "A writer"

Ss: Usually writes

T : "A teacher normally"

Ss: Teaches
All the three examples above show that participants are focusing on the mechanisms of the FL form. Very often teachers and students talk about a given linguistic rule before they practise its use as example three (3) clearly shows.

(ii) The following set of examples illustrates the practising of the usage of some of the aspects of the FL form.

e.g. 4 (from lesson discourse L1A)

T : "There"
Ss: There
T : "Where"
Ss: Where

e.g. 5 (from lesson discourse L1A)

T : No he isn't
S3: He isn't ([i:ənæt])
T : He isn't ([i:znɪ])
S3: He isn't ([i:znɪ])

e.g. 6 (from lesson discourse L2A)

S2: Doctor and Mrs Ashur will arrive tomorrow we won't they
T : They will arrive tomorrow won't they
S2: They will arrive tomorrow won't they

e.g. 7 (from lesson discourse L2A)
T: "His job is to taste tea"

S2: She's he's a taster tea

S3: A tea taster

S2: A tea taster

e.g. 8 (from lesson discourse L2B)

T: Now pick out the difficult words and
write the difficult words down

T: Masri*

S2: Pick the difficult words out and er
T: Write

S2: Write them down
T: Them down and write them down yes

e.g. 9 (from lesson discourse L2B)

T: The dancer first put blank his waistcoat

T: Yes

S3: On

T: His waistcoat he first put on his
waistcoat Yes
T: Then he took it then he took it
T: Yes
S1: Then he took it out
T: Not out then he took it
T: Yes
S2: Then he took it off
T: And hang it
S6: Up
T: Sekka*
Example four (4) is a very familiar practice that goes back to the early audiolingual method (chap. 1, above). The teacher is leading her students in the production of some items listed in the textbook under the heading "a listen and repeat exercise". Example five (5) shows that the teacher is helping individual students with their pronunciation of the TL. (The error produced by S3 is an interference from Arabic which has not got the consonant - consonant - consonant - vowel sequence; CCCV). In example six (6) the teacher is making sure his students are producing the right intonation. The activity pursued in example seven (7) consists in producing compound nouns. The students with the help of their teacher are learning to apply a series of morpho-syntactic rules. Example eight (8) indicates clearly that the teacher is not asking her students to pick out the difficult words and to write them. She is actually asking them to move the particles (e.g. "out", "down") to different positions in the sentence and maintain its grammaticality and acceptability. Finally, if we follow the progress of the lesson (L2B) we find that the comprehension of the text was already done and that the exchanges in example nine (9) came just as a reinforcement exercise of the usage of particle verbs which was begun at the start of the lesson (e.g. 8, above). In fact, the first move made by the teacher in example nine (9) is self-indicative; the requested item is the correct particle - "T: The dancer first put blank his waistcoat."

To conclude this discussion of the second set of examples (e.g. 4 - 9), it is crucial to point out that the situational content of the TL examples is accepted without question by pupils and teachers alike. This allows for a lot of focus on form. Thus, we can suggest that in Frame 1 "Saying the linguistic form of the FL", there is a clear tendency to develop among learners a highly analysed knowledge of form (e.g. 1 - 3) and control of that form (e.g. 4 - 9).
11.1.2. Frame 2 "Talking in the FL"

In Frame 2 the focus on form is not very pronounced and the messages exchanged tend to be transparent and easy to retrieve. Transparent messages, Hawkes (1983, p.100) insists, are very useful in FL teaching/learning.

"Talking in the FL" could be compared with what is referred to as "pseudo-communicative speech" (III.2, chap. 2), "empty talk" (Xiaoju, 1984, p.30) "quasi-communication" (Littlewood, I.3, chap. 4), or "display talk" (Brock, 1986, p.48). As we have said in II.1.2, chapter three and I.3, chapter four, it is not convincing to claim that some aspects of lesson discourse are "real" as opposed to "unreal" or "communicative" as opposed to "pseudo-communicative". Neither is it justifiable to favour and advocate the so-called real discourse (see Kraetschmer, 1986, p.7 for a similar view).

The following sets of examples which have been extracted from our Tunsian data will clarify further what is meant by "Talking in the FL".

(i) Let us begin with this first set;

e.g. 10 (from lesson discourse L2A)

S2: "Oh look at those skirts the colours are
   lovely, aren't they"
S3: "And they're not expensive are they"
S2: "How do you like that one in the corner
   it's very attractive ([đɾdɾkɾɾdɾjv])
   isn't it"
S3: "You mean the green"
S3: "You mean the green one with the black check
   but it isn't my size is it"
e.g. 11 (from lesson discourse L1A)

Ttr: "Good morning John are you tired"
Ttr: "I'm not"
Ttr: "Are you thirsty"
Ttr: "Yes I am"

e.g. 12 (from lesson discourse L1A)

S1: "Good afternoon how are you"
S2: "I'm fine how are you"
S1: "Fine are you hungry"

........................
S2: "No I'm not"
S1: "Are you tired"
S2: "No I'm not"

All participants in the three examples above are reading from the textbook. In example ten (10) students are reading a dialogue (cf. e.g. 5, chap. 5). In example eleven (11) the teacher is playing a tape recorder. The dialogue which is written and illustrated by pictures in the textbook is enacted by English native speakers. In example twelve (12) we have two students who have been asked to "role-play" and follow the script in the textbook. So one can say that in all these three examples form is available and meaning is easy to retrieve.

(ii) Let us now look at another set of examples;

e.g. 13 (from lesson discourse L3B)
T: What would you do the night before the exam what should you do the night in the night before the exam
S1: I should sleep comfortably
T: What must you do to sleep well
S2: I must sleep early

....................
T: Well how must you sleep before the exam
S1: We must sleep in good position

e.g. 14 (from lesson discourse L2A)

T: Ibrahim went to register at the hotel what would he like for his family
S1: He would like accommodation for his family
T: Ibrahim would like accommodation for his family

e.g. 15 (from lesson discourse L4B)

T: Everybody knows Friday in Mahdia how are the streets on Friday
S5: Crowded
T: Crowded.
T: Yes
S1: Streets are crowded in Mahdia on Friday

e.g. 16 (from lesson discourse L2B)
(while trying to find the recorded passage on the
cassette, the teacher questioned the class)

T : So what's er what's Britain
Ss: It's an island
T : It's an island
T : How many countries make up Britain
Ss: Three countries make up Britain
T : Yes
T : What are they
Ss: Scotland England and Wales

e.g. 17 (from lesson discourse L3A)

T : Now was the typical Tunisian woman
    independent
S1: No the typical Tunisian woman wasn't
    er independent
T : Who was the man who first paid
    attention to women's problems
S2: Tahar Hadded er was er the first who
    paid er attention
T : To women's problems
S2: To women's problems
T : Now what's the first important date
    here in the history of Tunisian women
S3: The important date is nineteen thirty eight
T : Nineteen thirty eight
Ss: Nineteen fifty six
T : What's nineteen fifty six in the history
    of Tunisia
Ss: Independence
In example thirteen (13) the teacher's questions follow the linear order of the text in the book. In example fourteen (14) both teacher and students are reviewing together what they saw in the previous lesson (see stage (1) of the standard English lesson, VI.1, chap. 5). In example fifteen (15) the teacher makes use of the socio-cultural knowledge that he shares with the students to introduce them to a new word; "teeming"; (cf. e.g. 19, chap. 4). In example sixteen (16) the teacher tries to keep the lesson going; she asks her students about things that they have already learned. Finally, in example seventeen (17) we have the teacher asking questions the answers to which are in the text that has already been read and understood in the class. The theme of the text is very familiar; it recounts the changes that have taken place concerning women's rights in Tunisia. Such themes recur a lot in the media and school curricula (see our comments in VII, chap. 5).

The two sets of examples we have discussed reveal that in frame 2, there is not as much focus on form as we have seen in frame 1. But the frequency of downkeying (see below) whenever there is a grammatical error (e.g. 29, below) betrays some emphasis on correctness. On the whole the language produced is easy to retrieve. The messages exchanged are transparent and tend to be shared by all participants. There is little vagueness involved when it comes to the people, places or actions referred to. It is possible to suggest, thus, that in frame 2 students are encouraged to develop their analysed knowledge of form, though at a lesser degree than in frame 1, and to gain some control over it.

II.1.3. Frame 3 "Transacting in the FL"

Frame 3 is a message-orientated discourse. It makes a lot of demands on the learner and the teacher. As we said in II.1.2, chapter three,
"practising" in this frame is not as manifest as it is in frames 1 and 2, but we prefer to avoid adjectives like "real", "meaningful", etc. to qualify exchanges in frame 3.

The following three sets of examples are given to illustrate what is intended by "transacting in the FL".

(i) Participants could focus on both message and form. Their attential demands become "opaque" (Bialystok, 1986, personal correspondence);

e.g. 18 (from lesson discourse L4B)

S1: We mustn't say that things are bad but we must change them

T: Yes from bad to good yes thank you

T: Anybody else wishes er to er yes

S3: We can't er we can't establish a comparison between Tunisia and er New York or America for example in the two thousand twenty two because er er the degree er of developing is isn't the same in the er in both countries

e.g. 19 (from lesson discourse L4B)

T: Tell me if all the people live on these er soylent yellow and red blocks

(Silence)

T: Or I'll put this question in this way is there any social equality from reading this paragraph do you see any social equality
T: Miss Bubaker*

S3: Society is divided into two kinds of people
   the first one is living and
   leading a very difficult life but the other one is leading a luxurious life and
   it's er it's er

   e.g. 20 (from lesson discourse L3A)

T: Now how did what can you say about this paragraph the fourth paragraph what does it deal with ...

S1: They th they er deal er with er education

Example eighteen (18) occurs at stage (5) of the lesson (see VI.1, chap. 5, above). Examples nineteen (19) and twenty (20) like example thirteen (13) above, occur at stage (4B) of the lesson, but here both teacher and students are concentrating on a macroproposition in the text. This seems to require a lot of effort (see II.1.2, chap. 3) and care in retrieving form and message as the false starts, hesitations, and repetitions indicate. In example eighteen (18) the teacher is acting as an organiser, who, as we shall see later on, holds the right to interrupt and to correct the students' grammar. He seems, however, to delay his corrections and to favour what we call self-repair (III.2.2, chap. 3). So in a sense both teacher and students are focusing here on both form and message. Indeed, before taking the floor, students tend to plan their moves, and when they are speaking they seem to make use of a lot of control and to rely on their highly analysed knowledge of the language (cf. II.3, chap. 4).
(ii) The teacher could be giving his/her students instructions on what to do. Students could be asking for instructions. This is what is often referred to as classroom management (e.g. Littlewood in 1.3.4, chap. 4).

e.g. 21 (from lesson discourse L1B)

T: Now turn to page three hundred and sixteen

[T: Here you have "to write something to someone"
"to write someone something"]

e.g. 22 (from lesson discourse L2A)

T: All right now we are going to say the dialogue on page fifty eight
Ss: Sir sir
T: Wait a minute
T: One of you will introduce the dialogue
one of you will read the introduction one will be Samira Munya and the shop assistant
Ss: Sir sir
T: For example Sunduss* will be Samira you'll be Munya and the shop assistant Allaya*
introduction
[S1: "Samira and Munya have left their parents at the hotel and have gone shopping er er Knightsbridge ..."
S2: "Oh look at those skirts the colours are lovely aren't they"]

e.g. 23 (from lesson discourse L4B)
T: OK take your books on page one hundred and ninety four Soylent Green

S2: Soylent

T: Soylent will see that in the text that's your job to tell me what is the meaning of Soylent

T: OK I read the text I read the introduction

e.g. 24 (from lesson discourse L3A)

S2: That's all

T: Yes that's all

Examples such as these are not confined to a particular stage of the lesson nor are they limited to advanced classes (cf. sets (i) and (iii) in this section). In fact, the few moves that occur in frame 3 in first, second, and third year lessons are often instructions given by the teacher, as the first move in example twenty one (21) indicates. Teacher's moves are often followed by a non-verbal move (a physical response), which our model does not account for (e.g. 21) or by a verbal move in frame 1 (e.g. 21, T's second move), 2 (e.g. 22, last two moves), or 3 (e.g. 23, S2 and T's second move). It is extremely rare to find examples like twenty four (24) in our data and that is because (a) instructions are given by the teacher and (b) they come at the beginning of each activity.

Most moves in the present set of examples are similar in all lessons and tend to be produced and reacted to automatically. So we could say that students and teacher operate within a narrow range of language, much of which is formulaic (see II.1.1, chap. 4).

(iii) While focusing on the message, participants may pay little attention to form as this set of examples shows;
T : Now did all girls work in the past or did 
many girls work in the past 

Ss: Many girls work

T : In the past

Ss: No

Ss: Yes

T : In the past

Ss: No

T : They in the past

S1: They worked in the countryside

T : Well in the field but it was not common

S1: How how the family er sells er it sells 
er this is one of its members

T : Dead member it's a corpse

S2: And they eat that er member

.................

S1: [They must er have

T : People want to survive] they need food

T : Do they know they are eating the

S2: Yes they know

T : Do they know

Ss: No they don't know

T : They don't know

S3: They must have they must know because 
they wonder how do they er ba sell er 
the corpse in so an exorbitant price
Sl: They keep er the corpse in another shape
T : In ano yes it is this corpse is er
Sl: Formed and cooked and putted in a ha ha

(laughter)
T : Blocks
Sl: Blocks
T : Yes people eat they eat anything

In example twenty five (25) the participants seem to be holding different views concerning an aspect of their social and cultural world. Unlike in example eighteen (18), the teacher has taken sides here, and thus, has become in need of winning the argument. In example twenty six (26) some students have found it difficult to accept their teacher's interpretation of the text they are studying during the lesson. In both examples 25 and 26, message has become far more important than form for all participants (cf. discussion of e.g. 14 in chap. 4, above). If compared to the examples in the previous sets, moves in the examples of this set tend to be short. Students tend to speak to each other and do not wait for their teacher to allow them to take the floor. Many moves are incomplete. Grammatical errors, which would not have occurred in the other sets (e.g. "Sl: Formed and cooked and putted in a ha ha") seem to pass unnoticed. The style in the present set is different from the styles in the previous two sets. Little planning is done. The knowledge of the language used is not analysed but there is some control involved, we think.

It is crucial to point out that the teachers in this set of examples, though having loosened their grip on the ongoing discourse, enjoyed a high status (see III.1, chap. 3). In example twenty five (25) the teacher refused to accept the opinion held by a large number of the class and kept on repeating confidently "In the past". When a student gave her reason for disagreeing with the teacher, the latter found himself forced to
compromise; "T: Well in the field but it was not common". The interesting thing here is that all students accepted their teacher's view despite the fact that twenty years ago most of the Tunisian population was rural and thus, most women worked in the fields (see the Tunisian linguistic community in I, chap. 5). In example twenty six (26) the majority of the class went along with their teacher's ideas. They assumed that he would not misinterpret the text. Student 1 relinquished her turn when she realized that she was talking simultaneously with the teacher; "Sl: [They must er have". And at the end it was the teacher who had the final say; "T: Yes people eat they eat anything".

Notice that unlike set (ii), sets (i) and (iii) tend to be confined to advanced classes. Notice also that sets (i) and (iii) contribute to the relatively high proportion of moves in frame 3 in fourth year lesson discourses (see tables 7.1; 7.2 and figs7.1.7;7.1.8, chap. 7, below).

II.1.4. Frame 4 "Interacting in the FL"

In frame 4 discourse is person-orientated. It is almost nonexistent in our data (see tables 7.1; 7.2, below). As Brown and Yule (1983b) have suggested, interacting is very difficult to bring about, particularly in the FL classroom. This, in our view, is due to the predominance of "practising" the FL (see diagram 1 and discussion, chap. 3), the presence of participants who have an unequal status, and in the case of Tunisian English classes, the sharing of LTAV by all students and teacher. LTAV is used principally for conversation which, in its turn, is predominantly interactional.

(i) There are few occasions where moves in frame 4 can be identified, as the following set of examples shows;

e.g. 27 (from lesson discourse L1B)
[T : Use better
T : Yes
S2: I lai I like fruit juice better than er
    er milk]
T : And so do I

e.g. 28 (from lesson discourse L4B)

[T : Now can you foresee the future in Tunisia
    in two thousands twenty two now how do you
    foresee it ...]
S3: It's not like in America
T : Yes]
S1: I'll be a president
[T : You'll be the president no you have to
    stay in the same theme
S2: I think it will be the same]

In example twenty seven (27) the teacher has shifted from frame 1 to
frame 4; T: "And so do I". In example twenty eight (28) student 1 has
shifted from frame 3 to frame 4; "S1: I'll be a president". These are two
instances of upkeying (II.1.2, chap. 3). Upkeying, particularly to frame
four is very short lived. It is often followed by the teacher's downkeying;
"T: ...you have to stay in the same theme". Moves in frame 4 are very small;
i.e. realized by one illocutionary act. "Errors" are not noticed by the
teacher, (e.g. S1's move in 28, above). In addition to this we have noticed
during our data collection that students do not raise their hands when they
upkey to frame 4. The atmosphere in the classroom becomes very informal and
all the class laughs or smiles. Many students shift from "practising"
English to "doing"; i.e. speaking in LTAV. At this point the teacher
usually intervenes and the lesson is resumed.
On the basis of what we have said above, we suggest that participants in frame 4 make use of their least analysed knowledge of the FL. There is little planning, since upkeying to frame 4 is spontaneous. Thus, participants could be said to rely on little control of their FL. This view is in line with that of Bialystok (II.3, chap. 4; 1986 personal correspondence).

II.1.5. Breaking frame in FL lesson discourse

Breaking frame could be manifest in either downkeying or upkeying.

Downkeying in FL lesson discourse is common and tends to be triggered by the teacher who is often concerned with the correctness of the linguistic form. This is one of the main reasons that led us to claim in II.1.2, chap. 3, that FL lesson discourse is within "practising" but tends towards "doing".

(i) The following examples illustrate what is understood by downkeying in the FL lesson discourse;

e.g. 29 (from lesson discourse L4A)

[S2: Dear son you cannot understand how unhappy I feel after the worse circumstances ([Sirkɔ\textsuperscript{standiz}])] T : After the bad circumstances ([S\textsuperscript{standiz}])

e.g. 30 (from lesson discourse L4B)

[T : Do you think it is bad now
S2: Yes
Ss: No
T: She is free [in her opinion
S2: Now er na] now er there is many
   things er]
T: There are

Downkeying in example twenty nine (29) is from frame 2 to frame 1; "T: After the bad circumstances ([səkˈmɛːtɪnsɪdʒ])". In example thirty (30) downkeying is from frame 3 to frame 1; "T: There are".

Upkeying, particularly from frame 1 to frame 3, is often a result of realizing that what could be acceptable in a given world, could not be accepted by a participant in his/her own world (cf. Brown and Yule in I.1, chap. 3).

(ii) The following example is an illustration of upkeying;

e.g. 31 (from lesson discourse L1A)

[S3: "Is your house near the sea" no er
   it isn't]
S1: [ʃəˈliː] ("wrong" in LTAV)
T: What's the matter with you you
   have to er
[S3: No it isn't no it isn't]

Student 3 produced her first move in accordance with the instructions provided in the grammatical exercise in the textbook. Student 1 who knew that her mate lived near the sea, could not help "flooding out"; i.e. upkeying. The teacher was quick enough to upkey and to come to student 3's rescue. She reminded the class of the task at hand, inviting them to suppress the truth-value of their utterance and ignore the fact that Mahdia is a peninsula and everybody there lives near the sea.
Notice that the difference between example fourteen (14) in chapter three and example thirty one (31) here is that upkeying in the former occurred outside the lesson discourse (i.e. "side-talk") while in the latter it was part of the lesson. Notice also that "falling back" on one's L1 or L2 is a phenomenon which is well known among second language researchers (see II.1.2, chap. 4). Thus, the very scarce uses of French or Arabic in the lesson discourse do not undermine our labelling of the four frames.

II.1.6. The importance of "being in Frame"

Participants seem to know which frame they are involved in. They seem to be capable of recognizing when there is frame breaking and of joining in. However, it is possible that a participant finds himself/herself unable to answer the question "What is it that is going on here?" (see I.3, chap. 3).

The following instance of very short lived confusion occurred only once in our data. It shows clearly the importance participants give to "being in frame" and lends further support to the introduction of the notion of frame to the analysis of FL lesson discourse.

e.g. 32 (from lesson discourse L 3 B)

T : Well your ma father told you to go to the market your father told you to go to the market what did he want you to do your father told you to go to the market what did he want you to do

T : Yes

Sl: He ask me to bring him some potatoes

T : He asked you to bring him some potatoes I said
what did he want you to do another sentence
what did he want you to do
S2: He wanted me to go to the market
T : He wanted me
S2: To go to the market
T : To go to the market

...................
T : Well give me good sentences give me good
sentences what do I want you to do ...
T : The answer here
S1: You wanted me to give you good sentences

Confusion crept in mainly because the exchanges above, were in the beginning of the lesson. The students' lack of response to their teacher's opening moves (see T's repetitions) show that they were puzzled. They could not see at first which frame of lesson discourse was involved. Student 1 "ventured" a response in the frame "Talking in the FL" (see definition, above) but was hastily persuaded by his teacher that that was not the intended frame.

The students were unable to answer "why this to me [us]?" and "Why now?" These questions seem to underlie, as Brown and Yule (1983b, p.80) pointed out, each move one makes in any discourse process. But prior to that these two questions seem to be answerable only when the hearer reckons he/she knows the frame in which the speaker's move was. As a matter of fact, when it became clear to the students that their teacher's focus was on "Saying the linguistic form of the FL", they joined in, and no sign of confusion as to which frame was involved could be traced in the exchanges that followed: when both teacher and students came to be on the same wave-length, as it were, their task became much more defined; they knew
that they were practising the usage of (person) X WANT (person) Y TO DO (action) Z. This was the topic (cf. I.3, II.1, chap. 3).

II.1.7. Some concluding remarks

The notion of frame has got an "ethnomethodological reality". Its introduction to the analysis of FL lessons gives the categories of acts and moves additional dimensions, makes the model flexible, and thus yields more insights into the process of teaching/learning languages.

The suggestions concerning the different degrees of knowledge and levels of control involved in the FL lesson discourse are tentative but interesting. Bialystok's framework is based on research on learners' performance outside the classroom setting. However, since studies in syllabus design, methodology and L2 acquisition are coming closer to one another (see chaps. 2, 4) it is time "classroom research" (definition in III, below) exploited this state of affairs.

II.2. Interactional moves

Edmondson's model, which deals with spoken discourse and Sinclair and Coulthard's model, which is confined to Ll classroom discourse have been adapted to our data. The eight moves below are not an exact replication of the moves defined by the above mentioned authors. In our model moves occur in all four frames of the FL lesson discourse. The eight moves are;

(i) Initiate (IN). An initiate move usually starts an exchange. It can be realized by illocutionary acts such as "a tell", "an elicit", "an opine", etc. (see acts, below).

(ii) Respond (RS). A respond move usually follows an initiate. Very often it is realized by "a tell".
(iii) **Satisfy (SAT).** A satisfy often follows a respond. It is a move that evaluates positively a respond. A satisfy is usually realized by "an accept".

(iv) **Contra (CON).** A contra move challenges or evaluates negatively a respond. A contra could be followed by one or more contras. The result is that one participant gives in. A contra is realized by acts such as "a refuse", "a correct", "an apologize", etc.

(v) **Counter (CTR).** A counter move has the same function as a contra, but the outcome is different; neither participant gives in at the end of the exchange.

(vi) **Re-initiate (R-IN).** A re-initiate move is an initiate which is reproduced by a participant who realizes that his/her move has not been heard, has not been understood, or has been misunderstood.

(vii) **Re-run (R-RN).** A re-run is like a re-initiate except that here the speaker modifies his/her previous initiate move. The illocutionary acts produced in a re-run are usually different from those of the early initiate.

(viii) **Prime (PM).** A prime is used to ask for the floor or to give it. Primes are realized by either "a bid" or "a permit". Primes could be non-verbal, but as we said on various occasions, non-verbal moves are not accounted for in the present study.

A typical exchange in the Tunisian FL lesson discourse is made up of the following moves: IN, PM, RS and SAT. There are some cases where a satisfy does not occur. An initiate could occur on its own. This is very
rare in our data. This scarcity is probably a reason for there being no mention of this fact in the works of Edmondson, Sinclair and Coulthard, and the ethnomethodologists.

To differentiate between moves occurring in the four frames discussed in II.1.4 above, moves are numbered from 1 to 4; e.g. IN3 is an initiate move occurring in frame 3.

II.3. Illocutionary acts

Illocutionary acts are components of moves. As mentioned in section IV, chapter three, one act or more can make up a move. The head act determines to a large extent the function of a move. The list, which is given below is arrived at after many attempts have been made to capture regularities at the levels of acts in the Tunisian lesson discourse. The studies of Edmondson and Sinclair and Coulthard have been consulted to get some insight and to achieve some sort of standardization as far as the labelling of acts is concerned. We have tried to avoid the proliferation of labels (see Frawley, 1985, p.121) and overlap between acts found in Edmondson and House (1981, chap. 4). The adoption of frames has been very useful in this respect. The following are the illocutionary acts discovered in our Tunisian data;

a - elicit: an elicit could be compared to the question in grammar. It can also be a statement that has a rising intonation. Elicits tend to be the heads of initiate move.

b - correct: a correct is used to put things right. Corrects tend to occur a lot in frame 1 in our data and to be the heads of contra moves (cf. tell, below).

c - accept: an accept approves of a previous act. It is neutral (cf. opine, below). Most accepts are heads of satisfy moves in our data.
d - refuse: a refuse is a rejection of an act or acts made in the previous move on the basis of correctness or accuracy. It is neutral in the sense that the speaker's opinion is not at stake. In our data refuses are frequent in frame 1 and are very often the heads of moves like contras.

e - uptake: an uptake is used to show that the speaker has been listening and that he/she has something to say. Uptakes usually precede acts like refuse, correct, opine, accept, etc. The difference between an accept (definition above) and an uptake is that the former can realize a move by itself while the latter cannot.

f - expand: an expand is an act that explains or clarifies the previous act in the same move. Expands can not be heads of moves, i.e. they can not occur by themselves in a move.

g - permit: a permit is the act of giving the floor to a participant. Permits can occur by themselves and make up prime moves. If a permit occurs with another act then it contributes to the realization of another type of move; e.g. an initiate.

h - direct: a direct is the act of giving orders "do X". Very often a direct is the head of an initiate move.

i - tell: a tell is the act of saying something that can be true or false; i.e. stating a fact. A tell could be used to provide a grammatical rule, to produce an acceptable sentence, to read aloud from a text, or to convey an information. Very often a tell is the head of a respond move. It is difficult sometimes to differentiate between a tell and an opine (below).
j - opine: an opine is the act of giving a personal view concerning something.

k - bid: a bid is asking for the floor. Bids usually occur in prime moves (cf. permit, above).

l - suggest: a suggest is the act of inviting the hearer to perform or share in a specific action which is judged to be of interest to him/her.

m - greet: by using a greet act, the speaker ritually recognizes the presence of a fellow social member. The hearer usually reciprocates. Greets are often accompanied by another act in a move.

n - thank: a thank is a ritualized act. It is used by the hearer to express his/her appreciation of an act done by the speaker.

o - apologize: by using an apologize the speaker attempts to restore his/her social status.

p - offer: an offer is the act of expressing willingness to undertake an action which is very likely to be in the interest of the hearer.

II.4. Some remarks on moves and acts in the model for the analysis of FL lesson discourse

Most discourse analysts (e.g. Edmondson) concentrate on extracts from their data. They look for regularities and avoid dealing with exceptions. The latter are often left in the "rag bag". We think that regularities and exceptions have to be accounted for, especially when the analyst seeks to quantify his categories. In this section we give the reader an idea about
some of the difficulties we came across during our analysis of the Tunisian FL lesson discourse and the solutions we have chosen to overcome these difficulties.

When a permit act occurred at the end of an utterance, that act was considered in our analysis as the head of a prime move (cf. Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975, p.46), (see T: "Yes" in e.g. 32, above). We think that very often teachers initiate (e.g. T's first move in e.g. 32), wait for their students to raise their hand, and then give the floor to one of them. So on this basis we could not agree with Sinclair and Coulthard, who consider permits occurring at the end of utterances as components of initiate moves. However, we did not go as far as considering primes as moves occurring in frames different from those of the moves that preceded them.

e.g. 33 (from lesson discourse L 2 A)

i a IN2 T: Right now the girls the girls the girls
          go shopping in London/what are they
          buying what are they buying

  g PM2 T: Bakkush*

i RS2 S2: They are buying clothes

  c SAT2 T : They are buying clothes mhm

In this example the teacher's first utterance was considered to be made up of two moves; an initiate and a prime. Both moves are in the same frame; (frame 2).

In lesson discourse L 3 B we came across some moves that were performed by students in frame 1 and that could be responses and initiates at the same time;
Student 1's move above could be both a response to the teacher's initiate and an initiate that led to student 2's response. We decided to consider moves like that of student 1 above, as initiates only; we wanted to present the reader with a quantitative analysis of moves in all frames and in all lessons, and feared that counting some moves twice might lead to a distortion of the representation of L 3 B. However, we chose to call those moves initiates to highlight the difference between them and the usual respond moves done by students in frame 1.

When downkeying to frame 1 occurred and the initial move was not finished, the remaining part of that move was considered to be in frame 1.

A move that was interrupted by another move but was resumed without any upkeying or downkeying was considered one move despite the fact that it was "broken" into more than one turn.

As far as illocutionary acts are concerned, we had some trouble delimiting some of them. We do not claim that we solved all the difficulties in this area, but we came up in many cases with reasonable solutions. For instance intonation could be crucial in distinguishing between one act and another;

---

e.g. 34 (from lesson discourse L 3 B)

a  IN1  T: So what do you want your friend to
give you/tell him I want you
h  IN1  S1: I want you to give me er "a verb"
i  RS1  S2: To buy

---

e.g. 35 (from lesson discourse L 4 B)

a  IN2  T: So they are usually
i  RS2  Ss: Crowded
i  RS2  Ss Crammed
The teacher's second move could have been considered in example thirty five (35) above, as a satisfy if he had not stopped with a rising intonation. The rising intonation made us think that there was an elicit act in the teacher's move. But the problem was where the uptake act ended and where the elicit act began. We thought that the completion of the phrase "Crammed with er people living together" was a suitable place for the initiate act to begin.

We had to choose to call some acts occurring on their own in frames 1 and 2 either uptakes or accepts. We thought that they were accepts making up satisfy moves since students are constantly assessed by their teachers.

There were very few cases in our data where one participant would read a text or a paragraph aloud. Instead of isolating all the acts there, we decided to consider the whole move which was in frame 2 to be made up of one act which was a tell. We thought that when reading, the speaker was conditioned by the text and for him/her the acts would be indistinguishable (see Brown and Yule on illocutionary acts in I.2.1, chap. 3).

Difficulties in the analysis of discourse are quite normal since "The subject is at once too vast, and too lacking in focus and consensus" (Stubbs, 1983). According to Hatch and Long (1980);

"While classroom discourse analysis is an area of discourse analysis highly relevant to the teacher/ applied linguist, it is, as yet, in the pilot stage in many respects..." (p.25)

"Uncertainty makes us wish we could push everything back into neat morpheme balloons, some transformational
black box, or at least something with sides, tops, and a bottom. But curiosity makes the search for structures, the sides, the tops, and the bottom, and all the rules for rearranging items inside an irresistible challenge" (p.35).

III. "Classroom research" and the model for the analysis of FL lesson discourse

Long (1979) has defined "classroom research" as,

"...research on second language learning and teaching, all or part of whose data are derived from the observation or measurement of the classroom performance of teachers and students." (p.3)

As we have seen in chapter two of the present thesis most studies in L2 acquisition concentrated on learners in "natural" settings. The few studies which attempted to improve what went on in the classroom manipulated the input (e.g. Mansouri's 1985 introduction of semantic field analysis in the teaching of vocabulary) and measured the output (i.e. learners' performance) to find out that "In most cases,...method A, B or C made little or no difference" (Long, 1979, p.1). Flanders (1970), who was interested in creativity in the L1 classroom, described the researchers' neglect of the classroom as "a tragedy in terms of social science knowledge" (p.14).

Since classroom research is a new discipline, it has been very much influenced by the work done on L1 classrooms despite the fact that in L2 classrooms language is both the vehicle and the object of instruction. So a brief review of the approaches followed by L1 classroom researchers is in order.

Long (1979) has identified two major approaches. They are:
a - The interaction analysis approach.

b - The anthropological approach.

In the interaction analysis approach there are two types of researchers:

First, there are those who quantify the occurrence of a number of items in time units whose duration varies from three seconds to three minutes (see Mackey's account on the use of the polychronometer, 1977). Many of these items could stretch in more than one time unit, and this affects the reliability of the quantitative results. Items are of "a low inference order" (Long, 1979) and are defined according to their pedagogic and discourse functions (see Flander, 1970). This mixture of definition gives rise to confusion and inconsistency.

Second, there are those who quantify categories without confining themselves to time units. The work of Bellack et al. (1966) could be mentioned here as an example. They have identified four moves, which are "structuring", "soliciting", "responding", and "reacting". Bellack et al. were very concerned about being consistent and accurate. They had to modify their model many times. They acknowledged that

"Although this procedure appears to be somewhat inefficient in terms of the expenditure of time and effort, experience demonstrated that within the limitations of current knowledge about the teaching process this was the only way we could do justice to the extraordinarily complex interactions contained in the classroom discourse." (ibid, p.14).

Bellack et al.'s work and procedure have influenced Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975, pp.17-18) and indirectly ours.
The anthropological approach differs from the interactional analysis approach. In principle the researcher studies data without any preconceived notions or hypotheses. The researcher often collects his/her data by being a participant observer (e.g. a learner who keeps a diary) or a non-participant observer. For Long (1979) "There appear to have been no non-participant ethnographies of second language classrooms to date" (p.25). But recently there has been some work done in this respect. We can mention for example Konigs and Hopkins (1986).(cf. our method of data collection in section I, above).

The anthropological approach has been criticized for many reasons: there are no objective criteria for selection of data; the discussions are subjective and do not allow for generalisability; data are not studied exhaustively; and no access to all data is given.

According to Long (1979) the anthropological approach can inform the interaction analysis approach. Researchers are urged to take advantage of the strengths of both approaches. Finally, bearing in mind that L2 acquisition is a multidimensional phenomenon, researchers could test a "theory" of L2 acquisition via classroom analysis.

Our model for the analysis of the FL classroom discourse is well anchored in the field of discourse analysis, (see chap. 3). It takes into consideration Long's recommendations (see II.1.7, above).

The analysis of Tunisian FL lesson discourse provides an assessment of the influence of the textbooks used in the classrooms. It reveals the need for reform in the light of the recent and converging ideas in L2 acquisition studies and teaching methodology (chap. 4). Finally, it provides an explanation for the difficulties Tunisian FL learners experience in spoken discourse, particularly conversation.
CHAPTER SEVEN

A QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS OF ENGLISH LESSON DISCOURSES IN TUNISIAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Introduction

A quantitative analysis of the categories of acts and moves and their distribution among the participants and in the frames of the eight lesson discourses has been made. The discussion of the results in the present chapter sheds more light on the characteristics of English lesson discourse in Tunisian secondary schools. Although we have followed a series of criteria in our data collection and selection (section I, chap. 6) this study is observational. It does not manipulate the input (see section III, chap. 6) and impose laboratory-like conditions on the classroom. Therefore, regularities and irregularities are accounted for: the influence of the textbooks in use and the teachers' individual styles are taken into consideration throughout this discussion.

I - Distribution of Frames within lesson discourses

As we have seen in section II, chapter six of the present thesis, there are four frames in the FL lesson discourse. They are: Frame 1 "Saying the linguistic form of the FL", Frame 2 "Talking in the FL", Frame 3 "Transacting in the FL" and Frame 4 "Interacting in the FL". The quantification of moves that occur in each frame allows us to discuss in this section the distribution of the four frames in the eight FL lesson discourses.

In the first year lesson discourses the highest concentration of moves is in frame 1. This goes for the lesson recorded in the first term (L 1 A) and the one recorded in the last term (L 1 B). From all the moves occurring in L 1 A and L 1 B, 74.92% and 75.89% are respectively in frame 1.
In the second year and third year lesson discourses, frame 2 gains some importance; it competes with frame 1 (see figs. 7.1.3 - 7.1.6, below). Of all the moves occurring in L 2 B, 35.40% are in frame 1, while 56.02% are in frame 2. But in L 3 B, 46.31% of all the moves performed there are in frame 1 and 35.34% are in frame 2 (Table 7.1). Despite this irregularity (see its causes, below), it is clear from figs 7.1.3 - 7.1.6 below, that on the whole frame 1 does not dominate in second and third year lesson discourses. Frame 3 shows a significant increase relative to frames 1 and 2 starting in the third year (fig. 7.1.6, below). It takes overall predominance with a frequency of moves of 50.43% in one of the fourth year lessons and a second place with a frequency of moves of 39.89% in the other fourth year lesson (Table 7.1, below). All this happens mainly at the expense of frame 1. In the fourth year lesson discourse L 4 B, which was recorded in the last term, frame 1 has as little as 15.52% of all the moves, while frames 2 and 3 have respectively 44.24% and 39.89% of all the moves in the same lesson (Table 7.1).

Frame 4 has the smallest share of moves in all lesson discourses; from first to fourth year. The highest percentage of moves that frame 4 gets is 6.21%, and that is in lesson discourse L 2 A, (Table 7.1). As we said in II.1.4, chap. 6, above, frame 4 gets its share of moves through upkeying. There is evidence that teachers differ in encouraging or discouraging upkeying (see III.1.1, below).

The dominance of frame 1 in first year lesson discourses can be attributed to a very large extent to the general tendency of the first year textbook (IV, chap. 5) which focuses on the TL structure. The increase in the frequency of moves in frame 2 in the second year lesson discourses which becomes significant from the last term (L 2 B, 56.02%; Table 7.1) coincides as we saw in VI.2, chapter 5, with the increase in number and length of texts in the second year textbook. The study of texts (stage (4) in VI.1, chap. 5) is a very long stage (see pp. 327-9, 331-4, App. IV). It
encourages the type of discourse described in set (ii), section II.1.2, chapter six. The fact that frames 1 and 2 have a high frequency of moves in second and third year lesson discourses (figs. 7.1.3 - 7.1.6, below) could be attributed mainly to two reasons: (a) the third year textbook is a continuation of the second year textbook (see IV.3, chap. 50, and (b) texts in both textbooks are fabricated to introduce an aspect or several aspects of TL form (see discussion of e.g. 6, chap. 5). In the fourth year textbook, the texts are not fabricated, thus stage (2) "Introduction and practice of a grammatical point(s) often useful to understand the text/dialogue" (VI.1, chap. 5) is not covered in the fourth year lesson discourses. This provides some explanation for the drop in the frequency of moves in frame 1 (from 46.31% in L 3 B to 20.00% in L 4 A and 15.52% in L 4 B; Table 7.1).

The increase in the frequency of moves in frame 3 in fourth year lesson discourses (from 17.69% in L 3 B to 50.43% in L 4 A; Table 7.1) manifests itself in the lengthening of stage (5) "A guided discussion whose topic is similar to or stems from that of the text/dialogue and is of 'interest' to the learners" (VI.1, chap. 5), (see pp.347-51, App.VII; pp.370-2, App.VIII). This gives rise to the types of discourse described in sets (i) and (iii), section III.1.3, chap. 6. There are four major reasons for this state of affairs. First, because texts are chosen on the grounds of topic rather than form, both teacher and students are inclined to go beyond "transparent talk" which characterizes frame 2 (see II.1.2, chap. 6). Second, fourth year learners are more capable than those in lower classes of focusing equally on message and form; i.e. of making use of their analysed knowledge of form and relying on high control (see discussion of set (i), section II.1.3, chap. 6). Third, classes in the fourth year are normally small and there is no problem in maintaining discipline. Fourth, teachers seem to be somewhat open to their students' opinions and may be prepared to accept compromises (see discussion of e.g. 25, 26, chap. 6).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frame 1</th>
<th>Frame 2</th>
<th>Frame 3</th>
<th>Frame 4</th>
<th>Totals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>L1A</td>
<td>74.92</td>
<td>19.09</td>
<td>5.97</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>100 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L1B</td>
<td>75.89</td>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>17.04</td>
<td>4.87</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>L2A</td>
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<td>10.49</td>
<td>6.21</td>
<td>100 %</td>
</tr>
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<td>L2B</td>
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<td>56.02</td>
<td>7.71</td>
<td>0.65</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>L3A</td>
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<td>53.42</td>
<td>11.75</td>
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<td>17.69</td>
<td>0.62</td>
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<tr>
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<td>50.43</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>100 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L4B</td>
<td>15.52</td>
<td>44.24</td>
<td>39.89</td>
<td>0.32</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 7.1: Distribution of Frames Within Lessons
FIG. 7.1.1: Distribution of Frames in First Year Lesson Discourse (L 1 A)

FIG. 7.1.2: Distribution of Frames in First Year Lesson Discourse (L 1 B)
FIG. 7.1.3: Distribution of Frames in Second Year Lesson Discourse (L 2 A)

FIG. 7.1.4: Distribution of Frames in Second Year Lesson Discourse (L 2 B)
FIG. 7.1.5: Distribution of Frames in Third Year Lesson Discourse (L 3 A)

FIG. 7.1.6: Distribution of Frames in Third Year Lesson Discourse (L 3 B)
FIG. 7.1.7: Distribution of Frames in Fourth Year Lesson Discourse (L 4 A)

FIG. 7.1.8: Distribution of Frames in Fourth Year Lesson Discourse (L 4 B)
II - Distribution of moves between teachers and students

It is clear from Table 7.2 that teachers dominate discourse in almost all lessons of English in Tunisian secondary schools. As we said in III.2.2, chap. 3 and II.1.3, chap. 6, teacher and students do not go as far as granting one another equal status. The teacher has the right to allocate turns and to intervene at any transition relevance place (see III.2.2, chap. 3).

Teachers differ in their use of the optional Satisfy move, their preference for verbal or non-verbal Prime moves, and their keenness to downkey to frame 1. These factors produce a variation from lesson to lesson in the degree of teacher dominance reflected in the types of move recorded.

Because most of the moves in frame 3 in Tunisian FL lesson discourses, from first year to third, are confined to classroom management (set (ii), II.1.3, chap. 6) then the teacher is the dominant participant throughout (see Table 7.2; figs. 7.2.1 - 7.2.8). In lesson discourse L 2 A the students have performed more moves than their teacher in frame 1, and particularly frame 2, but they have remained well behind their teacher in frame 3 (Table 7.2). As mentioned in IV.2, chap. 5, the early units of the second year textbook tend to be notional/functional, and teachers are inclined to give their students a chance to "role-play" while following the script in the textbook (see discussion of e.g. 10, chap. 6; see App.III, pp.309-10). This is the reason why students scored a higher percentage of moves in frame 2 in lesson discourse L 2 A.

When the distribution of the categories of moves is analysed the teacher's dominance once again becomes obvious, as will be seen in the next section.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>%</th>
<th>Frame 1</th>
<th>Frame 2</th>
<th>Frame 3</th>
<th>Frame 4</th>
<th>Totals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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**TABLE 7.2: Distribution of Moves Between Teacher and Students Across Frames**
FIG. 7.2.1: Distribution of Moves Between Teacher and Students Across Frames in L 1 A

FIG. 7.2.2: Distribution of Moves Between Teacher and Students Across Frames in L 1 B

FIG. 7.2.3: Distribution of Moves Between Teacher and Students Across Frames in L 2 A

FIG. 7.2.4: Distribution of Moves Between Teacher and Students Across Frames in L 2 B
FIG. 7.2.5: Distribution of Moves Between Teacher and Students Across Frames in L 3 A

FIG. 7.2.6: Distribution of Moves Between Teacher and Students Across Frames in L 3 B

FIG. 7.2.7: Distribution of Moves Between Teacher and Students Across Frames in L 4 A

FIG. 7.2.8: Distribution of Moves Between Teacher and Students Across Frames in L 4 B
II.1 - Distribution of different categories of moves

FL lesson discourses in Tunisian secondary schools are rigidly structured. Teachers tend to make a lot of use of Initiate and Satisfy moves, while students tend to be confined most of the time to the performance of Respond moves (Tables 7.2.4, 7.2.8, 7.2.10, 7.2.12, 7.2.14, 7.2.16, below).

Some teachers are more inclined than others to perform verbal Prime moves (compare Tables 7.2.5 and 7.2.7, for instance). Because, as we said earlier on, Satisfy moves are optional and can be "delayed" when a Respond is followed by an Initiate, a Re-Initiate, a Re-Run, a Counter, a Contra, or a Prime, their frequency is often lower than that of the Initiate moves in teachers' talk (e.g. Table 7.2.5, below). An exceptional high frequency of Contra moves by teacher in frame 1 can be attributed to an abundance of downkeying from frame 2 and (or) frame 3. This applies to lesson discourses L 2 A, L 4 A, and L 4 B (Tables 7.2.5, 7.2.13, 7.2.15, below). In lesson discourse L 4 A, where both teacher and students score their highest percentage of moves (31.44% and 19.53%, respectively; Table 7.2) in frame 3, Contra moves by the teacher in frame 1 have attained 76.92% of all his moves in that frame. Students make use of Contra moves in frame 1 to Contra one another. They hardly downkey to frame 1 and that may be because they more or less share the same linguistic competence and are slower than their teacher at downkeying.

The approach adopted in the design of the textbook in use could have some bearing on the teaching method and could, thus, determine to a certain extent the diversity of moves that teachers and students make use of in the lesson discourse and particularly frames 2 and 3.

In frame 2 of lesson discourse L 2 A student's moves are more varied than those of their teacher and those of their counterparts in frame 2 of the other lesson discourses (compare Table 7.2.5 with 7.2.6, below). This can be explained by the fact that the early units of the second year textbook contain many dialogues and have a notional/functional tendency.
The importance that Tunisian teachers give to stage (4B) "Questions to lead the learners to comprehend the text/dialogue or to check their comprehension" (e.g. App.III,pp.318-21; App. VIII, pp. 360-7), gives rise to the type of discourse described in set (ii), section II.1.2, chap. 6. It also results in students' moves from lesson discourse L 2 B till lesson discourse L 4 B being confined to virtually one type of move (i.e. Respond) in frame 2 (Tables 7.2.8, 7.2.10, 7.2.12, 7.2.14 and 7.2.16).

Teachers enjoy the privilege of making use of a good variety of moves in frames 2 and 3 (Tables 7.2.9, 7.2.11, 7.2.13, and 7.2.15). They sometimes share this privilege with their students by choosing to become organizers of certain activities (see discussion of e.g 18, chap. 6). On the other hand they may deny their students the opportunity to vary their moves by "imposing" their views and asserting their status. In lesson discourse L 4 A the teacher's moves in frames 2 and 3 are varied; all eight moves are made use of (Table 7.2.13). But the students' moves are almost exclusively Responds (Table 7.2.14). In lesson discourse L 4 B the teacher's moves, particularly in frame 3 are varied and so are, to some extent his students' (Tables 7.2.15 and 7.2.16). As it was pointed out earlier (I, above), frame 3 becomes very significant in fourth year lesson discourses, and this is mainly due to the lengthening of the discussion stage (App.VII,pp.347-49;App.VIII, pp.371-2). However, the effect of a teacher's approach to error can be seen in lesson discourse L 4 A. Here the teacher, unlike his colleague in lesson discourse L 4 B, dominated the discussion, welcomed the views that coincided with his line of thinking, and downkeyed very often to frame 1 (compare Table 7.2.13 with Table 7.2.15). Thus, he "forced" his students to do hardly anything but Respond.
Key to Moves
IN: Initiate; RS: Respond; SAT: Satisfy; CON: Contra;
CTR: Counter; R-IN: Re-initiate; R-RN: Re-run; PM: Prime.

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TABLE 7.2.1: Frequency of Moves in Each Frame; Teacher in L1 A

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TABLE 7.2.4: Frequency of Moves in Each Frame; Students in L1 B
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### TABLE 7.2.11: Frequency of Moves in Each Frame; Teacher in L 3 B

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### TABLE 7.2.12: Frequency of Moves in Each Frame; Students in L 3 B

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<td>1.75</td>
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**TABLE 7.2.13:** Frequency of Moves in Each Frame; Teacher in L 4 A

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<td>93.65</td>
<td>91.00</td>
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<td>3.00</td>
<td>2.00</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>CON</td>
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<td>3.00</td>
<td>2.00</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>CTR</td>
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<td>1.58</td>
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<td>100</td>
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**TABLE 7.2.14:** Frequency of Moves in Each Frame; Students in L 4 A

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<td>4.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RS</td>
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<td>26.08</td>
<td>16.78</td>
<td>13.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>9.48</td>
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<td>R-1N</td>
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**TABLE 7.2.15:** Frequency of Moves in Each Frame; Teacher in L 4 B

<table>
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<td>54.05</td>
<td>100.00</td>
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<td>8.10</td>
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<tr>
<td>CON</td>
<td>8.88</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>8.10</td>
<td>8.10</td>
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<td>8.10</td>
<td>R-IN</td>
<td>R-RN</td>
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**TABLE 7.2.16:** Frequency of Moves in Each Frame; Students in L 4 B
III - Distribution of acts between teachers and students

Table 7.3 below shows that on the whole teachers' dominance at the level of illocutionary acts is even greater than that at the level of moves. In lesson discourse L 1 A, however, the teacher's dominance has been constant at both levels (57.42% of all the moves and 57.02% of all the acts). We suggest that this could be attributed to the fact that all participants have used more often than not one-act moves. The learners are complete beginners, the textbook is strictly structural in its early units (see discussion in III.2.2, chap. 1), and the teacher has adopted the audiolingual method (IV.3, chap. 1), which is very manifest in the practice of drills (see discussion of e.g. 4, chap. 6).

Teachers' moves in the remaining seven lesson discourses are more likely to contain more than one act. In lesson discourse L 3 A for instance (Tables 7.4, 7.5 below) the teacher has performed 226 moves, which contain 316 acts, while her students have performed 177 moves, which contain 182 acts. She has performed 92 acts in 82 moves in frame 1, 166 acts in 143 moves in frame 2, 57 acts in 40 moves in frame 3 and 1 act in 1 move in frame 4. The students have performed 71 acts in 68 moves in frame 1, 95 acts in 94 moves in frame 2, 16 acts in 15 moves in frame 3, and no acts and no moves in frame 4.

The fact that students tend to perform one-act moves while their teachers are more likely to perform moves containing more than one act provides an explanation for the following "curious" situation. In L 2 A the teacher has an overall dominance at the level of acts (Table 7.3, below) despite his lower share of moves in the same lesson discourse. It is also interesting to notice that in L 2 A the students dominate only frame 2 when it comes to their share of acts (Table 7.6, below).

If we compare the graphs that represent teacher and students' share of moves (figs. 7.2.1 - 7.2.8, above) with those that represent teacher and students' share of acts (figs. 7.3.1 - 7.3.8, below), we find that in the
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<td>42.96</td>
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<td>T 65.61</td>
<td>68.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S 34.35</td>
<td>34.84</td>
</tr>
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<td>T 48.50</td>
<td>53.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S 50.47</td>
<td>45.99</td>
</tr>
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<td>68.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S 33.99</td>
<td>31.51</td>
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<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>S 39.86</td>
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<tr>
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<td>69.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S 39.25</td>
<td>32.25</td>
</tr>
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<td>68.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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</tr>
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<td>S 43.80</td>
<td>40.28</td>
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TABLE 7.3: Distribution of Moves and Acts Between Teacher and Students
latter case the gap between teacher and students in frame 3 is constantly bigger than that in the former. This goes for all lesson discourses including L 1 A.

So one could say that in Tunisian FL lesson discourses teachers tend to perform more moves than their students. Their moves are more likely to be made up of more than one act which makes their dominance even greater. Finally, the fact that the teachers enjoy a constant supremacy in discourse, particularly when it comes to frame 3, may help to explain the "students' problems in discourse" outside the classroom setting, (II, chap 4, above).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frame 1</th>
<th>Frame 2</th>
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<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
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<td>78</td>
<td>18</td>
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<td>21</td>
<td>10</td>
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<td>68</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>21</td>
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<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>14</td>
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<td>25</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>67</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
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**Table 7.4:** Number of Moves Realized by Teachers and Students

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**Table 7.5:** Number of Acts Realized by Teachers and Students
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<th>Frame 4</th>
<th>Totals</th>
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<td>0.00</td>
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</tr>
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<td>3.00</td>
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</tr>
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</tr>
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**TABLE 7.6: Distribution of Acts Between Teachers and Students Across Frames**
• for Teacher; + for Students

FIG. 7.3.1: Distribution of Acts Between Teacher and Students Across Frames in L 1 A

FIG. 7.3.2: Distribution of Acts Between Teacher and Students Across Frames in L 1 B

FIG. 7.3.3: Distribution of Acts Between Teacher and Students Across Frames in L 2 A

FIG. 7.3.4: Distribution of Acts Between Teacher and Students Across Frames in L 2 B
FIG. 7.3.5: Distribution of Acts Between Teacher and Students Across Frames in L 3 A

FIG. 7.3.6: Distribution of Acts Between Teacher and Students Across Frames in L 3 B

FIG. 7.3.7: Distribution of Acts Between Teacher and Students Across Frames in L 4 A

FIG. 7.3.8: Distribution of Acts Between Teacher and Students Across Frames in L 4 B
III.1 - Distribution of categories of acts between teachers and students in moves and across frames

In this subsection we look at the different types of acts used by teachers and students.

III.1.1 - The acts used by teachers

The types of acts that teachers use most in frame 1 are Elicit, Accept, Correct, and Direct. Permit, Tell, Expand, and Uptake are not used by the majority of teachers and tend to have a very low frequency of occurrence (see for e.g. frame 1 in Tables 7.6.3 and 7.6.8, below). Most categories of acts are distributed within teachers' Initiate, Satisfy, Contra, and Prime moves in frame 1 (see for e.g. Tables 7.6.3.1, 7.6.9.1 and 7.6.13.1).

The most common and most frequent acts that teachers perform in frame 2 are Elicit and Accept (see Tables 7.6.7 and 7.6.11). This means that most discourse in frame 2 is of the type discussed in set (ii), section II.1.2, chap. 6. Tell is frequent in teachers' talk in frame 2 of first year lesson discourses L 1 A and L 1 B (22.22% and 18.75% respectively; Tables 7.6.1 and 7.6.3). In frame 2 of the second year lesson discourse L 2 A, Tell in the teacher's talk drops to 8.13% (Table 7.6.5) and continues to be of a very low frequency throughout (see Tables 7.6.7, 7.6.9 etc.). It seems that the lengthening of stage (4) of the lesson (see VI.1, chap. 5) as a result of the emphasis on the text in the textbooks (see I, above) reduces teacher's acts even further to Elicit and Accept.

Permit, Expand, Uptake, and Direct tend to have a very low frequency in frame 2. They seem to be very much dependent in their occurrence on teacher's individual styles (compare frame 2 in Table 7.6.1 with frame 2 in Table 7.6.5).

Most of teacher's acts in frame 2, particularly Elicits and Accepts, realize Initiate and Satisfy moves (see for e.g. Table 7.6.1.1 and Table
7.6.5.1). There are however, occasions where some acts realize Re-Initiate moves (Table 7.6.11.1) Contra moves (Table 7.6.9.1) or Prime moves (Table 7.6.7.1) in teacher's speech.

If we look at the teacher's use of acts in frame 3, we find that Direct and Elicit are the two categories that often have a high percentage. It is interesting to mention however that Elicit has not been performed at all by the teacher in frame 3 of the first year lesson discourse L 1 A (Table 7.6.1, below); learners are complete beginners and Elicits in frame 3 could either confuse them or force them to fall back on their L1. Beginners react non-verbally to Directs in frame 3. In fact 72.72% of the teacher's acts in frame 3 of the first year lesson discourse L 1 A are Directs, (Table 7.6.1).

From the first year to the third year, teacher's acts in frame 3 are dominated by Direct; 45.61% of the teacher's acts in frame 3 of the third year lesson discourse L 3 A are Directs (Table 7.6.9, below). The high frequency of Direct acts in teachers talk in frame 3 supports the claim made earlier on in this chapter (section II, above) that from first year to third year frame 3 is predominantly of the classroom management type (see discussion of set (ii) in section II.1.3, chap. 6).

In both fourth year lesson discourses L 4 A and L 4 B the teachers have used Elicit acts more often than Direct acts in frame 3. In L 4 B for instance 27.40% of the teacher's acts in frame 3 are Elicits but only 7.21% are Directs. We think that the high proportion of Elicits in teachers' talk in frame 3 of fourth year lesson discourses is a result of the lengthening of stage (5) "A guided discussion whose topic is similar to or stems from that of the text/dialogue and is of 'interest' to the learners" (VI.1, chap. 5). We also think that the small share Directs have in teachers' performance in frame 3 of fourth year lesson discourses reflects the small proportion that classroom management discourse has got in those lessons.

In addition to Elicit and Direct, teachers use the following acts
with a frequency that exceeds 5% in frame 3: Accept, Uptake, Expand, Permit, Tell, Opine, Bid, and Suggest. Notice that not all teachers use the above mentioned acts (e.g. frame 3 in Table 7.6.1). Notice also that because Direct has a high percentage in teachers' performance in frame 3 of lesson discourses from first year to third year (L 1 A - L 3 B), the above mentioned acts tend to have a low frequency (see Table 7.6.7, below). However because teachers' styles differ it is possible that two acts or three are used along with Direct and Elicit with a relatively high frequency. In lesson discourse L 2 A for instance the teacher's performance of acts in frame 3 is as follows: Direct, 32.35%; Tell, 20.58%; Elicit, 16.17%; Expand, 16.17%; Accept, 5.88% (Table 7.6.5).

From first year to third year teachers' acts do not realize a wide variety of moves in frame 3 (e.g. Table 7.6.5.1). In fact most of the acts used contribute to the realization of the Initiate move. In fourth year lesson discourses however, teachers' acts tend to be more varied than those of their colleagues and realize a wider variety of moves. This variability at the level of acts and at the level of moves is not matched in frames 1 and 2 even when the latter predominate the lesson (compare frame 1 in Tables 7.6.1.1; 7.6.3.1; and 7.6.11.1 with frame 3 in Tables 7.6.13.1 and 7.6.15.1).

As far as frame 4 is concerned we can say that the majority of Tunisian teachers do not lead their students in performing acts in this frame. But from the very small figures that we have got in the present study it seems that it is possible for teachers to upkey to frame 4 as soon as their students have passed the stage of being complete beginners, and be understood. A teacher who is inclined to upkey to frame 4 can perform many types of acts. In lesson discourse L 1 B the teacher has used the following acts: Elicit, Opine, Offer, Tell, Suggest, Accept, Refuse, Uptake, Expand, and Direct (Table 7.6.3). Most of these acts are used only once by the teacher in frame 4 of L 1 B and realize Initiate Moves (Table 7.6.3.1).
To conclude this discussion we can say that the variety of types of acts that Tunisian teachers of English use during the lesson discourses depends on the frame they are engaged in, the stage of the lesson they focus on, the textbook they use, the level of the students they teach, and the individual styles of the teachers themselves. But on the whole, the most common acts that Tunisian teachers use are Elicit, Accept and Direct. The following acts are fairly common in teachers' talk: Correct, Permit, Expand, Uptake, Tell, Opine, and Suggest. All the above mentioned types of acts contribute to the realization of the following moves that teachers tend to use frequently: Initiate, Satisfy, Contra and Prime (see II.1, above). The acts that are least used by teachers are Offer, Apologize, Thank, Greet, Bid and Refuse.

III.2.1 - The acts used by students

From lesson discourse L 1 A till lesson discourse L 4 B most of the acts performed by the students are of the Tell type (see Tables 7.6.4 and 7.6.8 in particular).

In frame 1 of the lesson discourse L 1 A the students have used Tells with a frequency of 7.08% and Uptakes with a frequency of 21.73% (Table 7.6.2). It seems that many beginners prefer to read out or repeat after their teacher the sentence they are about to transform; i.e. they perform an Uptake. We suggest that by doing so beginners try to make the best of their control in frame 1 (definition of control is given in II.3, chap. 4). Whether they are beginners or advanced learners (see Tables 7.6.4 and 7.6.16) Tunisian students use Corrects in frame 1; they obviously Correct one another. (There was a single instance where a fourth year student Corrected his teacher, see e.g. 15, chap. 3).

As far as frame 2 is concerned the situation does not change. Tunisian learners use almost exclusively Tell acts. From lesson discourse L 2 B, where frame 2 becomes significant (see reasons in I, above), to lesson...
discourse L 4 B, Tell is performed by students with a frequency that varies from 89.33% (Table 7.6.8) to 96.49% (Table 7.6.12). In lesson discourses L 1 A and L 2 A students have been given the opportunity to vary their acts in frame 2. They have made a few Elicits, Bids and Suggests (Tables 7.6.2 and 7.6.6) in addition to Tells. Notice that in lesson discourse L 2 A students' types of acts are more varied than their teacher's (compare frame 2 in Tables 7.6.5 and 7.6.6). At the same time the teacher's acts are not as heavily concentrated on one type of act. It should be borne in mind that first year lesson discourses and second year lesson discourses are dominated by frame 1, (see I, above).

Because as we said in III.1.1, above, most teachers' acts in frame 3 from first year to third year are of the Direct type then we can claim that many of the students' acts in frame 3 are non-verbal (see discussion in III and III.1.1, above).

In lesson discourses L 4 A and L 4 B most students' acts are Tells and Opines. In L 4 A, 57.42% of the students' acts in frame 3 are Tells and 30.69% are Opines (Table 7.6.14). In L 4 B, 50.32% of the students' acts in frame 3 are Tells and 24.51% are Opines (Table 7.6.16). It is interesting to mention that the students' acts in frame 3 of L 4 B are more varied than those of their counterparts. Elicits and Expands have been used in frame 3 by students of L 4 B with a frequency of 6.45% and 7.74% respectively (Table 7.6.16). But in L4A each of the same two acts represents less than 1% of the students' performance in frame 3 (Table 7.6.14). Furthermore, the acts performed by the students in L 4 B realize a good variety of moves in frame 3 (Table 7.6.16.1) while those performed by the students in the same frame of L 4 A are predominantly within the Respond type of move (Table 7.6.14.1). All these differences support what we said earlier (II.1) concerning the two teachers' individual styles and their impact on their students' performance.

So on the whole most of the Tunisian students' acts in the FL lesson
discourses are of the Tell category, and most of them realize one type of move; Respond. In frame 1 of lesson discourses, Tunisian learners perform some Corrects and Uptakes. In frame 3 they perform many Opines, particularly in fourth year lessons. In second year lesson discourse L 2 A, Tunisian students have varied their acts in frame 2. They have performed a few Elicits, Bids and Suggests. The list of acts that are least used by Tunisian students is long when compared with that of the teachers, and consists of: Offer, Apologize, Thank, Greet, Direct, Permit, Uptake, Refuse, and Accept.
**Key to the Illocutionary Acts**
(for use with Tables 7.6.1 to 7.6.16.1)

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<thead>
<tr>
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<td>D</td>
<td>Refuse</td>
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<td>Suggest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Greet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Thank</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O</td>
<td>Apologize</td>
</tr>
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<td>P</td>
<td>Offer</td>
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*(Definitions in II.3, chap. 6)*
### TABLE 7.6.1:
Frequency of Acts in Frames (L 1 A T)

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Frequency of Acts in Frames (L 1 A S)

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### TABLE 7.6.6:
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**TABLE 7.6.5.1:** DISTRIBUTION OF ACTS IN MOVES AND FRAMES (LAT)

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**TABLE 7.6.7.1: DISTRIBUTION OF ACTS IN MOVES AND FRAMES (L28T)**

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**TABLE 7.6.10.1: DISTRIBUTION OF ACTS IN MOVES AND FRAMES (AS)**
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**TABLE 7.6.11.1: DISTRIBUTION OF ACTS IN MOVES AND FRAMES (L38T)**

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**TABLE 7.6.12.1: DISTRIBUTION OF ACTS IN MOVES AND FRAMES (L38S)**
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### TABLE 7.6.14:
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TABLE 7.6.13.1: DISTRIBUTION OF ACTS IN MOVES AND FRAMES (4AT)

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TABLE 7.6.15.1: DISTRIBUTION OF ACTS IN MOVES AND FRAMES (4 4 8 T)

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TABLE 7.6.16.1: DISTRIBUTION OF ACTS IN MOVES AND FRAMES (4 4 8 5)

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IV - Some concluding remarks and suggestions

An emphasis on a particular stage of the lesson determines to a large extent the distribution of frames in the FL lesson discourse. Whether a lesson takes place in the beginning or at the end of the academic year does not make any noticeable difference. The predominance of frame 1 seen in first year lesson discourses dwindles throughout the second, third and fourth years. In second and third year lesson discourses frame 2 gains enough importance to rival frame 1. In fourth year lesson discourses frame 3 scores a sharp increase leaving frame 1 in third place. The virtual non-existence of frame 4 in Tunisian FL lesson discourses is due to (i) the limitations of the classroom setting, and (ii) the difficulty for the learners of practising the FL in frame 4 without slipping into LTAV.

The supremacy of frame 1 in first year lesson discourses follows from the structural tendency of the first year textbook which induces teachers to focus with their students on stage (2) of the lesson in particular. The importance that frame 2 acquires alongside frame 1 in second and third year lesson discourses is mainly due to the focus on stages (2) and (4B) which are motivated by fabricated dialogues and particularly texts that are intended to introduce a given notion, function, or grammatical rule. There are three main reasons that can explain why frame 3 increases so suddenly in fourth year lesson discourses and ceases to be virtually confined to the classroom management type: (i) the texts studied are adapted and not fabricated, thus there is no special need to focus on a particular structure; (ii) most of the topics that the texts deal with have already been introduced in the third year textbook, this familiarity with the topics stimulate more "guided discussion"; and (iii) the students have become at this level more capable of focusing simultaneously on message and form.

The FL lesson discourse in Tunisian secondary schools is an unequal encounter. At the exchange level we find that often a student's Respond
move is generally preceded by three moves performed by the teacher, namely an Initiate and a Prime, followed by a Satisfy. Teachers tend to have a higher share of moves and acts than their students in all frames. Teachers' acts and moves are on the whole more varied than their students', and there is more chance for a teacher's move to contain more than one act. Because participants in the FL lesson discourse hardly grant one another equal status, neither teacher nor students perform "supportive moves" (IV, chap. 3).

The emphasis on the study of the fabricated texts and the type of discourse that ensues from it in frame 2 makes students' moves and acts least varied. As we have seen in chapter five of the present thesis most units in the second year textbook and all third and fourth year textbooks are meant to develop the learners' reading skill. We know from the research conducted in discourse analysis (II.1.1 and II.1.2, chap. 3) that comprehension strategies do not follow the linear order of the sentences in the text. By leading their students so closely in the understanding of the text, teachers may be imposing their own interpretation and are definitely increasing their students' dependence on them.

The lengthening of the guided discussion stage in fourth year lesson discourses seems to give teachers rather than their students a chance to vary their moves and acts even further in frame 3. A teacher, like the one in L 4 B, who is inclined to allow some sort of student-student discourse to take place and does not downkey to frame 1 very often, could give his/her students more opportunities to vary their moves and acts.

In frame 3 discussion is teacher-centred and classroom management is teacher-dominated. In frame 2 most of the discourse is devoted to leading the learners in the understanding of the text. In frame 1 the focus is on the linguistic form of the TL, and frame 4 is almost non-existent. All this makes the prospects of practising "pre-head exchanges", "post-head exchanges", "pre-responding exchanges", and "reciprocal exchanges"
(III.2.2, chap. 3) very remote, as far as Tunisian lesson discourses are concerned. At the present time, FL lesson discourses in Tunisian secondary schools tend to develop among learners an analysed knowledge and a high control of the linguistic form (chap. 6).

The effect of the notional/functional approach noted in L 2 A can provide an indication to what would become of the FL lesson discourses in Tunisian secondary schools if the following reforms were to be carried out (i) introduction of fabricated dialogues in the first year textbook, then adapted extracts from spoken discourse in the second and third year textbooks, and finally recorded excerpts from spoken discourse in the fourth year textbook; (ii) throughout the course, more emphasis on role-play that encourages learners to distance themselves progressively from the close imitation of the material they are presented with in their books and on the cassettes accompanying them (see more details in section I.3, chap. 4).

It is urgent that Tunisian teachers realize that they should keep the type of discourse that ensues from the study of the text to a minimum, if they want to help their students become good readers. The FL lesson is nearly the only occasion that students practise spoken discourse. Reading texts could be done at home, as a student put it;

"I have a suggestion of the new system of learning but it may it may er cause unemployment for the teachers (laughter) so so I have noticed that if I prepare my my own lesson er I can benefit from it er more than if the teacher give it to me so I think that a teacher can if we don't er don't want to er make him unemployed he can er he can come and er say er today we have er er we must er our lesson is er something and you must make your research and er we er prepare our lesson and show it to the teacher.

(from cassette No. 2, 4, LMM).
Surely Tunisian teachers of English want to be more useful. That they share their students' concern was illustrated by a teacher who joined his students in a discussion that the present author recorded, saying;

"...I think the majority [of the students] find it very difficult to express themselves orally."

(from cassette No. 3, 4, LMM).

We think that Tunisian teachers need better textbooks, but most of all they need proper in-service training. And the university should open its doors for them. We also think that the introduction of role-play in the FL lesson discourse will give Tunisian learners more chances to dominate frame 2. They will be able to vary their acts and moves. This will reduce the teachers' dominance of frame 3, since learners will be more involved in classroom management. They will also be able to participate at an advanced level more effectively in the discussion stage. Upkeying to frame 4 will be less short-lived, and probably there will be less tendency on the part of the advanced learners to slip into LTAV. Finally, there will be less downkeying to frame 1.

Tunisian learners will have a better communicative competence. They will become capable of using different degrees of analysis of knowledge and different levels of control of the English language. In short, they will have less problems in spoken discourse.
In this thesis we have shown that there are many controversial issues in second language acquisition studies, syllabus design, method of teaching, and classroom research. We have also traced the influence of pragmatics on these fields. We have claimed that there is a move towards a common view, which acknowledges the limitations of the foreign language lesson discourse, but at the same time, does not overlook its benefits for the learner. This position has guided our discussion of the Tunisian learners' communication strategies, the textbooks in use in Tunisian secondary schools, and the results of the analysis of the foreign language lesson discourses in Tunisia.

Discourse analysis has given us many insights as to how to deal with the Tunisian lesson discourses. It has provided us with new ideas as to how to improve the textbooks in use in Tunisian schools. Finally, it has helped us to suggest new ways of adjusting the method of teaching adopted in Tunisia.

The present study has helped us understand better notions like "conversation", "the communicative approach" and "illocutionary acts". An attempt has been made in this thesis to bring precision into an area of research which, since it concerns human behaviour, makes precision difficult.

A model of analysis which focuses on three levels (Frame/Move/Act) provides flexibility which we have found useful. If future researchers wish to adopt this model, they may have to modify or extend it according to the data they are examining and the purposes of their investigation.
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APPENDIX I
FIRST YEAR ENGLISH
lesson discourse (L 1 A)

Acts Moves Speakers
h h IN3 T T
Now listen to the dialogue listen to the dialogue/

h

hh T Ttr "Unit four/dialogue/listen"

m a IN2 T Ttr "Good morning John are you tired"
i RS2 T Ttr "I'm not"
a IN2 T Ttr "Are you thirsty"
i RS2 T Ttr "Yes I am"
l IN2 T Ttr "Let's have a drink"
a IN2 T Ttr "Is there any tea"
i i RS2 T Ttr "No there isn't/There is some hot coffee though"
i IN2 T Ttr "Mhm there's some nice fresh bread too"
l IN2 T Ttr "Try some Turkish coffee John"
c RS2 T Ttr "Yes please"

a IN2 T Ttr "Is there a spoon please"
i RS2 T Ttr "No there aren't any spoons here"
h IN2 T Ttr "Bring some spoons Munsif"
p p IN2 T Ttr "Have my spoon John/here's some sugar too"

n RS2 T Ttr "Thanks"
i IN2 T Ttr "This is very good coffee Mrs. Shedly"

n p RS2 T Ttr "Thank you/have some more"
h h IN3 T T "Listen/and repeat"
a IN1 T T "Good morning John"

i RS1 Ss "Good morning John"
a IN1 T T "Are you tired"

i RS1 Ss "Are you tired"
a IN1 T T "No I'm not"

i RS1 Ss "No I'm not"
a IN1 T T "Are you thirsty"

i RS1 Ss "Are you thirsty"
a IN1 T T "Yes I am"

i RS1 Ss "Yes I am"
a IN1 T T "Let's have a drink then"

i RS1 Ss "Let's have a drink then"
a IN1 T T "Is there any tea"

i RS1 Ss "Is there any tea"

a IN1 T T "No there isn't"

i RS1 Ss "No there isn't"

a IN1 T T "There is some hot coffee though"

i RS1 Ss "There is some hot coffee though"
a IN2 T T Is John tired

i RS2 S1 No he aren't

h IN3 T T Raise your hand

i RS1 S2 No it is not

h a CON1 T T "John"/is John tired

i RS1 S1 No he is not

b CON1 T T No he isn't

i RS1 S3 He isn't ([i zənt ])

b CON1 T T He isn't ([i zənt ])

i RS1 Ss He isn't

a IN2 T T Is he thirsty

i RS2 Ss Yes he is

a IN2 T T Now is there any tea

i RS2 Ss No no

i RS1 S1 No no there isn't

c SAT2 T T No'there isn't
Is there any tea
- There isn't/there is some hot coffee
- Repeat
- There isn't any tea but there is some hot coffee
But there is some hot coffee
Is there any bread is there any bread
- Yes it is
- Yes there is
- Now use "some"
- There is some nice fresh bread too
- There is some nice fresh bread too
So there's some coffee there's some nice fresh bread but there isn't any tea
Now "Be" in the present positive
- "I am"
- Yes
- "You are"
- Yes
- "He is she is it is er we are you are he is er"
- They
- "They are"
- Now what's the question form the question form
- "Am I I am I er are you"
- Yes
- "is he is she is it is er we are you are they"
- Are they
Now today we're going to see the negative/we saw the positive question form and today we see the negative
- "I am not you are not er he is not she is not it is not we are not"
- We're not
- you're not they're not
- Yes
Now let's do some exercises/take your books on page seventy nine/exercise "A"
- "Are you tired no I'm not"
- Are you tired no I'm not
- Garradi*
- Is he not
- Yes here
- Is he no not
- Hot
Hot "is ni is he hot no"/em he is not
- No he is not yes
- Now three number three number three
- Abdelkrim*
"Are we old"/no I'm I'm not
- No we're not/no we're not
- "Is she cold" ([κοινονα])/[No
- Is she] cold ([κοινονα])
- "Is she cold"/no she is er she is not
- No she is not
- "Are you English"/No I'm Tunisian
- "You"
- "Are YOU"/ Yes of course use the plural
i RS1 S3 No you're Tunisian
c SAT1 T Yes no I'm Tunisian/no you're not
e i RS1 S2 "Is the teacher ready"/yes she is
h f CON1 T Now you have to use the negative/the exercise is to
g PM1 T Yes here
i RS1 S3 "Is the teacher ready" \(\text{[r\text{ê}d\text{ê}]}\)
b CON1 T Is the teacher ready \(\text{[r\text{ê}d\text{ê}]}\)
e i RS1 S3 "Is the teacher ready"/no he's or he is not
c SAT1 T No he is not
g PM1 T Yes
e i RS1 S1 "Are they Tunisian"/no they are not
c SAT1 T No they are not
g PM1 T Yes
e i RS1 S3 "Is the taxi new"/no no is it not
c SAT1 T No it's not no it's not
g PM1 T Yes
e i RS1 S3 "Are you little"/no you're...
b CON1 T I'm not
e i RS1 S3 I'm not
g PM1 T Yes
i RS1 S1 "Am I Algerian"/no I'm not
c SAT1 T No I'm not
l IN1 T Now let's do the next exercise "B" exercise "B"
g PM1 T Yes
e i RS1 S3 "Is your friend a tourist"/no he isn't
e i RS1 S3 "Is your father a teacher"/no he isn't
c SAT1 T Yes
e i RS1 S1 "Is your book old"/no he isn't
d a CON1 T "He""a book"/do we use "he" for "a book"
i RS1 S2 No it is not
c SAT1 T No it is not
g PM1 T Yes here
e i RS1 S3 "Are our books on the table"/no they aren't
c SAT1 T No they are not
g PM1 T Yes
e i RS1 S1 "Are their pens in their pockets"/no they aren't
e c SAT1 T They aren't/they are not they aren't they are not yes
g PM1 T Yes
e i RS1 S2 "Are my books in the taxi"/no er no er they no
they're not
c f SAT1 T They're not/not "books"
g PM1 T Yes
i RS1 S2 "Is your house near the sea \(\text{[S\text{ê}:\text{ê}]\)}" [no it's
b CON1 T The sea \(\text{[S\text{ê}:]\)}
e i RS1 S3 "Is your house near the sea"/no er it isn't
d CON3 S1 \(\text{[\text{W}d:\text{ê}f\text{ê}]}\) ("wrong" in TAV)
h CON3 T What's the matter with you you have to er
i RS1 S3 No it isn't no it isn't
e c SAT1 T No it isn't/yes
g PM1 T Ben Lakhal*
e i RS1 S1 "Is the bus near the airport"/no she er it is
b CON1 T No it isn't
i h IN1 T "Is the bus near the airport"/repeat
i RS1 S3 "Is the bus near the airport [no
a IN1 T No
i RS1 S2 it isn't
e c SAT1 T No it isn't/yes
l IN1 T Let's find with exercise "C"
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<table>
<thead>
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<th>g</th>
<th>PM1</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Yes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>RS1</td>
<td>S3</td>
<td>&quot;Is this a bicycle ([ˈbɪsɪkəl])&quot;</td>
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<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td>RS1</td>
<td>S3</td>
<td>&quot;A bicycle/no it's a bed&quot;</td>
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<td>e</td>
<td>SAT1</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>No it's a bed/yes</td>
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<tr>
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<td>S1</td>
<td>&quot;Is this a cup ([ˈkʌp])&quot;</td>
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<td>CON1</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>A bag</td>
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<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td>RS1</td>
<td>S1</td>
<td>&quot;A bag/no it's a pen&quot;</td>
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<tr>
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<td>RS1</td>
<td>S2</td>
<td>&quot;Is it a cafe&quot;/no it's a cup</td>
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<td>T</td>
<td>A coffee/it's a coffee/yes</td>
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<td>h</td>
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<td>T</td>
<td>You take your books on page seventy six/and let's do the conversation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h</td>
<td>IN3</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Here you are &quot;you&quot;/and you are &quot;a friend&quot;</td>
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<td>m</td>
<td>IN2</td>
<td>S2</td>
<td>&quot;Good afternoon/how are you&quot;</td>
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<td>RS2</td>
<td>S2</td>
<td>&quot;I'm fine/how are you&quot;</td>
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<tr>
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<td>S1</td>
<td>&quot;fine/are you hungry ([ˈhʌŋgri])&quot;</td>
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<td>Hungry ([ˈhʌŋgri])</td>
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<td>&quot;No I'm not&quot;</td>
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<td>S1</td>
<td>&quot;Are you tired&quot;</td>
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<td>S2</td>
<td>&quot;No I'm not&quot;</td>
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<td>l</td>
<td>IN2</td>
<td>S2</td>
<td>&quot;Let's go to my house&quot;</td>
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<tr>
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<td>S1</td>
<td>&quot;Are there any buses&quot;</td>
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<td>RS2</td>
<td>S2</td>
<td>&quot;No there aren't any buses&quot;</td>
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<tr>
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<td>&quot;Is your bicycle here&quot;</td>
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<td>&quot;Yes it is&quot;</td>
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<tr>
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<td>S1</td>
<td>&quot;There's my bicycle/let's go&quot;</td>
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<td>Now listen/and repeat</td>
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<td>IN1</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>&quot;There&quot;</td>
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<td>&quot;Where&quot;</td>
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<td>Where</td>
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<td>a</td>
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<td>T</td>
<td>&quot;Chair&quot;</td>
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<td>Chair</td>
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<td>T</td>
<td>&quot;Airport&quot;</td>
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<td>Airport</td>
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<td>&quot;Is the chair there&quot;</td>
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<td>&quot;Are there any chairs at the airport&quot;</td>
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<td>Ss</td>
<td>&quot;Are there any chairs at the airport&quot;</td>
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<td>&quot;Yes they're&quot;</td>
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<td>Ss</td>
<td>Yes they're</td>
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[end of lesson (L 1 A)]
APPENDIX II
FIRST YEAR ENGLISH
lesson discourse (L 1 B)

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<th>Acts</th>
<th>Moves</th>
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<tr>
<td>e i</td>
<td>RS1</td>
<td>S2</td>
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</table>

Right exercise "A"/page three hundred and fourteen
(silence)

"Change and use "One"/Jane made a lovely cake Jane
made a lovely one"

Yes Bayar*

"Mun Munsif sent a nice present"/Munsif sent a nice
one

Right exercise "A"/page three hundred and fourteen

"We mended a big puncture"/we mended a big one

Yes ehein

"They had a black cat"/They had a black one

Ehein

Fifth/"she used a small needle"

Mershki*

"She used a small needle"/she used a small one

Right

"He wrote a good poem"

Yes Ferjani*

He wrote a good one

Ehein

"We read an old book"

"We read an old ([E\u0160\u0142d]) book"/we read an an old
([E\u0160\u0142d]) one

An old ([\u0160\u0142d]) one

"Fatma drew a big picture"

Ehein yes

"Fatma drew a big picture"/Fatma drew a big one

Right

"Hedi drank a cold drink"

"Hedi drank er a cold drank ([\u0154\u0141\u0160\u0162\u0151\u0162\u0164])"

Hedi drank a cold drink ([\u0154\u0141\u0160\u0162\u0151\u0162\u0164])

Yes repeat Hmama*

Hedi drank a cold one

Right yes

"Mr Shedly opened a new bottle"

Right Yeah

Mr Shedly opened ([\u0107\u0161\u016d\u0168\u0170\u0162\u0167\u016d\u0162\u0164\u0162\u016e]) a new bottle"/

Mr Shedly opened ([\u0107\u0161\u016d\u0168\u0170\u0162\u0167\u016d\u0162\u0164\u0162\u016e]) a new one

Aha Mr Shedly opened opened ([\u0107\u0161\u016d\u0168\u0170\u0162\u0167\u016d\u0162\u0164\u0162\u016e])/([\u0160\u0148][\u0160\u016c])

and ([\u0160\u0148]) that's opened ([\u0160\u016c\u0167\u016c\u0169]) and not opened

([\u0160\u016c\u0167\u016c\u0169])

Right next exercise "B"

"Answer the questions and use "somebody""/First
when do we use "some"/what form

Affirmative

Affirmative form yes

Now what's the opposite of "some" in ...

Any

Any

When do we use any

I use any in er negative negative and er and er the question
Yes negative interrogative/and ...

interrogative

interrogative form right/so 'somebody' is ..

'someone' right/so in the question "did anybody write to you last week yes somebody wrote to me last week"

Number two

"Did anybody help you yesterday"/yes somebody helped me yesterday

"Did anybody watch you then"/yes somebody watched

"Did anybody watch television last week"

"Did anybody er go to the shops" Yes some er body er went er to the shops

"Did anybody drink any milk last night/yes somebody
drank some milk last night

"Did anybody a pen yesterday"/yes anybody somebody wanted a pen yesterday

"Drink any milk last night"

Did anybody drink any milk last night/yes somebody
drank some milk last night

Right good

Yes yes somebody watched television last night

Right

Now with exercise "C"

Ask questions use the words and anybody/then answer
with yes and somebody"/Ferjani* with the First sentence

"Did anybody a pen yesterday"/yes anybody somebody wanted a pen yesterday

"Drink any milk last night"

Did anybody drink any milk last night/yes somebody
drank some milk last night

Right good

Yes yes somebody came by bus this morning/yes somebody
came by bus this morning

Yes somebody came by bus this morning

"See a green car this after.."

Sorry

"See a green car yesterday"

Ben Njima*

Did anybody see a green car yesterday/yes somebody
saw a green car yesterday

Good

Now six

Turky*

Did anybody go to Jerba last year/yes somebody went
to Jerba last year

She's lucky

Right seven/"write with a pencil this morning"

Ben Mansuir*

Did anybody write a letter with a pencil this morning

Mhmm

Yes somebody write a letter with a pencil this morning

Ahah
Did anybody write a a letter with a pencil this morning/yes somebody wrote a letter with a pencil this morning

Did anybody blow candles out this morning/yes somebody blew candles out this morning

Did anybody see the sun early this morning/yes somebody saw the sun early this morning

Did anybody walk to school in the rain/yes somebody walked (walked)

Which is better Tunis or Remada

Esperance is better than El-Marsa right

Which is better radio or television

Television is better than radio

Which is better January or August

August is better than January
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>i</th>
<th>RS1</th>
<th>S3</th>
<th>January is better than August</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>SAT1</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>August is better than January or January is better than August</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>IN3</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Why is August better than January</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>RS3</td>
<td>S3</td>
<td>Because there is much sun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>SAT3</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Because there is much sun yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>RS4</td>
<td>S1</td>
<td>Because er August is better than January because my birthday is eh (laughter) in at the August</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td>SAT3</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Is in August/yes possible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g</td>
<td>PM3</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Ehein yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>RS3</td>
<td>S2</td>
<td>Because January is er colder than August</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td>SAT3</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Yes August is better than January because January is colder than August/good right yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h</td>
<td>IN1</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>&quot;Which are better dates or carrots&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g</td>
<td>PM1</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>RS1</td>
<td>S3</td>
<td>Dates is better than carrots</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>CON1</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Dates are better than carrots</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>RS1</td>
<td>S3</td>
<td>Are are</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>SAT1</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Yes dates are better than carrots/mistake is better</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>CON1</td>
<td>Ss</td>
<td>Are are</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td>CON1</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Yes/make a sentence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>RS1</td>
<td>S1</td>
<td>Dates are better than carrots</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>SAT1</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Dates are better than carrots</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>IN3</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Why are dates better than carrots</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g</td>
<td>PM3</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Yes Meshrki*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>RS3</td>
<td>S2</td>
<td>They are better than .. de delicious</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td>CON1</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>They are/no &quot;they&quot;/dates are better than carrots</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>IN3</td>
<td>Ss</td>
<td>delicious</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>SAT3</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h</td>
<td>IN1</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>&quot;Which are better olives or tomatoes&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>RS1</td>
<td>S3</td>
<td>Tomatoes are better than olives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d</td>
<td>CTR3</td>
<td>Ss</td>
<td>(laughter)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j</td>
<td>CTR3</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Why not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>IN1</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Yes or</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>RS1</td>
<td>S1</td>
<td>Olives are better than tomatoes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>IN3</td>
<td>S2</td>
<td>Why</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g</td>
<td>PM3</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>RS3</td>
<td>S2</td>
<td>Because olives give us oil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>SAT3</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Because olives give us oil yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h</td>
<td>IN1</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>&quot;Which are better</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ss</td>
<td></td>
<td>[laughter]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>T</td>
<td></td>
<td>boys or girls&quot;]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k</td>
<td>PM1</td>
<td>Ss</td>
<td>M'sieu M'sieu (French for Sir)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>CON1</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Sir</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>IN1</td>
<td>Ss</td>
<td>Sir Sir</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>SAT1</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Sir right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>IN3</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Now which are better boys or girls (laughter)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g</td>
<td>PM3</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j</td>
<td>IN4</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>She is dying for an answer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j</td>
<td>RS3</td>
<td>S3</td>
<td>Girls are better boys</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>IN3</td>
<td>S1</td>
<td>Why why</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>SAT1</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Girls are better than boys right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>IN1</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Or</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>RS1</td>
<td>S2</td>
<td>Or boys are better than a girl than girls</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j</td>
<td>SAT4</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Thank God the next answer was given by a girl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>IN4</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>OK you didn't understand what I said anyway</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>IN1</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Right now boys are better than girls and girls are better than boys/let's make a sentence first (teacher writing)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>IN3</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Boys are better than girls why</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Girls are better than boys

You think girls are better?

Boys are better.

Boys are better than girls because they are strong.

Boys are better than girls because they are stronger.

Boys are better than girls because they are strong.

Boys are stronger.

Boys are better than girls because they can play football.

Aha that's a good answer.

You think girls are better because they are strong.

Boys are better.

You think girls are better.

Boys are strong.

Yes.

Girls are better than boys because they are beautiful.

Because they are beautiful.

Because they are beautiful strangest answer.

Boys are better than girls because they are babies.

Because they are babies.

Because they give babies.

Girls are better than boys (writing) different reasons/boys are better than girls because they're strong girls are better than boys because they're beautiful and they give babies.

Right let's be friends.

Make a sentence/boys are.

As.

Yes Ben Amor*

As good as girls.

As good as girls.

Are they different.

No.

Boys and girls aren't different (writes) yes boys and girls aren't different.

We can say boys and girls are.

Equal.

Equal/good right/OK we are equal right.

Now turn to page three hundred and sixteen.

[Here you have "to write something to someone" "to write someone something" "Fred wrote Nelly a letter" or "Fred wrote Nelly a letter"/Right the first example is more English/yes to write a letter to someone to write someone a letter they are equal/that's the same yes so to write a letter to someone or to write someone a letter to give someone something to send a letter to someone to send someone a letter (silence).

Now look at exercise "E".

"You gave Jim some money" "You gave some money to Jim"/that's the same right.

"My friend sent me a book"
My friend sent a book to me

"The mother read her girl a story"

Yes Meshrki

The mother read a story

To her girl

To her girl yes

"I wrote my friend a letter"

"You gave your sister a present"

Ehein

Number six

I don't read now

Yes Ben Mansur

"We gave the man some money"/We gave some money to the man

Ehein

Number six

Seven

Yes Buajila

They sent they sent their letters to somebody

They sent their letters to somebody/yes

"The teacher gave his pupils the answers"

The teacher gave his answers er

To his pupils

Ehein yes the teacher gave the answers to his pupils

"She"/number nine

Yes Ben Amor

"She read me a book"/she read a book to me

Ehein

"We wrote them four letters"

Ehein

"We wrote four letters ([|i|z|])

Four letters ([|i|z|])

To them

We wrote we wrote four letters ([|i|z|]) to them

"He gave two" that's the opposite/"He gave two dinars to me he gave me two dinars"

Right Najar

"My friend sent a nice present to me"/my my friend sent me a nice present

Yes

Number three

Turky

We ro we wrote many letters to to them"/we ro we wrote them many letters

We wrote them many letters/ehein

Number four

Ferjani Yes

They sent some money to their family"/they sent er their ...

Family

They sent their family some money

They sent their family some money
"John gave some shirts to them"

John gave er John gave er them er some er shirts some shirts

John gave them some shirts John gave some shirts to them John gave some shirts to them/right

Yes Hmama* number six
Big er Big Jim read to his wife a letter
Big Jim read his wife a letter
His wife a letter

Right in the second sentence I said when you have the verb then the object you have the first object in the second sentence without to/right

Yes Ben Njima*
"He sent a coat to Nelly"/he sent Nelly a coat
Good
"I wrote a letter to my penfriend"
"I wrote er the letter a letter to my to penfriend"/
I wrote er my penfriend to er a letter
"Her uncle gave the chicken to her"
Hamzi*
"My penfriend"
No the last one
My penfriend
Sorry/number nine
"My penfriend sent a present to to us"/my penfriend sent us a present
Good
"Her uncle gave the chicken to her"
Yes Ben Mansuir*
Her uncle gave her the chicken
Her uncle gave her the chicken
Now exercise writing exercise/how many good sentences can you make/you have "I" "the teacher" "my friends" verbs "wrote" "gave" "sent" "read" "showed" objects "a letter" "a present" "a birthday cake" "a watch" plus "to" and "me" "us" "them"

Right Mestiri* give us one
I wrote a letter to them
I wrote a letter to them yes
Yes is it Hmama*
I gave a present to us
I gave a present to us
Mhmm
Them
Yes I gave a present to them
Can you say I gave a present to me
No
No impossible/how can you give yourself something
Ah yes
My friend gave m
My friends
My friends gave a birthday cake
My friends gave a birthday cake but
To me
Yes gave a birthday cake to me right
Someone else
Ehein
Another possibility
The teacher showed us showed a watch to us
Yes er the teacher showed a watch to us ehein
Who else
The teacher sent a present to me

Yes I will in no time

Right yes

The teacher gave a birthday cake to me

The teacher gave a birthday cake to me

When is your birthday

When

Yes

My birthday is in December

My birthday is in December

I will send you a birthday cake in December

Right now

Yes

The teacher sent a letter to me

"Which month is your birthday in" now look at the sentence look at the question/"Which" what does it mean "which" double you heich - word "which"

Choice

This is choice right

Now "month"/"which month is your birthday in"

Yes

My birthday is in March

"March" ask a question

Which month is your birthday in

My birthday is in December/"December" ask a question

Yes Ben Amor*

When is your birthday in

When is your birthday in

Now look at the sentences in your books

Ben Amor Lazhar*

Which month is your birthday in

Right

So you have my birthday is in December December ask a question so December disappears out/which month December is one of the months so you choose choice which which month/then inversion verb subject which month is your birthday in/and in preposition

Ehein

Which er which month is your er birthday birth er birthday

Without "in" possible

In December or January

Ah yes which month is er your birthday in December or January

When you say er which when is your birthday you can say my birthday is on the first of April right so that's possible/"on" and day "in" and month right

Second question/"Did you have a birthday birthday party"

Yes Derwish*

Yes I had a birthday party

Yes I have/yes I did

I had

0 sorry/"did you have a birthday party" yes I did or yes I had a birthday party

"Do Tunisians usually have birthday parties"

Ahah yes

Yes Tunis Tunisians usually had birthday parties

Have

Have/the question is "Do" present
Do Tunisians usually have birthday parties

Yes Hmama*

Tunisians usually have birthday parties

Yes Abdelghni*

Tunisians have sometimes they have birthdays

Sometimes have birthdays Tunisians sometimes have birthdays

Can all Tunisians have birthday parties

Yes

Abdelghni*

Sometimes have birthdays

Some some Tunisians sometimes have birthday parties

ehein yes

Can everyone have birthday parties

Yes

Only Tunisians er have birthday parties

The mean Tunisians don't have birthday parties

Ah Tunisians who are mean don't have birthday parties

Now so who can have a birthday party

The rich

The rich have a birthday party

Only rich people have birthday parties

Now question four

This is a silly question to hit a silly answer

Can you draw a man

Yes I can

As a short answer yes

Yes I can draw a man

Yes just a sketch

Right yes

Everyone can draw a man

Yes even the teacher

"Did you draw when you were young"

Yes I drew when I I w were young

Who corrects

Yes Meshrki*

Eh yes

Yes I

Yes I drew ((dvr))

I drew ((dvr))

Yes I drew when I I was young

I was young

"Can you draw a picture of your parents"

Ben Njima*

Yes I can drew a picture of my parents

I can drew

Draw

I can draw

Infenitive after defective after can

"Did your mother make any cakes last week"

Hamzi*

Yes yes my mother my mother make

Makes

Makes

Shsht no

made any cake last

Some some
Step by step you'll reach it

My mother made some cakes last week

Right/"did your mother make any cakes last week" yes

my mother made some cakes last week

"Were they better than Fred's cakes"

Yes they were

Yes they were/they were better than Fred's cakes

"Have you got a photo of your friends"

Ehein yes

Yes I have got

Ahah

Yes I have

Yes I have

Yes I have

Yes they have

Yes they have

"Which do you like better milk or fruit juice"

Yes

Milk

I milk

Like

I like m fruit juice

Use better

I like Fruit juice than er er milk

Better

Better

Yes repeat

I like Fruit juice better than milk

And so do I

"Have you got a telephone at home"

Yes

No I haven't

"Have you got a telephone at home" yes I have no

I haven't/yes that's right

Where can you use a telephone/so you haven't got a

telephone at home/so if you need a telephone if you

need a telephone if you need to phone someone what

must you do/what can you do

Yes

You can go

PTT (French for Post Office)

To PTT/yes the post office eh right

"Did you do anything special last week"/Ah anything

Yes

I went to the cinema

Another answer
Yes I did
Yes I did/that's a short answer
"Did you do anything special last week"/what's that
what was it what did you do
Now remember Mr and Mrs Dale went to ...
[China
Restaurant]
To a Chinese restaurant/Yes
Now what did you do as a special thing
Yes Ferjani*
I went to the sea because it was very ssun
Because it was very
Hot
Very sss
Sunny
"Did you go to a restaurant"
Yes Haj Khlifa*
Yes I went to a restaurant
Yes I went to a restaurant
"Can you drive a car"
Let's change the subject
Yes I can
I can't
In my family not on my family right/there are two children in my family right
Which is better three children or ten
Ten
Yes
Ten children are better than three
Ten children are better than three
Who says zz something else
Yes
Because they can help me
Being the father
In the farm
Because you want ten children to help you in the farm/ah yes possible right
Now three children ten children it depends/three children that's good life/nw ten children very
difficult unless you work with them/a football game
if you have ten children a football game is possible right
A team
You make a team yes
"Did anybody read to you when you were young"
Yes somebody read to me when I was young
Who was it who
My friend
When you were young your friend was young too
Neji
That was Neji/who's Neji
He's my friend
Ah but your friend is as old as you when you were young too/that must be your mother
father uncle right or aunt

Uncle

Uncle/yes your uncle

"Did you write to a penfriend last week"

Yes Ben Ramdhan*

Yes I wrote ([rəʊt]) to a penfriend last week

Wrote ([rəʊt])

Ah please don't answer like that

Yes

Yes I wrote to a penfriend last week

"What did you have to do with these questions"/that's the last question

Yes Najar*

I have to practice my language

"Had to" what's that

I had to answer the questions

I had to answer the questions

"Had to" what's that

Must past

It's the past of must

It's the past of must

Now turn your page on three hundred and eighteen/

this here is a reading passage/for next time you must read it/and see the difficult words in the dictionary right

[END OF LESSON L 1 B]
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acts</th>
<th>Moves</th>
<th>Speakers</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i a</td>
<td>IN2</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Ibrahim went to register at the hotel/what would he like for his family</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>RS2</td>
<td>S1</td>
<td>He would like accommodation for his family</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>SAT2</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Ibrahim would like accommodation for his family</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>IN2</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>What would he like for his wife and him what would he like for his wife and him</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>RS2</td>
<td>S2</td>
<td>He wants er</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>CON1</td>
<td>S3</td>
<td>Would like</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>RS1</td>
<td>S2</td>
<td>He would like er a rom with a...[double bed double bed]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>IN1</td>
<td>S3</td>
<td>For his wife</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>RS1</td>
<td>S2</td>
<td>For his wife and him</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>SAT2</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>He'd like a room with a double bed for his wife and him mmmm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>IN2</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>And what would he like for his daughters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>RS2</td>
<td>S3</td>
<td>He'd like two er a room with two beds for his daughters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>CON2</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>He'd like two rooms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>RS2</td>
<td>S3</td>
<td>He'd like er he'd like a room with two single beds for his wai.daughters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>SAT2</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>He'd like a room with two single beds for his daughters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>IN2</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>And what would he like for his son</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>RS2</td>
<td>S2</td>
<td>He like for his son ([50-])</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>CON1</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>He'd like</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>RS1</td>
<td>S1</td>
<td>He'd like for his son ([50-]) er</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>IN1</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>He'd like something for his son</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>RS1</td>
<td>S1</td>
<td>He'd like a bed for a single bed for his son</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>CON2</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>He'd like a single bed for his son/where a single bed in the street</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>RS2</td>
<td>S2</td>
<td>A room a room</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>RS1</td>
<td>S1</td>
<td>He'd like a room with a single bed for his son</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>SAT2</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>He'd like a room with a single bed for his son</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>IN2</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>And what would he like with each room</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k</td>
<td>PM2</td>
<td>Ss</td>
<td>Sir</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>RS2</td>
<td>S3</td>
<td>He he would like a bath er with each room</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h</td>
<td>CON1</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Short answer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>RS1</td>
<td>S3</td>
<td>He'd like yes he would</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c f</td>
<td>SAT2</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Yes he would/he'd like a bath with each room</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a f</td>
<td>IN2</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Is it possible to have a bath with each room/do they have a bath with each room at this hotel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k</td>
<td>IN2</td>
<td>Ss</td>
<td>Sir Sir</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>RS2</td>
<td>S2</td>
<td>This difficult</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>SAT2</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>That's difficult</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a f</td>
<td>IN2</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>So what must his son do what must his son do/what does he have to do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>RS2</td>
<td>S3</td>
<td>His son have to d to share the room</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>CON1</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Has</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>RS1</td>
<td>S3</td>
<td>He has to share a room</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>SAT2</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>He has to share a room he has to share a room</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h</td>
<td>IN2</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Can you give an example with share/make a sentence with share/or example he has to share a room/yes for example a sentence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>RS2</td>
<td>S1</td>
<td>Eh in the bir in my birthday I share er the cake with a piece to give er to er my friends</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>IN2</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>You share the cake with your friends</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>RS2</td>
<td>S1</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
And if your friend hasn't got a book what will you do if your friend hasn't got a book?

I must share the book with my friends.

You share the book with him mhm/you share the book with your friend.

Now what must Ibrahim fill in

I must fill in the registration form.

Now would Ibrahim like breakfast in his room?

He would like breakfast in his room.

Ibrahim like breakfast in his room.

I would like breakfast in his room.

He went er shopping.

He wants to go shopping.

Do you sometimes go shopping?

Yes I sometimes go shopping.

It's Friday today/do many people go shopping on Friday/it's market day.

Yes many people go shopping because it's today.

Is market day a Friday?

Mhm.

Now what do people buy when they go shopping on Friday?

People buy vegetables in Friday.

On Friday.
On Friday
They buy vegetables
What else do they buy
Clothes clothes
They buy clothes the people buy clothes animals radio vegetables
Many things
Many things many things
Right now the girls the girls go shopping in London/what are they buying what are they buying/
Bakkush*
They are buying clothes
They're buying clothes mhm
So where are they going
Eh they are going they buying to the shops
Yes they are going to the shops
Repeat
They're going to the shops
What kind of shops are they going to/
Are they going to a vegetable shop/are they going to they are going to the clothes shop
they're going to the dress shop they are going to the dress shop/because they are buying they're looking at some dresses and some skirts yes
Now before buying a skirt for example what must you do
What must you do
Eh you must er
Do you buy a skirt sometimes/do you buy a skirt for your sister
No I don't sometimes buy er some skirts for my sister
What do you buy then
A shirt
I buy trousers
trousers or shirts
Clothes
Clothes yes
Now you for example/what must you do before buying a skirt or a dress
Before buying a dress I must er trying it
Trying
Trying er it on er
I must try
Try it on
I must try it on
Where do you try on clothes where do you try them on
Sir Sir
They they try they try on a fitting room
In the fitting room
Sir Sir
I try on on er
I try on in the fitting room
You try clothes on in the fitting room
I try clothes on the the fill in the filling
Fitting
Fitting room
Is the fitting room usually a big room or a small one?
- It's small one/the fitting room is er the small room

Is there a fitting room in every shop?
- There is

there's er many er

But in some shops you don't find a fitting room/you find a fitting room in a

Big shops

Where do you find a fitting room?
- We find a fitting room in the big shops

In big shops/Mr Besbes' shop for example Mr Turki's shop for example

Now why do you try clothes on why/what do you want to see
- A I must try to know if they fit me or not

You want to see if the clothes

Look look at my coat Ferhat*/do you think it fits you/

Come here come here (teacher gives his coat to Ferhat)

Does the teacher's coat fit you
- No the clothes of the teacher didn't fit me

His coat doesn't fit me

His coat don't fit me

His coat doesn't fit me

Mhm

Now do your mother's clothes fit you do your mother's clothes fit you

Yes my mother's clothes fit me

Your mother your mother must be very small ehein

Yes

Do your mother's clothes fit you

Yes my my ma my father's clothes fit me

Her father's clothes

No eh (laughter) my mother's (laughter) ma

My mother's clothes

My mother's clothes fit me

Now Thwib* do your father's clothes fit you

Can you repeat please

Can your father's clothes fit you

No my father's clothes doesn't don't fit me

His father's clothes don't fit him/because his father is big and he is small ehein

Now before buying a skirt or before buying clothes you try them on and what else do you do what else do you do before buying a skirt (silence)

You must feel/you must feel the material (gesticulates)

Before buying th er skirt er I must fill feel the material ([matrål])

You must feel the material ([matrüål])
I must feel the material ([məˈtɪərɪəl])
I must before buying my my shirt I must er er feel the material
And why do you feel the material/what kind of material do you like
Soft
What kind of material do you prefer
I prefer the soft material
Soft material soft material
And what kind of material do you prefer Izzid i:n²
I prefer the soft er material
Soft material only soft well I like soft material and I like strong material too
Do you like strong material
Yes I like strong material
You know some people wear loose clothes and some people wear tight clothes
loose loose large big
And what kind of material do you prefer Izzid i:n*
I prefer the soft er material
Soft material only soft well I like soft material and I like strong material too

For example older people wear lose clothes or light or tight clothes
He like lose clothes
Older people "they"
loose
No eh older people many people like er some clothes loose and many people like eh eh some clothes tight (laughter)
Your parents for example your father and mother what do they like loose clothes or tight clothes
Loose clothes
They like the loose clothes
They like loose clothes
Your grandmother for example what does she wear loose or tight clothes
He she prefer
She prefers
She prefers er light clothes
Tight tight
Tight clothes (laughter)
Your grandmother wear tight clothes
Yes
Aha she is fashionable
Ben Nather* what do your parents wear tight clothes or loose clothes
My parents
Yes your father and mother
He like lose ([luːz]) clothes
loose ([luːs ])
loose clothes mhm
Many young people prefer tight clothes now/which is more comfortable
loose loose
the loose clothes is
Are
Are more comfortable than er than tight clothes
Loose clothes are usually more comfortable than tight clothes
Alright now we are going to say the dialogue on page fifty eight
Sir Sir
Wait a minute
One of you will introduce the dialogue one of you will read the introduction another one will be Samira Munya and the shop assistant.

For example Sunduss* will be Samira/you'll be Monia/ and the shop assistant Allaya*/Introduction

"Samira and Munya have left their parents at the hotel and have gone shopping in er Knightsbridge at present they are looking in the window of a large dress shop Samira and Munya outside a big dress shop in London"

"Oh look at those skirts the colours are lovely aren't they"

"And they're not very expensive are they"

"How do you like that one in the corner/it's very attractive ([draɪkɪəv]) isn't it"

"You mean the green"

"Very attractive ([sɔɪɪv]) isn't it"

"It's very attractive isn't it"

You mean the green one with the black check/but it isn't my size is it"

"Not for you for me i/I m mean it would look nice with my new blouse wouldn't wouldn't "But we can't wear ([wɪˈtʃ]) that colour with a turquoise"

You can't wear ([wɜːˈtʃ]) that colour with a turquoise blouse can you

But you can't wear that colour with a turquoise blouse ([bluːz])

Blouse ([blɔʊz])

Blouse ([blɔʊz]) can you

"Of course not I mean my orange blouse/do you think it would fit me"

"Let's go outside and find out"

"We haven't really got time have we"

"Ten minutes won't make much difference will it"

It won't make much difference will it we haven't got much time have we/will it have we ehein falling intonation

"The two sisters have gone into the dress shop They have asked the shop assistant for three skirts to try on Most shops have a fitting room a small room where customers can try clothes on the shop assistant has brought the skirts to them there"

"Would you like to try this one on first madam"

Would you like to try this one on first madam

"Yes yes please"

"That length is very popular this year"

"the style ([sɪˈlɑː]) really

The style ([sɪˈlɑː])

The style really suits ([sʊˈtʃ]) you Samira

The style really suits ([sʊˈtʃ]) you Samira

"We have er a"

([ɪm ˈmɪtʃ ɪə ] (it's not you)(laughter)

"That's a pity it was just your colour wasn't it"

Shop assistant

"We have it in larger size too/you do like to try the next size bigger"
| b CON1 T | Would you like to try the next size bigger |
| i RS1 S2 | Would you like to try the next size bigger |
| i IN2 S1 | Samira puts the larger skirt on and looks in the mirror |
| j a IN2 S3 | "That's better/how do I look Munya" |
| j RS2 S1 | "That one fits you beautifully ([bjʊtiʃəl])" |
| b CON1 T | That one suits you beautifully ([bjʊtiʃəl]) |
| i RS1 S1 | "Feel the material ([mætrɪəl]) Munya" |
| i RS1 S2 | Feel the material ([mætrɪəl]) Munya |
| i IN2 S2 | "It's lovely and soft isn't it" |
| c RS2 S3 | "Yes it is" |
| a IN2 S2 | "How much is it please" |
| a RS2 S1 | "It's eight pounds forty madam/will you take the skirt" |
| i CTR2 S2 | "We'll have to come back later with mother" |
| a IN2 S3 | "What time do you close" |
| i RS2 S1 | "We close at five madam" |
| i IN2 S3 | "We must hurry back Samira" |
| b CON1 T | We must hurry back Samira |
| i RS1 S3 | We must hurry back Samira |
| i IN2 S3 | "We mustn't be late for lunch must we" |
| c SAT2 T | Allwright |
| k PM2 Ss | Sir Sir |
| h IN3 T | Exercise page sixty two |
| h IN1 T | Example "the girls can't help their mother can they" |
| o h IN3 T | Oh excuse me/exercise J" |
| h h IN1 T | "The girls can help their mother can't they" |
| k PM1 Ss | Sir Sir |
| i RS1 S1 | "The girls can help their mother""the girls can help their mother can't they" |
| i IN1 T | You see here a question tag with a falling intonation/this isn't a question no this isn't a question the girls can help their mother can't they/ I'm sure the girls can help their mother can't they |
| i RS1 S2 | Doctor and Mrs Ashur will arrive tomorrow er won't they |
| b CON1 T | They will arrive tomorrow won't they |
| i RS1 S2 | They will arrive tomorrow won't they |
| k PM1 Ss | Sir Sir |
| i RS1 S3 | This dress is very long isn't it |
| b CON1 T | This dress is very long isn't it |
| i RS1 S3 | This dress is very long isn't it |
| i RS1 S1 | Those trousers won't er fit we him we won't those |
| b CON1 T | Those trousers won't fit him |
| i RS1 S1 | Those trousers won't fit him er won't er |
| bha CON1 T | Will they/repeat/those trousers |
| i RS1 S1 | Those trousers won't fit him will they |
| c SAT1 T | Those trousers won't fit him will they |
| i RS1 S1 | Your mother and father wouldn't like it would they |
| c SAT1 T | Your fa mother and father wouldn't like it would they |
| k PM1 Ss | Sir Sir |
| e i RS1 S2 | "Mary is studying at London University"/Mary is studying at London university isn't she |
| b CON1 T | Mary is a student at London university isn't she |
| i RS1 S2 | isn't she |
| c SAT1 T | Mhmmm |
| i RS1 S3 | His father has got a lot of money hasn't hasn't he |
| e c SAT1 T | His father's got a lot of money hasn't he/
His father's got a lot of money hasn't he

You two boys won't tell anyone will you

Jane and I haven't seen him today have they

The usual driver wasn't driving the bus was he

Jane and I aren't teaching English I teach us

I'm teaching you teaching I have a noun I obtain a noun

"Work"/"he works in a factory"

He's a worker

She is a singer

She is a singer

"He runs"

He is a runner

He is a runner

Now you know that some verbs make nouns/when we add i to the verb here/

A writer
i RS1 Ss Usually writes

h IN1 T "A teacher normally"

i IN1 T How er nouns can be plural

a IN2 T How many teachers have you

i RS2 Ss Many many

c SAT2 T Many teachers ehein

i IN1 T Plural nouns teachers for example

h IN1 T "Driver"

i RS1 Ss Drivers

c SAT1 T Drivers mhm

h IN1 T "Runner"

i RS1 Ss Runners

c SAT1 T Runners

h IN1 T Fighter

i RS1 Ss Fighters

c SAT T Fighters

h IN1 T "Swim"

i RS1 Ss Swimmer

h CON1 T The plural

i RS1 Ss. Swimmers

c SAT1 T Swimmers

h IN1 T "Begin"

i RS1 S1 Beginner

h IN1 T The plural

i RS1 S2 Beginners

c SAT1 T Beginners

h IN1 T "Winner"

i RS1 S3 The plural of winner s'est ([sɛ]) winners

h SAT1 T Winners (laughter)

a IN1 T Now note that "visit" the noun is/

i RS1 S3 [Visitor

c SAT1 T Visitor] is written is spelt like this/instead of

i or you spell it with ə at visitor visitors mhm/ also conductor

i RS1 Ss Conductor

i IN1 T Visitor Conductor (writing)

i IN3 T Let's do an exercise like this

a IN3 S3 Page

h RS3 T Page sixty seven.open your books on page sixty seven

h IN1 T Change these verbs to Nouns/Now you make a noun from

the verb example "drink"

i RS1 S3 Drinker

c SAT1 T Drinker

h IN1 T "Ride"

i RS1 S2 Rider ride rider

h IN1 T "Wear"

i RS1 S3 Wearer

c SAT1 T Wearer

h IN1 T "Follow"

e RS1 S1 "Follow"/Follower (['fɔləʊər])

c SAT1 T Follower (['fɔləʊə])

e RS1 S2 "Swim"/swimmer

c SAT1 T "Swim" swimmer

e RS1 S3 "Write"/writer

c SAT1 T "Write" writer

e RS1 S1 "Give"/giver ([ɡiːvə])

c SAT1 T "Give" giver ([ɡiːvə])

e RS1 S2 "Sleep"/sleeper ([slɪpə])

b CON1 T sleeper sleeper ([slɪpə])
sleep sleeper ([sli:pə])

"Play"/player

Play player

"Work"/worker

Work walker

Another example/now complete these sentences filling the blanks with correct words/example "Munir writes well he is a good writer"

She is a good cleaner

They're quick workers

He's a famous joker ([dʒəʊkə])

They'll use a book for beginners ([bɪgɪnərз])

"She listens ([ˈlɪsənəz])

She is one of the most regular listeners

"They played a game for four" players

Players

"They played a game for four players

They played a game for four players

thwi:b*

Example "a driver normally drives"

[A bus
A bus driver

A bus driver

A bus driver/he is a bus driver

"A lighter a lighter for example what does it light"

A cigarette lighter

It's a cigarette lighter/it lights cigarettes it's a cigarette lighter

"Now the first noun is the object of the verb in a full sentence example if he usually drives a taxi he is a taxi driver/they are both cigarette smokers in the plural" Alwright

Exercise C

Number two "My friend never eats meat"

"My friend never eats meat eats meat" they're er they aren't er

He isn't he isn't

Sir Sir

My friend my friend/one friend

Never eats meat

never eats meat he isn't a meat eater

He isn't a meat eater mhm

People use the road ([road]) they are roads' ([road]) users

They are road ([road]) users/they are re road users

The men on the beach save people's lives" they save people's lives/what are they

They are live

They are life

they are life savers ([life])

Repeat/they are life savers ([life])

they are life savers

Yes life savers

"His job is to taste tea"

She's he's a taster tea

A tea taster

A tea taster

He were

He was a tea taster/mhm yes

"His job is to teach English" his job is to teach English

His job he is an English teacher

He's an English teacher

"All your friends support Etoile"/What are they

they're Etoile supporters

Are you an Etoile supporter or are you El-Makarem supporter

Yes I'm El-Makarem supporter

You're El-Makarem supporter

Are you an Etoile supporter

I I Esperance supporter

I am an Esperance supporter

I am an Esperance supporter

I am an Esperance supporter

"Eh these people here won prizes"/what are they

They are prize winners

They are the prize winners

No What is the verb here/the verb win in the past won

Winners

They are the prize
They are the prize winners
They are the prize winners/they are the prize winners
"Captain Webb swam the Channel" he first swam the
Channel Captain Webb first swam the Channel
Sir
The Channel swim
Is
The Channel is swimmer (Sir)
He is the Channel swimmer (Sir) swimmer
He is a Channel swimmer
"That man tells story"
Now he is the Channel swimmer/he is the first
He is the first Channel swimmer
Captain Webb ([wɛb])
Captain Webb ([wɛb]) is the first Channel swimmer
"That man tells stories"
He's a story teller
He is a story teller
Look here for example the man tells stories (writes)
he is a story teller the first noun does not take an s
A book seller
He sells many books but he is a book seller/a story teller
"Many Arab countries export oil"
they're oil exporters ([ikɔpɔːlɔːz])
Yes they're oil exporters ([ikɔpɔːlɔːz])
Is Tunisia an oil exporter
Yes
Yes Tunisia it's an oil exporter
Is an oil exporter
Is Libya an oil exporter
No Libya isn't an oil exporter
Yes no
Petrole (French for oil)
That's oil
Oil ([ziːt]) (the T.A.V. for vegetable oil and olive oil)
Libya is an oil exporter it's a big oil exporter
Libya is a big exporter or a big oil exporter
Libya is a big er oi oil exporter
Now Tunisia is an olive oil exporter
Yes
And it's an oil exporter too/petroleum or oil
Allwright now look at the picture on page sixty eight
"What does this man do he builds ships or he is a
ship builder"
Next time on your exercise copybook you answer these
questions/exercise D page sixty eight.
APPENDIX IV
SECOND YEAR ENGLISH
lesson discourse (L 2 B)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acts</th>
<th>Moves</th>
<th>Speakers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i f</td>
<td>IN1</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Particle verbs are like "to stand up""to sit down"/so when it rains I put on my raincoat/so the verb that comes before the particle supplies the particle 
(Silence)

h IN3 T Raise your hand 
(Silence)
a IN1 T So where's the particle 
(Silence)
i a R-RN1 T Verbs followed by a particle like "to stand up""to sit down"/where we find it in"I put on my raincoat"
g PM1 T Hai:n* 
i RS1 S1 "On"
c SAT1 T "On" I put on my raincoat 
i a IN1 T Now sometimes we say "I put on my raincoat""I put my raincoat on"/when we use the pronoun 
b RS1 S2 I put it on 
g h IN1 T Ali */repeat 
b RS1 S2 I put it on 
h f IN1 T Now he holds up his stick/change this 
i RS1 S3 He holds his stick up 
a IN1 T Or 
i RS1 Ss He holds it up 
h IN3 T [!:] raise your hand 
g PM3 T Thraief* 
i RS1 S1 He holds it up 
a IN1 T So what do you notice here what do you notice 
i RS1 S2 We er change er we change er 
a IN1 T Yes so what can we change 
i RS1 S2 the place of the particle 
i a IN1 T So we have the subject we have here the subject here the verb/here a 
i RS1 Ss The particle 
c SAT1 T The particle 
a IN1 T Subject verb particle and er the 
i RS1 Ss Object 
e c SAT1 T Object/and the object 
a IN1 T And when we replace the par/when we replace the subject w when we replace [the object 
Ss T By a pronoun so where is the pronoun used 
i RS1 S3 Before the particle 
c f SAT1 T Yes/when we change order we have to use the pronoun before [the particle 
Ss particle] 
h IN1 T Now would you change the following sentences 
a IN1 T I hang up my coat I hang up my coat 
i RS1 S1 I hang it up 
c SAT1 T I hang it up yes 
a IN1 T Or 
g PM1 T Yeah Bubaker* 
i RS1 S2 I hang it up my coat er 
b c SAT1 T I hang up my coat yes 
a IN1 T Aly takes the cat out 
g PM1 T Yes 
i RS1 S3 Aly takes out the cat
Aly takes out the cat yes

Krifa*

He takes it out

He takes it

Out

Good

Now pick out the difficult words and write the difficult words down

Masri*

Pick the difficult words out and er

Write

Write them down

them down/and write them down yes

John borrowed the book then gave the book back John borrowed the book then gave the book back

John borrowed the book and then er gave it back

And then gave it back yes

Now you listen to the lesson a radio broadcast from the Edinburgh Festival (While trying to find the recorded passage on the cassette, the teacher questioned the class)

So what's er what's Britain

It's an island

It's an island

How many countries make Britain

Three countries make up Britain

Yes

What are they

Scotland England and Wales (Teacher finds text on tape. Teacher puts on tape recorder)

"this year a group from Tunisia is taking part in the festival. They are musicians and Folk dancers from Jerba. Tonight they are performing in a large hall, watched by thousands of fascinated spectators. A commentator from the BBC is describing the scene for listeners. Good evening listeners/Tonight's programme comes to you from the Edinburgh festival, where we are watching a group of folk-dancers from the isle of Jerba off the coast of Tunisia. The musicians are playing traditional instruments, flutes and drums. There is a flautist sitting in the middle, and beside him he has drummers who are beating the drums with their hands in a furious rhythm. We are now watching one of the male dancers, who seems to be getting ready to do something spectacular. He is wearing baggy red trousers, a red waistcoat, a white shirt and a red cap. And he's just gone to one side to take his waistcoat off and to hang up his red cap. Now he's picking up a large vase for holding water - a sort of Eastern Water-pot - he's picked it up and put it on his head. I hope he's remembered to pour the water out. He's dancing all the time while he balances the vase on his head. Now what's he going to do? Is he going to take off the vase? No! He's not going to take it off, he's putting another one on top of it. It seems hardly possible - he's dancing around, really very fast, balancing two vases on his head. And now his assistant is pushing along a
chair. He's climbed up onto the chair to put a third vase on top of the other two. The crowd is applauding.
And would you believe it, here comes another vase - and yet another! And now he's got five large vases balanced on his head while he dances around - and he hasn't stopped dancing for a moment! I don't think we've ever seen anything like that before in Edinburgh! Just listen to the applause!"

Read the text silently

(Students reading text)

So choose the best answer

The text is "A" a television interview "B" a newspaper report "C" a radio broadcast

The text is a radio broadcast

It takes place in "A" Scotland "B" England "C" Wales

It takes place in Scotland

The Edinburgh Festival happens "A" in June "B" in September "C" in August

"B" September

The group from Tunisia is a group of "A" actors "B" musicians and dancers "C" journalists

"B" musicians and dancers

While he had the vases the dancer "A" kept on dancing "B" stopped dancing "C" sat down

He kept on dancing

Now you state whether the statements are true or false and you correct the false ones

The musicians are performing in a large hall

That's true

That's true

The scene is being described by a commentator from the RTT

This false

This false

This false because they considered er traditional instruments

As traditional instruments good

The dancer is wearing baggy trousers and a red waistcoat

A red waistcoat

This is true

True
a  IN2  T  The dancer dances very slowly while he balances the vases

b  CON1  T  Balanced

c  SAT2  T  Yes

d  RS1  S2  The dancer danced and put on the vases

e  SAT2  T  This false

f  RS2  S2  This false because another person er put er on on his head

g  PM2  T  Yes

h  IN3  T  Now fill in the blanks

i  SAT1  Ss  To Applause

j  IN1  T  An app../We saw this/an applause is the noun/what is the verb (Silence)

k  IN1  T  To applaud to applaud

l  SAT2  T  So the assis the s spectators applauded

m  IN3  T  Now you supply the right particle you supply the right particle
The dancer first put blank his waistcoat

His waistcoat/he first put on his waistcoat yes
Then he took it then he took it
Yes
Then he took it out
Not out then he took it
Yes
Then he took it off
And hang it
Sekka*
And hang it up
Good
He picked a vase
Up
Yes Busuffara*
He picked on a vase er and fall (laughter)
And hang it up
Sekka*
And hang it up

He picked a vase
Busuffara*
He picked on a vase er and fall (laughter)
Yes Ben Othman*
He picked it up he picked it up
He picked it up good
He remembered to pour the water
Out
He picked it up good
He remembered to pour the water
Out
His assistant pushed a chair
Along
Along/along good
While he continued dancing
Around around ([d/randnd])
Around ([s'rawnd])/while he continued dancing around

Now can you summarize the text can one of you summarize the text
Krifa* you start
There's er er a radio there is a radio commen broadcast
It's a radio broadcast
It's a radio broadcast
From which place
From Scotland
Where is Scotland
In Edinburgh
The capital of Scotland
The capital of Scotland

Now what's er what is the group that is performing what's the group that's performing
Yes Masri*
The group is a Tunisian one
The group is a Tunisian one
May be er
Where does it come from
From Jerba
From Jerba yes
What is Jerba

This is an island it's an island

Now Kraiem* can you describe the dancers and the musicians

(Silence)

How many dancers are there

Two

How many musicians

Many

Many musicians/there are many musicians yes

What kind of instruments did they have

Traditional instruments

What are they

Krifa*

They er they wear traditional clothes and er play

And play with traditional instruments/what are the instruments

Yes

Flute er er drums er

Make a sentence

Masri*

Their instruments were flute and drums

were the flute and the drums/yes the flute and the drums

Now what was the dancer trying to do what was the dancer trying to do

The dancer was trying to put er on a vase

To put on

Many vases

Did he succeed

Yes

Yes he succeeded

Now let me show you some pictures of Scotland

(Teacher goes around showing pictures cut from holiday brochures. Students look at the pictures without making any comment. Those who have seen the pictures are chatting in LTAV.

The fieldworker was invited by the teacher to help her show some of the pictures to the students)

Now would you take your books on page two hundred and eighty

(Some samples from pp.280-81 are provided below to give the reader an idea about the ensuing discourse)
Now there is the picture that you have yes (shows the picture)

How does it describe Edinburgh

He described Edinburgh er

As the most beautiful city in Europe

Ist the most beautiful city in Europe

One

One of the most yes

Now what does the city hold every year what does the city hold every year

Ben Othman*

Every year er the city er huge er an er it hold an huge international festival of arts yes

When

Now do the soloists and groups come from Britain

Masri*

They come from ..

They come from

All over the world

Do many people come to watch them

Thousands of people come to watch er th them

Thousands of people

Now er an artist who sings in an opera is called er an an

An opera singer

An artist dancing in a ballet er is a a ballet dancer

An artist dancing in a ballet er is called er [ballet dancer]

Is a ballet dancer yes

People acting in plays are blank

Buzi:d*

they are they are Japanese er actors

They are

Actors

The person who conducts an orchestra is a blank

Sjusd*

A conductor

Is a conductor yes

People who play the violin are

Violinists

Violinists yes

And playing the guitar are

Guitarists ([gɪˈtɑːrɪstz])

Guitarists ([ɡɪˈtɑːrɪstz])

Guitarists

Now would you take your books on page three o two three hundred and two

(Below a photocopy of page 302 is provided)
Scotland is a country in the north of the British Isles.

Scotland has many lakes (called "lochs") and mountains.

The capital is called Edinburgh.

Some Scotsmen wear kilts, and...

...some play the bagpipes.

Their favourite sport is golf.

So what does picture number two describe?

Picture number two described the lakes in Scotland.

They are called "lochs".

Scottish.

Now what do Scotsmen wear?

Scottish yes.

They play golf.

The bagpipe.

Their favourite sport is golf.

What do people in Mandia wear in the summer?

They wear loose clothes.

The trousers.

Baggy trousers.

Which word do you find in the word "baggy"?

Bag.

What does it mean?
they are loose
Loose trousers yes
When do people in Mahdia wear a waistcoat
They wear traditional clothes
When there is a
A marriage
At Sidi Massau:d Festival
At Sidi Massau:d Festival good yes good

[End of lesson L 2 B]
APPENDIX V
THIRD YEAR ENGLISH
lesson discourse (L 3 A)

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What are the modals
"Should ought to must have to"
Should ought to must and have to
Now read the first sentences
Meshri*
"There is a lot of people who should go to school"
Yes
Ben Othman*
The old the old ought to be helped
Yes
"The government says
Or
"Or we have to pay and study"
Yes
"You must drink and drive" you must drink and drive
You mustn't
You mustn't drink and drive
Yes
You must obey ([obɛ]) your father
Obey ([obɛ:i])
Obey ([ɔ:bi:i]) your father
It's half past ten
No another one
Krifa*
It must be ten and fifteen
Yes
Now we have different examples/Bubaker* read
"These words show a speaker's belief that someone
is obliged ([ɔ:bمحايد])
Obliged ([ɔ:bمحايد]) to do something/generally
should and ought to show a recommendation/must and
have to are stronger and suggest that something
cannot be avoided'
Yes
Ben Slama*
The first sentence
You should go to the cinema I recommend it
You should go to the cinema I recommend it
You ought to go to the cinema I recommend it/You
must go to the cinema you have no choice/You have to
go to the cinema you have no choice
Let's do exercise "H"/page fifty four
"Have to"/"children have to go to school"/Number two
Yes
Children ([ɪɡildərn]) er
Children ([ɪɡildərn])
Study
The child
The child ought ([ɔ:a:t]) to
The child ought ([ɔ:t]) to
Ought ([ɔ:t]) to er
Wash
Wash er his teeth
In the past the life of a typical Tunisian woman was dominated by men's expectations. When she was young, she was dominated by the expectations of her father: when she married, she was dominated by those of her husband. Her parents did not have to consult her about the marriage: she knew she would have to marry the person that her parents chose. She had to be obedient.

Afterwards, when she moved to her new home, she had to live obediently with her husband. She knew she ought not to go out without a veil or a Sifsari, and, if she went out with her husband, she knew she should walk respectfully behind him. It was very difficult to be independent or individual, especially for town girls.

The country girls had a little more freedom, but they paid for this with hard work. They had to carry water or collect wood, and often to work in the fields, like farm labourers.

Many fathers did not think it was necessary for their daughters to have formal education. Girls were given a good education only to make them more desirable as wives. Such fathers thought that marriage was the only career for a woman, and that a
wife's fear of divorce was enough to make a marriage happy. Because many women also agreed with these opinions, it was very difficult to change them.

In fact it was a man. Tahar Hadad, in his book "Society and Women in the Eyes of the Law", who first called attention to the inferior position of Tunisia's women. He said there should be no more polygamy, that the veil should be abolished and that instant divorce by the husband should be stopped. Soon his ideas began to spread. Women began to learn of new possibilities in life.

But before they could win their personal independence, they had to help win national independence. As early as 1938 a group of girls were arrested for protesting against the imprisonment of Habib Bourguiba. Later many other women came forward to take part in the struggle. They formed their own Union of Tunisian Women. Bourguiba did not forget the part that women played in the struggle for Independence.

Shortly after Independence in 1956, the Code relating to Women's rights became law. Women were given legal equality with men and four important reforms were introduced:

1. 17 became the minimum age for a girl to marry;
2. No girl could be married without her consent;
3. Polygamy was forbidden;
4. A marriage could be ended only by a legal divorce, and not just by the husband's wishes.

Of course, this did not solve all the problem that the women had, but it was an important start. It gave the women of Tunisia legal dignity and encouraged them to regard themselves as persons with rights."

What's the title of the text
Women in Tunisia
The title is Women in Tunisia
Yes
Repeat Shleifa
The title in the title in the text is is women in Tunisia
Does the text deal with what does the text deal with
The text deal with er
Deals with
Yes Bubaker
The text deals with the situation of the women in the past
Yes yes/Or the problems of women women's problems in the past
Now was the typical Tunisian woman independent
No the typical Tunisian woman wasn't er independent
No she wasn't independent
Who was the man who first paid attention to women's problems
Tahar Hadad er was er the first who paid er attention
To women's problems
To women's problems
Now what's the first important date here in the history of Tunisian Women
The important date is nineteen thirty eight
Nineteen thirty eight
Nineteen fifty six

What's nineteen fifty six in the history of Tunisia

The independence good

Now look at the following sentences and try to put them in a logical order

"A" No girl could be married without her consent

"B" This is to solve all the problems that men had

"C" Later men and women came forward to take part in the struggle

"D" Her parents did not consult her about her marriage

"E" Girls had been given a good education only to make them desirable as wives

"F" She had to live obediently with her husband

"G" Instant divorce by the husband should be stopped

So what's the first

"D" is the first

"F" number two

"E" number three

"G" number four

"C" number five

"A" number six

And "E" number seven

That's all.

Now you have some words which are underlined in some sentences/try to replace these words and say which words they refer to/"When she married she was dominated by those of her husband"/look at this

"Those" refers to the mother and the father of the husband

Those refers to

Yeah

The parents-in-law

Parents-in-law/no

"When when she married she was dominated by those of her husband"/look at this

"Parents expectations"/good expectations

Now "the country girls had a little more freedom but they paid for this with hard work"/"this"

"Freedom"/"Freedom"

Ben Othman

"This"/"Freedom"

"Because many women agreed with these opinions it
was very difficult to change them”/"them"

"Of course this did not solve the problems that women had”/"this"

It refers to the important reforms

The reforms/you have "this" "this is singular/so which word in the paragraph

The law yes/or the code yes the code

Now these statements are true or false/you pick up

In the past town girls were more independent than country girls

That's false

You've got to correct the false ones

"Because country girls were more independent than town girls but they had paid for this"

They paid for this

They worked harder yes

Now country girls worked hard

That's true

That is true

No girl was given any form of education

It's true

It's true/because they didn't give a good education only to women who need to er desirable ([de2irci6k])

Desirable ([de2irci6k])

Women were afraid of divorce

It's true

With this new law all women's problems were solved

It's false

Why

Yes Ben Khlija* why

It's false because their problems this problem are we find them nowadays

Yes because we find these problems/not all but some of the problems

Now you recognize the following words/you've got a list of words there (pointing to the blackboard)/So you have "agree" "pay" "see" "carry" "collect" "forbidden" "spread" "consent" and "instant"

You look ill you should blank a doctor

Ben Othman*

You look ill you should see a doctor

We blank a very heavy box

Yes

He is carrying a very heavy box a very heavy box

Can you repeat

He is carrying a very heavy box

Good

My little brother blank stamps

My little brother collects stamps

Coliects stamps

I don't blank with you that country life is very
difficult

You should bank attention to what the teacher is saying.

You should pay attention to what the teacher is saying.

You should pay attention now she could not marry without her father's blank consent.

With new types of cameras you can get blank photos.

Instant photos.

Can you repeat the sentence please with new types of cameras you took er.

You can get instant photos.

Now the news of the man's death spread all over the country.

This law is unfair for many people it should be blank.

Forbidden.

It should be illegal.

Repeat.

This law isn't isn't er is er.

Unfair.

Is unfair to er.

Many people.

To many people it must be er.

It should be a.

(Silence)

Illegal.

Illegal.

Illegal yes.

It's blank for Muslims to eat pork.

It's forbidden for Muslims to eat pork.

It's forbidden for Muslims to eat pork yes.

Now I give you either the noun or the adjective/and you have to give the missing word OK.

Now possible possible.

Mabruk.
Independence Independence

Now law law

Law

Legal ([legal ])

Legal ([legal ])

Now expect

Law

Expectation

Expectation

Equal

Equality

Now give the missing adverb

Obedient

Obediently

Respect

Respectfully

You repeat

Yes

Respectfully

Now you give the missing adjective

Fear

Fearful

Fearful fearful

Fearful yes

Desire desire

Desirable

Bubaker*

Desirable

Desirable yes

Now take your books on page fifty two again/you read the first paragraph/and you try to give a title to this paragraph (Silence)

What can you say about the first paragraph

People er Tunisian women by er in the past

Tunisian women in the past yes

The Tunisian women domination

The Tunisian women domination/whose domination is that

Her father

Her father

Her husband

Man's domination

What can we say/man's domination man's domination good

Now was the Tunisian women free when she was young

No

No no when she was young the Tunisian woman wasn't er wasn't er free

Was she free after she married

No she wasn't free after she married

Now could she choose her husband
No another one

Her father made the choice for her

Good

Now could she refuse a possible partner chosen by her parents could she refuse a possible partner chosen by her parents

No

No she couldn't refuse no she couldn't refuse er a partner

A partner

A partner

A partner chosen by her parents

Chosen by her parents yes

Now what can you say about the title for the second paragraph

Was it easy for partners to be independent after marriage

Independent

Woman is independent/"How come" in LTAV

Now do these girls get their independence after marriage

No no

Bubaker*

No they didn't get their independence after marriage

How did the Tunisian women live with their husband

They must obey to er people of their husband

Obedience

Obey

They must obey

their husband

Their parents

So they must obey their parents

Now what did she put on when she went out

Here Krifa*

She used to put on er sefsari ([ṣefsari] a dress that women wear. It covers their whole body except their face)

Or

A veil

A veil yes

Now how should she walk if she went out with her husband how should she walk

She should er walk walk er er behind them

Behind

behind them

behind him

Now what about the country girls/what country what can you say
The country girls are more free.

They had more freedom, but they also had more hard work.

But they had to pay for their independence by working hard.

Now, how did what can you say about this paragraph/the fourth paragraph/what does it deal with/look at the fourth paragraph?

They are they deal with education and marriage.

Many fathers did not think it necessary for their daughters to have formal education.

Women were given good education only to make them near the traditional life.

Marriage was the only career for a woman.

Women were afraid of divorce.

It was difficult to change these ideas because women believed in these ideas.

They believed in these ideas.

Who was the man who first paid attention to women's...
Tahar Hadad was first paid attention to women's position

"Society and Women in the eyes of the law"

Tahar Hadad's ideas

Zawali*

What were his ideas

He said there should be more freedom

There should be more freedom/what else

Yes Busuffara*

Er the er the veil should be abolished

Yes/what else

And instant divorce by the husband should be stopped

There should be more freedom/what else

Yes

Begun to spread began to spread

Were women unionised

Yes

What did they call it

Women formed the Union of Tunisian women

Yes women formed the Union of Tunisian women

National independence

National independence/and

Personal independence

Yes

Sli:m* can you repeat

Women wanted to win national independence and personal independence

What happened in nineteen thirty eight

A group of women demonstrated

Yes

What did Bourguiba remember what did he remember

He remembered the part they they played in the struggle

The part they played in the struggle yes

Er now what happened in nineteen fifty six what happened in nineteen fifty six

Tunisia won its independence

What were women given

Their rights

Their rights yes

(End of lesson L 3 A)
Well your father told you to go to the market.

He asked me to bring him some potatoes.

He asked you to bring him some potatoes.

He wanted me to go to the market.

He asked you to do another sentence.

He wanted me marketing.

You wanted me to give you good sentences.

My friend hoped I spent the holiday near him.

You wish the teacher would give you good marks.

I wanted the teacher to give me good marks.

Her mother tells her to go to school early.
what her mother wants

They hope it won't rain they hope it will not rain they hope it will not rain/use want

Quickly

They hope it won't rain

They want they want

Be raining

What does he want what does he want/he hopes it won't rain/use want

rain/what does he want/does he want it to rain

He want not to be rain/no begin with "he" and "negative"

He want it does not rain

Not it "he"

Repeat

Yes he doesn't want

Yes he doesn't want

It rains

I wish he would come early

Yes

I wanted her to come early

I wanted him to come early

He be quiet

The teacher wants us to be quiet

Yes Luhishi*

You must leave now you must leave now you must leave now

The teacher wants us to must leave now

No

Someone else

I want you to leave now

The teacher wants me to leave now

She hopes her son will succeed

The girls no participation

She wants her son will succeed/use hope er want

He wants her son sons will succeed

She wants her son to succeed (student is a stutterer)

She wants her son to succeed

I advise you to do your homework I advise you to do your homework I advise you to do to do your homework

You wanted us to do our homework

It's in the present it's not in the past

You want us to do our homework

You want us to do our homework

Right open your books on page two hundred and seventy
two two hundred and seventy two and read the first three paragraphs
(silent reading)

Underneath
The paper is underneath the table (teacher bends down and points to a piece of paper on the floor)
Under under
So the paper is the paper is under the table
A clue
Well we say for example I tell you find a clue in a sentence a clue in a sentence the main word in the sentence the clue as a word is a key word the key word in a sentence or in a phrase

The essential word

The essential word yes
Or something else/when I er for example I want you to find out some words and this is the word for example this is the word (teacher writes "word") and I give you a clue of the "word" it means a hint/ I give this cons this vowel of "word" for example I tell you double you ("w") (teacher hides.."ord") and you must find out the rest of the word this is the clue (teacher points at "w")/When you hear me say double you you must find out what follows so here this is this can be a clue of the word and not a word in a sentence

Well do you understand
Yes and No/well OK
Here there is an exercise/it is a kind of game this game is about language in general and this is er about er exam paper about the exam how to pass an exam/Well I read first I read the introduction and the exercise
"Let's have a rest from world problems for a moment and try a language game/here's a passage called how to pass exams/you will notice that some words are missing but underneath each blank is a clue like adjective or plural noun/take a pencil and say to a friend who knows some English I want you to help me when I ask you for an adjective give me an adjective when I ask for a noun give a noun/Now someone or some of you take pencils you can take pencils now because you have to write something on your books/this exercise i consists in using one item you must begin with I want you to help/when I ask you for an adjective give an adjective when I ask for a noun give a noun and the main advice here is don't read the text at all don't read the text look only at the blanks and say what do you want your friend to give you do you understand this exercise

Well don't read the text don't read the text and look only at the blanks here look at the blanks and ask your friend to give you the word you want him to give ask your friend to give you only the word/If it is an adjective an adverb or a verb
So I read the second paragraph

"Don't read all the passage first/just say I want you to give me an adverb or I want you to give me a plural noun etcetera/then fill each blank one by one/write down exactly what is said/Don't read the passage aloud until all the blanks have been filled/you will be amused at the strange things people say"

Of course you must say why I want you why I don't want you to read er the text/I want you to give some words which are not related to this text/give any words you want adjective noun verb or any other word

So who wants to begin this exercise

Well give me give me your what do you want your friend to give you well what do you want your friend to give you/first yes/tell your friend to give you an adjective/tell him I want you

I want you to give me "an adjective"

Well give him an adjective any adjective you want any adjective

Quick

You've got to write "quick" (teacher hands a piece of chalk to a student who goes to the blackboard)

Now what do you want your friend to give you

I want I want my friend to give me "an adverb"

Usually

Write usually (to the student standing by the blackboard)

Well what do you want your friend to give you

I want to er my friend to give me "a noun"

A noun/give him a noun/don't give a noun which is related to the text

Noun

Any noun

Country

Country yes

So what do you want your friend to give you/tell him I want you

I want you to give me er "a verb"

To buy

To buy

Yes

Well tell her to give you/I want

I want you to give me a "unaccountable noun"

Sugar

Sugar yes/she wants her to give her sugar

Well what next/what do you want your friend to give you

I want you to give me "a verb"

Give him a verb

To give

Next/tell her to give you/I want you

I want you to give me a verb

Ask ask

To ask

"An adjective"
Wrong wrong
Wrong yes wrong
Well what do you want your friend to give you
I want to give me
Say I want you
I want you to give me "an adjective"
Beautiful beautiful
Beautiful
Which adjective/the adjective we have "wrong"
"But the next step/the next stage" (teacher talking to the student who is writing on the blackboard)
I want you to give me "a verb"
The second paragraph always
To sleep
To sleep to sleep
Well what do you want your friend to give you/tell him I want you
I want you I want you to give me "an adverb"
Yes give him an adverb
Slowly
The next one the next one
I want you to give me "a plural noun"
Yes give him a plural noun
Sticks sticks
Sticks sticks yes
We now have something else/we have "the adjective"
I want you to give me er "an adjective"
Give him an adjective
Nice
Now the last word in the second paragraph the last word in the second paragraph
I want you to give me "a plural noun"
No the last one is not a plural noun (teacher to student who is writing on the blackboard)
[ɪət ] ("no no" in LTAV). (students to their mate)
It's a noun]/So write a pen
Well er the last paragraph/the last paragraph which begins with "an adverb" (to the whole class)
What do you want your friend (to a particular student)
I want you to give me an adverb
Quickly
[əfœə] ("we saw it" in LTAV)
Slow slow
Slow (as if not sure of what he heard)
Comfortably comfortably
The next one is "a plural a plural noun"
Things
Things yes things
Plural noun things (to student writing on the blackboard)
Now the last one
I want you to give me "a noun"
Give her a noun
A cup a cup
So a cup (to student writing on blackboard)
Now take these verbs/and put each word in its place here in the book in the text. Put each word in the text/you put the adjective in the place of the adjective and the noun where you find noun written and the adverb where you find adverb written and so on until you fill all the blanks/quickly (Silence, students doing the task)

Well someone reads the er the text

"How to pass exams when you do your exams it is important to have a quick mind you should slowly the night before your exams to help you sleep and drink a country of got sugar make sure you give in the wrong position always sleep the exam questions usually make sure you understand them......and give them to the pen" (We found it unnecessary to reproduce the whole move)

And give them to the pen (laughter)

Well do you understand why they want you to put any adverb any adjective any word just for fun just for fun (Silence)

The first word the first word

Reasonable mind

Reasonable mind/what else

Clear mind

A clear mind

Write a clear mind then/write a clear mind in the first phrase/the adjective is clear write clear (to the whole class)

The second word/"you should sleep"

Comfortably

Just to write comfortably (student at blackboard)

Yes you should write er sleep comfortably

Early

Early/you should sleep

Well

You should sleep well also

So write one of these words well or comfortably

The next word is a singular noun a singular noun/"make sure you sleep er drink"

A cup a cup

Yes Belhaj*

Milk
A cup of milk

Drink a cup of hot coffee

Of hot coffee yes

Someone else raise your hand/someone else give another word

Of hot milk

Of hot milk yes

Why milk/why hot water

The next word/"make sure you"

"Make sure" and give a verb

Make sure you are

In a good position

In a good position/another word another adverb

You sleep

You sleep you sleep in/an adjective

Tired

Good position

In a good position yes in a good position

The next word a verb/"always a verb the exam questions"

Always read

The exam paper questions slowly

Slowly

Yes what do you want

Consciously

Consciously

Yes

No

Carefully

Carefully

Read the sentence/"you must always read"

You must always read the questions carefully

The question

Carefully

Carefully

The next word/"make sure you understand them then write your answers on"

Paper

Paper/here after "on" we want an adjective
In white paper

Why do you want only white paper/well how do you call the paper before you write your essay

Dirty paper (laughter)

A dirt a dirty paper/no it's not a dirty paper/rough paper rough paper on a rough paper

Rough

Yes

Then write your answers on a piece of rough paper/it means the paper you write on before you write your answers on the exam on the exam paper

"Then check your /what do you check

Your answers/check your answers

"Before putting them on to the examination"

Paper

Paper yes

["the er" in TAV] thi er next word adverb [an adverb

Finally]

Finally yes

"Check all your"

er Finally check all your answers carefully

All your answers carefully

"And give them to the to the"

To the teacher

To the teacher/and give them to the teacher

Now who wants to read the text who wants to read the text with the new words who wants to read the text with the new words

"When you do your exams it's important to have a quick er a clear mind you should sleep well the night before your exams to help you sleep sleep drink a ka Cup

A cup of hot hot sugar

No of hot milk

Of hot milk make sure make sure er make make sure you sleep in wrong position

In good position

In a good position always sleep

Read

Always read the exam ques questions carefully make sure you understand them them wrai write your ans answers on a piece of of er of rough paper check your answers before copi copi copying them on the examination examination papers eh Finally check all all your all ans all your answers carefully and then give them to the to the teacher." (Student is a stutterer)

To the teacher

Who wants to read/a good reading without mistakes

"When you do your exam it is important to have a clear mind you should sleep comfortably the night before the exam...and then give them to the teacher" And then give them to the teacher
Now what is the importance what is the important thing you must have in your exam what is the important thing you must have in your exam (Silence)

This is about the text
(Silence)

The answer/what is the important thing you must have in your exam
Well I want you to speak/if you want to speak raise your hand and I'm ready to allow you
Yes

They must have a clear mind in the examination
You must
(Silence)

I must say (say I must)
I must have a clear mind in the examination
I must have a clear mind in the examination
What would you do the night before the exam what should you do the night in the night before the exam
I should sleep comfortably
I must sleep early
I must sleep early
No/I said what must you do to sleep well
I must drink a cup of hot milk
You must drink a cup of hot milk
Well how must you sleep how must you sleep before the exam
We must sleep in good position
We must sleep in good position
We must sleep/I must sleep in a good position
Well when you got when you've got the exam paper what must you do when you've got the exam paper what must you do
You must read the exam paper
Carefully you must read the exam questions carefully
Must you understand the questions must you understand the questions
Yes of course
Yes of course
We must understand the questions
We must understand the questions
Well do you write your answers on your exam paper first do you write your answers on your exam paper first do you write your answers on the exam paper first
No no I must check er our my my er answers
You must check
m my answers in rough
On
On a rough paper
On a rough paper
Do you give the paper to the teacher just after copying them do you give your answers to the teacher just after copying them
No we must check all our answers then we give it to the teacher
We give them to the teacher
Well why must you give them to the teacher why must you give your answers to the teacher why must you read them before giving them to the teacher
Mhmm
To correct them
To correct them
To be sure of the truth \( [\mathfrak{r} \mathfrak{e} \mathfrak{u} \mathfrak{a} \mathfrak{t}] \) of the answers
The truth \( [\mathfrak{r} \mathfrak{e} \mathfrak{u} \mathfrak{a} \mathfrak{t}] \) yes
How many times do you check your answers how many times must you check the answers how many times must you check your answers
We must check our answers three times
Three times/when in the beginning and at the end/
so only only
Twice
Twice yes/you review er read your answers twice

[End of Lesson L 3 B]
APPENDIX VII
FOURTH YEAR ENGLISH
lesson discourse (L 4 A)

Acts | Moves | Speakers |
-----|-------|----------|
 a i | IN2  | T        |

How did Willy try to kill himself? Remember that he tried to kill himself more than once.

**Acts**

**Moves**

**Speakers**

a i IN2 T How did Willy try to kill himself? Remember that he tried to kill himself more than once.

b g PM2 T Yes

c h IN3 T Will you please speak up?

d i RS2 S1 He tried to kill himself by driving into the river.

e c SAT2 T Into the river.

f i a IN2 T He tried again. How did he try the second time?

g g PM2 T Please.

h i RS2 S2 He tried by stimulating (stimulating) accidents.

i b CON1 T by stimulating (stimulating) accidents.

j a CTR2 T Yes but he tried with another way.

k a IN2 T Yes what did he try to do?

l i RS2 S1 He tried to kill himself with the gas.

m c SAT2 T He tried to kill himself with gas.

n a IN2 T Did Biff obey his mother at last? Did Biff obey his mother at last?

(Silence)

o a R-RN2 T What did his mother ask him to do?

p i RS2 S3 To help his father.

q c SAT2 T To help his father.

r i RS2 S1 To respect his father.

s c SAT2 T To respect his father.

t i RS2 S2 To share responsibility.

u c SAT2 T To share responsibility.

v i RS2 S3 To be grateful.

w f SAT2 T To be grateful/to understand better their father.

x a IN2 T Did he obey his mother at last?

y i RS2 S1 Yes.

z g PM2 T Yes.

a a CTR2 T Yes.

b h IN3 T Speak up please.

c i RS1 S2 He at last obey.

d h CON1 T Past.

e i RS1 S2 Obeyed his mother [and er]

f a a IN2 T And what did he promise to do?

g i RS2 S1 To help his father.

h i RS2 S2 He promised to obey er.

i h IN2 T Repeat.

j i RS2 S2 He promised to obey er.

k i a IN2 T He promised to obey his father.

l i RS2 S3 He promised his mother to get a job.

m h CON1 T To find.

n i RS1 S3 A job.

o a IN2 T Why did he like to find a job.

p i RS2 S1 To earn money.

q e a IN2 T To earn money/and a.

r i RS2 S2 To improve their situation.

s f SAT2 T To improve their situation/to contribute in paying money for the house.

t l IN3 T Let's correct the exercise that we have.

u i i IN2 T The exercise was in the text."Linda tries to get Biff and Harry understand their unfortunate father..."
now write a paragraph where Willy himself explains to his son how unhappy and desperate he is ehm and what he expects from them"

Who wants to read what he wrote

Dear son you cannot understand how unhappy I feel after the worse circumstances ([sic; $\text{\text{\vphantom{\footnotesize}}}}$\text{\text{\vphantom{\footnotesize}}})]

After er er the circum ([sic; $\text{\text{\vphantom{\footnotesize}}}}$\text{\text{\vphantom{\footnotesize}}})]

After the bad circumstances ([sic; $\text{\text{\vphantom{\footnotesize}}}}$\text{\text{\vphantom{\footnotesize}}})]

After the worse [the bad]

The bad circumstances that I have lived that's why I wanted to be hanged I want you not only to know the reality but also to respect my own full situation I didn't earn enough money as always and I became neglected by my old friends who forgot me completely and did not take care ([sic; $\text{\text{\vphantom{\footnotesize}}}}$\text{\text{\vphantom{\footnotesize}}})] of me Care ([sic; $\text{\text{\vphantom{\footnotesize}}}}$\text{\text{\vphantom{\footnotesize}}})]

Care of me as in the past/For these consequences ([sic; $\text{\text{\vphantom{\footnotesize}}}}$\text{\text{\vphantom{\footnotesize}}})]

Consequences ([sic; $\text{\text{\vphantom{\footnotesize}}}}$\text{\text{\vphantom{\footnotesize}}})]

Consequences I decided ([desided]) to put an end

I decided ([desided])

I decided to put an end to my life which is becoming so boring and misera ([mizerd])

And miserable ([mizerd])

I'm not saying th this to oblige ([obl\text{\text{\vphantom{\footnotesize}}}}$\text{\text{\vphantom{\footnotesize}}})

To

To oblige ([obl\text{\text{\vphantom{\footnotesize}}}}$\text{\text{\vphantom{\footnotesize}}})

To oblige

To force you

To force you to help me but to know what I feel what I think/

Now he knows but he wants to let his children know/so to let you know to let you know

Eh but to let

You know

I'm not saying this to er to force you to help but to let you know ([wile\text{\text{\vphantom{\footnotesize}}}}$\text{\text{\vphantom{\footnotesize}}})

To let you know ([le\text{\text{\vphantom{\footnotesize}}}}$\text{\text{\vphantom{\footnotesize}}})

To let you know you know what I feel what I think

What I feel

What I think

And what I think

Yes

My dear son I think to have an explanation we all in a difficult kwes situation and this makes me unhappy I am too old to get a steady ([ste\text{\text{\vphantom{\footnotesize}}}}$\text{\text{\vphantom{\footnotesize}}}) job and

Steady ([ste\text{\text{\vphantom{\footnotesize}}}}$\text{\text{\vphantom{\footnotesize}}})

Steady job and I can't work much to give you and your mother all that you need and this is a very big financial ([f\text{\text{\vphantom{\footnotesize}}}}$\text{\text{\vphantom{\footnotesize}}})

Financial ([f\text{\text{\vphantom{\footnotesize}}}}$\text{\text{\vphantom{\footnotesize}}})

Financial problem for me after this after this I have no friends the ones I had

After this/What should you say/besides/no after this/

Eh

Besides I have no friends

Besides I have no friends the ones I had are now
dead by the time the others who are still alive. Alive ignore me in case of need besides all these problems I see that you had no respect for me and that you have reproaching Reproaching me many things but just try to understand me eh I terribly suffer from. Yes Terribly suffer from this awful please help me. Conditions These awful conditions yes. The father realized that he was misunderstood by his sons so he tried to explain to them the situation he told them that he became old and cannot afford to work much and he said that he didn't accept his son to behave the same he thought that he would be rewarded but they turned that on him and ignored him he explained to them that they had to work harder and harder and had a big situation because life became more and more difficult so they should think about their future especially when they became he ordered them to share the responsibility with him and advised them not to escape from the problem and solved them. And solve them.万illy is going to face his sons and address them and talk to them directly. Anyway that's enough for this chapter/let's move to another chapter "Why Marry"/now before we start I read the text/and then we try to answer this question "Why Marry"/let us ask young men first/why do you young men think of marriage why do you marry To have a family. Yes/why do the young men marry why do the young men marry To have a family and children/ is there any other reason. They marry to have er. To what. To have a family. Yes young men marry to have a family and children/ is there any other reason. To help each other. Yes. To help each other. The couple. The young man needs a wife to. To help each other. To help him/the wife will help him. Now first I'm talking about the young men/why does he think of marriage. The young man er think of. Thinks of marriage. To have a wife to.
To help him

Now cannot can't he live alone/what are the things that the man cannot do alone at home and needs a wife to do them

He cannot do housework

He cannot take care of the children his children

He can't take care of his children/but as far as his wife doesn't exist there is no children/[(laughter) so he needs] his children/and that's why he gets married

He cannot do housework

He cannot take care of the children his children

He can't take care of his children/but as far as his wife doesn't exist there is no children/[(laughter) so he needs] his children/and that's why he gets married

She needs a protek

She needs er protection/and she finds protection in her husband

She needs a protek

She needs protection

She needs protection/and she finds protection in her husband

Girls want to marry because they want er to feel er their own responsibility and er

Now when they marry they feel their own responsibility

Yes er to have an ap a flat with er

Ah so she wants to be responsible of er/she wants to be independent of what

Of her family

Of her family yes/she wants to make her own family

She wants to change her model of life

She wants to change her

Model

Model/her type of life/her way of

Life

Life yes

Now if we think of the past/why did a young girl marry/what's what has changed from the past to now

In the past many parents compelled

Forced

Forced

Many parents forced

Many parents forced er their daughters to/because they can't

Because they couldn't fi: provide food for their children

Yes so no of course even if they didn't force their daughters to marry they should marry

Now why did the daughter marry in the past/what did she think of

She had er to obey his er father [er er without er any

His father]

discussion

Without any discussion

[She

I think] every girl wanted to marry/but she didn't have the right a
To chose the right husband for her

Now did all girls work in the past or did any girls work in the past?

Many girls work

In the past

No

Yes

In the past

No

Yes they worked yes

They in the past

They worked in the countryside

Well in the field but it was not common

What was the mission of most girls most wives it was to

Stay at home

Stay at home look after the family

So why did she think of marriage at that time what did marriage provide for her

Er for most er the marriage is er a kind of er was er er an opportunity

An opportunity to change her kind of life

Now if she remained with her father all the time could her father provide for her all the time her father would die for her so what did she think of when she married in the past of her future so marriage was a sort of

Future

Security

Security it was a sort of er career that was her job to marry to have someone to provide for her

But now does the girl does the daughter does the girl always need the husband for this

No

Why not (Silence)

Go on make sentences

Yes

What has changed now in the situation of the girls

Girls er er have er a job er

And have er money

Steady job and can have er money

Do they need the husband any longer to provide for that

No no

Can a girl live for ever on her own money

Yes

Yes she can but do we see all the girls living alone

No no

No so money is not the only purpose for the girl she doesn't only marry to have security to have somebody to provide for her

Let's see what happens in this text "Why Marry" Many female liberationists feel that marriage is a way for men to imprison women what do you think of this first to what extent is that right
"Many liberationists think that marriage is a way for men to imprison women"/do you agree with that

No

You disagree/now no is not enough

Yes

Yes is not enough either

Yes

We can't talk of the house as a prison

We can't consider the house as a prison/Now if we think of the past/what was the wife's like at home/Girls can talk of this better/how did the wife live in the past

The wife was a slave

The woman used to live as a slave/illustrate more/give examples

The husband ([husband])

The husband ([husband])

The husband er doesn't

Didn't/in the past

Didn't er let her go out

Go out yes/what else

They lived er

Sorry

They lived in a conservative society

She respected er

She respected th the husband er

Have your time have your time

Yes

She had to respect her husband and obey his order

She had to respect her husband and obey all [His orders]

[His orders] yes

So what can you say about this remark

There is no difference between the wife and er animal

There was not a difference between the wife and any other property that a husband [possessed Possessed]

An object a property yes/a sort of decoration for his a

House

House

So what can you say about this remark

We can say about this remark is that it true especially in the past

In the past it used to be true/but now

Now all women

It's no longer

er available

Available

Availa/it's no longer true

True
Things have changed/what has changed

Girls are more freer

Girls are freer than they used to be

They become civilized

They become freer because nowadays they have the rights as the husbands

They have the same rights as the husbands/

Sometimes they say even more

She can contribute er she can contribute to er society as

They can contribute in society with their work

And there there is a certain equality er with

Between
er
er

And boys

And boys

And boys yes

So the girls can be educated can have a job and what freedom this job can give her

Financial

Sorry

Financial

Financial freedom/what else something else

[Money

Is she] still in prison at home

No

No she can leave the house/go out er meet some friends talk to some friends have her opinions about society et cetera

I read

"What does the average girl marry for? The answer will probably be - love. Love can exist outside marriage - indeed for a long time it was supposed that it always did. Love can take many forms; why must it be exclusive? Security? security is a chimera, especially if it is supposed to mean the preservation of a state of happy togetherness which exists at the time of marriage.

Should no obvious disasters like adultery or s ration occur, people still change: neither partner will be, ultimately the person who got married in the beginning. If a woman gets married because she is sick of working, she asks for everything she gets. Opportunities for work must be improved not abandoned.

If a woman marries because she wants to have children, she might reflect that the average family has not proved to be a very good breeding ground for children, and seeing as the world is in no urgent need of her increase she might do better, for contraception is very possible, to wait until some suitable kind of household presents itself. The scorns and disabilities suffered by the single girl who cannot have a mortgage and is often considered an undesirable tenant can be
experienced and, challenged only by a single

girl; cowardly marriage is no way to change them.

Even though there are more problems attendant

upon bringing up an illegitimate child, and even

friendly cohabitation can meet with outrage and

persecution from more orthodox citizens, marrying

to avoid these inconveniences is a meaningless

evasion."

Now read silently for two minutes and underline the
difficult words very quickly

(Silence)

What words did you underline

Average ([əˈvɛrɪdʒ])

Sorry

Average ([ˈævəridʒ])

(writes the word on the

blackboard)

Next

Indeed

Occur ([əˈkɜːr])

Sorry

Occur ([əˈkɜːr])

(writes the word on the

blackboard)

Disaster

Disaster disaster/next (writes it down)

No [Zed]

Sorry

No [Zed]

Disaster [ai][zed]

[S]

Yes

"Well then" in LTAV

"Big deal" in LTAV

(boy to girl in LTAV "Who

is talking to you")

Next/Oportunity

No we know it

(student to his mate S2, in

LTAV "Don't speak to me understood")

We know this word

(S2 to S3 in LTAV "Aren't you

ashamed of yourself")

Obvious

Obvious

line eight obvious

Ultimately ultimately

(same S3 in LTAV "Shut up")

Ultimately

Ultimately/we know these words (writes the word on

board)

Sick

Sick/to be sick of something/I am sick of this

question it makes me ill

Yes
Adultery

So adultery yes/is that all

Yes

Average

Yes

The age between nine and nineteen

It's adolescence

Adolescence/An average girl means a usual girl/a girl from er thi middle class/I"m not talking of a very poor girl or a very rich girl a usual girl

Now at the end of the term is you have three or four marks twelve eleven two and five how do you calculate the average

Divide

You add up all the numbers/than divide by

Four

The number of times yes

Can you make an example with average average average (teacher writing on board)

Yes

An example with average/moyen ([mɔ̃ˈɛ̃] French for average)

The average price for good fashionable clothes is er thirteen

For good a

Clothes

Clothes/is er what clothes/Are all clothes the same/

[Fashionable

You can talk about]what

Fashionable/w you can talk about shirts for instance or trousers/what is the average price for a shirt

Thirteen

Make a sentence

The average price for a shirt is thirteen dinars

Thirteen dinars/the average price (writing) for a shirt is thirteen dinars yes/it means that it can be from ten to fifteen the average will be about thirteen

Yes

The average of er birth risen from eight to ten

Eh now we don't talk about the average of birth/

but we talk about the birth rate the birth er rate (writing)/as we calculate the birth rate we also calculate how many people die upon one thousand every year and we call this the death rate the death rate/birthrate and death rate which are calculate every year

Indeed

Soon

It has two meanings

Sorry

It has two meanings

It has two meanings/yes ("yes what are they")

Surely or in fact

In fact rather in fact/in deed if we divide this word er deed comes from the word to

Do
Do/in [b[i[f{\] indeed that's the meaning (teacher translates "indeed" into "classical Arabic")

We say a friend in need is a friend indeed

The English English (it's an English saying, we don't say it)

Sorry

We say a friend in need is a friend indeed

English English

But the right the good friend is not the friend who likes you when you are in good condition/shsht

A friend in need is a friend indeed (writing)/this is a good example indeed

To occur

To happen

To occur to happen (writing) occur to/will you make an example with to occur/to happen to take place

Stop writing/and think of an example/nobody writes/

put your pens down

Many crimes occurred in Palestine

Many crimes have occurred during the last year in Palestine

What occurred

We usually use here what's happened

Happened

Happened yes

Yes

er it's many

There are

There are many occurrences er

Many

Many occurs

No/

[(laughter)

T

Yes] the occurrence we say

Yes many crimes have occurred occurred

Shsht please

In Palestine (while writing)

Exclusive/sometimes on er written on er some cars that belong to the government this car should be used for service exclusively/it means

[Only] For service/everything else is excluded it should not be used in anything else

"Why must it be" it

Why must it be exclusive/what is it/love love/they are looking for love in marriage/so the writer says why do they want love to exist only in marriage it also exists elsewhere according to the writer

exclusive an example exclusive

(Silence)

Now I gave an example

Especial for

Only for

Only for

Only for/everything is excluded or this property is excluded from other people

Yes

This swimming pool is exclusive for tourists

Yes the swimming pool should be used by tourists
exclusively the swimming pool should be used by tourists exclusively (while writing)

A disaster
A disease
Not a disease/a disease is always now a disease can be a disaster but a disaster is not always a disease/
a fire can be a disaster/what happened in Palestine in Sabra AND Shetilla was a very famous disaster

By the Israelis
by the Israelis yes/why not by the Arabs

[Yes who accepted]this/stop

(inaudible)

Yes we know all the proverbs but we never respect them/we never follow them

A sentence with disaster
And stop writing you/nobody's behind you

A sentence with disaster
(Silence)

You understood the meaning

No

Yes

A fire causes a disaster/there was a very famous disaster in Palestine last June or ju

June

Oct June/it was in June

June

Not really no no

September

September

the seventeenth

Last September

Yes yes

Seventeenth of September yes

Yes can you make a sentence

Yes

Many Arabs er eskei escaped from the disaster in Palestine

Yes many Arabs escaped or many Palestinians escaped from their country

To avoid

To avoid the disaster/or the disaster caused the death of thousands of people

Chimeria chimeria is a

Impossible

Impossible unreal

Any question like this any difficulty/togetherness you understand what it means/togetherness the fact of living happily together yes

(Silence)

Thank you/let's read the text

"What does the average girl marry for the answer will probably be love love can exist outside marriage indeed for a long time it was supposed that it always did love can take many forms why must it be exclusive

Yes thank you

"Security is a chimeria (keleton)

Chimeria (keleton)

Chimeria (keleton)
Especially if it is supposed to mean the pre ([?r6])
The preservation ([pri-va]n)
The preservation of a
A state of togetherness/repeat
A state of togetherness
Somebody else continues after security
"Security is a chimera especially if it is supposed to mean the preservation of a state of happy togetherness which exists at the time of a marriage ([mæri-dʒ])"

Yes
"Should no obvious ([ɔvəz])
No obvious ([ɔvəz])
No obvious disasters like adultery or separation occur ([ɔkjuə])
Occur ([ɔkjuə])
Occur/people still change neither partner will be ultimately ([ɔl'timəli])
Ultimately ([ɔl'timəli])
Ultimately the person who got married in the beginning if a woman gets married because she is sick of working she asks for everything she gets opportunities for work must be improved ([inpru:vəd])
Improved ([inpru:vəd])
Improved not abandoned"
Thank you
Let's answer some questions/put your books upside down/upside down like this books upside down/and stop writing don't write (Silence)
Why do you think a girl should marry/your opinion and according to the text/why do you think a girl should marry
Yes
A girl should marriage
Should marry
Marry she thinks she can escape from her father's authority
To escape from her father's authority/what else/why should a girl marry
A girl should marry to lead a new life
To lead a new way of life yes
To have a decent life
To have a decent life yes
According to the writer why does an average girl married
An average girl married
Marries
To find security
To find security
Now does the writer believe in marriage because of love (Silence)
What's he think of love/what is love in his opinion
Love can exist out of marriage
He thinks
He thinks that love can exist outside marriage
Outside
Outside
Marriage
Marriage
What does he say about love/it's a
A chimera

This idea is wrong/girls marry for love this idea in his opinion is wrong.

He must be speaking by experience.

Sorry

By experience

By experience/so he must be a married man/
or especially a

A married woman

A married woman/the writer can be a married woman

yes/or a liberationist

She didn't succeed in her marriage

She didn't/yes her marriage was not successful

By experience/so he must be a married man/
or especially a

A married woman

A married woman/the writer can be a married woman

yes/or a liberationist

She didn't succeed in her marriage

She didn't/yes her marriage was not successful

There were some problems in the past

There were to be less or fewer problems

Inspite of

Inspite of they didn't marry out of love

They didn't marry out of love

Now what was the cause of this/why were there fewer problems in the past

Because societies are not materialistic as now

The society was not as materialistic as it is now

Women had to obey their husbands

Women wives had to obey their husbands/women were afraid of

Divorce

They were always afraid of divorce/thank you

[End of lesson L 4 A]
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acts</th>
<th>Moves</th>
<th>Speakers</th>
<th>Discourse</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a a</td>
<td>IN2</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Everybody knows Friday in Mahdia yes/how are the streets on Friday</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>RS2</td>
<td>S3</td>
<td>Crowded</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>SAT2</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Crowded</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g</td>
<td>FM2</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>RS1</td>
<td>S1</td>
<td>Streets are crowded in Mahdia on Friday</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e a</td>
<td>R-RN2</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Streets are crowded/any other word for that</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>RS2</td>
<td>Ss</td>
<td>Overcrowded</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e a</td>
<td>R-RN2</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Yeah overcrowded/Or</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>RS2</td>
<td>S2</td>
<td>There are many crowds in Mahdia on Friday</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a f</td>
<td>R-RN2</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Any synonym of crowded/streets are crowded or</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>RS2</td>
<td>S3</td>
<td>Full of people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>SAT2</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Full of people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g</td>
<td>FM2</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>RS2</td>
<td>S3</td>
<td>Swarmed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g</td>
<td>FM2</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>RS1</td>
<td>S1</td>
<td>Streets are swarmed with people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>CON1</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>The streets are</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>RS1</td>
<td>S1</td>
<td>Swarmed with people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e b</td>
<td>CON1</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Are swarmed/streets are swarming with people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>R-IN2</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Or</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>RS2</td>
<td>S2</td>
<td>People swarm to the market</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>IN1</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>To the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>RS1</td>
<td>S3</td>
<td>To the market</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e h f</td>
<td>IN1</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Yes/repeat/people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>RS1</td>
<td>S1</td>
<td>People swarmed to the market</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>CON1</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>People swarm to the market</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i f</td>
<td>R-RN2</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>So the streets are swarming with people or the streets are teeming with people in Mahdia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h</td>
<td>IN1</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Repeat Miss Ben Fraj*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>RS1</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>The streets are teeming with people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>SAT1</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g</td>
<td>FM1</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Miss Sbaa*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>RS1</td>
<td>S3</td>
<td>Streets are ti teeming er with er people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e f</td>
<td>R-RN2</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Streets are teeming er with people/or the streets are crammed with people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h</td>
<td>IN1</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Repeat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>RS1</td>
<td>S1</td>
<td>The streets are crammed with people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c c</td>
<td>SAT2</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>So we say streets are crowded with people/they are crammed with people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>IN1</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>They are</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>RS1</td>
<td>Ss</td>
<td>Teeming</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>SAT1</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Teeming with people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a a</td>
<td>IN2</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Now what kind of animal is a pig/everybody knows the pig</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>RS2</td>
<td>Ss</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>R-RN2</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>What kind of animal is it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>RS2</td>
<td>S2</td>
<td>It's a greedy animal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e a</td>
<td>R-RN2</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Greedy animal/is it a clean animal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>RS2</td>
<td>S3</td>
<td>No it's a dirty animal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e a f</td>
<td>R-RN2</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>It's a dirty animal/or it's very dirty/it's not only dirty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>RS2</td>
<td>S1</td>
<td>It's a filthy animal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>IN1</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>It's a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>RS1</td>
<td>S3</td>
<td>Filthy animal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>IN1</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Is it a filthy animal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The air in an industrial town is filthy. Is it very spoiled? It's polluted. The air in an industrial town is filthy.

The air in an industrial town is filthy. The air is filthy/the air is filthy/very dirty. The air in an industrial town is very spoiled.

If something is scarce, especially in Ramadan, everybody knows the month of Ramadan. Yes. Especially eggs are scarce, meat is scarce, milk is also scarce, how are scarce things sold how are they sold. They are sold very expensive.

How is the price then? The price is very high. The price is very high. How is the price then? How are things sold when they are scarce? How are they sold at an exorbitant price? When they scarce er things are sold er with a high price.

At an exorbitant. They are very expensive. Very expensive. How is the price then? Very high.

OK take your books on page one hundred and ninety four one hundred and ninety four/Soylent green. Soylent will see that in the text/That's your job to tell me what is the meaning of Soylent.

"Soylent green/this scenario of life at the beginning of the next century is taken from the film "Soylent Green"/Soylent green is a novel written by the American writer Heich Harrison/Soylent is the name of a company specializing in food products like STIL in Tunisia/the problems affecting food supplies education law and order overpopulation and other aspects of life in the twentieth century are known to many people/the picture of New York in two thousand twenty two is shocking/but it is unrealistic/are there ways of avoiding it [1] the year two thousand and twenty two/the place New York city/the streets are dark and dirty/the air is so blackened with dust and fumes that you can hardly see a few metres ahead of you/the streets are
teeming with people that are filthy sick and hungry/
[2] throughout the city there are huge derelict car parks crammed with abandoned cars piled one on top of another/these junk-yards serve as homes for hundreds of men women and children/New York's apartment buildings that towered opulently into the sky in the twentieth century are now horrifying overcrowded tenements/the stairs and corridors are carpeted with the sick of sleeping bodies of the homeless/
[3] In the streets throngs of people wait tensely around a big market square/they wait until large trucks arrive and unload sacks of small red and yellow blocks/the crowds push and fight to be the first to reach the stalls/where the bags they have brought with them are filled with soylent red or soylent yellow/the blocks they are so eager to get are the government rationed synthetics and plankton/made by the soylent company/on which survival depends/half the population lives on soylent red and yellow/natural foods have almost disappeared/
[4] however there is another world in the city/in buildings with security systems like fortresses the elite live in luxurious ultra-modern apartments that are reserved for the extremely rich and powerful/these are the people who have enough money to afford the exorbitant black market prices of real food/
[5] with the average citizen existing in such wretched conditions and the rich enjoying so much luxury the situation is explosive/a job is considered a rare privilege/and death is the only sure way of making money/each corpse is worth a price to the family"

a IN3 T Now what is the main idea of the text
(Silence)
a R-RN3 T Anybody caught the meaning of all the text from this first reading
(Silence)
a f R-RN3 T Does the picture tell you anything/does it convey anything about the theme of the text
(Silence)
a R-RN3 T It's a
i RS3 Ss Pollution pollution
g PM3 T Yes
i RS3 S1 The text deals with the case question of pollution in industrial area
a IN3 T In industrial area
i RS3 S1 Yes
e a IN2 T Mhmm/what year is it what year is it
i RS2 S2 Twenty twenty two
b CON S3 Two thousand and twenty two
a IN1 T Two thousand
i RS1 Ss And twenty two
a IN2 T Are we in two thousand and twenty two
i RS3 S1 Science fictive er text
h CON3 T Just a moment
g PM3 T Yes Miss Bubaker*
i RS3 S2 It's a science fictive er text
b c SAT3 T Science fiction text/mhm
a f IN3 T What means science fiction/what is the author here talking about
g PM3 T Yes
The author talks about the future

What do they have have we seen any other writers talking about the future

Conditioning babies

Conditioning

Babies

Babies

So what do some writers try to imagine

Some some writers try to imagine the conditions of life in ten years up

(student is a stutterer)

In ten years time

Only ten

Not only ten/many years on top

Many years many years after

A long time

A long time/after a long period of time yes/a hundred years two hundred years one thousand years

Right is it usually realistic what the author is talking about

Unrealistic

Or is it

Fictive

Fictive yes

Yes Ben*

Perhaps it is unrealistic/but usually it tries er to er criticize many facts er in our own world

Yes that's right

Science fiction is built er on the reality/and a ri

and it may be er it might be er real in the future

Yes it takes some some points in our real life and try to er to develop er them to built all a whole er history on this

Ehm/yes

Most of the time er the scientific er tex text deal about about er something er which is er true

Yes it deals with something true yes

Now concentrate on the first paragraph/just have a look at the first paragraph

(Silent reading)

Tell me how you find er New York City/is it the same as er you hear about it today or is it different

(Mmmm so what do you think of New York City in the year two thousand twenty two

What do factories let out

Yes Miss Bubaker*

Factories let out fumes

Fumes and a

And er and dust

Dust and a

Smoke

What is there in smoke/what is the black thing in the smoke/what do you call it the black thing in the smoke that you find in the smoke/soot

What does soot do to the houses

Black

Blacks
Blackens
Smoke it blackens/to blacken or to
darken
Smoke it blackens/to blacken or to darken
What mean to blacken
To make something
to make something
Black
Black
And how are the streets in New York
how are the streets in New York
Miss Fantar*
The streets are teeming with people and
they are filthy
Who are filthy
The streets
People
People are filthy
People they are
Sick and hungry
Sick and a
Hungry
And why er he said th they are sick and hungry
Why are they sick and hungry
Probably er the air er is polluted
Because they are er because they are living in a
polluted area
No we will see that
Yes why did Anybody catch the meaning why they are
hungry and sick
There is overpopulation
There is overpopulation yes/the world is
overpopulated in two thousand
There is er two castes a rich caste and a p poor
caste/so the
(the same student who is a stutterer)
Class
Class yes
Mhmm
The rich class enjow enjowed (\[i\sup{\text{\textasciitilde}}} \sup{\text{\textasciitilde}}\]) itself
but the poor class is leading a wretch life
Yes
Now how do rich people and how do poor people live
(Silence)
In the second paragraph/How do they can you find the
term that describes the life of rich people/what is
the term that tells you that they live luxuriously/
what is the word that is a synonym of luxuriously
Opulently
Opulently yes/they live opulently or they live
luxuriously
And how poor people live
In wretched condition
In wretched condition yes
In a
Appalling
Appalling condition yes
mhm
They live in horrifying
Horrifying condition yes

How are the car parks? How are the car parks?

They are derelict.

Derelict car parks.

What is the meaning of this word derelict? Can you guess the meaning of derelict parks?

They are falling in ruins.

Falling in ruins.

What kind of houses fall in ruins? Where can you find derelict houses?

After a seism perhaps.

After a war.

After an earthquake.

You know/without any natural phenomena like this.


In the ghettos.

Near the ghettos.

The ghettos.

Any place in Tunisia where there are derelict houses?

Yes there are.

In Mellassine.

In Mellassine. mhm./a slum area./so there are derelict houses falling in er ruins.

Where do you throw things that you don't need anymore? Where do you throw things that you don't need any longer?

(Silence)

Which word/second paragraph er in the second paragraph?

To piles.

Which word mean which place/where do we throw things that we don't need?

(Silence)

In a.

Junkyards.

In junkyards mhm.

Can you buy things in a junk yard? Can you buy things in a junkyard? Mr. Shleifa can you buy things in a junkyard?

No.

We can't.

We can't buy er things from junkyard.

In a junkyard.

In a junkyard.

So what do we find in a junkyard?

Old things.
Old things
Rubbish
Garbage yes/som discarded things discarded things
that we don't need any more
Now when a city is overpopulated where do people live
(Silence)
Everybody has a house of his own
No
Where do they live
Tenements
In a
Tenements
Tenement yes
So what is a tenement what is a tenement then
They are sets of rooms
They are many
Sets of rooms
Rooms (are they really rooms)
Crowded crowded
One family lives in all these rooms/
Or one family lives in one room
Each family lives in one room
In one room
So they are usually
Crowded
Crammed
Crammed with er people living together/as immigrants
in
France
France/industrial town industrial area mhm
Give me a synonym of a crowd
Yes
From er the two er first paragraphs we can er conclude that the author is er pessimistic er about
er what will happen in the future
Exact/yes we will see about that/that's er the first impression/OK we will see if he is pessimistic or
optimistic
Anyway what is the synonym of a crowd in the third paragraph
Throng ([θrɔŋ])
Throng ([θrɔŋ]) yes
What do dockers do when ships get into the harbour
what do dockers do when ships get into the harbour
Th er they unload the ships
They unload the ships mhm
The opposite is to
To load
Load yes/load and load
And the noun is
A load
A load yes
What do these people unload what do these people unload
Yes
They unload er small red and yellow blocks
Small er sacks of yellow or red er blocks
They aren't they who would unload this er this blocks/they are waiting er for er large trucks that unload this

When when the trucks arrived they unload er the sacks of small red and yellow blocks

Can you guess what are these blocks of red and yellow red and yellow blocks

People wait only for what er what to eat

Yes why

Because they are er looking

For food

For food

They are hungry

Hungry/they are

[Starvation

Starving]

So are you afraid of year two thousand n twenty two

Yes

We never know/we will see er we will see about that

Sir it's only for Europe or for America/because er the help k comes k comes from other other countries by ship (student who is a stutterer)

Yes

I don't think that it's only for Europe and er

America as he said/because we are relation with this countries/and if they're affected we are the first to are affected

By this shortage of food

Mhmm

Where does where do these blocks come from where do these blocks come from/these red and soylent yellow blocks

From other country

No who makes them

These blocks are coming er from a company

Company

Yes

Yes

Which is called Soylent Green

Soylent green company/So this Soylent Green Company provides a

Food

This company provides food for er [people

People]

Who are starving

The food is take takes take from

Taken

Taken from plankton

Plankton/and synthetics

Do many people live on this food this kind of food

Half the world

Half a

The world

Half the world/is it a big number

Yes

Yes

They show the importance of this company
Now paragraph four/concentrate on paragraph four
(Silence)
Tell me if all the people live on these er soylent yellow and red blocks
(Silence)
Or I'll put this question in this way/Is there any social equality from reading this paragraph/do you see any social equality
Miss Bubaker*
Society is divided into two kinds of er people/er the first one is er living and leading a very er difficult life but the other one is leading a luxurious life/and er it's er it's er
What is it called this class
It's called a high class
High class/Or
Elite
Elite yes/we call it the elite as in French elite
Yes
There is a funny thing here/that real food are considered as er er as something special/that we are er We can afford or we can't
It's a privilege
Yes/real food has become a A priviledge
A priviledge for who
For the elite
No
Yes
Yes for the elite
What tells you that Miss Bubaker*
"These are the people who have enough money to afford exorbitant black market prices for real food"
Real food
Now what happened to real food what will happen to real food that we have now if this will come true what will happen to real food [that we have now
A shortage] of er real food
Yes shortage
It will be so exorbitant that we can't afford it
That we can't afford it
It will be sold in er black market
In black market and how is the price in black market
They are exorbitant
They are so exorbitant that people can't afford to buy
Mhmm
Where do these rich people live/the rich people the top drawer where do they live
Luxurious ultra modern
Yes Miss Miftah*
They live in th in luxurious ultra modern apartments
Yes
How are their buildings in which they live how are the buildings in which they live
With security systems like fortress
With security systems/what does that mean
They aren't for security/they are afraid er of other people who are er homeless and hungry they're
Snob
They live in locked wards

They are sick of er/ [Xɔː:f] ("Fear" in LTAV)

They may be they are afraid of the er of the lower class/

The poor people maybe they'll attack them/

The people

Rich people

Yes rich people

Who

The people

Rich people

Yes rich people

They may be they are afraid of the er of the lower [class]

The poor people maybe they'll attack them/

Yes yes

The real food

Yes mhm

Now paragraph five the last one

(Silence)

What do you call a dead man

A corpse

Yes

Where do you put a corpse

In a grave

In a grave/or in a/in a grave or another word for grave

(Silence)

In a tomb mhm

Now concentrate on the last sentence/what does it convey to you what do you understand from the last sentence/it's a key sentence for the whole text/"a job is considered a rare privilege" down to "the family"

I think that the government they give money to the family er from er f f from er to the family who one of their family dies

This is a bit broken

I think er

Yes mei how to make a constructive sentence/the government gives

Money

Money

For the families who er lost one a member of a member

Who lost a member

Yes

If if a family wants to if a family wants to have money they ehein ehein ehein can't kill the man er but they er they they should er (student is a stutterer)

Give the corpse

the corpse

To the

To the rule

To the government

To the government/to be er

Yes

To be paid

Paid
Why/what do we do with corpse
Because it's the only way to eat and to survive
To survive
People each people eat each other/rich er
People eat er
Each other
Eat the corpse/it's true
The government eats the corpse/and er th
the family eats money (laughter)
Where did you see this
"Each corpse is worth a price"
Perhaps the corpse er is er costs a very expensive
do er th
To make
To make er the experience and er
No no
No no
If you look at line er line sixteen/look at line
sixteen seventeen
(Silence)
Where do the blocks come from
Miss Ben Frej
They are going to sell er corpse to Soylent Green
Company
(Silence)
Who provides the people with blocks
Soylent Green
Soylent Green provides food
I know
From Plankton and Synthetics
line sixteen and seventeen/you are looking without
brains
"Each corpse is worth it's worth"
We will see/I am talking about sixteen seventeen/now
you're dz you are jumping on line twenty nine
(Silence)
Who makes this/who provides/who is responsible for
these blocks
The government
The government
So where do the blocks come from then/can you guess
(Silence)
The government the government buys er/
The blocks/
Mhum
And gives er and took money for the k corpses corpses
(the student who is a stutterer)
For the corpse
So can you guess er the mystery of this soylent green
We haven't the right er to make this monsieur
Aha why
It's so horrible to guess I think
It's horrible
Yes
Aha why is it so horrible
Soylent Green er makes food er from er dead person
c SAT3 T From the corpses yes
i IN3 S1 So they they didn't er put syn synthetic and Plankton

c RS3 T Ehein
1 IN3 T If you look at the last paragraph
(Silence)
a IN3 T Why does a corpse why is a corpse worth a lot of
money
i RS3 S2 It it's it's th er the aliment (French
[ɛliˈmen]) (French for "tin-food") or er the people (student who is a
stutterer)
b CON1 T the food
i RS1 S2 Yes the food
c SAT3 T It will be used as food for the people
i IN3 S3 They put them in boxes
T Mhmm
S3 Conserve ([kɔzɛrv]) (French for "tin-food")
Ss (laughter)
d f IN3 S1 How how the family er sells er it sells er /this is
one of its members
i f CTR3 T Dead member/it's a corpse
a CTR3 S2 And they eat that er member
a CTR3 T What is the most important thing for the family
i RS3 Ss Money
a CTR3 T Money or food
i RS3 Ss Food
i RS3 S1 They think only to survive
eif SAT3 T To survive/
S1 [They must er have
T People want to survive]/they need food
a IN3 T Do they know they are eating the
i RS3 S2 Yes they know
a CTR3 T Do they know
i RS3 Ss No they don't know
c SAT3 T They don't know
j f CTR3 S3 They must have they must know/because they must
wonder how do they er ba sell er the corpse in so
an exorbitant price
i CTR3 S1 They keep er the corpse in another shape
ca IN3 T In ano yes/it is this corpse is er
iiil RS3 S1 Formed/and cooked/and putted in a ha ha (laughter)/
b CON3 T Blocks
i RS3 S1 Blocks
c SAT3 T Yes people eat they eat anything
ii RS3 S2 Because he said er that er th the blocks are yellow
and red/and we know that the meat are red
a CON3 T That meat is red
i CON3 S2 Yes
i i CON3 T The flesh the blood is red/but the flesh is yellow
a i IN3 S3 I want to know if the people know that they are
eating the the this
i RS3 S1 They must know
ea CTR3 T They must know/why do must they know
S1 [Because they want er
ij RS3 S2 Because they looks] they sell the the one of the
members of the family in er an exorbitant price/so
they must wonder why did they sell them in so
exorbitant er [price
jf CTR3 T Yes] because there is one mouth less maybe for the
government/there is one person less
j CTR3 S3 Monsieur [mɔzy] I don't I don't think er
a IN3 T So what do you think
I think that if it is so unhuman/why did people live in a family
There is no feeling of humanity in two thousand twenty two/there is no humanity at all/people are dehumanized [they only want to eat]
they were hungry
What
They are hungry they are starving
And the human er
If you don't eat you die
If we live in a family/we are human people
There is no family at all in the year two thousand twenty two/people are dying every day
He said that there are a family
Every family in which there is a dead person what are you gonna do with that person if it costs a lot of money/do you bury it in the earth
No
Or is it better to sell it
Terrible
Yes
It's but this corpse k k are are coming from the poor the poor class/and rich class rest er stay er (stutterer)
Remain
Remain er
Without
Without er any problem (student stutterer)
Mhm
Now this's how this writer foresaw or predicted the future in a/in which country
New York the United States
Now can you foresee the future in Tunisia in two thousand twenty two now how do you foresee it/does anybody has er strong imagination as to tell me
It's not like in America
Yes
I will be a president
You'll be the president/no you have to stay in the same theme
I think that it will be the same
The same thing
Mhm
Yes yes you have to er
Yes
I didn't I don't think sp/I hope that er things will change/but firstly er what must change is er the way of governing th the country/so we will have socialist socialist gov government/and after that we will have people er the same only
Equality
Equality each people each person have the same right
Has
As his brother/and we don't difference between the woman and the man/because it's such a bad a bad thing a bad thing to er such a bad thing of discussion that we have nowadays/we [there is]
Jus]just a moment/what is the difference between er Sir
If that's what we hope but I er don't I am not so optimist/
Optimistic

Optimistic because er er m er Tunisia in two thousand twenty two will be polluted and overpopulated/eh the government er may and may not be er may and may not change/er socio social equality may and may not be achieved er/and er I I think that it will be worse than today

Will be worse than today

What is the difference [between these two pupils/]

Because

What are the adjectives that we give them

Optimistic and pessimistic

One is pessimistic and the other is optimistic

Who is better according to you and why/

I think er

Who agrees] with Miss Miftah and who agrees with Miss Bubaker/and you have to justify your reasons/ that means you have to give more arguments

I think er

Yes Miss Bubaker*

As we see nowadays er er people are materialistic/

and er money is the King in th in the society/but so we can't change morality so er so fast and er so quickly/and er er people er are becoming more and more materialistic

Yes Mr

But the question er but the question er isn't about social or er m materialist materialistic er things/ but the question is er i if Tunisia are going is going er to change or not at er[a long period of time

Monsieur monsieur

Mhmm yes

Monsieur it is going to change in er to the worst not to the better

To the worse not to the better/Yes

To the worse not to the better

Do you think it is bad now

Yes

No

She is free [in her opinion

Now er na] now er there is many things that er

There are

There are er many things er bad and many things er good

Like everybody else yes

But good er will become er bad and bad will become worse

Oh so pessimistic/you have blackened all the classroom/

[Monsieur monsieur

It has become polluted]

Miss Miftah* yes

Let's see something let's hear something sweet

I know er that the reality is so bad as er she describes/but er we must think that we have er many young people here/and our children we will er l learn them er how to

Teach them

Teach them how to er change the things to the the good side/

Mhmm
We mustn't say that things are are bad but we must change them.

Anybody else wishes er to er yes thank you.

We can't er we can't establisha comparison between Tunisia and er New York or America for example in the two thousand twenty two/because er er the degree er of developing is isn't the same in the er in both countries.

And I do I think that in the Future er Tunisia will er is going to be an industrial country/and it will take a long period to er to er to get in the same condition of this country.

Now he said that Tunisia is an agricultural country/it is not so industrial as er America yes/so if you if there is a shortage of food in the year two thousand twenty two what will people be eating in Tunisia.

Vegetables

If there is vegetables

They become (Silence)

Vegetarian/they will be eating grass and flowers

In the future w pollution in the future er will be er more dangerous than for pollution in an in nowadays/All the environment will be affected.

They will eat fish

They will eat fish

But fish will...

Disappear

Will be extended

Will be extinct

Yes

About social equality an and er and morality we can find er different views according to er to de person who is er speaking/but er er as far as pollution is er concerned we k we can't er say that pollution will be avoided/because our r civilai civilei civilization is in one way/and we can't go back to er archaie er ways of er industry/so er di the erm the future w pollution in the future er will be er more dangerous than for pollution in an in nowadays/All the environment will be affected.

Yes

Monsieur monsieur

Yes

Personally er Tunisia er remain er in the same condition/as we know now the town er er in er in in in

You know (S2 is a stutterer)

Any word any word

Une classe moyenne (French for middle class)

[Ah in er

Average

Middle middle class

That means it's not so developed and it's not undeveloped/it's middle way er mhm

OK/yes thank you

For those who haven't participated in the lesson they have to er participate by writing an essay.
for about fifteen to twenty lines OK/how do you foresee the future of Tunisia in year two thousand twenty two/I think there are some optimistic and some pessimistic pupils/but don't be so pessimistic it's not good yes/Thank you

[End of Lesson L 4 B]