AN ANALYSIS OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE LESSON DISCOURSE: WITH SPECIAL

REFERENCE TO THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH IN TUNISIAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

By

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To my Mum and Dad.

SUMMARY

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.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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LIST OF PHONETIC SYMBOLS

/ m / voiced, bilabial, nasal

/ n / voiceless, alveolar, nasal

/ ŋ / voiced, velar, nasal

/ p / voiceless, bilabial, plosive

/ b / voiced, bilabial, plosive

/ t / voiceless, alveolar, plosive

/ d / voiced, alveolar, plosive

/ ʈ / voiced, palato-alveolar, plosive

/ ʧ / voiceless, papatal, plosive

/ k / voiceless, velar, plosive

/ g / voiced, velar, plosive

/ q / voiceless, uvular, plosive

/ ʔ / voiceless, glottal, plosive

/ f / voiceless, labiodental, fricative

/ v / voiced, labiodental, fricative

/ θ / voiceless, dental, approximant

/ ð / voiced, dental, approximant

/ r / voiced, alveolar, approximant

/ R / voiced, uvular, fricative

/ s / voiceless, alveolar, approximant

/ z / voiced, alveolar, approximant

/ ʃ / voiceless, palato-alveolar, fricative

/ ʒ / voiced, palato-alveolar, fricative

/ ɣ / voiced, velar, fricative

/ χ / voiceless, velar, fricative

/ ħ / voiceless, pharyngeal, fricative

/ ʕ / voiceless, pharyngeal, fricative

/ h / voiced, pharyngeal, fricative

/ j / voiced, palatal, approximant

/ w / voiced, labial-velar, approximant

/ i / front, close

/ ɪ / front, half-close, retracted

/ e / front, half-close

/ ɛ / front, half-open

/ æ / front, open

/ a / front, open

/ a / back, open

/ ʌ / back, half-open

/ ə / central, half-open

/ œ / front, half-open, rounded

/ ɔ / back, half-open, rounded

/ o / back, half-close, rounded

/ ʊ / back, half-close, rounded, advanced

/ u / back, close, rounded

/ ~ / nazalization

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, app.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 iternalized: 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 = H2O? H2O 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 pregnance. 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). Pregnance, 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 Pavolvian, 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;

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 rms 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 linguists' 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;

e.g. 13 - The big dog wants but the little dog does not.

e.g. 14 - The garden of my father is larger than the pen-knife
        of my uncle.

e.g. 15 - He gave a large sum to his cousin.
        Here is Baby calling nurse.(3)

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. /ɪ/ 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 lV, chap.5, below).

lV Methodology

The audiolingual method has often been associated with behaviourism and structural taxonomic linguistics (1 and 11.1, 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.

lV.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.

lV.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).

lV.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; <u>Microlinguistics</u>, 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 <u>Anthropology</u> 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 - <u>listening</u>, <u>speaking</u>, <u>reading</u>, and <u>writing</u> - and in this order, was based on the complementary contributions, though varying in degrees of importance, of the outlined fields above. L1 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.

lV.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).

1V.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 (1V.1, above) and the direct method (1V.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 111.2, 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, 1V.1 and 1V.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).

Vl. 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 Foerch 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 tranformational 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.

I.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) equiliberation.

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?"

$$\text{(Gleitman et al, 1977, p.91).}$$

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. Faerch 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*)? "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 Ll 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, wich 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*

INTERNAL PROCESSING
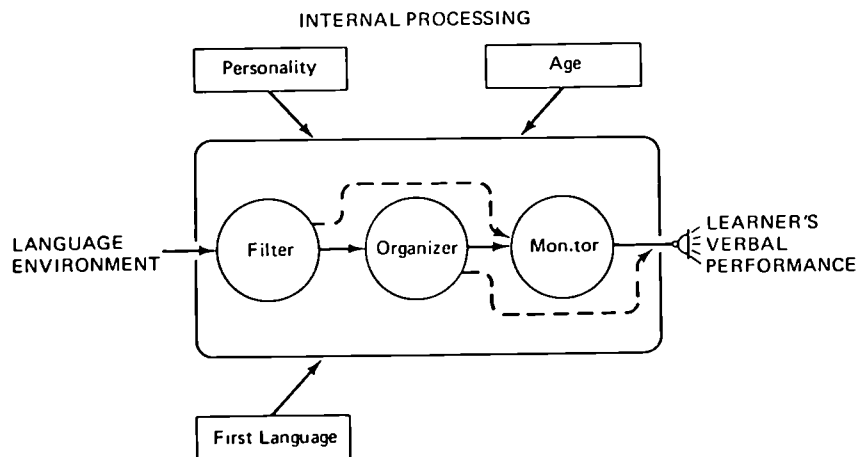
*An updated version of the chart on page 100, in *Viewpoints on English as a Second Language,* edited by Marina Burt, Heidi Dulay and Mary Finocchiaro. New York: Regents Publishing Co. Inc , 1977 Reprinted by permission.

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.[5]

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 Ll (see below).

i. - "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 comunicative 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).

I.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.

I.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.

I.2.1. Speech act theory

Austin (1963*/1971),[1] after having distinguished between performative utterances (e.g. I name this ship Liberté.) 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)[2]. 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).

I.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

see Levinson, 1983 and Gazdar, 1979) 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 <u>a form</u> (how something is said) and <u>a content</u> (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 mesage 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 acountable 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 L1

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 I.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 <u>top levels</u> of a frame are fixed and represent things that are true about a situation. <u>The lower levels</u> 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

e.g. 16, below).

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. 3I 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 <u>breaking Frame</u> (ibid, chap. 10). He identifies two ways of breaking frame: (i) <u>upkeying</u> or flooding out and (ii) <u>downkeying</u>.

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.

S1: [mɛhjɛːʃ tsɛʒil mɛhjɛːʃ tsɛʒil]

    (it's not on it's not on)

F.W.: 0 Sorry

S$_s$: (laughing)

T: (to fieldworker) You want me to repeat

F.W.: No no it doesn't matter

```
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 LTAV (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: ɛs

T : ai ɛs (corrects)

S2: (turns to his mates) ([ kɪfɛːʃ ]) (see)

S3: ([ɛʃɛ trɑːh ]) (big deal)
```

DIAGRAM 3.1:   FL Lesson Discourse as Keying

PRIMARY FRAME: DOING

KEYING: PRACTISING

| 1. Saying the Linguistic Form of the FL | 2. Speaking in the FL | 3. Transacting in the FL | 4. Interacting in the FL |

S2: ([nɛlˤɛbmˤæːkɪnli]) (mind your business)

T : Next opportunity

S1: No

S3: ([mɛʃæːtʃ tkɛlɛmni smiʃt]) (don't talk to me,

　　understood)

T : We know this word

S2: ([mɛtɪhʃ imʃ]) (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 ocurs 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[3] 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 ocasions 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"[(4)] 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 1a nor 1b has operated, and, following the provision of 1c, current speaker has continued, then the rule set a - c reapplies.

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...
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The teacher's second turn above is composed of two moves. The first reacts positively to the students' response and the second is an <u>initiation</u> that calls for a <u>response</u> (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:

<u>(i) A grounding move</u> usually prepares the ground for an interactional move.

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e.g. 18. (Georges' first move is a grounding)
     Georges: "I've got my hands full

              could you open the door for me"
```

<u>(ii) An expanding move</u> usually expands on the interactional move. Expanding moves ocur in rituals.

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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".
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<u>(iii) A disarming move</u> 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 <u>initiate</u> and <u>a response</u>. (cf. sequences in III.2.2, above).

(i) <u>A head exchange</u> 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) <u>A pre-head exchange</u> 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) <u>A post-head exchange</u> 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 waider over there"

    Al : "Wai-ter?"

    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..."

(from Edmondson, 1981, p.110).

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 practising 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) a-priori parameters and (ii) 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.); verdiction (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 <u>for</u> communication it has necessarily to be

presented <u>as</u> 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 posibilities 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 communiation 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,[1] 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 3.4, 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 youself) 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, 1983[b], 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 <u>problematicity</u>. 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, 19 83c) 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 <u>goals</u> 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 <u>the situation</u> and selects the linguistic rules and items he/she knows. This is the planning phase. <u>The planning phase</u> results in a plan which is followed by <u>the execution phase</u>.

When the L2 learner experiences a problem at the planning stage he/she has two alternatives: resort to (1) <u>avoidance behaviour</u> or (2) <u>achievement behaviour</u>. 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 <u>retrieval strategies</u>.

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 <u>formal reduction</u> 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 [ʊ] 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 [θ] and [ʒ] are not in the phonological system of the LTAV [3] 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)

S1: 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 acknowleding 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 : Ehm er can you help me, please

custom officer: I am at your disposure

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 ɔ̆]

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 l2 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 er why er yo you make such

er interview er with us wa what the what's your

purpose of this

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

S1 : Yes er yes but here I want to say er that er

in fact er we learn English here and we have

good teachers but er I thing er it's not er it's

not er a lot to er to er improve er our English

we have we need er to discuss with other people

er from other countries er es especially who

speak er who speak English

Notice that S1 was a bit vague "...but er I thing er it's not er a lot to er to er improve er our English...". But notice also that earlier S1 had used meaning replacement in an attempt to be as clear as possible "...why er yo you make such er interview er with us wa what the what's 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: [ɔmmɑ ʕændhælhɑq]. Father: [idhib].

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 I.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)

S1 : You saw the film "Roots" what do you think about it

S1 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 1 3 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 (S1 closes the exchange in a rather clumsy way)

S1 : 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

S1 : Yes er yes (begins a new exchange)

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,

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 [trɑh]

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. [trɑh] 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. [Xɔːf], TAV for "Fear" or [kɔ̃sɛrv], 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" [ælimənt] which is based on the French [alimɔ̃].

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 th the tongue for example the

tongue er is unable to to speak like me er or

like someone is it 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 - resturcturing 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 [ʦ] (5) the teacher

er said th the thief er st stole the bank the

people answer that the sub the subject is 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 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 [ekspɔtz]

T : They're oil exporters [ɛkspɔːtəz]

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 [petrɔl] (French for "crude oil")

T : That's oil

S2 : Oil [ziːt] (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.

h - 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 TL. 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 L1 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 refelct, 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).[8]

(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,[9] 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 Reponse.

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 textboks 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, a aucun moment

de son histoire, notre pays, n'a, autant "consommé"

les valeurs de l'occident qu' à l'eopque de son

independance."

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 développment 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

FACULTE DE LETTRES	Arabic	300	First year	students
	English	170	"	"
	French	160	"	"
	Italian	20	"	"
	German	20	"	"
	Spanish	20	"	"
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 chaps 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)

Deuxieme 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.[2] 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 "deuxieme 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.

Levels	No. of lessons
1st year Arts	4* per week
1st year M.Sc. + M. Tech.	4 " "
2nd year Arts	4 " "
2nd year M.Sc. + M. Tech.	4 " "
3rd year Arts	4 " "
3rd year M.Sc. + M. Tech.	4 " "
4th year Arts	3 " "
4th year M.Sc. + M. Tech.	2 " "

* 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 volcabulary (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, exrcises, 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?

14 - Munsif: No, he's an Egyptian

15 - John : Do Tunisians usually speak like him?

16 - Munsif: No, but we can understand him

(p.184)

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 L 1 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

1. Can you swim? Yes, I can.

2. Can Munya read?

    (etc.)

J - Answer with "No" and a short answer

1. Can you drive a bus? No, I can't.

2. Can buses fly?

    (etc.)

K - Answer with "Yes" or "No". Give a short answer, then a long
answer

1. Can birds fly?

2. Can bicycles fly?

    (etc.)

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 a l'éxpression
>
> spontannée correcte...Dans l'étude des textes, il
>
> convient de limiter a l'essentiel les éxplications
>
> 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.

e.g. 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 textbok, 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).[4] 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.

NOTES TO CHAPTER FIVE

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) - <u>Recording in the absence of the fieldworker</u>: 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.

Levels ; Books   Units   Lessons

FIRST YEAR BOOK ONE → UNIT 4 → L1A Nov. 1983

FIRST YEAR BOOK ONE → UNIT 17 → L1B April 1983

SECOND YEAR BOOK TWO → UNIT 3 → L2A Nov. 1983

SECOND YEAR BOOK TWO → UNIT 12 → L2B April 1983

THIRD YEAR BOOK THREE → UNIT 2 → L3A Nov. 1983

THIRD YEAR BOOK THREE → UNIT 9 → L3B April 1983

FOURTH YEAR BOOK FOUR → UNIT 3 → L4A Nov. 1983

FOURTH YEAR BOOK FOUR → UNIT 9 → L4B April 1983
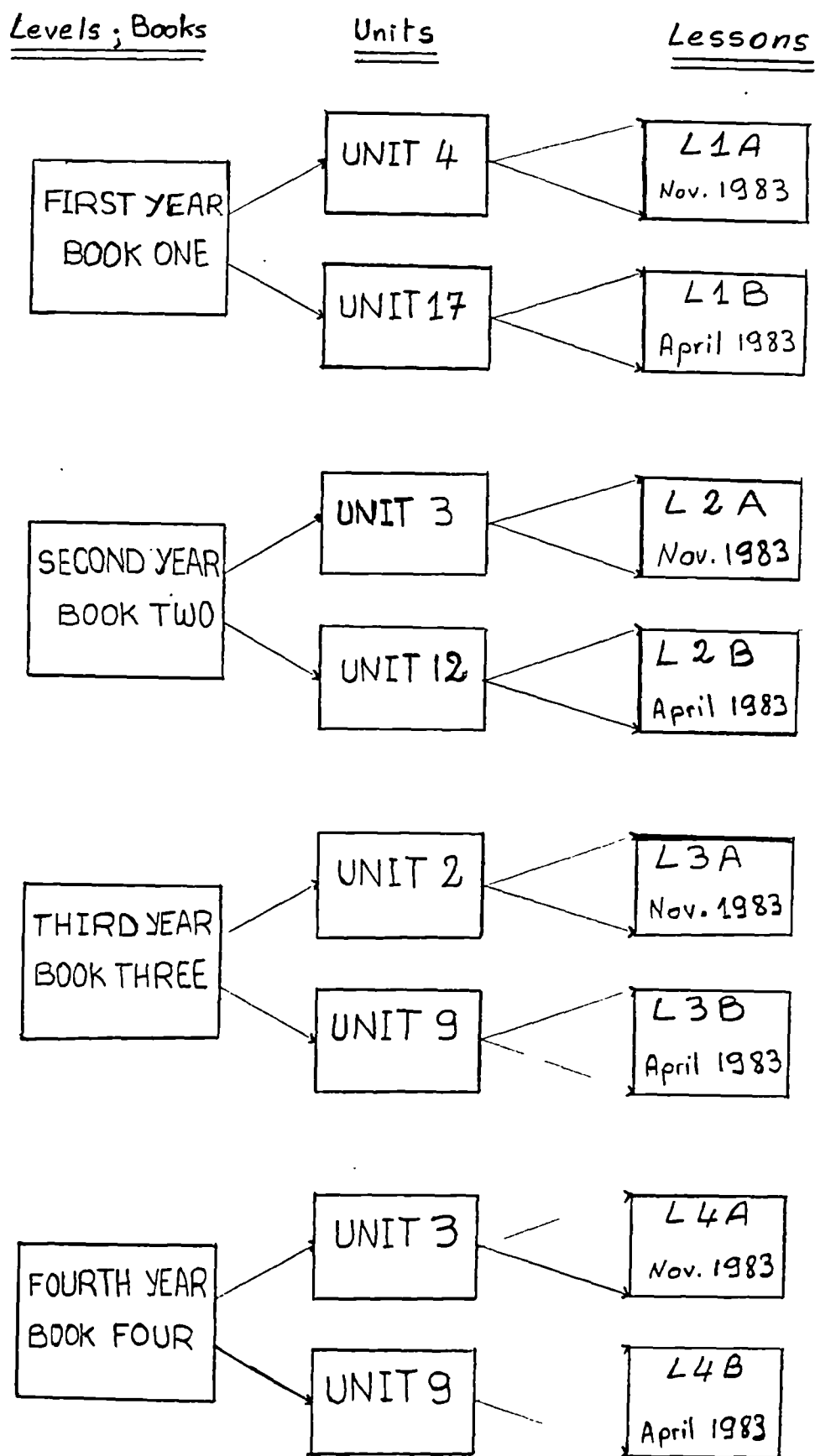
DIAGRAM 6.1:   The Books and Units in the Lessons

I.1. 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 assesed.

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

S1: 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] [∂r] 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 ([izənəl])

T : He isn't ([iznʰ])

S3: He isn't ([ʋznʰ])

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

S$_S$: Up

T :Sekka*

S3: And hang it up

T : Good

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).

II.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 ([ətrəktəjv])

     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

S$_s$: 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

S_S: Nineteen fifty six

T : What's nineteen fifty six in the history

    of Tunisia

Ss: Independence

T : The- independence good

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

er the 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

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 er 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 classrom management (e.g. Littlewood in I.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
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e.g. 24 (from lesson discourse L3A)

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S2: That's all

T : Yes that's all
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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;

e.g. 25 (from lesson discourse L4A)

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

e.g. 26 (from lesson discourse L4B)

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

S1: They keep er the corpse in another shape

T : In ano yes it is this corpse is er .

S1: Formed and cooked and putted in a ha ha

   (laughter)

T : Blocks

S1: 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. "S1: 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; "S1: [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 figs.7.1.7;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 classrom. 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 ([Sirkɔ̃stansiz])]

T : After the bad circumstances

([səkmstensiz])

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 ([sə kmstɛnsiz])". 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: [ɣɑːltɑ] ("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

S1: 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 L1 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, below0. 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

<u>some</u> 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 ;

e.g. 34 (from lesson discourse L 3 B)

```
a h    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
```

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. 35 (from lesson discourse L 4 B)

```
a      IN2    T : So they are usually

i      RS2    Ss: Crowded

i      RS2    Ss  Crammed
```

```
e a    IN2    T : Crammed with er people living together/
                    as immigrants in
i      RS2    S2: France
c f    SAT2   T : France/industrial town industrial area mhm
```

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 multidimentional 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

(Table 7.1, below). 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).

%	Frame 1	Frame 2	Frame 3	Frame 4	Totals
L1A	74.92	19.09	5.97	0.00	100 %
L1B	75.89	2.17	17.04	4.87	100 %
L2A	56.20	27.07	10.49	6.21	100 %
L2B	35.41	56.02	7.71	0.65	100 %
L3A	34.61	53.42	11.75	0.18	100 %
L3B	46.31	35.34	17.69	0.62	100 %
L4A	20.00	29.54	50.43	0.00	100 %
L4B	15.52	44.24	39.89	0.32	100 %

TABLE 7.1: Distribution of Frames Within Lessons
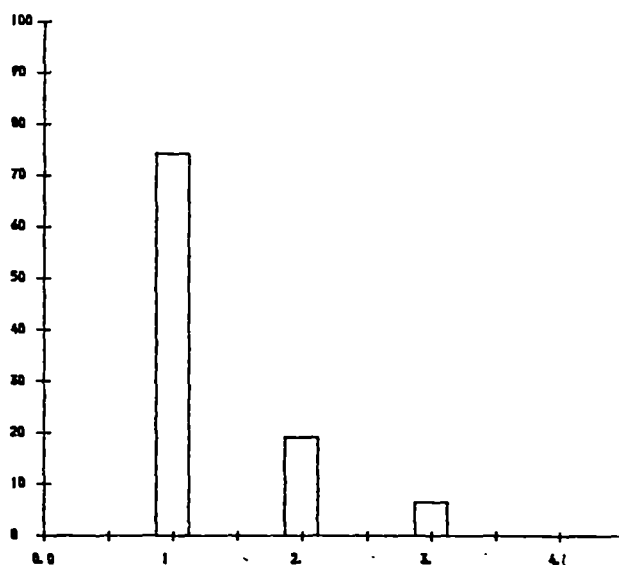
FIG. 7.1.1: Distribution of Frames in First Year Lesson Discourse (L 1 A)
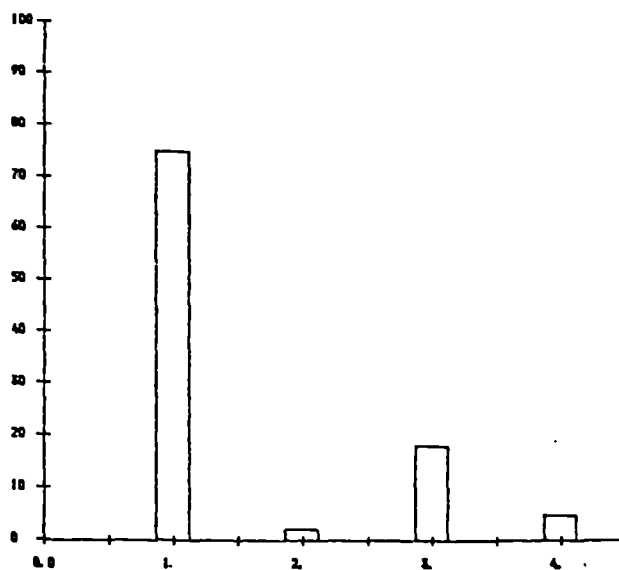
FIG. 7.1.2: Distribution of Frames in First Year Lesson Discourse (L 1 B)
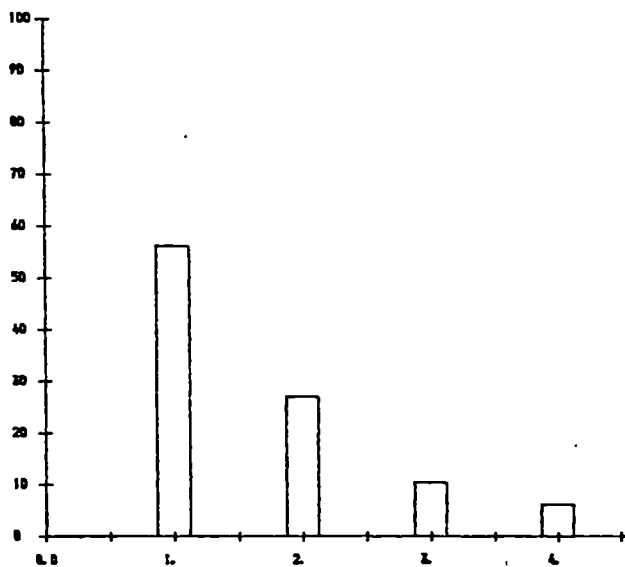
FIG. 7.1.3: Distribution of Frames in Second Year Lesson Discourse (L 2 A)
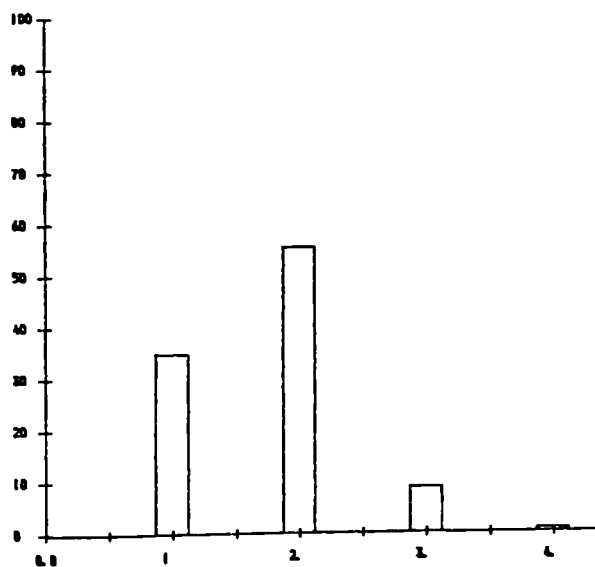
FIG. 7.1.4: Distribution of Frames in Second Year Lesson Discourse (L 2 B)
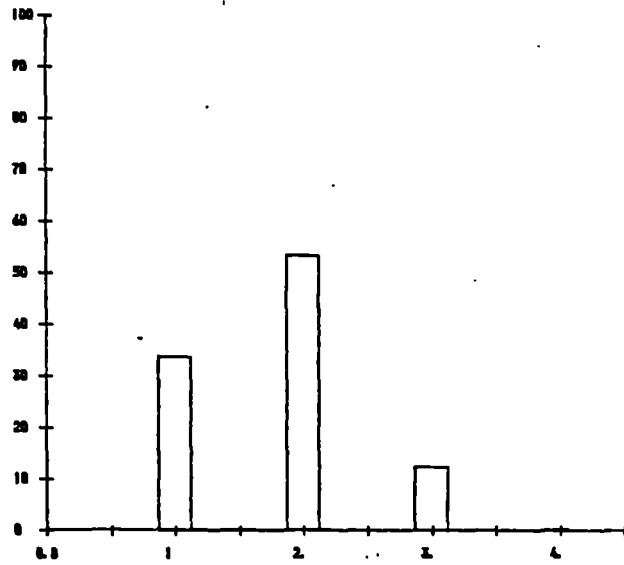
FIG. 7.1.5: Distribution of Frames in Third Year Lesson Discourse (L 3 A)
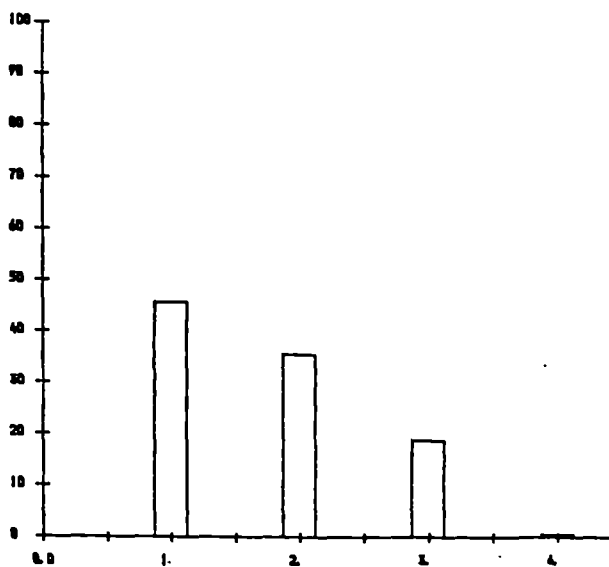
FIG. 7.1.6: Distribution of Frames in Third Year Lesson Discourse (L 3 B)
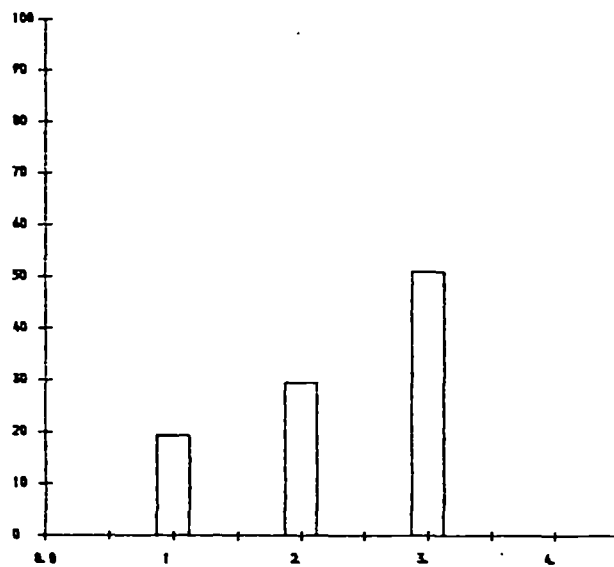
FIG. 7.1.7: Distribution of Frames in Fourth Year Lesson Discourse (L 4 A)
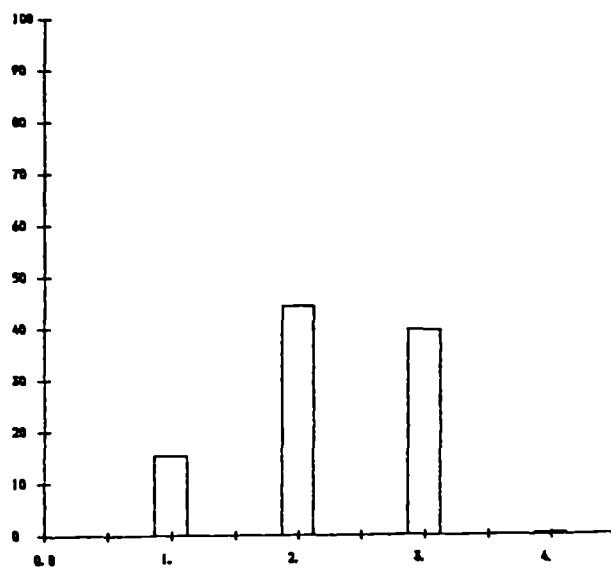
FIG. 7.1.8: Distribution of Frames in Fourth Year Lesson Discourse (L 4 B)

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.

%		Frame 1	Frame 2	Frame 3	Frame 4		Totals
L1A	T	40.65	11.21	5.60	0.00		100%
	S	33.64	7.94	0.93	0.00		
L1B	T	47.84	1.20	13.47	3.10		100%
	S	27.11	0.86	4.66	1.72		
L2A	T	27.61	11.11	7.35	2.43		100%
	S	28.59	16.01	3.10	2.77		
L2B	T	22.28	36.07	7.33	0.29		100%
	S	12.60	19.64	1.46	0.29		
L3A	T	18.46	32.20	9.00	0.22		100%
	S	15.31	21.17	3.38	0.00		
L3B	T	25.50	21.00	13.75	0.00		100%
	S	20.00	14.25	5.00	0.00		
L4A	T	10.15	17.18	31.44	0.00		100%
	S	9.37	12.30	19.53	0.00		
L4B	T	8.18	25.84	22.00	0.16		100%
	S	7.22	18.61	17.81	0.16		

TABLE 7.2: Distribution of Moves Between Teacher and Students Across Frames

◇ for Teacher; + for Students
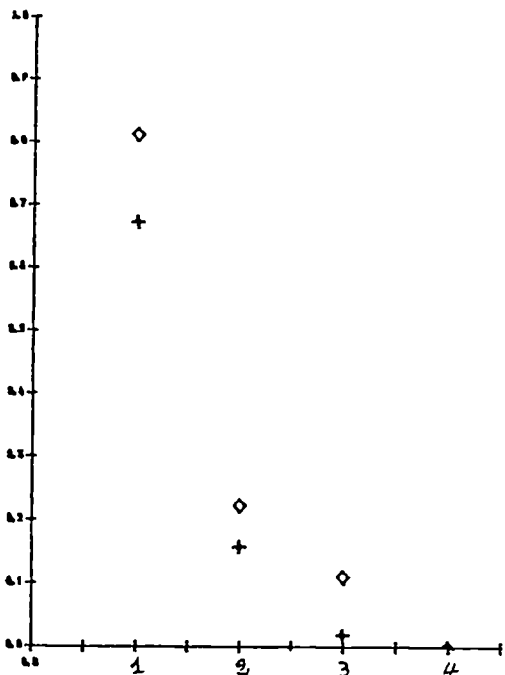
FIG. 7.2.1: Distribution of Moves
Between Teacher and Students
Across Frames in L 1 A
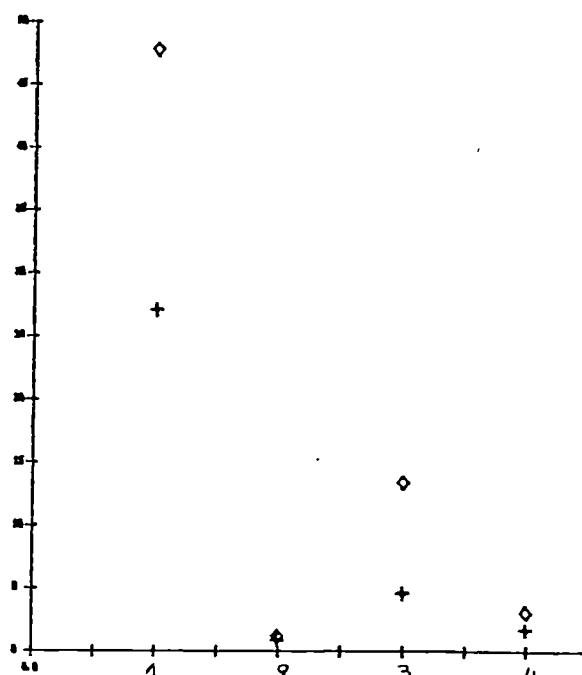
FIG. 7.2.2: Distribution of Moves
Between Teacher and Students
Across Frames in L 1 B
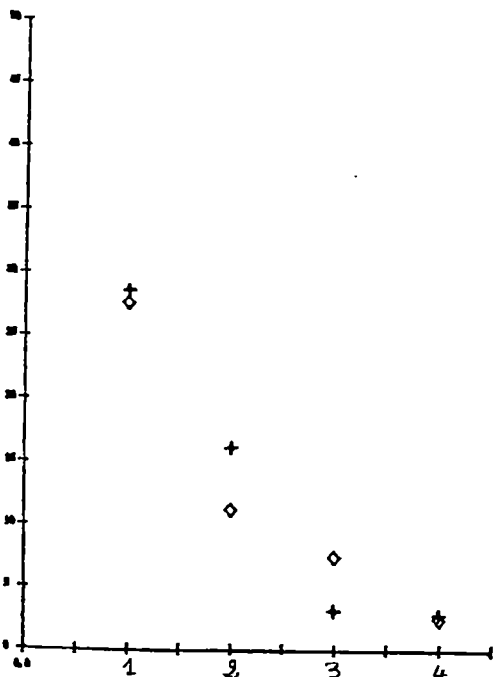
FIG. 7.2.3: Distribution of Moves
Between Teacher and Students
Across Frames in L 2 A
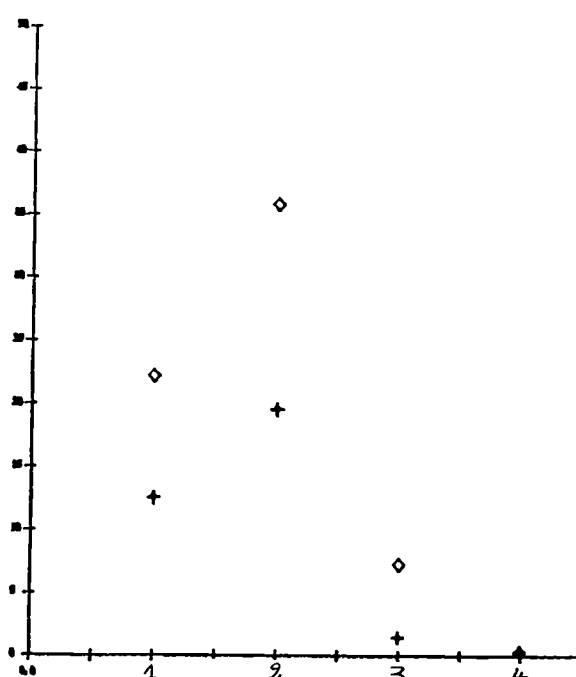
FIG. 7.2.4: Distribution of Moves
Between Teacher and Students
Across Frames in L 2 B
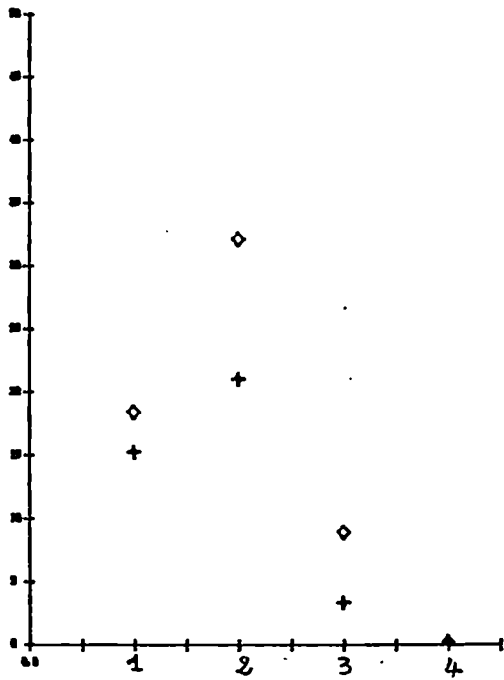
FIG. 7.2.5: Distribution of Moves
Between Teacher and Students
Across Frames in L 3 A
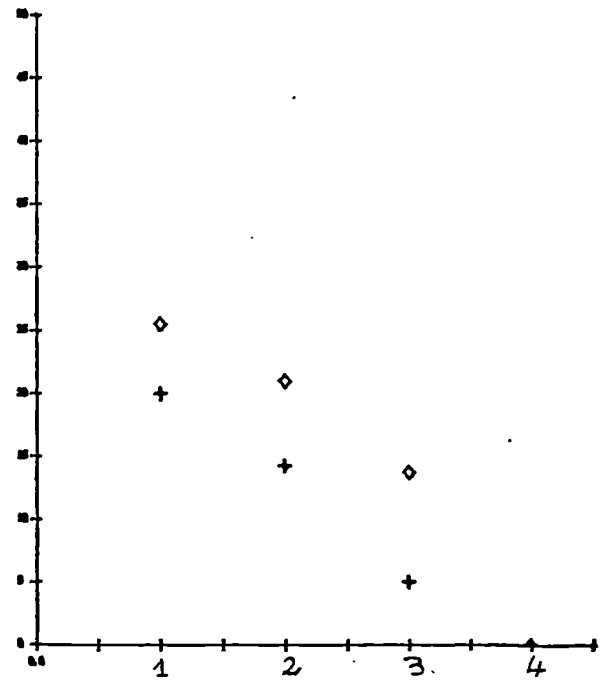
FIG. 7.2.6: Distribution of Moves
Between Teacher and Students
Across Frames in L 3 B
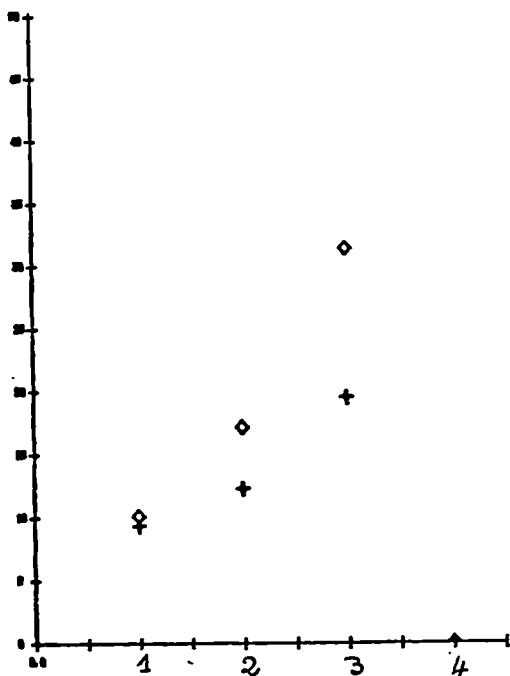
FIG. 7.2.7: Distribution of Moves
Between Teacher and Students
Across Frames in L 4 A
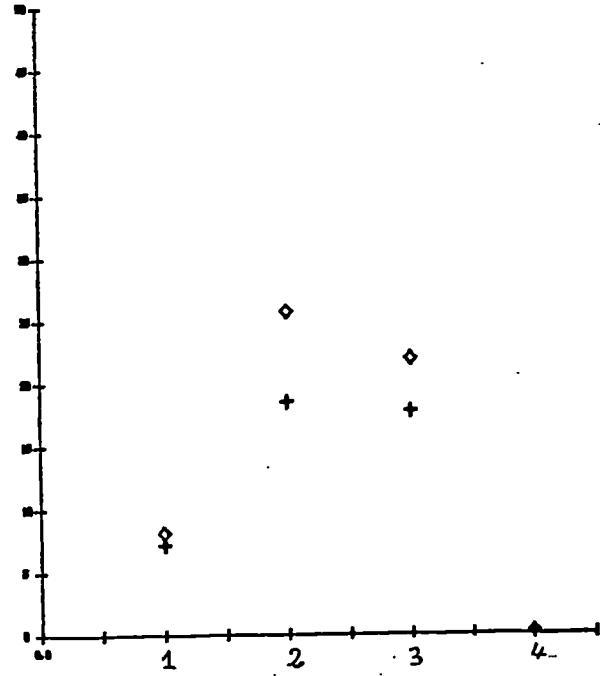
FIG. 7.2.8: Distribution of Moves
Between Teacher and Students
Across Frames in L 4 B

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.

MOVE	FRAME 1	FRAME 2	FRAME 3	FRAME 4
IN	39.08	62.50	91.66	
RS		29.16		
SAT	24.13	8.33		
CON			8.33	
CTR				
R-IN				
R-RN				
PM	17.24			
Tot.	100	100	100	

TABLE 7.2.1: Frequency of Moves in Each Frame; Teacher in L 1 A

MOVE	FRAME 1	FRAME 2	FRAME 3	FRAME 4
IN		41.17		
RS	98.61	58.82	50.00	
SAT				
CON	1.38		50.00	
CTR				
R-IN				
R-RN				
PM				
Tot.	100	100	100	

TABLE 7.2.2: Frequency of Moves in Each Frame; Students in L 1 A

MOVE	FRAME 1	FRAME 2	FRAME 3	FRAME 4
IN	38.26	71.42	46.15	72.22
RS			1.28	5.55
SAT	30.32	28.57	24.35	16.66
CON	9.02		10.25	5.55
CTR			1.28	
R-IN				
R-RN				
PM	21.29		16.66	
Tot.	100	100	100	100

TABLE 7.2.3: Frequency of Moves in Each Frame; Teacher in L 1 B

MOVE	FRAME 1	FRAME 2	FRAME 3	FRAME 4
IN	5.73		7.40	20.00
RS	84.71	100	81.48	60.00
SAT				
CON	7.64		7.40	20.00
CTR			3.70	
R-IN				
R-RN				
PM	1.27			
Tot.	100	100	100	100

TABLE 7.2.4: Frequency of Moves in Each Frame; Students in L 1 B

MOVE	FRAME1	FRAME2	FRAME3	FRAME4
IN	35.13	54.41	73.33	66.66
RS	1.18	11.11		9.52
SAT	28.40	38.23	6.66	14.28
CON	35.50	2.94	6.66	9.52
CTR			2.22	
R-IN				
R-RN				
PM	1.77			
Tot.	100	100	100	100

TABLE 7.2.5: Frequency of Moves in Each Frame; Teacher in L 2 A

MOVE	FRAME1	FRAME2	FRAME3	FRAME4
IN	5.14	25.51	26.31	11.76
RS	78.28	57.14	42.10	70.58
SAT		1.02		
CON	8.57	5.10	15.78	11.76
CTR		2.04		5.88
R-IN				
R-RN				
PM	6.85	9.18	15.78	
Tot.	100	100	100	100

TABLE 7.2.6: Frequency of Moves in Each Frame; Students in L 2 A

MOVE	FRAME1	FRAME2	FRAME3	FRAME4
IN	35.52	44.71	80.00	100.00
RS				
SAT	31.57	26.82	4.00	
CON	10.52	2.43	4.00	
CTR				
R-IN	2.63	1.62		
R-RN	1.31			
PM	18.42	24.32	12.00	
Tot.	100	100	100	100

TABLE 7.2.7: Frequency of Moves in Each Frame; Teacher in L 2 B

MOVE	FRAME1	FRAME2	FRAME3	FRAME4
IN		1.49	20.00	
RS	93.02	98.50	80.00	100
SAT	2.32			
CON	4.65			
CTR				
R-IN				
R-RN				
PM				
Tot.	100	100	100	100

TABLE 7.2.8: Frequency of Moves in Each Frame; Students in L 2 B

MOVE	FRAME1	FRAME2	FRAME3	FRAME4
IN	31.70	44.05	60.00	100.
RS			5.00	
SAT	31.70	30.76	10.00	
CON	17.07	4.19	2.50	
CTR			2.50	
R-IN	1.21	2.09	2.50	
R-RN		2.79	5.00	
PM	18.29	16.08	12.00	
Tot.	100	100	100	100

TABLE 7.2.9: Frequency of Moves in Each Frame; Teacher in L 3 A

MOVE	FRAME1	FRAME2	FRAME3	FRAME4
IN	8.82	7.44	33.33	
RS	79.41	89.36	60.00	
SAT				
CON	11.76	3.19		
CTR			6.66	
R-IN				
R-RN				
PM				
Tot.	100	100	100	

TABLE 7.2.10: Frequency of Moves in Each Frame; Students in L 3 A

MOVE	FRAME1	FRAME2	FRAME3	FRAME4
IN	49.01	38.09	67.27	
RS		3.57	5.45	
SAT	25.49	29.76	5.45	
CON	13.72	8.33	14.54	
CTR				
R-IN		10.71		
R-RN	1.96		1.81	
PM	7.84	9.52	5.45	
Tot.	100	100	100	

TABLE 7.2.11: Frequency of Moves in Each Frame; Teacher in L 3 B

MOVE	FRAME1	FRAME2	FRAME3	FRAME4
IN	17.50		35.00	50.00
RS	78.75	96.49	55.00	
SAT				
CON	3.75	1.75	10.00	50.00
CTR				
R-IN				
R-RN				
PM				
Tot	100	100	100	100

TABLE 7.2.12: Frequency of Moves in Each Frame; Students in L 3 B

MOVE	FRAME1	FRAME2	FRAME3	FRAME4
IN	3.84	35.22	47.82	
RS	3.84	1.13	3.72	
SAT	11.53	25.00	18.01	
CON	76.92	20.45	9.31	
CTR		1.13	4.96	
R-IN		1.13	3.10	
R-RN		3.40	4.34	
PM	3.84	12.50	8.69	
Tot.	100	100	100	

TABLE 7.2.13: Frequency of Moves in Each Frame; Teacher in L 4 A

MOVE	FRAME1	FRAME2	FRAME3	FRAME4
IN	2.08	4.76	4.00	100.00
RS	93.75	93.65	91.00	
SAT				
CON	4.16		3.00	
CTR			2.00	
R-IN		1.58		
R-RN				
PM				
Tot.	100	100	100	

TABLE 7.2.14: Frequency of Moves in Each Frame; Students in L 4 A

MOVE	FRAME1	FRAME2	FRAME3	FRAME4
IN	37.25	40.99	36.49	
RS			5.10	
SAT	13.72	26.08	16.78	
CON	47.05	2.48	9.48	
CTR			8.75	
R-IN		7.45	2.18	
R-RN		12.42	5.10	
PM	1.96	9.31	16.05	
Tot.	100	100	100	

TABLE 7.2.15: Frequency of Moves in Each Frame; Teacher in L 4 B

MOVE	FRAME1	FRAME2	FRAME3	FRAME4
IN	2.22	5.17	23.42	
RS	86.66	90.51	54.05	100.00
SAT	2.22		2.70	
CON	8.88	3.44	8.10	
CTR			8.10	
R-IN				
R-RN				
PM			3.60	
Tot.	100	100	100	100

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

		MOVES			ACTS	
L1A	T	57.46	100%		57.02	100%
	S	42.51			42.96	
L1B	T	65.61	100%		68.28	100%
	S	34.35			31.84	
L2A	T	48.50	100%		53.99	100%
	S	50.47			45.99	
L2B	T	65.97	100%		68.44	100%
	S	33.99			31.51	
L3A	T	59.88	100%		63.31	100%
	S	39.86			36.67	
L3B	T	60.25	100%		69.35	100%
	S	39.25			32.25	
L4A	T	58.77	100%		68.24	100%
	S	41.20			31.73	
L4B	T	56.18	100%		59.68	100%
	S	43.80			40.28	

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).

		Frame 1	Frame 2	Frame 3	Frame 4	Totals
L1A	T	101	27	22	0	150
	S	92	18	3	0	113
L1B	T	339	16	89	19	463
	S	175	5	27	10	216
L2A	T	208	86	68	23	385
	S	189	101	21	14	325
L2B	T	95	129	29	1	254
	S	43	75	5	4	124
L3A	T	92	166	57	1	316
	S	74	95	16	0	182
L3B	T	131	120	93	0	344
	S	81	57	20	3	161
L4A	T	57	131	271	0	459
	S	48	64	102	0	214
L4B	T	58	226	208	0	492
	S	46	120	145	0	311

TABLE 7.5: Number of Acts Realized by Teachers and Students

		Frame 1	Frame 2	Frame 3	Frame 4	Totals
L1A	T	87	24	12	0	123
	S	72	17	2	0	91
L1B	T	277	7	78	18	380
	S	157	5	27	10	199
L2A	T	169	68	45	21	303
	S	175	98	19	14	306
L2B	T	76	123	25	1	225
	S	43	67	5	1	116
L3A	T	82	113	40	1	226
	S	68	94	15	0	177
L3B	T	102	84	55	0	244
	S	80	57	20	2	159
L4A	T	52	88	161	0	301
	S	48	63	100	0	211
L4B	T	51	161	137	1	350
	S	45	146	111	1	273

TABLE 7.4: Number of Moves Realized by Teachers and Students

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%		Frame 1	Frame 2	Frame 3	Frame 4	Totals
L1A	T	38.40	9.12	9.50	0.00	100%
	S	34.98	6.84	1.14	0.00	
L1B	T	48.43	2.28	14.57	3.00	100%
	S	26.00	0.71	3.85	1.28	
L2A	T	29.17	12.06	9.54	3.22	100%
	S	26.51	14.02	3.50	1.96	
L2B	T	25.60	34.77	7.81	0.26	100%
	S	9.97	20.21	1.07	0.26	
L3A	T	18.43	33.26	11.42	0.20	100%
	S	14.23	19.04	3.40	0.00	
L3B	T	26.41	24.19	18.75	0.00	100%
	S	16.13	11.49	11.49	4.03	
L4A	T	8.19	19.52	40.53	0.00	100%
	S	7.15	9.53	15.05	0.00	
L4B	T	7.13	26.40	26.03	0.12	100%
	S	5.75	19.77	14.76	0.00	

TABLE 7.6: Distribution of Acts Between Teachers and Students Across Frames
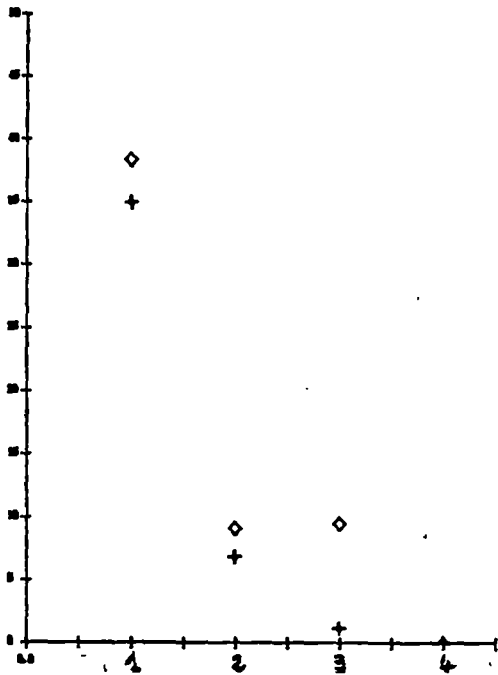
FIG. 7.3.1: Distribution of Acts
Between Teacher and Students
Across Frames in L 1 A
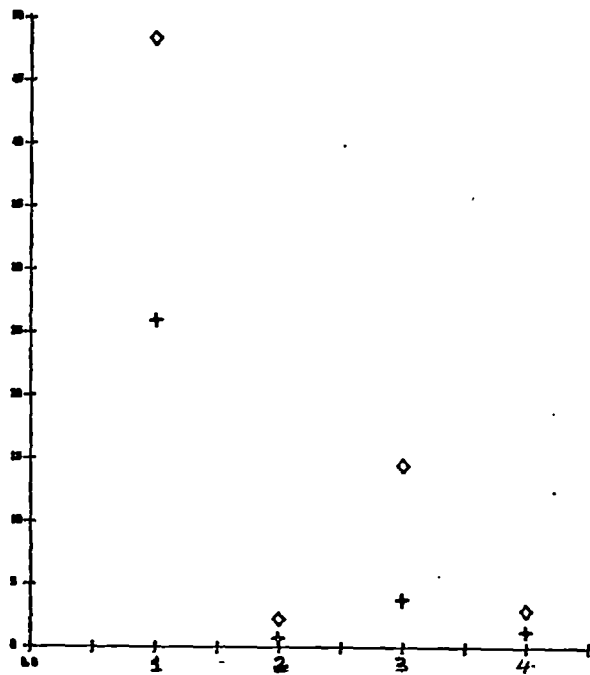
FIG. 7.3.2: Distribution of Acts
Between Teacher and Students
Across Frames in L 1 B
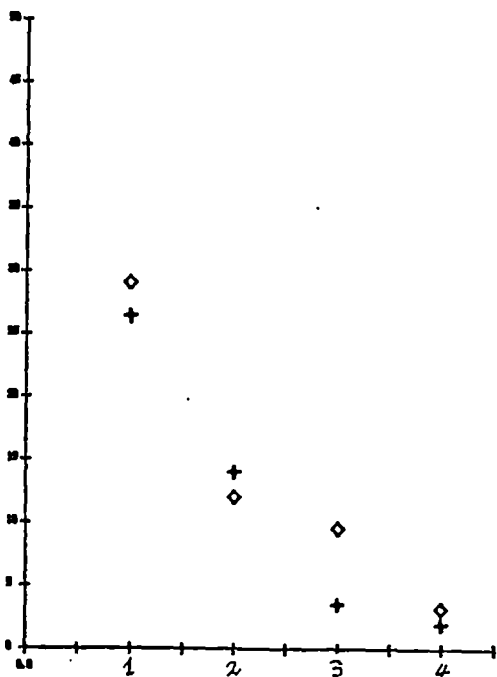
FIG. 7.3.3: Distribution of Acts
Between Teacher and Students
Across Frames in L 2 A
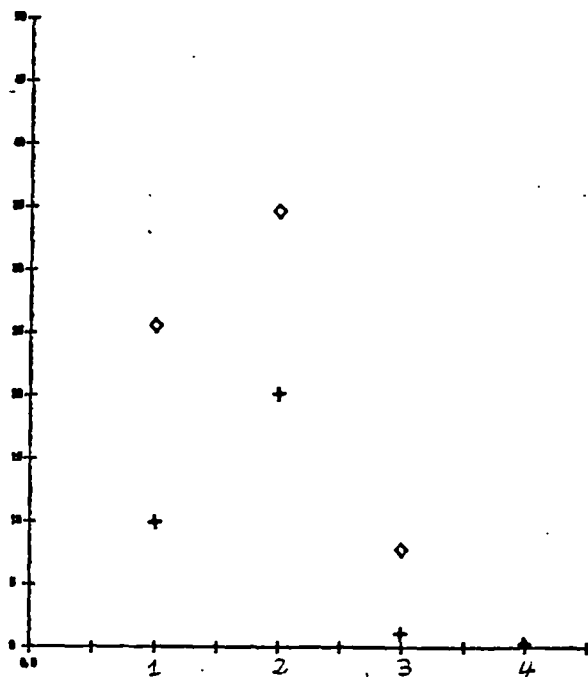
FIG. 7.3.4: Distribution of Acts
Between Teacher and Students
Across Frames in L 2 B
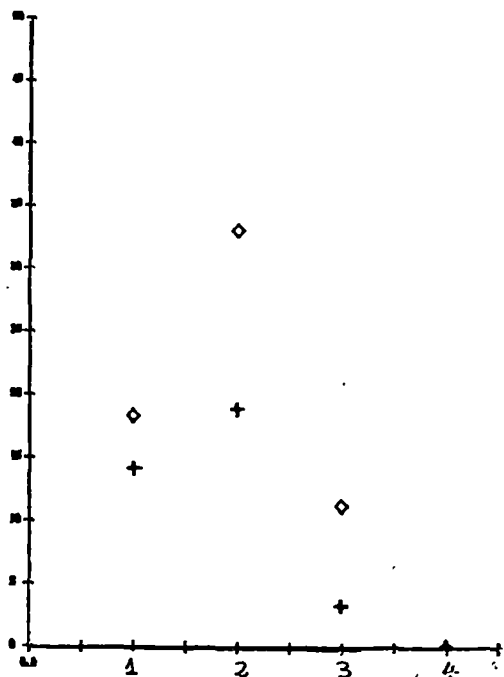
FIG. 7.3.5: Distribution of Acts
Between Teacher and Students
Across Frames in L 3 A
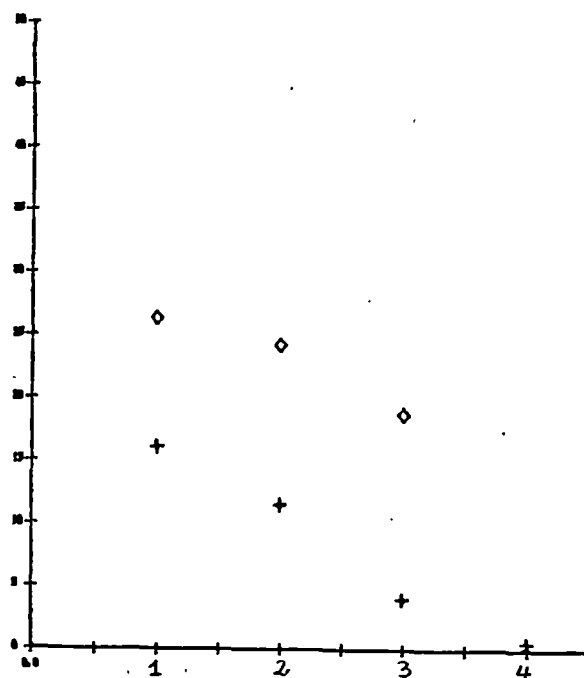
FIG. 7.3.6: Distribution of Acts
Between Teacher and Students
Across Frames in L 3 B
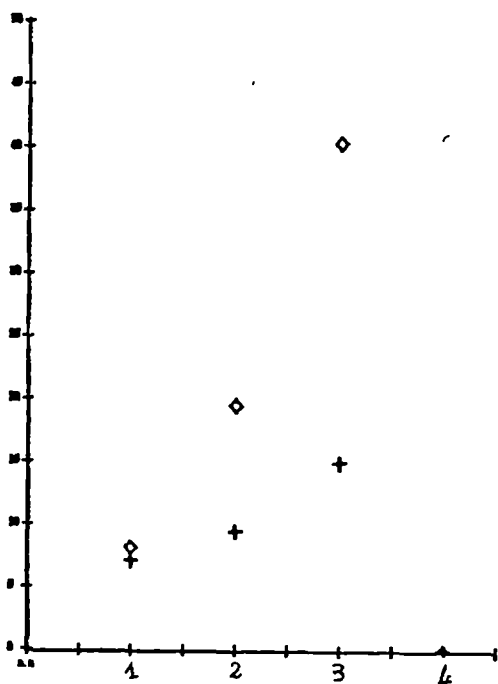
FIG. 7.3.7: Distribution of Acts
Between Teacher and Students
Across Frames in L 4 A
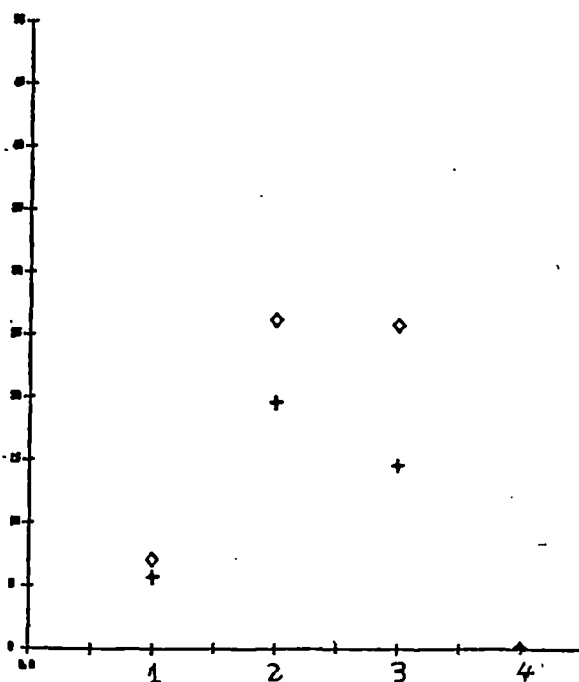
FIG. 7.3.8: Distribution of Acts
Between Teacher and Students
Across Frames in L 4 B

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 Ll. 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 understod. 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)

a - Elicit

b - Correct

c - Accept

d - Refuse

e - Uptake

f - Expand

g - Permit

h - Direct

i - Tell

j - Opine

k - Bid

l - Suggest

m - Greet

n - Thank

o - Apologize

p - Offer

(Definitions in II.3, chap. 6)

TABLE 7.6.1:

Frequency of Acts

in Frames (L 1 A T)

Acts	Frame 1	Frame 2	Frame 3	Frame 4
a	25.74	33.33		
b	16.83			
c	20.79	11.11	4.54	
d	0.99			
e	4.95			
ß	1.98		4.54	
g	14.85			
h	10.89	3.70	72.72	
i	1.98	22.22		
j				
k				
l	0.99	18.51	18.18	
m	.	3.70		
n		7.40		
o				
p				
Totals	100 %	100%	100 %	

TABLE 7.6.2:

Frequency of Acts

in Frames (L 1 A S

Acts	Frame 1	Frame 2	Frame 3	Frame 4
a		33.33		
b				
c				
d			33.33	
e	21.73		33.33	
ß		5.55		
g				
h	2.17			
i	76.08	44.44	33.33	
j				
k				
l		11.11		
m		5.55		
n				
o				
p				
Totals	100%	100 %	100%	

TABLE 7.6.1.1:   DISTRIBUTION OF ACTS IN MOVES AND FRAMES($\angle IAT$)

	FRAME 1								FRAME 2								FRAME 3								FRAME 4							
	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RK	PM	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RK	PM	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RK	PM	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RK	PM
a	24		2						9																							
b		3	14																													
c		21							1	2							1															
d			1																													
e	1	4																														
f	1		1														1															
g							15																									
h	9		2						1								15			1												
i	2								2	4																						
j																																
k																																
l	1								4	1							4															
m									1																							
n										2																						
o																																
p																																

TABLE 7.6.2.1·   DISTRIBUTION OF ACTS IN MOVES AND FRAMES($\angle IAS$)

	FRAME 1								FRAME 2								FRAME 3								FRAME 4							
	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RK	PM	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RK	PM	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RK	PM	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RK	PM
a									5	1																						
b																																
c																																
d																					1											
e		20															1															
f										1																						
g																																
h		1	1																													
i	70								1	7							1															
j																																
k																																
l									2																							
m									1																							
n																																
o																																
p																																

TABLE 7.6.3:

Frequency of Acts

in Frames (L 1 B T)

Acts	Frame 1	Frame 2	Frame 3	Frame 4
a	9.47	18.75	20.58	23.80
b	4.71		3.92	
c	26.25	12.50	16.66	4.76
d	1.76	18.75	0.95	4.76
e	2.35	6.25	3.92	4.76
f	6.78	12.50	2.94	4.76
g	19.17		12.74	
h	25.36	6.25	24.50	4.76
i	3.53	18.75	4.90	9.52
j			3.92	28.57
k				
l	0.29	6.25	2.94	4.76
m				
n				
o	0.29		1.96	
p				9.52
Totals	100%	100%	100%	100%

TABLE 7.6.4:

Frequency of Acts

in Frames (L 1 B S)

Acts	Frame 1	Frame 2	Frame 3	Frame 4
a	0.54		3.70	
b	5.49			
c	0.54			
d	1.64		3.70	
e	9.34			
f				
g				
h				
i	81.31	100.00	40.74	75.00
j			51.85	25.00
k	1.09			
l				
m				
n				
o				
p				
Totals	100%	100%	100%	100%

	FRAME 1								FRAME 2								FRAME 3								FRAME 4							
	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RX	PM	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RX	PM	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RX	PM	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RX	PM
a	29		3						3								20			1					5							
b		2	14																4													
c	1	86	2								2								17							1						
d		1	5											3					1							1						
e	1	3	3	1							1								4						1							
f	14	7	1	1					1	1							3								1							
g	7						58																								13	
h	80		3		2		1		1								21	1	3						1							
i	3	1	1	1					3								5								1	1						
j																		1	2		1				5		1					
k																																
l	1								1								1			2					1							
m																																
n																																
o		1															1	1														
p																									2							

<u>TABLE 7.6.3.1:</u>   DISTRIBUTION OF ACTS IN MOVES AND FRAMES *(L18T)*

	FRAME 1								FRAME 2								FRAME 3								FRAME 4							
	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RX	PM	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RX	PM	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RX	PM	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RX	PM
a	1																1								1							
b	1	3		6																												
c			1																													
d				3																	1											
e		17																														
f																																
g																																
h																																
i	7	135		3						5									9	2							4	2				
j																	1	13							1	1						
k							2																									
l																																
m																																
n																																
o																																
p																																

<u>TABLE 7.6.4.1:</u> DISTRIBUTION OF ACTS IN MOVES AND FRAMES (L18S)

TABLE 7.6.5:

Frequency of Acts
in Frames (L 2 A T)

Acts	Frame 1	Frame 2	Frame 3	Frame 4
a	10.78	44.18	16.17	56.52
b	27.45	1.16	1.47	
c	23.03	29.06	5.88	8.69
d	1.47			4.34
e	2.94	1.16		
f	6.37	11.62	16.17	
g	0.49	4.65		
h	21.07		32.35	17.39
i	6.37	8.13	20.58	8.69
j			1.47	4.34
k				
l	0.49		2.94	
m				
n				
o			2.94	
p				
Totals	100 %	100 %	100 %	100 %

TABLE 7.6.6:

Frequency of Acts
in Frames (L 2 A S)

Acts	Frame 1	Frame 2	Frame 3	Frame 4
a		13.86	20.00	14.28
b	7.93	0.99		
c	0.52	3.96	4.00	
d	0.52	2.97	4.00	
e	7.40			
f		0.99		
g			4.00	
h	0.52	0.99		
i	76.71	61.38	32.00	85.71
j			24.00	
k	6.34	9.90	12.00	
l		4.95		
m				
n				
o				
p				
Totals	100 %	100 %	100 %	100 %

Table 7.6.5.1

	FRAME 1								FRAME 2								FRAME 3								FRAME 4							
	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RN	PM	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RN	PM	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RN	PM	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RN	PM
a	17	1		4					36			2					10			1					12			1				
b	4		3	49							1						1															
c			47								25						1	3									2					
d				3																											1	
e	1		4	1								1																				
f	9		3	1					7	3							9	2														
g	1						3		1						3																	
h	37			6													15	5	2						4							
i	9	1		3					7								9	4			1				2							
j																	1										1					
k																																
l	1																2															
m																																
n																																
o																	2															
p																																

TABLE 7.6.5.1: DISTRIBUTION OF ACTS IN MOVES AND FRAMES (∠2AT)

Table 7.6.6.1

	FRAME 1								FRAME 2								FRAME 3								FRAME 4							
	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RN	PM	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RN	PM	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RN	PM	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RN	PM
a									10	3						1	5								2							
b	1			14					1																							
c	1								3		1						1															
d				1								3									1											
e		14																														
f									1																							
g																																
h		1							1												1											
i	8	13	5	1		1			9	49		2	2				7	4							9		2	1				
j																	3	2	1													
k								12	1						9								3									
l									5																							
m																																
n																																
o																																
p																																

TABLE 7.6.6.1: DISTRIBUTION OF ACTS IN MOVES AND FRAMES (∠2AS)

TABLE 7.6.7:
Frequency of Acts
in Frames (L 2 B T)

Acts	Frame 1	Frame 2	Frame 3	Frame 4
a	31.57	42.63	17.24	----
b	5.26			
c	25.26	24.03	3.44	
d	1.05			
e	7.36	2.32		
f	3.15	3.10	6.88	
g	13.68	23.25	10.34	
h	3.15	0.77	48.27	100.00
i	9.47	3.87	3.44	
j				
k			6.88	
l				
m			3.44	
n				
o				
p				
Totals	100%	100%	100%	100%

TABLE 7.6.8:
Frequency of Acts
in Frames (L 2 B S)

Acts	Frame 1	Frame 2	Frame 3	Frame 4
a		1.33		
b		8.00		
c				
d				
e				
f		1.33		
g				
h				
i	100.00	89.33	100.00	100.00
j				
k				
l				
m				
n				
o				
p				
Totals	100%	100%	100%	100%

	FRAME 1								FRAME 2								FRAME 3								FRAME 4							
	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RK	PM	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RK	PM	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RK	PM	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RK	PM
a	23		3		3	1			50			3		2			5															
b			1	4																												
c		24								31									1													
d			1																													
e		6			1				1	2																						
f	1	2							1	2		1					2															
g							13								30							3										
h	1		1				1		1								14								1							
i	6				2	1			4	1								1														
j																																
k																	2															
l																																
m																	1															
n																																
o																																
p																																

TABLE 7.6.7.1: DISTRIBUTION OF ACTS IN MOVES AND FRAMES (L2 BT)

	FRAME 1								FRAME 2								FRAME 3								FRAME 4							
	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RK	PM	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RK	PM	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RK	PM	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RK	PM
a									1																							
b										4		2																				
c			3																													
d																																
e		3																														
f										1																						
g																																
h																																
i		36	1						1	66								4									1					
j																																
k																																
l																																
m																																
n																																
o																																
p																																

TABLE 7.6.8.1: DISTRIBUTION OF ACTS IN MOVES AND FRAMES (L2 BS)

TABLE 7.6.9.1: DISTRIBUTION OF ACTS IN MOVES AND FRAMES (∠3AT)

	FRAME 1								FRAME 2								FRAME 3								FRAME 4							
	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RX	PM	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RX	PM	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RX	PM	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RX	PM
a	16			1		1			60			2		3	4		8	1					1									
b			2	12								2	3																			
c			23								42								1	4												
d											1	1									1											
e	1		2						4		4	1					2				1											
f									1		1						1															
g								15								19	1						4									
h	9								3					1		4	23					1	1	1								
i	8		1	1					9			1					3	1			1											
j																																
k																																
l																	1															
m																																
n																																
o																									1							
p																																

TABLE 7.6.10.1: DISTRIBUTION OF ACTS IN MOVES AND FRAMES (∠3AS)

	FRAME 1								FRAME 2								FRAME 3								FRAME 4							
	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RX	PM	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RX	PM	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RX	PM	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RX	PM
a	1									1							2				1											
b				8						1			3																			
c																																
d																																
e		1																			1											
f										1																						
g																																
h																	1															
i	5	56							7	82							2	9														
j																																
k																																
l																																
m																																
n																																
o																																
p																																

TABLE 7.6.11:

Frequency of Acts

in Frames (L 3 B T)

Acts	Frame 1	Frame 2	Frame 3	Frame 4
a	27.48	21.66	12.90	
b	4.58	4.16	1.07	
c	19.84	20.00	·3.22	
d	3.05	1.66	3.22	
e	5.34	7.50	2.15	
ß	4.58	8.33	17.20	
g	6.10	7.50	3.22	
h	23.66	18.33	37.63	
i	5.34	6.66	10.75	
j				
k		1.66	5.37	
l		1.66	3.22	
m				
n				
o				
p		0.83		
Totals	100%	100%	100%	

TABLE 7.6.12:

Frequency of Acts

in Frames (L 3 B S)

Acts	Frame 1	Frame 2	Frame 3	Frame 4
a	1.25		25.00	66.66
b	1.25	1.75		
c	1.25	1.75		
d	1.25		10.00	
e				
ß				
g				
h	16.25		10.00	
i	78.75	96.49	55.00	33.33
j				
k				
l				
m				
n				
o				
p				
Totals	100%	100%	100%	100%

| | FRAME 1 ||||||| | FRAME 2 ||||||| | FRAME 3 ||||||| | FRAME 4 ||||||| |
	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RH	PM	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RH	PM	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RH	PM	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RE	PM
a	29		3		1	3			18			1		7			7			5												−
b			1	5								1	4							1												
c			26								24									3												
d				4								1	1							3												
e	3			4					1		3	2		3						1	1											
f	5	1							8	2							15	1														
g								8	1							8								3								
h	27			3		1			20					2			29			3		3										
i	5	1				1			4	3		1					6	3		1												
j																																
k														2			5															
l									1			1					3															
m																																
n																																
o																																
p									1																							

TABLE 7.6.11.1: DISTRIBUTION OF ACTS IN MOVES AND FRAMES (L3BT)

| | FRAME 1 ||||||| | FRAME 2 ||||||| | FRAME 3 ||||||| | FRAME 4 ||||||| |
	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RH	PM	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RH	PM	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RH	PM	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RE	PM
a	1																5											2				
b				1								1																				
c		1										1																				
d				1																2												
e																																
f																																
g																																
h	12	1															1	1														
i	1	61		1						55							1	10							1							
j																																
k																																
l																																
m																																
n																																
o																																
p																																

TABLE 7.6.12.1: DISTRIBUTION OF ACTS IN MOVES AND FRAMES (L3BS)

TABLE 7.6.13:
Frequency of Acts
in Frames (L 4 A T)

Acts	Frame 1	Frame 2	Frame 3	Frame 4
a	10.52	28.24	29.77	
b	59.64	9.92	1.47	
c	10.52	18.32	11.76	
d	3.50	3.05	1.83	
e		6.87	9.19	
f	1.75	10.68	11.76	
g	3.50	9.16	5.14	
h	3.50	5.34	9.55	
i	7.00	8.36	9.19	
j			4.77	
k			0.36	
l			4.04	
m				
n			0.73	
o			0.36	
p				
Totals	100%	100%	100%	

TABLE 7.6.14:
Frequency of Acts
in Frames (L 4 A S)

Acts	Frame 1	Frame 2	Frame 3	Frame 4
a		1.56	0.99	
b	10.41		1.98	
c		1.56	4.95	
d			1.98	
e				
f			0.99	
g				
h			0.99	
i	89.58	95.31	57.42	
j		1.56	30.69	
k				
l				
m				
n				
o				
p				
Totals	100%	100%	100%	

	FRAME 1								FRAME 2								FRAME 3								FRAME 4							
	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RK	PM	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RK	PM	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RK	PM	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RK	PM
a	1			5					25			8	1	1	2		59	1		7	1	6	7									
b				34						13										1	2	1										
c			6						2	22							3	27			1	1										
d				2								4						2	3													
e									4	2	3						5	1	3	6	4	2	4									
f				1					4	6	2			2			9	1	9	7	3		3									
g							2		1				1			10								14								
h	1			1					4			1			1	1	20	1		3	1		1									
i	1	2		1					9	1		1					13	4		3	3	1	1									
j																	3	4	1		4	1										
k																	1															
l																	10					1										
m																																
n																	1		1													
o																	1															
p																																

TABLE 7.6.13.1: DISTRIBUTION OF ACTS IN MOVES AND FRAMES $(\angle 4AT)$

	FRAME 1								FRAME 2								FRAME 3								FRAME 4							
	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RK	PM	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RK	PM	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RK	PM	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RK	PM
a									1								1															
b	3		2																				2									
c									1								5															
d																				2												
e																																
f																				1												
g																																
h																	1															
i	1	42							2	58					1		2	55	1													
j									1								1	30														
k																																
l																																
m																																
n																																
o																																
p																																

TABLE 7.6.14.1: DISTRIBUTION OF ACTS IN MOVES AND FRAMES $(\angle 4AS)$

TABLE 7.6.15:

Frequency of Acts

in Frames (L 4 B T)

Acts	Frame 1	Frame 2	Frame 3	Frame 4
a	31.03	47.86	27.40	
b	36.20	0.47	0.96	
c	12.06	23.22	12.01	
d			2.40	
e	3.44	7.10	4.32	
f	3.44	9.95	12.01	
g	1.72	7.10	10.57	
h	10.34	1.42	7.21	
i	1.72	2.84	12.01	
j			5.76	
k			0.96	
l			1.44	100.00
m				
n			1.44	
o				
p			1.44	
Totals	100%	100%	100%	100%

TABLE 7.6.16:

Frequency of Acts

in Frames (L 4 B S)

Acts	Frame 1	Frame 2	Frame 3	Frame 4
a			6.45	
b	8.69	0.83	0.64	
c	2.17		3.22	
d		0.83	3.22	
e			0.64	
f		2.50	7.74	
g				
h				
i	86.95	95.83	50.32	
j	2.17		24.51	
k			2.58	
l			0.64	
m				
n				
o				
p				
Totals	100%	100%	100%	

TABLE 7.6.15.1: DISTRIBUTION OF ACTS IN MOVES AND FRAMES (∠4 BT)

	FRAME 1								FRAME 2								FRAME 3								FRAME 4							
	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RN	PM	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RN	PM	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RN	PM	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RN	PM
a	15			3					67			4	1	11	18		37	1		1	7	2	8	1								
b			21									1								1	1											
c		7							5	1	43						1	1	22		1											
d																				5												
e	1			1					4			2			3	6		1	2	2	1		1	2								
f	1	1							4			9			2	6	13		1	2	5	3	1									
g							1									15								22								
h	5			1					1						2		11	1		2			1									
i	1								3						3		9	2	1	8	5											
j																	4	3		2	2	1										
k																	1					1										
l																	2			1					1							
m																																
n																	1		2													
o																																
p																		1			1	1										

TABLE 7.6.16.1: DISTRIBUTION OF ACTS IN MOVES AND FRAMES (∠4 BS)

	FRAME 1								FRAME 2								FRAME 3								FRAME 4							
	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RN	PM	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RN	PM	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RN	PM	IN	RS	SAT	CON	CTR	R-IN	R-RN	PM
a																	4	2		1	3											
b				4								1								1												
c		1																	2	2	1											
d												1					1	1		1	2											
e																				1												
f										1			2				7	1		3	1											
g																																
h																																
i	1	39							6	105		3	1				20	50	2	2	4											
j		1															15			9	4											
k																							4									
l																				1												
m																																
n																																
o																																
p																																

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

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

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.

CONCLUSION

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	Now listen to the dialogue listen to the dialogue/
h			Take your books on page seventy four/and look at the pictures
hhh	IN2	Ttr	"Unit four/dialogue/listen"
m a	IN2	Ttr	"Good morning John are you tired"
i	RS2	Ttr	"I'm not"
a	IN2	Ttr	"Are you thirsty"
i	RS2	Ttr	"Yes I am"
l	IN2	Ttr	"Let's have a drink"
a	IN2	Ttr	"Is there any tea"
i i	RS2	Ttr	"No there isn't/There is some hot coffee though"
i	IN2	Ttr	"Mhm there's some nice fresh bread too"
l	IN2	Ttr	"Try some Turkish coffee John"
c	RS2	Ttr	"Yes please"
a	IN2	Ttr	"Is there a spoon please"
i	RS2	Ttr	"No there aren't any spoons here"
h	IN2	Ttr	"Bring some spoons Munsif"
p p	IN2	Ttr	"Have my spoon John/here's some sugar too"
n	RS2	Ttr	"Thanks"
i	IN2	Ttr	"This is very good coffee Mrs. Shedly"
n p	RS2	Ttr	"Thank you/have some more"
h h	IN3	T	"Listen/and repeat"
a	IN1	T	"Good morning John"
i	RS1	Ss	"Good morning John"
a	IN1	T	"Are you tired"
i	RS1	Ss	"Are you tired"
a	IN1	T	"No I'm not"
i	RS1	Ss	"No I'm not"
a	IN1	T	"Are you thirsty"
i	RS1	Ss	"Are you thirsty"
a	IN1	T	"Yes I am"
i	RS1	Ss	"Yes I am"
a	IN1	T	"Let's have a drink then"
i	RS1	Ss	"Let's have a drink then"
a	IN1	T	"Is there any tea"
i	RS1	Ss	"Is there any tea"
a	IN1	T	"No there isn't"
i	RS1	Ss	"No there isn't"
a	IN1	T	"There is some hot coffee though"
i	RS1	Ss	"There is some hot coffee though"
a	IN2	T	Is John tired
i	RS2	S1	No he aren't
h	IN3	T	Raise your hand
i	RS1	S2	No it is not
h a	CON1	T	"John"/is John tired
i	RS1	S1	No he is not
b	CON1	T	No he isn't
i	RS1	S3	He isn't ([izənət])
b	CON1	T	He isn't ([ˈiznt])
i	RS1	Ss	He isn't
a	IN2	T	Is he thirsty
i	RS2	Ss	Yes he is
a	IN2	T	Now is there any tea
i	RS2	Ss	No no
i	RS1	S1	No no there isn't
c	SAT2	T	No there isn't

a	IN2	T	Is there any tea
i f	RS2	S2	There isn't/there is some hot coffee
h	IN2	T	Repeat
i	RS2	S3	There isn't any tea but there is some hot coffee
c	SAT2	T	But there is some hot coffee
a	IN2	T	Is there any bread is there any bread
i	RS2	S1	Yes it is
b	CON1	T	Yes there is
h	IN1	T	Now use "some"
i	RS1	S2	There is some nice fresh bread too
c	SAT1	T	There is some nice fresh bread too
c	SAT2	T	So there's some coffee there's some nice fresh bread but there isn't any tea
h	IN1	T	Now "Be" in the present positive
i	RS1	S3	"I am"
a	IN1	T	Yes
i	RS1	S3	"You are"
a	IN1	T	Yes
i	RS1	S3	"He is she is it is er we are you are he is er"
h	IN1	T	They
i	RS1	S3	"They are"
a	IN1	T	Now what's the question form the question form
i	RS1	S1	"Am I am I er are you"
a	IN1	T	Yes
i	RS1	S1	"is he is she is it are we are you are they"
c	SAT1	T	Are they
1 f	IN1	T	Now today we're going to see the negative/we saw the positive question form and today we see the negative
g	PM1	t	Here
i	RS1	S2	"I am not you are not er he is not she is not it is not we are not"
c	SAT1	T	Yes
h h	IN1	T	Now here the short form/you read the short form
i	RS1	S3	"I'm not you're not er he's not she's not i it's not we are not"
b	CON1	T	We're not
i	RS1	S3	we're not you're not they're not
c	SAT1	T	Yes
1 h	IN3	T	Now let's do some exercises/take your books on page seventy nine/exercise "A"
h	IN1	T	"Are you tired no I'm not"
i	RS1	S1	Are you tired no I'm not
g	PM1	T	Garradi*
i	RS1	S2	Is he not
g	PM1	T	Yes here
i	RS1	S3	Is he no not
b	CON1	T	Hot
e i	RS1	S3	Hot "is ni is he hot no"/em he is not
c	SAT1	T	No he is not yes
h	IN1	T	Now three number three number three
g	PM1	T	Abdelkrim*
e i	RS1	S1	"Are we old"/no I'm I'm not
b c	SAT1	T	No we're not/no we're not
i	RS1	S2	"Is she cold" ([Kovld])/[No
b	CON1	T	Is she] cold ([Kəɒld])
e i	RS1	S2	"Is she cold"/no she is er she is not
c	SAT1	T	No she is not
e i	RS3	S3	"Are you English"/No I'm Tunisian
h	CON1	S1	"You"
e h	CON1	T	"Are YOU"/ Yes of course use the plural

i		RS1	S3	No you're Tunisian
c	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 use the negative and not the positive
g	.	PM1	T	Yes here
i		RS1	S3	"Is the teacher ready" ([raɪdɪ])
b		CON1	T	Is the teacher ready ([rɛdɪ])
e	i	RS1	S3	"Is the teacher ready"/no he's er 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
i		RS1	S3	I'm not
g		PM1	T	Yes
i		RS1	S1.	"Am I ([ʔdɪ]) am I ([ʔdɪ]) Algerian"
b		CON1	t	Am I ([dɪ]) Algerian am I ([dɪ]) Algerian
e	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 ([sɪːə])" [no it's
b		CON1	T	The sea ([sɪː])
e	i	RS1	S3	"Is your house near the sea"/no er it isn't
d		CON3	S1	([ɣaːħa]) ("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"

g		PM1	T	Yes
i		RS1	S3	"Is this a bicycle ([ə bisjklɛ'tə])
e	i	RS1	S3	A bicycle/no it's a bed
e	c	SAT1	T	No it's a bed/yes
i		RS1	S1	"Is this a cup ([əkʉp])"
b		CON1	T	A bag
e	i	RS1	S1	A bag/no it's a pen
e	i	RS1	S2	"Is it s cafe"/no i i it's er a cup
b	c	SAT1	T	A coffee a coffee/it's a coffee yes
h	l	IN3	T	You take your books on pageseventy six/and let's do the conversation
h	h	IN3	T	Here you are "you"/and you are "a friend"
m	a	IN2	S2	"Good afternoon/how are you"
i	a	RS2	S2	"I'm fine how are you"
i	a	IN2	S1	"fine/are you hungry ([ʌŋgri])"
b		CON1	T	Hungry ([hʌŋgri])
i		RS1	S1	Hungry
i		RS2	S2	"No I'm not"
a		IN2	S1	"Are you tired"
i		RS2	S2	"No I'm not"
l		IN2	S2	"Let's go to my house"
a		IN2	S1.	"Are there any buses"
i		RS2	S2	"No there aren't any buses"
a		IN2	S1	"Is your bicycle here"
i		RS2	S2	"Yes it is"
i	l	IN2	S1	"There's my bicycle/let's go"
h	h	IN3	T	Now listen/and repeat
a		IN1	T	"There"
i		RS1	Ss	There
a		IN1	T	"Where"
i		RS1	Ss	Where
a		IN1	T	"Chair"
i		RS1	Ss	Chair
a		IN1	T	"Airport"
i		RS1	Ss	Airport
a		IN1	T	"Where's the chair"
i		RS1	Ss	Where's the chair
a		IN1	T	"Is the chair there"
i		RS1	Ss	Is the chair there
a		IN1	T	"Where"
i		RS1	S	Where
a		IN1	T	"Where's the airport"
i		RS1	Ss	Where's the airport
a		IN1	T	"Are there any chairs at the airport"
i		RS1	Ss	Are there any chairs at the airport
a		IN1	T	"Yes they're"
i		RS1	Ss	Yes they're

[end of lesson (L 1 A)]

APPENDIX II
FIRST YEAR ENGLISH
lesson discourse (L 1 B)

Acts	Moves	Speakers	
h h	IN3	T	Right exercise "A"/page three hundred and fourteen (silence)
h f	IN1	T	"Change and use "One"/Jane made a lovely cake Jane made a lovely one"
g	PM1	T	Yes Bayar*
e i	RS1	S1	"Mun Munsif sent a nice present"/Munsif sent a nice one
c	SAT1	T	Right
h	IN1	T	Next
g	PM1	T	Lesheb*
e i	RS1	S2	"We mended a big puncture"/we mended a big one
c	SAT1	T	Yes ehein
g	PM1	T	Yes Abdelghni*
e i	RS1	S3	"They had a black cat"/They had a black one
c	SAT1	T	Ehein
h f	IN1	T	Fifth/"she used a small needle"
g	PM1	T	Meshrki*
e i	RS1	S1	"She used a small needle"/she used a small one
c	SAT1	T	Right
h	IN1	T	"He wrote a good poem"
g	PM1	T	Right Ferjani*
i	RS1	S2	He wrote a good one
c	SAT1	T	Ehein
h	IN1	T	"We read an old book"
e i	RS1	S3	"We read an old ([ɛ̌uld]) book"/we read an an old ([ɛˇuld]) one
c	SAT1	T	An old ([ən əʊld]) one
h	IN1	T	"Fatma drew a big picture"
g	PM1	T	Ehein yes
e i	RS1	S1	"Fatma drew a big picture"/Fatma drew a big one
c	SAT1	T	Right
h	IN1	T	"Hedi drank a cold drink"
i	RS1	S1	"Hedi drank er a cold drank ([droŋˊk])"
b	CON1	T	Hedi drank a cold drink ([driŋk])
h	IN1	T	Yes repeat Hmama*
i	RS1	S1	Hedi drank a cold one
c	SAT1	T	Right yes
h	IN1	T	"Mr Shedly opened a new bottle"
g	PM1	T	Right Yeah
e i	RS1	S3	"Mr Shedly opened ([əʊpˑərɪd]) a new bottle"/ Mr Shedly opened ([əʊpˑərɪd]) a new one
b f	CON1	T	Aha Mr Shedly opened opened ([əʊpnd])/([ɛʊ][pˑ] and [ɛn] that's opened ([ɛʊpˑrˑd]) and not opened ([əʊpˑˑərɪd])
h	IN3	T	Right next exercise "B"
h a f	IN1	T	"Answer the questions and use "somebody""/First when do we use "some"/what form
i	RS1	S1	Affirmative
c	SAT1	T	Affirmative form yes
a	IN1	T	Now what's the opposite of "some" in ...
g	PM1	T	Ferjani*
i	RS1	S2	Any
c	SAT1	T	Any
a	IN1	T	When do we use any
i	RS1	S3	I use any in er negative negative and er and er the question

e a	IN1	T	Yes negative interragative/and ...
i	IN1	Ss	interrogative]
c f	SAT1	T	interrogative form right/so 'somebody' is ..
f			'someone' right/so in the question "did anybody write to you last week yes somebody wrote to me last week"
h	IN1	T	Number two
e i	RS1	S1	"Did anybody help you yesterday"/yes somebody helped me yesterday
c	SAT1	T	Right yes
e i	RS1	S s	"Did anybody watch you then"/yes somebody watched ([wɑˡʃiɔ]) you me then
d	CON1	T	Aha wa ([wɔ̀])
b	RS1	Ss	Watched ([wɔˡʃd̩])
i	IN1	T	Watched ([wɑˡʃiɔ]) is that right
i	RS1	S3	Watched ([wɔˡʃd̩])
e c	SAT1	T	Watched ([wɔˡʃd̩])/watched yes/so somebody watched me then
g	PM1	T	Yes
i	RS1	S2	"Did anybody er go to the shops"
a	IN1	T	Yes
i	RS1	S2	Yes some er body er went er to the shops
c	SAT1	T	Good
h	IN1	T	"Did anybody watch television last week"
g	PM1	T	Najar*
i	RS1	S3	Yes yes somebody watched television last night watched television last week
c	SAT1	T	Right
h	IN3	T	Now with exercise "C"
h h	IN1	T	Ask questions use the words and anybody/then answer with yes and somebody"/Ferjani* with the First sentence
h			
e i	RS1	S2	"Did anybody a pen yesterday"/yes anybody somebody wanted a pen yesterday
c	SAT1	T	Right
h	IN1	T	"Drink any milk last night"
i i	RS1	S2	Did anybody drink any milk last night/yes somebody drank some milk last night
c	SAT1	T	Right good
g	PM1	T	Yes yes
i i	RS1	S1	did anybody come by bus this morning/yes somebody came by bus this morning
c	SAT1	T	Yes somebody came by bus this morning
h	IN1	T	"See a green car this after.."
o	IN3	T	Sorry
h	R-IN1	T	"See a green car yesterday"
g	PM1	T	Ben Njima*
i i	RS1	S2	Did anybody see a green car yesterday/yes somebody saw a green car yesterday
c	SAT1	T	Good
h	IN1	T	Now six
g	PM1	T	Turky*
i i	RS1	S3	Did anybody go to Jerba last year/yes somebody went to Jerba last year
j	IN4	T	She's lucky
h f	IN1	T	Right seven/"write with a pencil this morning"
g	PM1	T	Ben Mansuir*
l	RS1	S1	Did anybody write a letter with a pencil this morning
a	IN1	T	Mhmm
i	RS1	S1	Yes somebody write a letter with a pencil this morning
d	CON1	T	Ahah

d	CON1	Ss	No
h h	IN1	T	the past of write/repeat now
i i	RS1	S1	Did anybody write a a letter with a pencil this morning/yes somebody wrote a letter with a pencil this morning
c	SAT1	T	Good
h	iN1	T	Number eight
g	PM1	T	Yes
i i	RS1	S2	Did anybody blow candles out this morning/yes somebody blew candles out this morning
c	SAT1	T	Ehein
k	PM1	S1	Sir
h	IN1	T	"See the sun early this morning"
g	PM1	T	Habib*
i i	RS1	S3	Did anybody see the sun early this morning/yes somebody saw the sun early this morning
c	SAT1	T	Yes somebody saw the sun early this morning
h	IN1	T	"Walk to school in the rain"
i i	RS1	S1	Did anybody walk to school in er the rain/yes er somebody er walked ([wɑlkid])
b	CON1	T	Walked ([wɔːkɫ])
d b	·		Walked ([wɑlkid])/walked ([wɔːkɫ])
i	RS1	S1	Walked ([wɔːkɫ]) in the rain
c	SAT1	T	Yes somebody walked to school in the rain
h	IN3	T	Exercise "D"
h h	IN1	T	"Answer the questions "use better than"/'Which is better Tunis or Remada"
g	PM1	T	Ferjani*
e i	RS1	S2	"Which is better Esperance or El-Marsa"/El-Marsa is better than Esperance
a	iN1	T	Or
i	RS1	S3	Esperance is better than El-Marsa
c	SAT1	T	Esperance is better than El-Marsa right
a	IN1	T	Better than what's that
i	RS1	Ss	Comparative form
h	CON3	T	sst sst only one
g	PM1	T	Yes Ben Mansur*
i	RS1	S1	Comparative Form
f	IN1	T	of/of which adjective
i	RS1	S2	Good
c	SAT1	T	An a comparative of superiority of the adjective "good"
h	IN1	T	Right so "better than"
h	IN1	T	"Which is better radio or television"
g	PM1	T	Yes
i	RS1	S3	"Which is better th than er which is better radio ([rɑdʲɔ])
b	CON1	T	Radio ([reidʲʊ])
i	RS1	S3	Or television
a	IN1	T	Ehein
i	RS1	S3	Radio is better than television
c	SAT1	T	Television
a	IN1	S1	Or
g	PM1	T	Or yes Ben Aly*
i	RS1	S1	Television is better than radio
c f	SAT1	T	Television is better than radio/radio is better than television
h	IN1	T	Which is better January or August
g	PM1	T	Yes Hmama*
i	RS1	S2	August is better than January
a	iN1	T	Or

i	RS1	S3	January is better than August
c	SAT1	T	August is better than January or January is better than August
a	IN3	T	Now why is august better than January
i	RS3	S3	Because there is much sun
c	SAT3	T	Because there is much sun yes
i	RS4	S1	Because er August is better than January because my my birthday is eh (laughter) in at the August
e c	SAT3	T	Is in August/yes possible
g	PM3	T	Ehein yes
i	RS3	S2	Because January is er colder than August
e c	SAT3	T	Yes August is better than January because January is colder than August/good right yes
h	IN1	T	"Which are better dates or carrots"
g	PM1	T	Yes
i	RS1	S3	Dates is better than carrots
b	CON1	T	Dates are better than carrots
i	RS1	S3	Are are
c d	SAT1	T	Yes dates are better than carrots/mistake is better
i	CON1	Ss	Are are
e h	CON1	T	Yes/make a sentence
i	RS1	S1	Dates are better than carrots
c	SAT1	T	Dates are better than carrots
a	IN3	T	Why are dates better than carrots
g	PM3	T	Yes Meshrki*
i	RS3	S2	They are better than .. de delicious
e b a	CON1	T	They are/no "they"/dates are better than carrots because they are
i	RS1	Ss	delicious
c	SAT3	T	Right
h	IN1	T	"Which are better olives or tomatoes"
i	RS1	S3	Tomatoes are better than olives
d	CTR3	Ss	(laughter)
j	CTR3	T	Why not
a	IN1	T	Yes or
i	RS1	S1	Olives are better than tomatoes
a	IN3	S2	Why
g	PM3	T	Yes
i	RS3	S2	Because olives give us oil
c	SAT3	T	Because olives give us oil yes
h	IN1	T	"Which are better
		Ss	[(laughter)
		T	boys or girls"]
k	PM1	Ss	M'sieu M'sieu (French for Sir)
b	CON1	T	Sir
i	IN1	Ss	Sir Sir
c	SAT1	T	Sir right
a	IN3	T	Now which are better boys or girls (laughter)
g	PM3	T	Yes
j	IN4	T	She is dying for an answer
j	RS3	S3	Girls are better boys
a	IN3	S1	Why why
c	SAT1	T	Girls are better than boys right
a	IN1	T	Or
i	RS1	S2	Or boys are better than a girl than girls
j	SAT4	T	Thank God the next answer was given by a girl
a	IN4	T	OK you didn't understand what I said anyway
c l	IN1	T	Right now boys are better than girls and girls are better than boys/let's make a sentence first (teacher writing)
a	IN3	T	Boys are better than girls why

g	PM3	T	Yes
j	RS3	S3	Girls are better than boys
a	IN3	T	You think girls are better
c	SAT3	T	Ehein
j	RS3	S1	Boys are better
a	N3	T	Yes why
i	RS3	S1	Boys are better than girls because they are strong
c	SAT3	T	Boys are strong
g	PM3	T	Yes
j	RS3	S2	Boy boys are better than girls because they can play football
j	SAT3	T	Aha that's a good answer mhm
a	IN3	T	Now what about girls what do you think
j	RS3	S 1	Girls are better than boys mhm because because er
a	IN1	T	Because they are
i	RS1	S1	Because they are er beautiful (laughter)
j	SAT3	T	Because they are beautiful strange answer
g	PM3	T	Yes
j	RS3	S2	Because they are er a bei baby (laughter)
a	CON3	T	Because they are
j	RS3	S2	Babies
d	CON3	T	Because they are babies
i	RS3	S3	Because they give babies
e c	SAT3	T	Oh yes because they give babies/oh possible right that is possible
i	IN2	T	Some people say boys are better than girls (writing)
i	RS2	S2	Because
l	CON	T	Right let's not see the reasons
i f	IN2	T	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
l	IN3	T	Right let's be friends
h f	IN1	T	Make a sentence/boys are
i	RS1	S1	As
g	PM1	T	Yes Ben Amor*
		S1	As good as girls
c	SAT1	T	As good as girls
a	IN2	T	Are they different
i	RS2	S2	No
c	SAT2	T	Boys and girls aren't different (writes) yes boys and girls aren't different
a	IN2	T	We can say boys and girls are
i	RS2	S3	Equal
ecf	SAT2	T	Equal/good right/OK we are equal right
h	IN3	T	Now turn to page three hundred and sixteen
i i f	IN1	T	[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 something to somene or give someone something to send a letter to someone to send someone a letter (silence)
h	IN3	T	Now look at exercise "E"
i f	IN1	T	"You gave Jim some money" "You gave some money to Jim"/that's the same right
h	IN1	T	"My friend sent me a book"

i	RS1	S1	My friend sent a book to me
c	SAT1	T	Good
h	IN1	T	"The mother read her girl a story"
g	PM1	T	Yes Meshrki*
i	RS1	S2	Er the mother read girl ([dʒɪrl]) a story to her
a	CON1	T	The mother read a story
i	RS1	S3	To her girl
c	SAT1	T	To her girl yes
h	IN1	T	"I wrote my friend a letter"
i	RS1	S1 ·	I wrote a letter to my friend
c	SAT	T	Good
h	IN1	T	"You gave your sister a present"
i	RS1	S2	You gave a present to your sister
c	SAT1	T	Ehein
h	IN1	T	Number six
h	IN3	T	I don't read now
g	PM1	T	Yes Ben Mansur*
e i	RS1	S3	"We gave the man some money"/We gave some money to the man
c	SAT1	T	Ehein
h	IN1	T	Number six
i	CON3	S1	Seven
c	SAT3	T	Seven yes
g	PM1	T	Yes Buajila*
i	RS1	S3	They sen they sent their letters to somebody
e c	SAT1	T	They sent their letters to somebody/yes
h	IN1	T	"The teacher gave his pupils the answers"
i	RS1	S3	"The teacher gave his pupils the answers
c	SAT1	T	Yes
i	RS1	S3	The teacher gave the answers er
i	IN1	Ss	To his pupils
c	SAT1	T	Ehein yes the teacher gave the answers to his pupils
h h	IN1	T	"She"/number nine
g	PM1	T	Yes Ben Amor*
e i	RS1	S1	"She read me a book"/she read a book to me
c	SAT1	T	Good
h	IN1	T	"We wrote them four letters"
g	PM1	T	Ehein
i	RS1	S2	"We wrote four letters ([lɛtiz])
b	CON1	T	Four letters ([lɛtəz])
i	RS1	S2	To them
c	SAT1	T	We wrote we wrote four letters ([lɛtəz]) to them
h	IN3	T	Now exercise "F"
h f	IN1	T	"He gave two" that's the opposite/"He gave two dinars to me he gave me two dinars"
g	PM1	T	Right Najar*
e i	RS1	S3	"My friend sent a nice present to me"/my my friend sent me a nice present
c	SAT1	T	Yes
h	IN1	T	Number three
g	IN1	T	Turky*
e i	RS1	S1	We ro we wrote many letters to to them"/we we ro we wrote them many letters
e c	SAT1	T	We wrote them many letters/ehein
h	IN1	T	Number four
g	PM1	T	Ferjani Yes*
e i	RS1	S2	"They sent some money to their family"/they sent er their ...
i	IN1 ·	S3	Family
i	RS1	S2	They sent their family some money
c	SAT1	T	They sent their family some money

h	IN1	T	"John gave some shirts to them"
i	RS1	S1	John gave er John gave er them er some er shirts some shirts
e c	SAT1	T	John gave them some shirts John gave some shirts to them John gave some shirts to them/right
g h	IN1	T	Yes Hmama* number six
i	RS1	S2	Big er Big Jim read to his wife a letter
b	CON1	T	Big Jim read his wife a letter
i	RS1	S2	His wife a letter
i a	IN1	T	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
g	PM1	T	Yes Ben Njima*
e i	RS1	S3	"He sent a coat to Nelly"/he sent Nelly a coat
c	SAT1	T	Good
h	IN1	T	"I wrote a letter to my penfriend"
e i	RS1	S1	"I wrote er the letter a letter to my to penfriend"/ I wrote er my penfriend to er a letter
h	IN1	T	"Her uncle gave the chicken to her"
g	PM1	T	Hamzi*
i	RS1	S2	"My penfriend"
h	CON3	T	No the last one
i	CON3	S2	My penfriend
h	SAT3	T	Sorry/number nine
e i	RS1	S2	"My penfriend sent a present to to us"/my penfriend sent us a present
c	SAT1	T	Good
h	IN1	T	"Her uncle gave the chicken to her"
g	PM1	T	Yes Ben Mansuir*
i	RS1	S3	Her uncle gave her the chicken
c	SAT1	T	Her uncle gave her the chicken
h a	IN1	T	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"
h	IN1	T	Right Mestiri* give us one
i	RS1	S1	I wrote a letter to them
c	SAT1	T	I wrote a letter to them yes
g	PM1	T	Yes is it Hmama*
i	RS1	S2	I gave a present to to us
d	CON1	T	I gave a present to us
g	PM1	T	Mhmm
b	RS1	S3	Them
c	SAT1	T	Yes I gave a present to them
a	IN1	T	Can you say I gave a present to me
i	RS1	Ss	No
c f	SAT1	T	No impossible/how can you give yourself something
g	PM1	T	Ah yes
i	RS1	S1	My friend gave m
b	CON1	T	My friends
i	RS1	S1	My friends gave a birthday cake
d	CON1	T	My friends gave a birthday cake but
i	RS1	S2	To me
c	SAT1	T	Yes gave a birthday cake to me right
a	IN3	T	Someone else
g	PM3	T	Ehein
h	IN1	T	Another possibility
i	RS1	S3	The teacher showed us showed a watch to us
c	SAT1	T	Yes er the teacher showed a watch to us ehein
a	IN1	T	Who else

i	RS1	S1	The teacher sent a present to me
p	IN4	T	Yes I will in no time
g	PM4	T	Right yes
i	RS1	S2	The teacher gave a birthday cake to me
c	SAT1	T	0 the teacher gave a birthday cake to me
a	IN4	T	When is your birthday
a	IN4	S3	When
i	RS4	T	Yes
i	RS4	S3	My birthday is er in December
c	SAT1	T	My birthday is in December
p	IN4	T	I will send you a birthday cake in December
h	IN3	T	Right now
g	PM3	T	Yes
i	IN1	S1	The teacher sent a letter to me
h a	IN1	T	"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"
i	RS1	S1	Choice
c	SAT1	T	This is choice right
h a	IN1	T	Now "month"/"which month is your birthday in"
g	PM1	T	Yes
i	RS1	S2	My birthday is in March
h	IN1	T	"March" ask a question
i	RS1	S3	Which month is your birthday in
i h	IN1	T	My birthday is in December/"December" ask a question
g	PM1	T	Yes Ben Amor*
i	IN1	S1	When is your birthday in
c	SAT1	T	When is your birthday in
h	IN3	T	Now look at the sentences in your books
g	PM3	T	Ben Amor Lazhar*
i	RS1	S1	Which month is your birthday in
c	SAT1	T	Right
i i	IN1	T	So you have my birthday is in December December ask
i			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
g	PM1	T	Ehein
i	IN1	S2	Which er which month is your er birthday birth er birthday
c	SAT1	T	Without "in" possible
		S2	In December or January
c	SAT1	T	Ah yes which month is er your birthday in December or January
h f	IN1	T	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
h f	IN1	T	Second question/"Did you have a birthday birthday party"
g	PM1	T	Yes Derwish*
i	RS1	S3	Yes I had a birthday party
h b	CON1	T	Yes I have/yes I did
i	CON1	S3	I had
o c	SAT1	T	0 sorry/"did you have a birthday party" yes I did or yes I had a birthday party
h	IN1	T	"Do Tunisians usually have birthday parties"
g	PM1	T	Ahah yes
i	RS1	S1	Yes Tunis Tunisians usually had birthday parties
b	CON1	T	Have
e i	CON1	T	Have/the question is "Do" present

h	IN1	T	"Do Tunisians usually have birthday parties"
g	PM1	T	Yes Hmama*
i	RS1	S1	Tunisians usually have birthday parties
c	SAT1	T	Tunisians usually have birthday parties
a	IN3	T	Can all Tunisians have birthday parties
g	PM3	T	Abdelghni*
j	RS3	S2	Tunisians have som sometimes they have birthday
b c	SAT3	T	Sometimes have birthdays Tunisians sometimes have birthdays birthday parties/yes
a	IN3	T	Or
j	RS3	S3	Someone and some others have birthday parties
b c	SAT3	T	Some some Tunisians sometimes have birthday parties ehein yes
a	IN3	T	Can everyone have birthday parties
g	PM3	T	Yes
j	RS3	S3	Only Tunisians er have birthday parties
ebc	SAT3	t	Only Tunisians/only people from the capital/yes
a	IN3	T	How about rich people
g	PM3	T	Yes Mistiri*
j	RS3	S2	The mean Tunisians don't have birthday parties
c	SAT3	T	Ah Tunisians who are mean don't have birthday parties
a	IN3	T	Now so who can have a birthday party
j	RS3	S3	The rich
c	SAT3	T	Yes
i	RS3	S3	The rich have a birthday party
c	SAT3	T	Only rich people have birthday parties
h	IN1	T	Now question four
j	IN4	T	This is a silly question to hit a silly answer
h	IN1	T	"Can you draw a man"
i	RS1	S1	Yes I can
c	SAT1	T	As a short answer yes
i	RS1	S1	Yes I can draw a man
i	IN3	T	Yes just a sketch
g	PM3	T	Right yes
j	IN3	S2	Everyone can draw a man
j	RS3	S1	Yes even the teacher
h	IN1	T	"Did you draw when you were young"
i	RS1	S3	Yes I d drew wher when I I w were young
a	IN1	T	Who corrects
g	PM1	T	Yes Meshrki*
i	RS1	S1	Eh yes
a	IN1	T	Yes I
i	RS1	S1	Yes I drew ([drɔɷ])
b	CON1	T	I drew ([drʋ])
i	RS1	S1	Yes I drew when I I was young
c	SAT1	T	I was young
h	IN1	T	"Can you draw a picture of your parents"
g	PM1	T	Ben Njima*
i	RS1	S2	Yes I can drew a picture of my parents
d	CON1	T	I can drew
b	RS1	S2	Draw
c	SAT1	T	Yes I can draw
i	IN1	T	Infenetive after defective after can
h	IN1	T	"Did your mother make any cakes last week"
g	PM1	T	Hamzi*
i	RS1	S3	Yes yes my mother my mother make
d	CON1	S2	Makes
i	RS1	Ss	Makes
d	CON3	T	Shsht no
i	RS1	S3	made any cake last
b	CON1	T	Some some

h	IN3	T	Step by step you'll reach it
i	RS1	S3	My mother made some cakes last week
c f	SAT1	T	Right/"did your mother make any cakes last week" yes my mother made some cakes last week
g h	IN1	T	Abdelghni* "Were they better than Fred's cakes"
i	RS1	S1	Yes they were
c f	SAT1	T	Yes they were/they were better than Fred's cakes
h	IN1	T	"Have you got a photo of your friends"
g	PM1	T	Ehein yes
i	RS1	S2	Yes I have got
d	CON1	T	Ahah
i	RS1	S2	Yes I have
i	CON3	Ss	([mɛːʃanduːʃ mɛːʃanduːʃ]) (LTAV for "he hasn't any")
h	CON3	T	Now one by one
ghh	IN1	T	Yes/"have you got.."/answer yes
i	RS1	S1	Yes I have got a photo of my family
i h	IN1	T	That's a long answer/a short answer now
i	RS1	S2	Yes I have
c	SAT1	T	Yes I have right
h	IN1	T	Eh "have they got a photo of you"
g	PM1	T	Yes
i	RS1	S3	Yes they have
c	SAT1	T	Yes they have
h	IN1	T	"Which do you like better milk or fruit juice"
g	PM1	T	Yes
i	RS1	S1	Milk
h	CON1	T	Complete sentence
i	RS1	S1	I milk
b	CON1	T	like
i	RS1	S1	I like m fruit juice
h	IN1	T	Use better
g	PM1	T	Yes
i	RS1	S2	I lai I like Fruit juice than er er milk
b	CON1	T	Better
i	RS1	S2	Better
h	IN1	T	Yes repeat
i	RS1	S1	I like Fruit juice better than milk
i	SAT4	T	And so do I
h	IN1	T	"Have you got a telephone at home"
g	PM1	T	Yes
i	RS1	S3	No I haven't
c c	SAT1	T	"Have you got a telephone at home" yes I have no I haven't/yes that's right
a i	IN3	T	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
g	PM3	T	Yes
i	RS3	S1	Yes I must must er I must put the telephone in my father's sho shop
c	SAT1	T	I must yes
i a	SAT3	T	His father's got a shop and each time he needs to make a phone call he goes to his father's shop/right
a	IN3	T	Or you can go
i	RS3	S2	PTT (French for Post Office)
b c	SAT3	T	To PTT/yes the post office eh right
h f	IN1	T	"Did you do anything special last week"/Ah anything
g	PM1	·T	Yes
i	RS1	S3	I went to the cinema
a	IN1	T	Another answer

i		RS1	S2	Yes I did
c	i	SAT1	T	Yes I did/that's a short answer
h	f	IN1	T	"Did you do anything special last week"/what's that what was it what did you do
i		IN2	T	Now remember Mr and Mrs Dale went to ...
i		RS2	S3	[China
i		RS2	S3	Restaurant]
b	c	SAT2	T	To a Chinese restaurant/Yes
a		IN1	T	Now what did you do as a special thing
g		PM1	T	Yes Ferjani*
i		RS1	S!	I went to the sea because it was very ssun
a		CON1	T	Because it was very
i		RS1	Ss	Hot
a		IN1	T	Very sss
i		RS1	S1	Very sun
b		CON1	T	Very sunny
i		RS1	S3	Sunny
h		IN1	T	"Did you go to a restaurant"
g		PM1	T	Yes Haj Khlifa*
i		RS1	S2	Yes I I went to a restaurant
c		SAT1	T	Yes I went to a restaurant
h		IN1	T	"Can you drive a car"
i		IN4	T	Let's change the subject
i		RS1	S3	Yes I can
d		CON1	S1	I can't
c		SAT1	T	No I can't drive a car
h		IN4	T	So Mistiri* don't be angry next time
h	f	IN1	T	"How many children are there in your family"/That's a simple question/Yes how many
i		RS1	S2	There are two children on my family
b	c	SAT1	T	In my family not on my family right/there are two children in my family right
a		IN3	T	Which is better three children or ten
j		RS3	S3	Ten
a		IN3	T	Yes
i		RS3	S3	Ten children are better than three
c		SAT3	T	Ten children are better than three
a		IN3	T	Who says zz something else
g		PM3	T	Yes
j		RS4	S1	Because they can help me
a		IN4	T	Being the father
			S1	In the farm
e	c	SAT4	T	Because you want ten children to help you in the farm/ah yes possible right
i	j	IN4	T	Now three children ten children it depends/three children that's good life/now ten children very difficult unless you work with them/a footbal game if you have ten children a football game is possible right
j		IN4	S2	A team
c		SAT4	T	You make a team yes
h		IN1	T	"Did anybody read to you when you were young"
i		RS1	S3	Yes somebody read to me when I was young
a		IN4	T	Who was it who
i		RS4	S1	My friend
d		CON4	T	When you were young your friend was young too
i		CON4	S1	Neji
e	a	IN4	T	That was Neji/who's Neji
i		RS4	S1	He's my friend
d	l	CON4	T	Ah but your friend is as old as you when you were young he was young too/that must be your mother

				father uncle right or aunt
i		RS4	S2	Uncle
e	c	SAT4	T	Uncle/yes your uncle
h		IN1	T	"Did you write to a penfriend last week"
g		PM1	T	Yes Ben Ramdhan*
i		RS1	S3	Yes I wrote ([rdɑʊt]) to a penfriend last week
b		CON1	Ss	Wrote ([rɔ:t])
h		CON3	T	Ah please don't answer like that
g		PM1	T	Yes
i		RS1	S3	Yes I wrote to a penfriend last week
h	f	IN1	T	"What did you have to do with these questions"/that's the last question
g		PM1	T	Yes Najar*
i		RS1	S1	I have to practice my language
b		CON1	S2	Had
e	h	R-IN1	T	I had to practice my language with these questions/yes but these questions what did you have to do with them/what did you have to do here in this exercise
i		RS1	S3	I had to answer the questions
c		SAT1	T	I had to answer the questions
a		IN1	T	"Had to" what's that
i		rS1	S3	Must past
i		CON1	S1	It's the past of must
c		SAT1	T	It's the past of must
h	i	IN3	T	Now turn your page on three hundred and eighteen/
h	h			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]

APPENDIX III
lesson discourse (L 2 A)

Acts	Moves	Speakers	
i a	IN2	T	Ibrahim went to register at the hotel/what would he like for his family
i	RS2	S1	He would like accommodation for his family
c	SAT2	T	Ibrahim would like accommodation for his family
a	IN2	T	What would he like for his wife and him what would he like for his wife and him
i	RS2	S2	He wants er
b	CON1	S3	Would like
i	RS1	S2	He would like er a rom with a..[double bed
i	IN1	S3	double bed]
i	IN1	S1	For his wife
i	RS1	S2	For his wife and him
c	S AT2	T	He'd like a room with a double bed for his wife and him mhmm
a	IN2	T	And what would he like for his daughters
i	RS2	S3	He'd like two er er a room with two beds for his daughters
a	CON2	T	He'd like two rooms
i	RS2	S3	He'd like er he'd like a room with two single beds for his wai.daughters
c	SAT2	T	He'd like a room with two single beds for his daughters
a	IN2	T	And what would he like for his son
i	RS2	S2	He like for his son ([sͻ])
b	CON1	T	He'd like
i	RS1	S1	He'd like for his son ([sͻ]) er
a	IN1	T	He'd like something for his son
i	RS1	S1	He'd like a bed for a single bed for his son
e a	CON2	T	He'd like a single bed for his son/where a single bed in the street
b	RS2	S2	A room a room
i	RS1	S1	He'd like a room with a single bed for his son
c	SAT2	T	He'd like a room with a single bed for his son
a	IN2	T	And what would he like with each room
k	PM2	Ss	Sir
i	RS2	S3	He he would like a bath er with each room
h	CON1	T	Short answer
i	RS1	S3	He'd like yes he would
c f	SAT2	T	Yes he would/he'd like a bath with each room
a f	IN2	T	Is it possible to have a bath with each room/do they have a bath with each room at this hotel
k	IN2	Ss	Sir Sir
i	RS2	S2	This difficult
c	SAT2	T	That's difficult
a f	IN2	T	So what must his son do what must his son do/what does he have to do
i	RS2	S3	His son have to d to share the room
b	CON1	T	Has
i	RS1	S3	He has to share a room
c	SAT2	T	He has to share a room he has to share a room
1 h f g	IN2	T	Can you give an example with share/make a sentence with share/for example he has to share a room/yes for example a sentence
i	RS2	S1	Eh in the bir in my birthday I share er the cake with a piece to give er to er my friends
a	IN2	T	You share the cake with your friends
i	RS2	S1	Yes

c	SAT2	T	Mhm
a	IN2	T	And if your friend hasn't got a book what will you what do you do if your friend hasn't got a book
i	RS2	S1	I must share the book with my friends
c f	SAT2	T	You share the book with him mhm/you share the book with your friend
a	IN2	T	Now what must Ibrahim fill in
k	PM2	S2	[Sir Sir
		T	To register]
i	RS2	S2	Ibrahim mm fill in
b	CON1	T	Must fill in
i	RS1	S2	Ibrahim must fill in the sh [registration form
i	IN1	S3	A registration form]
a	IN1	T	Must fill in a registration
i	RS1	Ss	Form
c	SAT2	T	A registration form yes
a	IN2	T	Now would Ibrahim like breakfast in his room would Ibrahim like breakfast in his room
k	PM2	Ss	Sir Sir
i	RS2	S1	Yes he he yes he like
b	CON1	S3	Would like
b	CON1	T	He would like
i	RS1	S1	He would like er breakfast er for for his his room
i	CON1	T	In his room
g	PM1	T	Mhmm
i	RS1	S2	He like breakfast in his room
b	CON1	T	He would like
i	RS1	S2	He would like er breakfast in his room
c	SAT2	T	He'd like breakfast in his room
a	IN4	T	Would you like breakfast in your room sometimes
i	RS4	S2	Yes
b	CON1	T	I'd like
a	IN4	T	Who brings you breakfast in your room
i	RS4	S2	My mother er brings er breakfast in my room
i	RS4	S3	My mother
		Ss	(laughter)
c	SAT4	T	She brings you breakfast in your room mhm
i a	IN2	T	Now Ibrahim and his family are at the hotel and the next day the fam al the family went/where did the girls go
k	PM2	Ss	Sir Sir Sir
a		T	Where did the girls go
g	PM2	T	Yes
i	RS2	S1	The girls go sh shopping
h	CON1	T	Where did the girls go in the past
i	RS1	S2	He he went er
b	CON1	T	They
i	RS1	S2	They went er shopping
c	SAT2	T	They went shopping
a	IN2	T	Do you sometimes go shopping
i	RS2	S2	Yes I sometimes go shopping
i a f	IN2	T	It's friday today/do many people go shopping on Friday/it's market day
i	RS2	S3	Yes many people er g go sh shopping because er today is market day is a friday is a market day
c	SAT2	T	Mhmm
a	IN2	T	Now what do people buy when they go shopping on Friday what do people buy
i	RS2	S1	People buy vegetables in Friday
b	CON1	T	On Friday

i	RS1	S1	On Friday
c	SAT2	T	They buy vegetables
a	IN2	T	What else do they buy
i	RS2	Ss	Clothes clothes
i	RS2	S3	They buy clothes the people buy clothes animals radio vegetables
a	IN2	T	Many things
c	RS2	S3	Many things many things
i a	IN2	T	Right now the girls the girls the girls go shopping in London/what are they buying what are they buying what are they buying/
g	PM2	T	Bakkush*
i	RS2	S1	They are buying clothes
c	SAT2	T	They're buying clothes mhm
a	IN2	T	So where are they going
i	RS2	S2	Eh they are going they buying to the shops
c	SAT2	T	Yes they are going to the shops
h	IN2	T	Repeat
i	RS2	S2	They're going to the shops
a f	IN2	T	What kind of shops are they going to/
k	PM2	Ss	Sir Sir
		T	Are they going to a vegetable shop/are they going to
i	RS2	S2	they are going to the clothes shop
c f	SAT2	T	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
a	IN2	T	Now before buying a skirt for example what must you do
k	PM2	Ss	[Sir Sir
		T	What must you do]
g	PM2	T	Zwiiten*
i	RS2	S3	Eh you must er
a f	IN4	T	Do you buy a skirt sometimes/do you buy a skirt for your sister
i	RS4	S3	No I I don't sometimes buy er some skirts for my sister
a	IN4	T	What do you buy then
i	RS4	S1	A shirt
i	RS4	S3	I buy trousers
c	SAT4	T	trousers or shirts
i	IN2	S3	Clothes
c	SAT2	T	Clothes yes
g a	IN2	T	Now you for example/what must you do before buying a skirt or a dress
i	RS2	S2	Before buying a dress I must er trying it
d	CON1	S3	Trying
i	RS1	S2	Trying er it on er
b	CON1	S3	I must try
b	CON1	T	Try it on
i	RS1	S2	I must try it on
a f	IN2	T	Where do you try on clothes where do you try them on
k	PM2	Ss	Sir Sir
i	RS2	S1	They they try they try on a fitting room
c	SAT2	T	In the fitting room
k	PM2	S2	Sir Sir
i	RS2	S2	I try on on er
b	CON1	S3	I try on in the fitting room
c	SAT1	T	You try clothes on in the fitting room
i	RS2	S1	I try clothes on the the fill in the filling
b	CON1	T	Fitting
i	RS1	S1	Fitting room

a	IN2	—	T	Is the fitting room usually a big room or a small one
i f	RS2	— S1		It's small one/the fitting room is er the small room
a	IN2		T	Is there a fitting room in every shop
i	RS2		S2	Eh in every shop there are a
b	CON		T	There is
i	RS1		S2	there's er many er
b	CON1		T	there's a fitting rom
i a	IN2		T	But in some shops you don't find a fitting room/you find a fitting room in a
i	RS2		Ss	Big shops
a	IN2		T	Where do you find a fitting room
i	RS2		S3	We find a fitting room in the big shops
c f	SAT2		T	In big shops/Mr Besbes' shop for example Mr Turki's shop for example
a f	IN2		T	Now why do you why do you try clothes on why/what do you want to see
i	RS2		S1	A I must try to know if they fit me or not
a	IN2		T	You want to see if the clothes
i	RS2		S2	Fit her
h a	IN4		T	Look look at my coat Ferhat*/do you think it fits you/
h			T	Come here come here (teacher gives his coat to Ferhat)
			S3	(laughter)
a	IN2		T	Does the teacher's coat fit you
i	RS2		S3	No the clothes of the teacher didn't fit me
b	CON1		T	Don't fit me
a	IN1		T	His coat doesn't fit me
i	RS1		S3	His coat don't fit me
b	CON1		T	Doesn't
i	RS1		S3	Doesn't fit me
c	SAT1		T	Mhm
a	IN4		T	Now do your mother's clothes fit you do your mother's clothes fit you
i	RS4		S1	Yes my mother's clothes fit me
a	CON4		T	??? (gestures showing astonishment)
i	CON4		S1	Yes Yes
a	IN4		T	Your mother your mother must be very small ehein
i	RS4		S1	Yes
a	IN4		T	Do your mother's clothes fit you
i	RS4		S2	Yes my my ma my father's clothes fit me
d	CON4		T	Her father's clothes
			Ss	(laughter)
i	CON4		S2	No eh (laughter) my mother's (laughter) ma
b	IN1		T	My mother's clothes
i	RS1		S2	My mother's clothes fit me
a	IN4		T	Now Thwiib* do your father's clothes fit you
a	IN4		S3	Can you repeat please
i	RS4		T	Can your father's clothes fit you
i	RS4		S3	No my father's clothes doesn't don't fit me
c j	IN4		T	His father's clothes don't fit him/because his father is big and he is small ehein
i a	IN2		T	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)
a i	IN2		T	You must feel/you must feel the material (gesticulates)
i	RS2		S1	Before buying th er skirt er I must fill feel the material ([matəriel])
b	CON1		T	You must feel the material ([matɪ:riəl])

i	RS1	S2	I must feel the material ([matiːriəl])
c	SAT1	T	feel the material
i	RS2	S3	I must before buying my my shirt I must er er feel the material
a f	IN2	T	And why do you feel the material/what kind of material do you like
i	RS2	Ss	Soft
a	IN2	S1	What kind of material do you prefer
i	RS2	S2	I prefer the soft material
c	SAT2	T	Soft material soft material
a	IN2	T	And what kind of material do you prefer Izzid iːn*
i	RS2	S3	er I prefer the soft er material
i	CTR2	T	Soft material only soft well I like soft material and I like strong material too
a	IN2	T	Do you like strong material
i	RS2	S1	Yes I like strong material
i	IN2	T	You know some people wear loose clothes and some people wear tight clothes
a	IN3	S1	loose
i	RS3	T	loose loose large big
c	SAT3	S2	Yes
i a	IN2	T .	For example older people older people/what do older people like loose clothes or light or tight clothes
i	RS2	S3	He like lose clothes
i	CON1	T	Older people "they"
i	IN1	S1	loose
j	CTR4	S3	No eh older people many people like er some clothes loose and many people like eh eh some clothes tight (laughter)
a	IN4	T	Your parents for example your father and mother what do they like loose clothes or tight clothes
i	RS4	S3	Loose clothes
i	RS4	S1	They like the loose clothes
b	SAT4	T	They like loose clothes
a	IN4	T	Your grandmother for example what does she wear loose loose or tight clothes
i	RS4	S2	He she prefer
b	CON1	T	She prefers
i	RS1	S2	She prefers er light clothes
b	CON1	Ss	Tight tight
i	RS1	S2	Tight clothes (laughter)
a	IN4	T	Your grandmother wear tight clothes
i	RS4	S2	Yes
j	SAT4	T	Aha she is fashionable
a	IN4	T	Ben Nather* what do your parents wear tight clothes or loose clothes
a	IN4	S3	My parents
i	RS4	T	Yes your father and mother
i	RS4	S3	He like loose ([luːz]) clothes
b	CON1	T	loose ([luːs])
i	RS1	S3	loose clothes mhm
i a	IN2	T	Many young people prefer tight clothes now/which is more comfortable
j	RS2	Ss	loose loose
i		S1	the loose clothes is
b	CON1	T	Are
i	RS1	S2	Are more comfortable than er than tight clothes
	SAT1	T	Loose clothes are usually more comfortable than tight clothes
i	IN3	T	Alright now we are going to say the dialogue on page fifty eight

k	PM3	Ss	Sir Sir
h	CON3	T	Wait a minute
i	IN3	T	One of you will introduce the dialogue one of you will read the introduction another one will be Samira Munya and the shop assistant
k	PM3	Ss	Sir Sir
h h	RS3	T	For example Sunduss* will be Samira/you'll be Monia/ and the shop assistant Allaya*/Introduction
i	IN2	S1	"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"
a	IN2	S2	"Oh look at those skirts the colours are lovely aren't they"
i	RS2	S3	"And they're not very expensive are they"
a i	IN2	S2	"How do you like that one in the corner/it's very attractive ([ətˈrɑktəjv]) isn't it"
a	RS2	S3	"You mean the green"
b	CON1	T	Very attractive ([əˈtrɑktiv]) isn't it
i	RS1	S2	It's very attractive isn't it
a i	IN2	S3	You mean the green one with the black check/but it isn't my size is it"
i i	CON2	S2	"Not for you for me i/I m mean it would look nice with my new blouse wouldn't wouldn't
i	CON2	S3	"But we can't wear ([wiːr]) that colour with a turquoise"
b	CON1	T	You can't wear ([wɛː]) that colour with a turquoise blouse can you
i	RS1	S3	But you can't wear that colour with a turquoise blouse ([bluːz])
b	CON1	T	Blouse ([blɑɒz])
i	RS1	S3	Blouse ([blɔɒz]) can you
i a	RS2	S2	"Of course not I mean my orange blouse/do you think it would fit me"
l	IN2	S3	"Let's go outside and find out"
d	CON2	S2	"We haven't really got time have we"
d	CON2	S2	"Ten minutes won't make much difference will it"
b f	IN1	T	It won't make much difference will it we haven't got much time have we/will it have we ehein falling intonation
i	IN2	S1	"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"
a	IN2	S2	"Would you like to try this one on first madam"
b	CON1	T	Would you like to try this one on first madam
c	RS2	S3	"Yes yes please"
j	IN2	S2	"That length is very popular this year"
j	IN2	S1	"the style ([stiːl]) really
b	CON1	T	The style ([stɑjl])
i	RS1	S1	The style really suits ([swiːls]) you Samira
b	CON1	T	The style really suits ([sʊːts]) you Samira
i	RS1	S1	The style really suits ([sʊːts]) you Samira
i	IN2	S2	"We have er "
h	CON3	S3	([ɪæ mɪʃ ɪntɪ]) (it's not you)(laughter)
j	CON2	S3	"That's a pity it was just your colour wasn't it"
h	IN3	T	Shop assistant
i a	IN2	S2	"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 lai look Munya"
j	RS2	S1	"That one fits you beautifully ([bjutifulli])"
b	CON1	T	beautifully ([bjutifəli])
i	RS1	S1	That one suits you beautifully ([bjutifəli])
h	IN2	S2	"Feel the material ([matəriəl]) Munya"
b	CON1	T	Feel the material ([mətiːrjəl]) Munya
i	RS1	S2	Feel the material ([mətiːrjəl]) 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"
i 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
l	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" Read the example and continue
k	PM1	Ss	Sir Sir
i	RS1	S1	"The girls can help their mother""the girls can help their mother can't they"
i f	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	Mhmm
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
k	PM1	Ss	Sir Sir
i	RS1	S1	You two boys won't tell er anyone er w will they
b	CON1	S2	Will you
b	CON1	T	You two boys won't tell anyone won't you will you
h i	IN1	T	Repeat/you two boys won't tell anyone will you
i	RS1	S1	You two boys won't tell anyone will you
b	CON1	T	Will you
i	RS1	S1	Will you
i	RS1	S2	Jane I and I haven't seen
b	CON1	T	Jane and I ([ʤeinnai])
i	RS1	S2	Jane and I haven't seen him today er have they
a	CON1	T	Jane and I haven't seen him today
i	RS1	S2	Have they
d a	CON1	T	No that's wrong/Jane and I haven't seen him today
i	RS1	S2	Have you
b h	CON1	T	Have we have we/repeat
i	RS1	S2	Jane and I haven't seen him today have we
i	RS1	S3	The usual driver wasn't driving the bus the bus was he
b	CON1	T	The usual driver wasn't driving the bus was he
i	RS1	S3	The usual driver wasn't driving the bus was he
h	IN3	T	Allright that's all
c	RS3	S3	Yes
a	IN3	S1	Eight eight
d	CON3	Ss	No no
h	CON3	T	Allwright listen please
a	IN2	T	What's my job
k	PM2	Ss	Sir Sir
i	RS2	S2	You're a teacher
c	SAT2	T	I'm a teacher
a	IN2	T	What do I do
i	RS2	S3	Teaching English
i	RS2	S1	You teaching you teaching us
c	SAT2	T	Yes I teach English I teach (writes)
a f	IN2	T	What's my job/I'm a
i	RS2	Ss	Teacher
c	SAT2	T	Teacher
h a	IN1	T	"He drives the bus"/what is he
i	RS1	S3	He's a driver
c	SAT1	T	He's a driver
i f	IN1	T	Drive (writes) driver I add i to the verb here/ when I add i to the verb I have a noun I obtain a noun
h h	IN1	T	"Work"/"he works in a factory"
i	RS1	S2	He's a worker
c	SAT1	T	He's a worker
h	IN1	T	"She sings"
i	RS1	Ss	Singer
b	CON1	S3	She is a singer
c	SAT1	T	She is a singer
h	IN1	T	"He runs"
i	RS1	Ss	He is a runner
a	IN1	T	He is a
i	RS1	Ss	Runner
c	SAT1	T	He is a runner
i i	IN1	T	Now you know that some verbs make nouns/when we add
i			i ɑr the nouns tell you a person's usually usual work action/for example a worker what does a worker do a worker usually works/
h	IN1	T	"A writer"

i		RS1	Ss	Usually writes
c		SAT1	T	Generally writes
h		IN1	T	"A teacher normally"
i		IN1	Ss	teaches
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 ([s̬e]) winners
c		SAT1	T	Winners (laughter)
a		IN1	T	Now note that "visit" the noun is/
i		RS1	S3	[Visitor
c	f	SAT1	T	Visitor]/is written is spelt like this/instead of i ∂r you spell it with ə⊙ ∂r 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
i h		RS3	T	Page sixty seven.open your books on page sixty seven
h	f	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 i		RS1	S1	"Follow"/Follower ([ˈfɔlɔwə])
c		SAT1	T	Follower ([ˈfɔlɔwə])
e i		RS1	S2	"Swim"/swimmer
c		SAT1	T	"Swim" swimmer
e i		RS1	S3	"Write"/writer
c		SAT1	T	"Write" writer
e i		RS1	S1	"Give"/giver ([ɡiːvə])
c		SAT1	T	"Give" giver ([ˈɡivə])
e i		RS1	S2	"Sleep"/sleeper ([slˈirə])
b		CON1	T	sleeper sleeper ([sliːpə])

i	RS1	S2	sleep sleeper ([sli:pə])
e i	RS1	S3	"Play"/player
c	SAT	T	Play player
e i	RS1	S1	"Work"/worker
e i	RS1	S2	"Walk"/walker
c	SAT1	T	Walk walker
h h	IN1	T	Another example/now complete these sentences filling
f			the blanks with correct i words/example "Munir
			writes well he is a good writer"
k	PM1	Ss	Sir Sir
h	IN1	T	Number two
e i	RS1	S3	"Sh she clean the house well" she is a good cleaner
c	SAT1	T	She is a good cleaner
k	PM1	Ss	Sir Sir
g	PM1	T	Mhmm
e i	RS1	S1	Er "my friends work quickly"/they're Kwi Kwi Kw
			they're quick work worker workers
c	SAT1	T	They're quick workers
k	PM1	Ss	Sir Sir
i	RS1	S2	"Jha ([ʒʊh]) joke all the time"
b	CON1	S3	Jha ([ʒħæ]) Jha
e i	RS1	S1.	"Jha jokes all the time"/he's a famous joker
			([ʒoɔkə])
c	SAT1	T	He's a famous joker ([dʒəɔkə])
i	RS1	S2	"Mohammed Aly er fight eks eks excellently
			([ɛksɛ'lɛntli])
b	CON1	T	Excellently ([ɛksəlntli])
i	RS1	S2	He is an excellent ([ɛksəlã]) fighter
c	SAT1	T	He is an excellent ([ɛksəlnt]) fighter yes
e i	RS1	S3	"They're beginning Spanish next year ([wə:r])
			they'll use a bok for" er Spi for beginners
			(['biginərz])
i	RS1	Ss	beginners ([bi'ginəz])
b	CON1	T	They'll use a book for beginners ([bəɡinəz])
i	RS1	S3	They'll use a book for beginners
k	PM1	Ss	Sir Sir
i	RS1	S1	"She listens ([listənz])
b	CON1	T	she listens ([lisənz]) regularly
i	RS1	S1	"She listens regularly to that program in fact she is
			one of the most regular" list list
b	CON1	T	Listeners ([lisənəz])
i	RS1	S1	Listeners
c	SAT1	T	She is one of the most regular listeners
i	RS1	S3	"They played a game for four" players
b	CON1	S2	Players
h	IN1	T	"They played a game for four players
i	RS1	S3	They played a game for four players
c	SAT1	T	They played a game for four players
g	PM1	T	thwi:b*
i	RS1	S1	"Esperance er one Etoile nil Esperance were" er [the
			winners
i	IN1	S3	the winners]
c f	SAT1	T	Esperance were the winners and Etoile the loosers
h	IN1	T	Repeat
i	RS1	S1	Esperance were the winners and Etoile the loosers
h i	IN1	T	"Now when you have made a noun by adding i ər to
			a verb you can put another noun before it to add more
			information/normally the first noun has the main
			stress in pronunciation
a	IN1	T	Example "a driver normally drives"
i	RS1	Ss	[A bus

e a	IN1	T	A bus] he is a
i	RS1	S2	A bus driver
e c	SAT1	T	A bus driver/he is a bus driver
h	IN1	T	"A lighter a lighter for example what does it light"
i	RS1	S2	A cigarette lighter
e c	SAT1	T	It's a cigarette lighter/it lights cigarettes it's a cigarette lighter
h f	IN1	T	"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
h	IN1	T	Exercise C
h f	IN1	T	Number two "My friend never eats meat"
i	RS1	S3	"My friend never eats meat eats meat" they're er . they aren't er
b	CON1	S1	He isn't he isn't
d f	CON1	T	My friend my friend/one friend
k	PM1	S2	Sir Sir
i	RS1	S2	My friend never eat meat
b	CON1	T	Never eats meat
i	RS1	S2	never eats meat he isn't a meat eater
c	SAT1	T	He isn't a meat eater mhm
k	PM1	Ss	Sir
e i	RS1	S3	"Which people use the road ([rɑʊd])"/they are roads' ([rɑʊdz]) users
b c	SAT1	T	They are road ([rɐʊd]) users/they are re road users
h a	IN1	T	"The men on the beach save people's lives" they save people's lives/what are they
i	RS1	S1	They are live
b	CON1	T	They are life
i	RS1	S1	they are life safers ([seifəz])
h b	CON1	T	Repeat/they are life savers ([seivəz])
i	RS1	S1	they are life savers
c	SAT1	T	Yes life savers
h	IN1	T	"His job is to taste tea"
i	RS1	S2	She's he's a taster tea
b	CON1	S3	A tea taster
i	RS1	S2	A tea taster
b	CON1	Ss	He were
b c	SAT1	T	He was a tea taster/mhm yes
h	IN1	T	"His job is to teach English" his job is to teach English
i	RS1	S3	His job he is an English teacher
c	SAT1	T	He's an English teacher
h a	IN1	T	"All your friends support Etoile"/What are they
i	RS1	S1	they're Etoile supporters
a	IN4	T	Are you an Etoile supporter or are you El-Makarem supporter
c	RS4	S2	Yes I'm El-Makarem supporter
c	SAT4	T	You're El-Makarem supporter
a	IN4	T	Are you an Etoile supporter
i	RS4	S3	I I Esperance supporter
b	CON1	T	I am an Esperance supporter
i	RS1	S3	I am an Esperance supporter
c	SAT1	T	I am an Esperance supporter
h a	IN1	T	"Eh these people here won prizes"/what are they
i	RS1	S3	They are prize wonners
b	CON1	S2	They are the prize wonners
d a f	CON1	T	No What is the verb here/the verb win in the past won
i	IN1	S3	Winners
a	IN1	T	They are the prize

i	RS1	S1	They are the prize winners
e c	SAT1	T	They are the prize winners/they are the prize winners
h	IN1	T	"Captain Webb swam the Channel" he first swam the Channel Captain Webb first swam the Channel
k	PM1	Ss	Sir
i	RS1	S2	The Channel swim
b	CON1	T	Is
i	RS1	S2	The Channel is swimmer ([sⁱmɚr])
b	CON1	S1	He is the Channel swimmer ([sⁱmɚr]) swimmer ([swimɚr])
i	RS1	S2	He is a Channel swimmer
i	RS1	S2	"That man tells story"
e a	CON1	T	Now he is the Channel swimmer/he is the first
i	RS1	S2	He is the first Channel swimmer
i	RS2	T	Who is the first Channel swimmer
i	RS2	S2	Captain Webb ([wiːb])
i	CON1	T	Captain Webb ([wɛb])
i	RS1	S2	Captain Webb ([wɛb]) is the first Channel swimmer
c	SAT2	T	Captain Webb is the first Channel swimmer
h	IN1	T	"That man tells stories"
i	RS1	S1	He's a story teller
c	SAT1	t	He is a story teller
i f	IN1	T ·	Look here for example the man tells stories (writes) he is a story teller the first noun does not take an s
h a	IN1	T	"He seels books" he is a
i	RS1	S3	A book seller
c f	SAT3	T	He sells many books but he is a book seller/a story teller
h	IN1	T	"Many Arab countries export oil"
i	RS1	S1	they're they're oil exporters ([ⁱkspɔːˈtɚz])
b	CON1	T	they're oil exporters ([ɛkspɔːˈtɚz])
c	SAT1	T	Yes they're oil exporters ([ɛkspɔːˈtɚz])
a	IN2	T	Is Tunisia an oil exporter
i	RS2	Ss	Yes
i	RS2	S1	Yes Tunisia it's an oil exporter
b	CON1	T	Is an oil exporter
c	RS1	S1	Is an oil exporter
a	IN2	T	Is Libya an oil exporter
i	RS2	S3	No
i	RS2	S2	No Libya isn't an oil exporter
a	CON2	T	Libya isn't an oil exporter
i	CON2	Ss	No no
a	IN2	S2	Petrole (French for oil)
i	RS2	T	That's oil
a	IN2	S1	Oil ([ziːt]) (the T.A.V. for vegetable oil and olive oil)
a	IN2	T	Libya is an oil exporter it's a big oil exporter
i	RS2	S3	Libya is a big exporter er oiler
b	CON1	T	It's a big exporter of oil or a big oil exporter
i	RS1	S3	Libya is a big er oi oil exporter
i	IN2	T	Now Tunisia is an olive oil exporter
a	IN2	S1	[ziːt]
i	RS2	T	Yes
i f	IN2	T	And it's an oil exporter too/petroleum or oil
h	IN3	T	Allwright now look at the picture on page sixty eight
h	IN1	T	"What does this man do he builds ships or he is a ship builder"
h h	IN3	T	Next time on your exercise copybook you answer these questions/exercise D page sixty eight

END OF lesson (L 2 A)

APPENDIX IV
SECOND YEAR ENGLISH
lesson discourse (L 2 B)

Acts	Moves	Speakers	
i f	IN1	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 (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	Hsi: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 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	[i:] 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	Object]
		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

c	SAT1	T	Aly takes out the cat yes
g	PM1	T	Krifa*
i	RS1	S1	He takes it out
a	IN1	T	He takes it
i	RS1	Ss	Out
c	SAT1	T	Good
a	IN1	T	Now pick out the difficult words and write the difficult words down
g	PM1	T	Masri*
i	RS1	S2	Pick the difficult words out and er
i	IN1	T	Write
i	RS1	S2	Write them down
e c	SAT1	T	them down/and write them down yes
a	IN1	T	John borrowed the book then gave the book back John borrowed the book then gave the book back
g	PM1	T	Yes
i	RS1	S3	John borrowed the book and then er gave it back
c	SAT1	T	And then gave it back yes
h	IN3	T	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)
a	IN2	T	So what's er what's Britain
i	RS2	Ss	It's an island
c	SAT2	T	It's an island
a	IN2	T	How many countries make Britain
i	RS2	Ss	Three countries make up Britain
c	SAT2	T	Yes
a	IN2	T	What are they
i	RS2	Ss	Scotland England and Wales
			(Teacher finds text on tape. Teacher puts on tape recorder)
i	IN2	Ttr	"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.
m.i	IN2	Ttr	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, fluts 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, realy 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!"

h	IN3	T	Read the text silently
			(Students reading text)
h	IN3	T	So choose the best answer
a	IN2	T	The text is "A" a television interview "B" a newspaper report "C" a radio broadcast
g	PM2	T	Sfar*
i	RS2	S1	The text is a radio broadcast
c	SAT2	T	The text is a radio broadcast good
a	IN2	T	It takes place in "A" Scotland "B" England "C" Wales
g	PM2	T	Bubaker*
i	RS2	S2	It takes place in Scotland
c	SAT2	T	It takes place in Scotland good
a	IN2	T	The Edinburgh Festival happens "A" in June "B" in September "C" August
	PM2	T	Krifa*
i	RS2	S3	"B" September
a	IN2	T	The group from Tunisia is a group of "A" actors "B" musicians and dancers "C" journalists
g	PM2	T	Yes Mabruk*
i	RS2	S1	"B" musicians and dancers
c	SAT2	T	Good
a	IN2	T	While he had the vases the dancer "A" kept on dancing "B" stopped dancing "C" sat down
g	PM2	T	Buzi:d*
u	RS2	S2	He kept on dancing
h h	IN3	T	Now you state whether the statements are true or false/and you correct the false ones
a	IN2	T	The musicians are performing in a large hall
i	RS2	S3	That's true
g	PM2	T	Bubaker*
i	RS2	S3	That's true
c	SAT2	T	That's true
a	IN2	T	The scene is being described by a commentator from the RTT
i	RS2	S3	This false
g	PM2	T	Masri*
h	IN2	S1	This false
h	IN2	T	Yes you correct
i	RS2	S1	This commentator is from the BBC
c	SAT2	T	Is from the BBC good
a	IN2	T	The flute and the drum are considered as modern instruments
g	PM2	T	Krifa*
i	RS2	S2	This false because they considered er traditional instruments
c	SAT2	T	As traditional instruments good
a	IN2	T	The dancer is wearing baggy trousers and a red waistcoat
i	RS2	Ss	A red waistcoat
g	PM2	T	Yes Sekka*
i	RS2	S3	This is true
c	SAT2	T	True

a	IN2	T	The dancer dances very slowly while he balances the vases
g	PM2	T	Yes
i	RS2	S1	It's false he dances very fast
c	SAT2	T	Yes
a	IN2	T	The dancer danced and put on the vases
i	IN2	S2	This false
g	PM2	T	Yes
i	RS2	S2	This false because another person er put er on on his head
c	SAT2	T	Yes
a	IN2	T	Who is the other person
i	RS2	S3	The assistant put er in his head er
b	CON1	T	On
i	RS1	S3	On his head the vases
e c	SAT2	T	The vases/very good
a	IN2	T	The spectators liked the show
i f	RS2	S3	True that is true
c f	SAT2	T	True that is true yes
h	IN3	T	Now fill in the blanks
a	IN2	T	A blank is a person who plays an instrument of music
i	RS2	Ss	The musician
c	SAT2	T	The musician good
a	IN2	T	Now a person who plays the drum is called a
i	RS2	Ss	A drummer
c	SAT2	T	A drummer yes
a	IN2	T	The dancer is wearing a red blank trousers and a red blank
g	PM2	T	Shleifa*
i	RS2	S1	The dancer is wearing baggy red trousers and a red waistcoat
c	SAT2	T	And a red waistcoat good
a	IN2	T	The Tunisian blank danced and blank vases it was something spectacular
g	PM2	T	Masri*
i	RS2	S2	The dancers dance and er balances the vases
b	CON1	T	Balanced
b	RS1	S2	Balanced the vases
c	SAT2	T	Yes
a	IN2	T	The dancer danced and the blank put on the vases
g	PM2	T	Yes
i	RS2	S3	The dancer danced and the assistant put on the vases
c	SAT2	T	Good
a	IN2	T	The spectators liked the show because there was a wonderful blank
g	PM2	T	Yes Zawali*
i	RS2	S1	The show was er something er different er
c	SAT2	T	Different
		S1	They think er
g	PM2	T	Krifa*
i	IN2	S2	The show was different so the er the spectators applause er warmingly
a	CON1	T	Now applause is the noun what is the verb
i	SAT1	Ss	To Applause
a i	IN1	T	An app../We saw this/an applause is the noun/what
i a			is the verb
			(Silence)
i	IN1	T	To applaud to applaud
i	SAT2	T	So the assis the s spectators applauded
h	IN3	T	Now you supply the right particle you supply the right particle

a	IN1	T	The dancer first put blank his waistcoat
g	PM1	T	Yes
i	RS1	S3	On
e c	SAT1	T	His waistcoat/he first put on his waistcoat yes
a	IN1	T	Then he took it then he took it
g	PM1	T	Yes
i	RS1	S1	Then he took it out
d a	CON1	T	Not out then he took it
g	PM1	T	Yes
.b	RS1	S2	Then he took it off
a	IN1	T	And hang it
i	RS1	Ss	Up
g	PM1	T	Sekka*
i	RS1	S3	And hang it up
c	SAT1	T	Good
a	IN1	T	He picked a vase
i	RS1	Ss	Up
g	PM1	T	Yes Busuffara*
i	RS4	S1	He picked on a vase er and fall
		Ss	(laughter)
g	PM1	T	Yes Ben Othman*
i	RS1	S2	He picked it up he picked it up
c	SAT1	T	He picked it up good
a	IN1	T	He remembered to pour the water
i	RS1	Ss	Out
b	CON1	Ss	down
b	CON1	Ss	out
e c	SAT1	T	Out/yes out
a	IN1	T	His assistant pushed a chair
i	RS1	Ss	Along
e c	SAT1	T	Along/along good
a	IN1	T	While he continued dancing
i	RS1	Ss	Around around ([ɑrɑʊnd])
e c	SAT1	T	Around ([ə'rɑʊnd])/while he continued dancing around
a	IN3	T	Now can you summarize the text can one of you summarize the text
g h	IN3	T	Krifa* you start
i	RS3	S1	There's er er a radio there is a radio commen broadcast
b	CON1	T	It's a radio broadcast
i	RS1	S1	It's a radio broadcast
a	IN2	T	From which place
i	RS2	Ss	From Scotland
a	IN2	T	Where is Scotland
i	RS2	Ss	In Edinburgh
c	SAT2	T	In Edinburgh
a	IN2	T	So what's Edinburgh
i	RS2	Ss	The capital of Scotland
c	SAT2	T	So it's a radio broadcast er from Edinburgh the capital of Scotland
a	IN2	T	Now what's er what is the group that is performing what's the group that's performing
	PM2	T	Yes Masri*
i	RS2	S2	The group is a Tunisian one
c	SAT2	T	The group is a Tunisian one
		S3	May be er
i	IN2	T	Where does it come from
g	PM2	T	Thraief*
i	RS2	S1	From Jerba
c	SAT2	T	From Jerba yes

a	IN2	T	What is Jerba
i	RS2	S2	This is an island it's an island
a	IN3	T	Now Kraiem* can you describe the dancers and the musicians (Silence)
a	R-IN2	T	How many dancers are there
i	RS2	Ss	Two
a	IN2	T	How many musicians
i	RS2	Ss	Many
e f	SAT2	T	Many musicians/there are many musicians yes
a	IN2	T	What kind of instruments did they have
i	RS2	S3	They have er traditional er instruments
c	SAT2	T	Traditional instruments
a	IN2	T	What are they
g	PM2	T	Krifa*
i	RS2	S1	They er they wear traditional clothes and er play with er traditional instruments
e a	R-IN2	T	And play with traditional instruments/what are the instruments
g	PM2	T	Yes
i	RS2	S2	Flute er er drums er
h	CON1	T	Make a sentence
g	PM1	T	Masri*
i	RS1	S3	Their instruments was er were flute and drums
e c	SAT1	T	were the flute and the drums/yes the flute and the drums
a	IN2	T	Now what was the dancer trying to do what was the dancer trying to do
g	PM2	T	Hsi:n*
i	RS2	S1	The dancer was trying to put er on a vase
a	CON2	T	To put on
i	RS2	S3	Many vases
a	IN2	·T	Did he succeed
i	RS2	Ss	Yes
g	PM2	T	Masri*
i	RS2	S2	Yes he succeeded
l	IN3	T	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)
h	IN3	T	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)

This is an American conducting an orchestra.
He's a very young conductor.
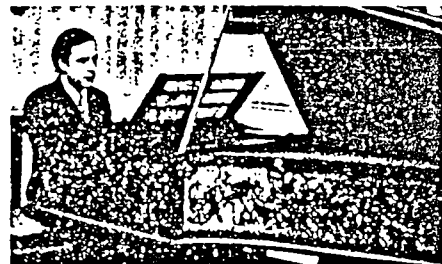
Here are some of the musicians he conducts:

h	IN3	T	Now there is the picture that you have yes (shows the picture)
a	IN2	T	How does it describe Edinburgh
g	PM2	T	Samali*
i	RS2	S1	He described Edinburgh er
e a	IN2	T	He described Edinburgh/yes
i	RS2	S1	As the most beautiful city in Europe
a	CON2	T	Is it the most beautiful city in Europe
i	RS2	Ss	One
c	SAT2	T	One of the most yes
a	IN2	T	Now what does the city hold every year what does the city hold every year
g	PM2	T	Ben Othman*
i	RS2	S2	Every year er the city er huge er an er it hold an huge international festival of arts
c	SAT2	T	A huge festival of arts yes
a	IN2	T	When
i	RS2	S2	In September
c	SAT2	T	Now do the soloists and groups come from Britain
g	PM2	T	Masri*
i	RS2	S3	They come from ..
a	IN2	T	They come from
i	RS2	S3	All over the world
a	IN2	T	Do many people come to watch them
i	RS2	S2	Thousands of people come come to watch er th them
c	SAT2	T	Thousands of people
a	IN2	T	Now er an artist who sings in an opera is called er an an
i	RS2	S3	An opera singer
c	SAT2	T	An opera singer
a	IN2	T	An artist dancing in a ballet er is a
i	RS2	S3	A ballet dancer
g	PM2	T	Mabruk*
i	RS2	S1	An artist dancing in a ballet er is called er [ballet dancer
		Ss	Ballet dancer]
c	SAT2	T	Is a ballet dancer yes
a	IN2	T	People acting in plays are blank
g	PM2	T	Buzi:d*
i	RS2	S2	they are they are Japanese er actors
a	CON2	T	They are
i	RS2	Ss	Actors
a	IN2	T	The person who conducts an orchestra is a blank
g	PM2	T	Sjusd*
i	RS2	S3	A conductor
c	SAT2	T	Is a conductor yes
a	IN2	T	People who play the violin are
i	RS2	Ss	Violinists
c	SAT2	T	Violinists yes
a	IN2	T	And playing the guitar are
i	RS2	S3	Guitarists ([gitɑːrisʈs])
b	CON1	T	Guitarists (['gitərisʈs])
i	RS1	Ss	Guitarists
h f	IN3	T	Now would you take your books on page three o two three hundred and two (Below a photocopy of page 302 is provided)

1 Look at this description of Scotland:
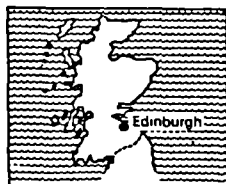
Scotland is a country in the north of the British Isles.

Scotland has many lakes (called "lochs")* and mountains.

The capital is called Edinburgh.

Some Scotsmen wear kilts, and...

...some play the bag-pipes.
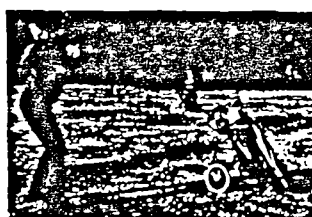
Their favourite sport is golf.

a		IN2	T	So what does picture number two describe what does picture number two describe
g		PM2	T	Yes
i		RS2	S1	Picture er number described the lakes in Scotland
a		IN2	T	How they are called
g		PM2	T	Mabruk*
i		RS2	S2	They are called locks
a		IN3	S3	Scottish
i		RS3	T	Scottish yes
a		IN2	T	Now what do Scotsmen wear what do Scotsmen wear
g		PM2	T	Yes
i		RS2	S1	Scotsmen wear kilts
c		SAT2	T	Scotsmen wear kilts yes
a		IN2	T	What do they play
i		RS2	Ss	They play golf
a	f	R-IN2	T	They p what do they play/which instrument of music
i		RS2	S3	the bagpipe
g		PM2	T	Yes Sfar*
i		RS2	S2	They play er the bagpipe
c		SAT2	T	They play the bagpipe yes
a		IN2	T	What's their favourite sport yes what's their favourite sport
g		PM2	T	Syu:d*
i		RS2	S3	Their favourite sport is the golf
c		SAT2	T	Is golf
i		IN3	T	Now let me show you a picture of Scotsmen wearing kilts and playing the bagpipe (The teacher goes round the class showing some pictures of Scotsmen dressed in kilts)
a		IN2	T	What do people in Mahdia wear in the summer
g		PM2	T	Yes
i		RS2	S1	They wear loose clothes
a	f	IN2	T	What about the trousers how does the text describe the trousers
i		RS2	Ss	Baggy trousers
a		IN1	T	Which word do you find in the word baggy
i		RS1	Ss	Bag
c		SAT1	T	Bag
a		IN1	T	What does it mean

i	RS1	Ss	Baggy
a	CON1	T	they are
i	RS1	S2	loose
c	SAT1	T	Loose trousers yes
a	IN2	T	When do people in Mahdia wear a waistcoat
i	RS2	S3	They wear traditional clothes
a	IN2	T	When there is a
i	RS2	S3	A marriage
i	RS2	S1	At Sidi Massau:d Festival
c	SAT2	T	At Sidi Massau:d Festival good yes good

[End of lesson L 2 B]

APPENDIX V
THIRD YEAR ENGLISH
lesson discourse (L 3 A)

Acts	Moves	Speakers	
a	IN1	T	What are the modals
i	RS1	Ss	"Should ought to must have to"
c	SAT1	T	Should ought to must and have to
h	IN3	T	Now read the first sentences
g	PM3	T	Meshri*
i	RS1	S1	"There is a lot of people who should go to school"
c	SAT1	T	Yes
g	PM1	T	Ben Othman*
i	RS1	S2	The old the old ought to be helped
c	SAT1	T	Yes
h	IN1	T	"The government says
i	RS1	S3	"The government says we have to pay taxes"
h	IN1	T	Or
i	RS1	S1	"Or we have to pay and study"
c	SAT1	T	Yes
g	PM1	T	Yes here
e i	RS1	S2	"You must drink and drive" you must drink and drive
b	CON1	T	You mustn't
i	RS1	S2	You mustn't drink and drive
g	PM1	T	Yes
i	RS1	S3	You must obey ([obɛ]) your father
b	CON1	T	Obey ([obeɪ])
i	RS1	S3	Obey ([obeɪ]) your father
i	IN1	S3	It's half past ten
d	CON3	T	No another one
g	PM3	T	Krifa*
i	RS1	S1	It must be ten and fifteen
c	SAT1	T	Yes
i h	IN3	T	Now we have different examples/Bubaker* read
i i	RS1	S2	"These words show a speaker's belief that someone
i			is obliged ([oblaɪʒɪd])
b	CON1	T	Obliged ([ɔblaɪdʒɪd])
	RS1	S2	Obliged ([ɔblaɪdʒɪd]) to do something/generally
			should and ought to show a recommendation/must and
			have to are stronger and suggest that something
			cannot be avoided'
c	SAT1	T	Yes
g		T	Ben Slama*
h	IN1	T	The first sentence
i	RS1	S3	You should go to the cinema I recommend it
c	SAT1	T	You should go to the cinema I recommend it
i i	IN1	T	You ought to go to the cinema I recommend it/You
i			must go to the cinema you have no choice/You have to
			go to the cinema you have no choice
l h	IN3	T	Let's do exercise "H"/page fifty four
e i	IN1	T	"Have to"/"children have to go to school"/Number two
g	PM1	T	Yes
i	RS1	S1	Children ([tʃaɪldrn]) er
b	CON1	Ss	Children ([tʃildrn])
i	IN1	S2	Study
b	CON1	T	The child
i	RS1	S1	The child ought ([ɔʊɔt]) to
b	CON1	T	The child ought ([ɔːt]) to
i	RS1	S2	Ought ([ɔːt]) to er
i	IN1	S1	Wash
i	RS1	S2	Wash er his teeth

e b	SAT1	T	Yes to wash his teeth/to brush his teeth
g	PM1	T	Sfar*
i	RS1	S3	The car er
i	IN1	S1	The car er must stop
c	SAT1	T	The car must stop yes
g	PM1	T	Ben Othman*
i	RS1	S2	You should take glasses you should take glasses
e b	SAT1	T	You should take glasses/you should put on these glasses
i	RS1	S3	You must er
a	IN1	T	You must
i	RS1	S3	Drink
b	CON1	S1	Take
i	RS1	S3	Take er this medicine
c	SAT1	T	You must take this medicine yes
g	PM1	T	Here Siju:d* Sheikh Siju:d*
i	RS1	S1	You ought to go to the doctor you ought to go to the doctor
c	SAT1	T	You ought to go to the doctor you ought to go to the doctor
g	PM1	T	Yes Sli:m
i	RS1	S2.	You should go to Ariana (a small town near Tunis)
c	SAT1	T	You should go to Ariana yes
a	IN1	T	Or to
i	RS1	Ss	Tunis
i	RS1	S3	You have to stop
c	SAT1	T	You have to stop yes
g	PM1	T	Yes
i	RS1	S1	You should drink milk
c	SAT1	T	You should drink milk
a	IN1	S2	Or
h i	IN3	T	You take your books on page fifty two take your books on page fifty two/"Women in Tunisia"/You read the text silently

(The following is the text)

"Women in Tunisia"
Then...and...now

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 caled 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."

a		IN2	T	What's the title of the text
i		RS2	Ss	Women in Tunisia
i		RS2	S1	The title is Women in Tunisia
c		SAT2	T	Yes
h		IN1	T	Repeat Shleifa*
i		RS1	S2	The title the title in the text is is women in Tunisia
a		IN2	T	Does the text deal with what does the text deal with
i		RS2	S3	The text deal with er
b		CON1	T	Deals with
g		PM1	T	Yes Bubaker*
i		RS1	S1	The text deals with the situation of the women in the past
c	f	SAT2	T	Yes yes/Or the problems of women women's problems in the past
a		IN2	T	Now was the typical Tunisian woman independent
i		RS2	S1	No the typical Tunisian woman wasn't er independent
c		SAT2	T	No she wasn't independent
a		IN2	T	Who was the man who first paid attention to women's problems
i		RS2	S2	Tahar Hadad er was er the first who paid er attention
a		IN2	T	To women's problems
i		RS2	S2	To women's problems
a		IN2	T	Now what's the first important date here in the history of Tunisian Women
i		RS2	S3	The important date is nineteen thirty eight
a		CON2	T	Nineteen thirty eight

b	RS2	Ss	Nineteen fifty six
a	IN2	T	What's nineteen fifty six in the history of Tunisia
i	RS2	Ss	Independence
c	SAT2	T	The independence good
h	IN3	T	Now look at the following sentences and try to put them in a logical order
i i	IN2	T	""A" No girl could be married without her consent"
i i			""B" This is to solve all the problems that men had"
i i			""C" Later men and women came forward to take part in the struggle"
i			""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"
a	IN2	T	So what's the first
i	RS2	Ss	"D" is the first
e c	SAT2	T	"D" is number one/yes "D" number one
a	IN2	T	Then what's the second
i	RS2	Ss	"F" "F"
c	SAT2	T	"F" number two "F" number two
i	IN2	Ss	"E" "E"
c	SAT2	T	Number three is "E"
i	IN2	Ss	"G" "G"
c	SAT2	T	"G" number four yes
i	IN2	Ss	"C" "C" "C"
c	SAT2	T	"C"
i	RS2	S1	"C" number five
c	SAT2	T	Yes "C" number five yes
i	IN2	Ss	"A" number six
c	SAT2	T	"A" number six
i	IN2	Ss	And "E" number seven
c	SAT2	T	And "E" number seven
a	IN3	S2	That's all
c	RS3	T	Yes that's all
a h	IN2	T	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 those refers to/in paragraph number one
h a			
g	PM2	T	Yes Siju:d*
i	RS2	S3	"Those" refers to the mother and the father of the husband
a	IN2	T	Those refers to
g	PM2	T	Yeah
i	RS2	S1	The parents-in-law
e d	CON2	T	Parents-in-law/no
a h	R-IN2	T	"When when she married she was dominated by those of her husband"/look at this
g	PM2	T	Yes Thraief*
i	RS2	S2	"Parents expectations"
e c	SAT2	T	"Parents expectations"/good expectations
h a	IN2	T	Now "the country girls had a little more freedom but they paid for this with hard work"/"this"
i	RS2	S3	"Freedom" "Freedom"
g	PM2	T	Ben Othman*
i	RS2	S3	"This" "Freedom"
c	SAT2	T	"This" refers to freedom
h a	IN2	T	"Because many women agreed with these opinions it

			was very difficult to change them"/"them"
i	RS2	S1	The teaching
b	CON2	S2	Opinions
b	CON2	S3	The teachings of the parents' opinions
c	SAT2	T	Opinions good
h a	IN2	T	"Of course this did not solve the problems that women had"/"this"
i	RS2	S1	The problems
b	CON2	T	It refers to the important reforms
e i a	CON2	T	The reforms/you have "this" "this is singular/so which word in the paragraph
i	RS2	S3	The law
e b	SAT2	T	The law yes/or the code yes the code
i h h	IN3	T	Now these statements are true or false/you pick up the true/and correct the false ones
a	IN2	T	In the past town girls were more independent than country girls
i	RS2	S1	That's false
h	R-RN3	T	You've got to correct the false ones
i	RS2	S2	"Because country girls were more independent than town girls but they had paid for this"
c	SAT2	T	They paid for this
a	IN2	T	How do they pay for this
i	RS2	S2	They worked harder
c	SAT2	T	They worked harder yes
a	IN2	T	Now country girls worked hard
i	RS2	Ss	That's true
c	SAT2	T	That is true
a	IN2	T	No girl was given any form of education
i	RS2	Ss	It's true
i f	RS2	S1	It's true/because they didn't give a good education only to women who need to er desirable ([dezirabla])
b	CON1	T	Desirable ([dizairabl])
i	RS1	S1	Desirable ([dizairabl])
a	IN2	T	Women were afraid of divorce
i	RS2	Ss	It's true
a	IN2	T	With this new law all women's problems were solved
i	RS2	S1	It's false
a	IN3	T	Why
g	PM3	T	Yes Ben Khlifa* why
i	RS3	S2	It's false because their problems this problem are we find them nowadays
e i	CTR3	T	Yes because we find these problems/not all but some of the problems
h h f	IN3	T	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"
a	IN2		You look ill you should blank a doctor
g	PM2	T	Ben Othman*
i	RS2	S1	You look ill you should see a doctor
a	IN2	T	We blank a very heavy box
g	PM2	T	Yes
i	RS2	S2	He is carrying a very heavy box a very heavy box
h	IN2	T	Can you repeat
i	RS2	S2	He is carrying a very heavy box
c	SAT2	T	Good
a	IN2	T	My little brother blank stamps
i	RS2	S3	My little brother collects stamps
c	SAT2	T	Colects stamps
a	IN2	T	I don't blank with you that country life is very

			difficult
c	SAT2	T	Yes
a	IN2	T	You should bank attention to what the teacher is saying
g	PM2	T	Yes
i	RS2	S2	You should pay attention
i	IN2	T	To what the teacher is
i	RS2	S2	To what the teacher is saying
c	SAT2	T	You should pay attention
a	IN2	T	Now she could not marry without her father's blank
i	RS2	S3	She could not marry without her father's consent
c	SAT2	T	Yes
a	IN2	T	With new types of cameras you can get blank photos
i	RS2	S3	Instant
e c	SAT2	T	Instant/yes instant
h	IN2	T	Can you repeat the sentence
h	IN3	S1	Can you repeat the sentence please
i	RS3	T	With new types of cameras
i	RS2	S1	With new types of cameras you took er
i	CON1	T	You can get
i	RS1	S1	You can get instant photos
c	SAT1	T	You can get instant photos yes
a	IN2	T	Now the news of the man's death blank rapidly all over the country
i	RS2	S2	The news
a	IN2	T	The news
i	RS1	S2	Of the man's death ([dﻻi: θ])
b	CON1	T	Death ([dɛ θ])
i	RS1	S2	Spread ([sprid])
b	CON1	T	Spread ([spɛd])
i	RS1	S2	Spread ([sprɛd]) all over the country
c	SAT2	T	The news of the man's death spread all over the country yes
a	IN2	T	This law is unfair for many people it should be blank
i	RS2	Ss	Forbidden Forbidden
b	CON2	T	It should be illegal
h	IN2	T	Repeat
i	RS2	S3	This law isn't isn't er is er
i	IN1	T	Unfair
i	RS1	S3	Is unfair to er
i	IN1	T	Many people
i	RS1	S3	To many people it must be er
b	CON1	T	It should be a (Silence)
i	IN1	T	Illegal
i	RS1	S3	Illegal
i	SAT1	T	Illegal yes
a	IN2	T	It's blank for Muslims to eat pork
g	PM2	T	Hsi:n*
i	RS2	S1	It's forbidden for Muslims to eat pork
c	SAT2	T	It's forbidden for Muslims to eat pork yes
h h	IN3	T	Now I give you either the noun or the adjective/and you have to give the missing word OK
a	IN1	T	Now possible possible
g	PM1	T	Mabruk*
i	RS1	S1	Possibility
a	IN1	T	Free Free
i	RS1	Ss	Freedom
c	SAT1	T	Freedom
a	IN1	T	Independent

i	RS1	Ss	Independence
c	SAT1	T	Independence
a	IN1	T	Now law law
i	RS1	Ss	Law
b	CON1	S1	Legal ([leɡdl])
b	CON1	T	Legal ([li:ɡl])
a	IN1	T	Now expect
i	RS1	Ss	Expectation
c	SAT1	T	Expectation
a	IN1	T	Equal
i'	RS1	Ss	Equality
c	SAT1	T	Equality equality
h	IN3	T	Now give the missing adverb
a	IN1	T	Obedient
i	RS1	Ss	Obediently
c	SAT1	T	Obediently
a	IN1	T	Respect
i	RS1	Ss	Respectly
b	CON1	T	No respectfully
h	IN1	T	You repeat
g	PM1	T	Yes
i	RS1	S2	Respectfully
h	IN3	T	Now you give the missing adjective
a	IN1	T	Fear
i	RS1	Ss	Fear fear
h	R-IN1	T	Give the missing adjective
a	R-IN1	T	Fear
			(Silence)
i	IN1	T	Fearful
i	RS1	Ss	Fearful fearful
c	SAT1	T	Fearful yes
a	IN1	T	Desire desire
i	RS1	Ss	Desirable
g	PM1	T	Bubaker*
i	RS1	S3	Desirable
c	SAT1	T	Desirable yes
h h	IN3	T	Now take your books on page fifty two again/you read the first paragraph/and you try to give a title to this paragraph
h			(Silence)
a	IN3	T	What can you say about the first paragrapph
g	PM1	T	Bubaker*
i	RS3	S3	People er Tunisian women by er in the past
c	SAT3	T	Tunisian women in the past yes
g	PM3	T	Kesrawi*
i	RS3	S3	The Tunisian women domination
c a	IN3	T	The Tunisian women domination/whose domination is that
i	RS3	Ss	Her father
c	SAT3	T	Her father
i	IN3	S1	Her husband
i	RS3	S2	Man's domination
a c	SAT3	T	What can we say/man's domination man's domination good
a	IN2	T	Now was the Tunisian women free when she was young
i	RS2	Ss	No
i	RS2	S1	No no when she was young the Tunisian woman wasn't er wasn't er free
a	IN2	T	Was she free after she married
i	RS2	S3	No she wasn't free after she married
a	IN2	T	Now could she choose her husband

i	RS2	S2	No
h	IN3	T	No another one
g	PM3	T	Yes Krifa*
i	RS2	S3	No she had no chance er to er try her husband
a	CON1	T	To
i	RS1	S3	To try her husband
b	CON1	T	To choose her husband
a	IN2	T	Now who made the choice for her who made the choice for her
g	PM2	T	Zawali*
i	RS2	S3	Her father made the choice for her
c	SAT2	T	Good
a	IN2	T	Now could she refuse a possible partner chosen by her parents could she refuse a possible partner chosen by her parents
i	RS2	Ss	No
g	PM2	T	Sfar*
i	RS2	S1	No she couldn't refuse no she couldn't refuse er a partner ([pɑrɔ̈ː])
b	CON1	S2	A partner ([pɑːtnə])
c	SAT1	T	A partner ([pɑːtnə])
i	RS1	S1	A partner chosen by her parents
c	SAT1	T	Chosen by her parents yes
a	IN3	T	Now what can you say about the title for the second paragraph (Silence)
a	R-IN3	T	Was it easy for partners to be independent after marriage
i	RS3	S3	Independent
e a	CTR3	S1	Woman is independent/([kifɛːʃ]) ("How come" in LTAV)
a	R-RN2	T	Now do these girls get their independence after marriage
i	RS2	Ss	No no
g	PM2	T	Bubaker*
i	RS2	S2	No they didn't get their independence after marriage
a	IN2	T	How did the Tunisian women live with their husband how did the Tunisian women live with their husband
i	RS2	S3	They must o o obey to er people of their husband
b	CON1	S1	Obedience
b	CON1	S3	Obey
a	IN1	T	They must obey
i	RS2	Ss	their husband
b	CON2	Ss	Their parents
c	SAT2	T	So they must obey their parents
a	IN2	T	Now what did she put on when she went out
g	PM2	T	Here Krifa*
i	RS2	S1	She used to put on er sefsari ([sɛfsɛri] a dress that women wear. It covers their whole body except their face)
a	IN2	T	Or
i	RS2	S3	A veil
c	SAT2	T	A veil yes
a	IN2	T	Now how should she walk if she went out with her husband how should she walk
i	RS2	S2	She should er walk walk er er behind them
a	IN2	T	Behind
i	RS2	S2	behind them
d b	SAT2	T	Behind them/behind him
a f	IN2	T	Now what about the country girls/what country what can you say

i	RS2	S1	The country girls are er more er
i	IN2	S2	Free
g	PM2	T	Thraief*
i	RS2	S3	"The country girls had more freedom"
e a	IN2	T	They had more freedom/but they also had more
i	RS2	Ss	Hard work hard work
g	PM2	T	Hsi:n*
i	RS2	S1	But they had to pay er for their
i	IN2	S2	Independence
i	RS2	S1	By working hard
c	SAT2	T	By working hard good
a h	IN3	T	Now how did what can you say about this paragraph/the
a h			fourth paragraph/what does it deal with what does it deal with/look at the fourth paragraph
i	RS3	S1	They er th they er deal er with er education
a	IN3	T	They deal with education
		S1	And and
a	R-RN3	T	Now what are the three points in this paragraph
i	RS3	Ss	Education
i	RS3	S1	And marriage
e a	IN3	T	And marriage/and
i	RS3	Ss.	Divorce
a	IN2	T	Now did many fathers
o	IN4	T	Sorry (while talking some of the teacher's saliva fell on a student's face)
a	R-IN2	T	Did many fathers think it necessary for their daughters to have formal education
i	RS2	S2	Many fathers er did not think it necessary their daughters to have formal education
a	IN2	T	Why more girls were given good education
g	PM2	T	Shu:k*
i	RS2	S3	Eh girls are given a good education
b	CON1	T	Were
i	RS1	S3	Were were given a good education on
i	IN2	S1	Only to make them er
i	RS2	S3	Only to make them near the tradition
c	SAT2	T	Near the traditional life yes
h	IN2	T	Can you repeat can you repeat
g	PM2	T	Sfar*
i	RS2	S1	Women were given good education only to make them more
b	CON2	T	Only to make them near the traditional life
a	IN2	T	Now what's the only career for a woman what was the only career for a woman
i	RS2	S2	Marriage was the only career for a woman
c	SAT2	T	Marriage was the only career yes
i	IN2	T	What made a marriage happy what made a marriage happy (Silence)
a	R-RN2	T	What were women afraid of
g	PM2	T	Yes Bubaker*
i	RS2	S3	Women were afraid of divorce
c	SAT2	T	Women were afraid of divorce yes
a	IN2	T	Now was it difficult to change these ideas
g	PM2	T	Ben Othman*
i	RS2	S1	It was difficult to change these ideas because women believed in these ideas
c	SAT2	T	They believed in these ideas yes
a	IN3	T	So what can you say about paragraph five (Silence)
a	R-RN2	T	Who was the man who first paid attention to women's

			position
i	RS2	S2	Tahar Hadad was first paid attention to women's position
c	SAT2	T	Yes
a	IN2	T	Now what's the title of his book
i	RS2	S3	"Society and Women in the eyes of the law"
c	SAT2	T	Society and Women in the eyes of the law yes
a	IN2	T	Now what were Hadad's ideas
g	PM2	T	Zawali*
a	R-IN2	T	What were his ideas
g	PM2	T	Yes
i	RS2	S1	He said there should be more Freedom
e a	IN2	T	There should be more freedom/what else
g	PM2	T	Yes Busuffara*
i	RS2	S2	Er the er the veil should be abolished
e a	IN2	T	Yes/what else
i	RS2	S3	And instant divorce by the husband should be stopped
c	SAT2	T	Yes yes
a	IN2	T	Now what happened to his ideas
g	PM2	T	Hsi:n*
i	RS2	S2	They began to spread
c	SAT2	T	Began to spread began to spread
a	IN2	T	Were women unionised
i	RS2	Ss	Yes
a	IN2	T	What did they call it
g	PM2	T	Siju:d*
i	RS2	S3	Women formed the Union of Tunisian women
c	SAT2	T	Yes women formed the Union of Tunisian women
a	IN2	T	What did women want to win
i	RS2	S3	National independence
e a	IN2	T	National independence/and
i	RS2	Ss	Personal independence
c	SAT2	T	Yes
h	IN2	T	Sli:m* can you repeat
i	RS2	S1	Women wanted to win national independence and personal independence
a	IN2	T	What happened in nineteen thirty eight
i	RS2	Ss	A group of women demonstrated
c	SAT2	T	Yes
a	IN2	T	What did Bourguiba remember what did he remember
i	RS2	S2	He remembered the part they they played in the struggle
c	SAT2	T	The part they played in the struggle yes
a	IN2	T	Er now what happened in nineteen fifty six what happened in nineteen fifty six
i	RS2	Ss	Tunisia won its independence
a	IN2	T	What were women given
g	PM2	T	Kesrawi*
i	RS2	S	Their rights
c	SAT2	T	Their rights yes

(End of lesson L 3 A)

APPENDIX VI
THIRD YEAR ENGLISH
lesson discourse (L 3 B.)

Acts	Moves	Speakers	
i a	IN1	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
g	PM1	T	Yes
i	RS2	S1	He ask me to bring him some potatoes
e a	CON1	T	He asked you to bring him some potatoes/I said what
i			did he want you to do/another sentence/what did he want you to do
i	RS2	S2	He wanted me to go to the market
a	IN1	T	He wanted me
i	RS1	S2	To go to the market
c	SAT1	T	To go to the market
i	RS1	S3	He wanted me marketing
a	IN1	T	He wanted you
i	RS1	S3	Marketing
e b	CON1	T	Marketing/no he wanted you to go to the market
i a	IN1	T	Well give me good sentences give me good sentences/ what do I want you to do/give me good sentences what do I want you to do
g	PM1	T	the answer here
i	RS1	S1	You wanted me to give you good sentences
c	SAT1	T	You wanted me to give you good sentences
h a	IN1	T	So repeat/Give me good sentences what do I want you
a h			to do
i	RS1	S2	You wanted me to give best er
b	CON1	T	Good
i	RS1	S2	Good sentences
i a	IN1	T	My friend hoped I spent the holiday near him my friend hoped I spent the holiday near him/what did he want me to do/my friend hoped I spend the holiday near him what did he you what he want you what did he want me to do
h	IN3	T	Quickly please
i	RS1	S3	My friend wanted me to pass to spend the holidays er er
i	IN1	T	Near
i	RS1	S3	Near him
c	SAT1	T	My friend wanted me to pass the holidays near him
i a	IN1	T	You wish the teacher would give you good marks/what do you want the teacher to do/what do you want the teacher to do you wish the teacher would give you good marks what do you want the teacher to do
i	RS1	S1	I wanted the teacher would give me er er
i	IN1	Ss	Good marks
e d	CON1	T	I wanted the teacher would/not would
i	RS1	Ss	Should
h	IN3	T	The answer quickly
g	PM1	T	Yes
i	RS1	S2	I wanted the teacher er to give me good marks
e a	IN1	T	I wanted the teacher to give me good marks/to give me
i	RS1	S2	Yes
c	SAT1	T	Yes
h	IN3	T	Now answer these and use "want" use "want"
a h	IN1	T	Her mother tells her to go to school early her mother tells her to go to school early her mother tells her

			to go to school early/what
i	RS1	S3	What her mother wants
d h	CON1	T	No I told you to use want
i	RS1	S1	Her mother wants her to go early to school
a h	IN1	T	They hope they hope it won't rain they hope it will not rain they hope it will not rain/use want
h	IN3	T	Quickly
a	R-IN1	T	They hope it won't rain
i	RS1	S2	They wa want would they want be raining
a	IN1	T	they want
i	RS1	S2	Be raining
a i	R-RN1	T	What does he want what does he want/he hopes it won't rain/what does he want/does he want it to rain
a			
i	RS1	Ss	No
i	RS1	S3	He want it won't be raining
h	CON1	T	Begin with "he"
g	PM1	T	Ben Fraj*
i	RS1	S1	He want not to be rain
e h	CON1	T	Not to be rain/no begin with "he" and "negative"
i	RS1	S2	He want it does not rain
b	CON1	T	Not it "he"
d	CON1	S2	Yes "he"
h	IN2	T	Repeat
i	RS1	S3	Yes he doesn't want
a	IN1	T	Yes he doesn't want
i	RS1	S1	It rains
c	SAT1	T	Yes he doesn't want it rains
a	IN1	T	I wish he would come early
g	PM1	T	Yes
i	RS1	S2	I wanted her to come early
b	CON1	S3	I wanted him to come early
c	SAT1	T	I wanted him to come early
a	IN1	T	He be quiet
i	RS1	S1	The teacher wants us to be quiet
g	PM1	T	Yes Luhishi*
a	IN1	T	You must leave now you must leave now you must leave now
g	PM1	T	Yes
i	RS1	S1	The teacher wants us to must leave now
d	CON1	T	No
k	IN3	T	Someone else
i	RS1	S2	I want you to leave now
c	SAT1	T	The teacher wants me to leave now
a	IN1	T	She hopes her son will succeed
h	IN3	T	The girls no participation
a h	R-RN1	T	She wants her son will succeed/use hope er want
g	PM1	T	Yes
i	RS1	S3	He wants her son sons will succeed
d	CON1	T	No
g	PM1	T	Yes
i	RS1	S1	She wants her son son to succeed (student is a stutterer)
c	SAT1	T	She wants her son to succeed
a	IN1	T	I advise you to do your homework I advise you to do your homework I advise you to do to do your homework
i	RS1	S2	You wanted us to do our homework
h	CON1	T	It's in the present it's not in the past
i	RS1	S3	You want us to do our homework
c	SAT1	T	You want us to do our homework
h h	IN3	T	Right open your books on page two hundred and seventy

two two hundred and seventy two/and read the first three paragraphs
(ssilent reading)

a	IN3	S1	Underneath
i	RS3	T	The paper is underneath the table (teacher bends down and points to a piece of paper on the floor)
a	IN3	S3	Under under
c	SAT3	T	So the paper is the paper is under the table
a	IN3	S2	A clue
i f	RS3	T	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 the key word in a sentence or in a phrase
a	IN3	T	What else
a	IN3	S3	The essential word
c	SAT3	T	The essential word yes
1 i i f i f f	IN3	T	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 (Silence)
a	IN3	T	Well do you understand
i	RS3	Ss	Yes
i	RS3	Ss	No
e c	SAT3	T	Yes and No/well OK
i f 1	IN3	T	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
1 i i i h h	IN2	T	"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 you for a noun give me a noun "
h f i h f h f a	IN3	T	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
i	RS3	Ss	No no
h h h	R-RN3	T	Well don't read the text don't read the text/and look only at the blanks here look 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

1	IN3	T	So I read the second paragraph
h h	IN2	T	"Don't read all the passage first/just say I want
h f			you to give me an adverb or I want you to give me a
h p			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"
i h	IN3	T	Of course you must say why I want you why I don't
f			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
a	IN3	T	So who wants to begin this exercise
a h	IN3	T	Well give me give me your what do you want your
g h			friend to give you well what do you want your friend
f			to give you/first yes/tell your friend to give you an
			adjective/tell him I want you
h	iN1	S1	I want you to give me "an adjective"
h	IN1	T	Well give him an adjective any adjective you want any
			adjective
i	RS1	S2	Quick
c	SAT1	T	Yes quick
h	IN3	T	You've got to write "quick" (teacher hands a piece of
			chalk to a student who goes to the blackboard)
a	IN1	T	Now what do you want your friend to give you
i	RS1	S3	I want I want my friend to give me "an adverb"
h	IN1	T	Well give her an adverb
i	RS1	S1	Usualy
a	IN1	T	Usually (teacher making sure he heard the student's
			move)
i	RS1	S1	Yes
h	IN3	T	Write usually (to the student standing by the
			blackboard)
a	IN1	T	Well what do you want your friend to give you
i	RS1	S2	I want to er my friend to give me "a noun"
e h	IN1	T	A noun/give him a noun/don't give a noun which is
f			related to the text
a	IN1	S3	Noun
i	RS1	T	Any noun
i	RS1	S3	Country
c	SAT1	T	Country yes
a h	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
a	IN1	T	To buy
i	RS1	S1	Yes
h f	IN1	T	Well tell her to give you/I want
h	IN1	S3	I want you to give me a "unaccountable noun"
i	RS1	S1	Sugar
e f	sAT1	T	Sugar yes/she wants her to give her sugar
h a	IN1	T	Well what next/what do you want your friend to give
			you
h	IN1	S2	I want you to give me "a verb"
h	IN1	T	Give him a verb
i	RS1	S3	To give
c	SAT1	T	To give
hhf	IN1	T	Next/tell her to give you/I want you
h	IN1	S1	I want you to give me a verb
i	RS1	S2	Ask ask
c	SAT1	T	To ask
h	IN1	T	"An adjective"

i	RS1	S3	Wrong wrong
c	SAT1	T	Wrong yes wrong
a	iN1	T	Well what do you want your friend to give you
h	IN1	S	I want to give me
b	CON1	T	Say I want you
i	IN1	S1	I want you to give me "an adjective"
i	RS1	S2	Beautiful beautiful
c	SAT1	T	Beauiful
a h	IN3	T	Which adjective/the adjective we have "wrong" (teacher is talking to the student who is writing on the blackboard)
h f	IN3	T	But the next step/the next stage (teacher talking to the class)
h	IN1	S3	I want you to give me "a verb"
h	IN3	T	The second paragraph always
i	RS1	S1	To sleep
c	SAT1	T	To sleep to sleep
a h	IN1	T	Well what do you want your friend to give you/tell him I want you
h	IN1	S2	I want you I want you to give me "an adverb"
h	IN1	T	Yes give him an adverb
i	RS1	S3	Slowly
c	SAT1	T	Slowly yes slowly
h	IN1	T	The next one the next one
h	IN1	S1	I want you to give me "a plural noun"
i	IN1	T	Yes give him a plural noun
i	RS1	S2	Sticks sticks
c	SAT1	T	Sticks sticks yes
h f	IN1	T	We now have something else/we have "the adjective"
h	IN1	S3	I want you to give me er "an adjective"
h	IN1	t	Give him an adjective
i	RS1	S1	Nice
c	SAT1	T	Nice
h	IN1	T	Now the last word in the second paragraph the last word in the second paragraph
i	IN1	S2	I want you to give me "a plural noun"
d i h	CON3	T	No the last one is not a plural noun (teacher to student who is writing on the blackboard)
d	CON3	S3 T	[lɛ lɛ] ("no no" in LTAV). (students to their mate) It's a noun]/So write a pen
h f	IN3	T	Well er the last paragraph/the last paragraph which begins with "an adverb" (to the whole class)
h	IN1	T	What do you want your friend (to a particular student)
h	IN1	S3	I want you to give me an adverb
i	RS1	S1	Quickly
d	CON3	S2	[ʃufnæhæ] ("we saw it" in LTAV)
i	RS1	S1	Slow slow
a	CON1	T	Slow (as if not sure of what he heard)
i	RS1	S2	Comfortable comfortableb
c	SAT1	T	Comfortably/yes comfortably
h	IN1	T	The next one is "a plural a plural noun"
i	RS1	S1	Things
c	SAT1	T	Things yes things
h	IN1	T	Plural noun things (to student writing on the blackboard)
h	IN1	T	Now the last one
h	IN1	S2	I want you to give me "a noun"
h	IN1	T	Give her a noun
i	RS1	S3	A cup a cup
h	IN3	T	So a cup (to student writing on blackboard)

h b	IN3	T	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)
f h			
k	IN3	T	Well someone reads the er the text
g	PM3	T	Yes read
i	RS2	S1	"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)
c	SAT2	T	And give them to the pen
		Ss	(laughter)
k	IN3	T	Well someone else read someone else reads the text
g	PM3	T	Yeah
i	RS2	S2	"When when you do when you do your exams" (student is a stutterer)
h	IN3	Ss	[ʕæːwid ʕæːwid] ("repeat" in LTAV)
i	RS2	S2	"When you do your exams......and then give them to the pen"
c	SAT2	T	And then give them to the pen
		Ss	(laughter)
a	IN3	T	Well do you understand why they want you to put any adverb any adjective any word
i	RS3	Ss	Just for fun
a	IN3	T	Just
i	RS3	Ss	For fun
c	SAT3	T	Just just for fun just for fun
h	IN3	T	Now can you guess the real words can you guess the real words here in this text (Silence)
h	IN2	T	The first word the first word
i	RS2	S3	Reasonable mind
e a	R-IN2	T	Reasonable mind/what else
i	RS2	S1	Clear mind
a	R-IN2	T	Or
i	RS2	S1	A clear mind
h f	IN3	T	Write a clear mind then/write a clear mind in the first phrase/the adjective is clear write clear (to the whole class)
f			
h f	IN2	T	The second word/"you should sleep"
i	RS2	Ss	Comfortably
a	IN3	S2	Just to write comfortably (student at blackboard)
h	RS3	T	Yes you should write er sleep comfortably
a	R-IN2	T	Is there any other word/"you should sleep"
i	RS2	S3	Early
e a	R-IN2	T	Early/you should sleep
i	RS2	S1	Well
c	SAT2	T	You should sleep well also
h	IN3	T	So write one of these words well or comfortably
h f	IN2	T	The next word is a singular noun a singular noun/ "make sure you sleep er drink"
i	RS2	S3	A cup a cup
g	PM2	T	Yes Belhaj*
i	RS2	S2	Milk

d	CON1	T	No
i	RS1	S2	A cup of milk
g	PM1	T	Ghzayel*
i	RS1	S3	Drink a cup
a	CON1	T	Drink a cup of what
i	RS1	S3	Of hot coffee
c	SAT1	T	Of hot coffee yes
k k	R-IN3	T	Someone else raise your hand/someone else give another word
i	RS2	S1	Of hot milk
a	IN2	T	Of hot
i	RS2	S1	Milk
i	RS2	S3	Of hot coffee
a	IN2	T	Of hot
i	RS2	S1	Coffee
a	CON3	T	Does coffee does coffee help you to sleep
i	RS3	S2	Yes
i	RS3	S3	Of course
a	CON3	T	Coffee helps you to sleep
i	RS3	S2	Yes
i	RS3	S3	It does
i	IN4	S1	Hot water (student is joking)
a	CON3	T	Hot water
i	RS2	S2	Hot milk
c	SAT2	T	Of hot milk yes
		T	So
a a	CON4	S1	Why milk/why hot water
h f	IN2	T	The next word/"make sure you" (Silence)
h	R-IN2	T	"Make sure" and give a verb
i	RS2	S3	Make sure you are
a	IN1	T	You are
i	RS1	S3	In a good position
e a	R-IN2	T	In a good position/another word another adverb
i	RS2	S1	You sleep er
a f	IN1	T	You sleep you sleep in/an adjective
i	RS1	S2	Tired
i	CON1	S1	Good position
c	SAT2	T	In a good position yes in a good position
h f	IN2	T	The next word a verb/"always a verb the exam questions"
i	RS2	S2	Always read
c	SAT2	T	Always read
i	RS2	S3	The exam paper questions slowly
c	SAT2	T	Slowly
a	IN3	T	Yes what do you want
i	RS2	S1	Consciously
a	IN2	T	Consciously
i	RS2	S1	Yes
d	CON2	T	No
i	RS2	S2	Carefully
c	SAT2	T	Carefully
h f	IN2	T	Read the sentence/"you must always read"
i	RS2	S2	You must always read the questions carefully
a	IN1	T	The question
i	RS1	S2	Carefully
c	SAT2	T	Carefully
h f	IN2	T	The next word/"make sure you understand them then write your answers on"
i	RS2	S3	Paper
e 1	CON3	T	Paper/here after "on" we want an adjective

g	PM3	T	Mhmm
i	RS2	S1	On white paper
a	IN1	T	On white paper
i	RS1	S1	White paper
a a	CON3	T	Why do you want only white paper/well how do you call thi how do you call the paper before you write your essay
i	RS3	S2	Dirty paper (laughter)
e d b	CON3	T	A dirt a dirty paper/no it's not a dirty paper/rough paper rough paper on a rough paper
i	IN3	S3	Rough
i	RS3	T	Yes
c f	SAT3	T	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
h a	IN2	T	"Then check your /what do you check
i	RS2	S1	Answers
l c	SAT2	T	Your answers/check your answers
h	IN2	T	"Before putting them on to the examination"
i	RS2	S2	Paper
c	SAT2	T	Paper yes
h	IN2	T	[i\ɔ:] ("the er" in TAV) thi er next word adverb [an adverb
i	RS2	S3	Finally]
c	SAT2	T	Finally yes
h	IN2	T	"Check all your"
i	RS2	S1	er Finally check all your answers carefully
c	SAT2	T	All your answers carefully
h	IN2	T	"And give them to the to the"
i	RS2	Ss	To the teacher
e c	SAT2	T	To the teacher/and give them to the teacher
k f	IN3	T	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
g	PM3	T	Frigi* yes
i	RS2	S3	"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
i	IN2	T	Cup
i	RS2	S3	A cup of hot hot sugar
b	CON1	Ss	No of hot milk
i	RS2	S3	Of hot milk make sure make sure er make make sure you sleep in wrong position
b	CON2	T	In good position
i	RS2	S3	In a good position always sleep
b	CON2	T	Read
i	RS2	S1	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)
c	SAT2	T	To the teacher
k h	IN3	T	Who wants to read/a good reading without mistakes
g	PM3	T	Yes
i	RS2	S2	"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"
c	SAT2	T	And then give them to the teacher

a	IN2	T	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 the important thing you must have in your exam (Silence)
h	IN3	T	This is about the text (Silence)
h a	R-IN2	T	The answer/what is the important thing you must have in your exam
h f	IN3	T	Well I want you to speak/if you want to speak raise your hand and I"m ready to allow you
g	PM3	T	Yes
i	RS2	S3	They must have a clear mind in the examination
b	CON2	T	You must (Silence)
h	IN1	T	I must say (say I must)
i	RS1	S3	I must have a clear mind in the examination
c	SAT2	T	I must have a clear mind in the examination
a	IN2	T	What would you do the night before the exam what should you do the night in the night before the exam
i	RS2	S1	I should sleep comfortably
a	IN2	T	What must you do to sleep well what must you do to sleep well
i	RS2	S2	I must sleep early
a	IN2	T	I must
i	RS2	S2	sleep early
d a	R-IN2	T	No/I said what must you do to sleep well
i	RS2	S3	I must drink a cup of hot er milk
c	SAT2	T	You must drink a cup of hot milk
a	IN2	T	Well how must you sleep how must you sleep before the exam
i	RS2	S1	We must sleep in good position
h	IN3	T	Repeat the answer (didn't hear)
i	RS2	S1	We must sleep in good position
e b	SAT2	T	We must sleep/I must sleep in a good position
a	IN2	T	Well when you got when you've got the exam paper when you've got the exam paper what must you do when you've got the exam paper what must you do
g	PM2	T	Luhishi*
i	RS2	S2	I must er I the exam papers I must read them very very deep carefully
e a	IN2	T	Read/what must you do what must you read
i	RS2	S2	The exam paper
h	CON2	T	The exam questions
i	RS2	S2	The exam questions carefully
c	SAT2	T	Carefully you must read the exam questions carefully
a	IN2	T	Must you understand the questions must you understand the questions
i	RS2	S2	Yes of course
a	IN1	T	Yes of course
i	RS1	S2	We must understand the questions
c	SAT2	T	We must understand the questions
a	IN2	T	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
i	RS2	S3	No no I must check er our my my er answers
a	IN2	T	You must check
i	RS2	S3	m my answers in rough
b	CON1	T	On
i	RS1	S3	On a rough paper

c	SAT1	T	On a rough paper
a	IN2	T	Do you give the paper to the teacher just after copying them do you give your answers to the teacher just after copying them
i	RS2	S1	No we must check all our answer answers then we give it to the teacher
c	SAT2	T	We give them to the teacher
a	IN2	T	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
g	PM2	T	Mhmm
i	RS2	S2	To correct them
c	SAT2	T	To correct them
i	RS2	S3	To be sure of the truth ([trʌθ])of the answers
c	SAT2	T	The truth ([truθ]) yes
a	IN2	T	How many times do you check your answers how many times must you check the answers how many times must you check your answers
i	RS2	S1	We must check our answers three times
e i	CON2	T	Three times/when in the beginning and at the end/
a			so only only
i	RS2	S2	Twice
c f	SAT2	T	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 how did Willy try to kill himself/Remember that he tried to kill himself more than once
g	PM2	T	Yes
h	IN3	T	Will you please speak up
i	RS2	S1	He tried to kill himself by er driving into the river
c	SAT2	T	Into the river
i a	IN2	T	He tried again/how did he try the second time
g	PM2	T	Please
i	RS2	S2	He tried by er by stimulating ([stimjuláteŋg]) stimulating ([stimtláiŋ])
b	CON1	T	by stimulating ([stimjuléitiŋg]) accidents
a	CTR2	T	Yes but he tried with another way
		S3	By
a	IN2	T	Yes what did he try to do
i	RS2	S1	He tried er to kill himself with er the gas
c	SAT2	T	He tried to kill himself with gas
a	IN2	T	Did Biff obey his mother at last did Biff obey his mother at last (Silence)
a	R-RN2	T	What did his mother ask him to do
i	RS2	S3	To help his father
c	SAT2	T	To help his father
i	RS2	S1	To respect
c	SAT2	T	To respect his father
i	RS2	S2	To share responsibility
c	SAT2	T	To share responsibility
i	RS2	S3	To be grateful
e f	SAT2	T	To be grateful/to understand better their father
a	IN2	T	Did he obey his mother at last
i	RS2	S1	Yes
g	PM2	T	Futha* yes
i	RS2	S2	Yes
a	CON1	T	He at last
h	IN3	T	Speak up please
i	RS1	S2	He at last obey
h	CON1	T	Past
i	RS1	S2	Obeyed his mother [and er
a a	IN2	T	And what] did he promise to do/he promised
i	RS2	S1	He promised to help his father
i	RS2	S2	He promised to obey er
h	IN2	T	Repeat
i	RS2	S2	He promised to obey er his
i a	IN2	T	He promised to obey his father/he promised
i	RS2	S3	He promised his mother to get a job
h	CON1	T	To find
i	RS1	S3	A job
a	IN2	T	Why did he like to find a job
i	RS2	S1	To earn money
e a	IN2	T	To earn money/and a
i	RS2	S2	To improve their situation
c f	SAT2	T	To improve their situation/to contribute in paying money for the house yes
1	IN3	T	Let's correct the exercise that we have
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"
k	IN3	T	Who wants to read what he wrote
g	PM3	T	Yes
i	RS2	S2	Dear son you cannot understand how unhappy I feel after the worse circumstances ([sirkɔˊstansiz])
a	CON1	T	After
i	RS1	S2	er er the circum ([sirkɔˊ])
b	CON1	T	After the bad circumstances ([ʂɑːkmstansiz])
i	RS1	S2	After the worse [the bad
d b	CON1	T	After] the worse than what/after the bad yes
i	RS1	S2	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 er com completely and did not take care ([kɑjr]) of me
b	CON1	T	Care ([kæː])
i	RS1	S2	Care of me as in the past/For these consequences ([kɔnsakansiz])
b	CON1	T	Consequences ([kansikwensiz])
i	RS1	S2	Consequences I decided ([desided]) to put an end
b	CON1	T	I decided ([disdidid])
i	RS1	S2	I decided to put an end to my life which is becoming so boring and misera ([mizerɑ])
b	CON1	T	And miserable ([mizrabl])
i	RS1	S2	I'm not saying th this to oblige ([oblijɑ])
a	CON1	T	To
b	RS1	Ss	To oblige ([oblaidʒ])
i	RS1	S2	To oblige
b	CON1	T	To force you
i	RS2	S2	To force you to help me but to know what I feel what I think/
i b	CON2	T	Now he knows but he wants to let his children know/so to let you know to let you know
i	RS2	S2	Eh but to let
i	IN2	T	You know
i	RS2	S2	I'm not saying this to er to force you to help but to let you know ([tuletunɑω]
b	CON1	T	To let you know [taletjunɑω])
i	RS1	S2	To let you know you know what I feel what I think
a	IN1	T	What I feel
i	RS1	S2	What I think
c	SAT2	T	And what I think
g	PM2	T	Yes
i	RS2	S3	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 ([stiːdi]) job and
b	CON1	T	Steady ([stɛdi])
i	RS1	S3	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 ([finɑnsjɑl])
b	CON1	T	Financial ([fɑinɛnʃɑl])
i	RS1	S3	Financial problem for me after this after this I have no friends the ones I had
e a bdh	CON1	T	After this/What should you say/besides/,no after this/
		S3	Eh
		T	Besides I have no friends
i	RS1	S3	Besides I have no friends the ones I had are now

			dead by the time the others who are still alive ([əliv]) ign [
b a	CON1	T	Alive] ([əlaiv])/who are still alive
i	RS1	S3	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 ([rəprɔʃiŋ]
b	CON1	T	Reproaching ([rəprɑɔʧiŋg])
i	RS1	S3	Reproaching me many things but just try to understand me eh I terribly ([terri:bli]) suffer
a	CON1	T	I
b	RS1	S3	Terribly ([teribli]) suffer from
c	SAT1	T	Yes
i	RS1	S3	Terribly suffer from this awful please help me
a b	CON2	T	of this awful what/situation
i	RS2	S3	Conditions
c	SAT2	T	These awful conditions yes
g	PM2	T	Yes
i	RS2	S1	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
b	CON1	T	And solve them
i	RS1	S1	And solve them
d i	CON3	T	Yes but here you are talking in the reported speech/
f			you are talking indirectly/but the exercise says Willy is going to face his sons and address them and talk to them directly
h l	IN3	T	Anyway that's enough for this chapter/let's move to
h l			another chapter "Why Marry"/now before we start I
l a			read the text/and then we try to answer this question
f			"Why Marry"/let us ask young men first/why do you young men think of marriage why do you marry
j	RS3	S3	To have a family
g a	IN2	T	Yes/why do the young men marry why do the young men marry
j	RS2	S1	They marry to have er
a	IN2	T	To what
i	RS2	S1	To have a family
e a	R-RN3	T	Yes young men marry to have a family and children/ is there any other reason
j	RS3	S2	To help each other
g	PM3	T	Yes
i	RS3	S3	To help each other
a	IN3	T	Who and who help each other
i	RS3	S2	The couple
a	CON3	T	The young man needs a wife to
i	RS3	S2	To help each other
b f	CON3	T	To help him/the wife will help him
i a	R-RN3	T	Now first I'm talking about the young men/why does he think of marriage
i	RS3	S3	The young man er think of
b	CON1	T	Thinks of marriage
i	RS1	S3	To have a wife to

i	RS1	Ss	To help him
c	SAT3	T	To help him
a a	R-RN3	T	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
j	RS3	S1	Housework
c	SAT3	T	He cannot do housework
i	RS3	S2	He cannot take care of the children his children
e i i f	CON3	T	He can't take care of his children/but as far as his wife doesn't exist there is no children/
		Ss	[(laughter)
		T	So he needs] his children/and that's why he gets married
a	IN3	T	Now why does a girl marry
g	PM3	T	Yes
i	RS3	S1	She must must er because she er needs
a f	IN2	T	She needs a/she needs a protek
i	RS2	S1	She needs protection
e a	IN2	T	She needs er protection/and she finds protection in a
i	RS2	S2	Her husband
c	SAT2	T	In her husband yes
j	RS3	S3	Girls want to marry because they want er to feel er th their own responsibility and er
a	IN3	T	Now when they marry they feel their own responsibility
i	RS3	S2	Yes er to have an ap a flat with er
c a	IN2	T	Ah so she wants to be responsible of er/she wants to be independent of what
i	RS2	S1	Of her family
c f	SAT2	T	Of her family yes/she wants to make her own family
g	PM2	T	Yes
j	RS2	S2	She wants to change her model of life
a	CON2	T	She wants to change her
i	RS2	S3	Model
dba	CON2	T	Model/her type of life/her way of
i	RS2	Ss	Life
c	SAT2	T	Life yes
l a f	IN3	T	Now if we think of the past/why did a young girl marry/what's what has changed from the past to now
j	RS3	S1	In the past many parents compelled
b	CON2	T	Forced
i	RS2	S1	Forced
h	IN2	T	Many parents forced
i l	RS2	S1	Many parents forced er their daughters to/because they can't
b	CON1	T	Couldn't
i	RS1	S1	Because they couldn't fi: provide food for their children
j	CTR3	T	Yes so no of course even if they didn't force their daughters to marry they should marry
a f	IN3	T	Now why did the daughter marry in the past/what did she think of
j	RS3	S2	She had er to obey his er father [er er without er any
b	CON1	T	His father]
		S2	discussion
c	SAT3	T	Without any discussion
		S2	[She
j j	CTR3	T	I think] every girl wanted to marry/but she didn't have the right a

		S3	To chose]
		T	To choose] the right husband for her
a	IN3	T	Now did all girls work in the past or did any girls work in the past
j	RS3	Ss	Many girls work
a	CON3	T	In the past
c	RS3	Ss	No
d	CON3	Ss	Yes
a	CON3	T	In the past
c	RS3	Ss	No
d	CON3	Ss	Yes they worked yes
a	CON3	T	They in the past
i	CON3	S1	They worked in the countryside
e j	CTR3	T	Well in the field/but it was not common
a a	IN3	T	What was the mission of most girls most wives/it was to
i	RS3	Ss	Stay at home
c f	SAT3	T	Stay at home/look after the family
a f	IN3	T	So why did she think of marriage at that time/what did marriage provide for her
j	RS3	S2	Er for most er the marriage is er
b	CON1	T	Was
i	RS1	S2	Was er a kind of er was er er
i	IN3	T	An opportunity
i	RS3	S2	An opportunity er to change er er her kind of life
c	SAT3	T	To change her kind of life
i a	IN3	T	Now if she remained with her father all the time/
i a			could her father provide for her all the time/her
i f			father would die for her/so what did she think of
f			when she married in the past of her future/so marriage was a sort of
i	RS3	Ss	Future
i	RS3	Ss	Security
c f	SAT3	T	Security it was a sort of er career/that was her job to marry to have someone to provide for her
a	IN3	T	But now does the girl does the daughter does the girl always need the husband for this
i	RS3	S1	No
a	IN3	T	Why not
			(Silence)
h	IN3	T	Go on make sentences
g	PM3	T	Yes
a	R-RN3	T	What has changed now in the situation of the girls
j f	RS3	S2	Girls er er have er a job er
c	SAT3	T	[Yes girls er can have a
		S2	And have er money]
		T	Steady job and can have er money
a	IN3	T	Do they need the husband any longer to provide for that
i	RS3	Ss	No no
a	IN3	T	Can a girl live for ever on her own money
i	RS3	Ss	Yes
e a	CON3	T	Yes she can/but do we see all the girls living alone
i	RS3	Ss	No no
e c	SAT3	T	No/so money is not the only purpose for the girl/she
f			doesn't only marry to have security/to have somebody to provide for her
l i	IN3	T	Let's see what happens in this text "Why Marry"/"Many
a f			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

				(Silence)
i	a	R-IN3	T	"Many liberationists think that marriage is a way for men to imprison women"/do you agree with that
j		RS3	Ss	No
e	h	CON3	T	You disagree/now no is not enough
i		RS3	S1	Yes
h		CON3	T	Yes is not enough either
g		PM3	T	Yes
j		RS3	S1	We can't talk of the house as a prison
e	l	R-IN3	T	We can't consider the house as a prison/Now if we
a	j			think of the past/what was the wife's like at home/
a				Girls can talk of this better/how did the wife live in the past
g		PM3	T	Yes
j		RS3	S2	The wife was er a slave
a		IN3	T	Sorry
i		RS3	S2	A slave
e	h	R-RN3	T	The woman used to live as er a slave/illustrate more/
f	f			what do you mean by this/give examples
j		RS3	S2	The husband ([hʌzbɑnʤ])
b		CON1	T	The husband ([hʌzbənd])
i		RS1	S2	The husband er doesn't
b	f	CON1	T	Didn't/in the past
i		RS1	S2	Didn't er let her go out
e	a	R-RN3	T	Go out yes/what else
j		RS3	S3	They lived er
a		IN3	T	Sorry
i		RS3	S3	They lived in a conservative society
c		SAT3	T	They lived in a conservative society
g		PM3	T	Yes
j		RS3	S1	She respected er
			T	She respected
			S1	She respected th the husband er
h		IN3	T	Have your time have your time
g		PM3	T	Yes
j		RS3	S2	She had to respect her husband and obey his order
c		SAT3	T	She had to respect her husband and obey all
			S3	[His orders
			T	His orders] yes
a		IN3	T	So what can you say about this remark
g		PM3	T	Yes
j		RS3	S3	There is no difference between the wife and er animal
j	f	CTR3	T	There was not a difference between the wife and any
f				other property that a husband [possessed
			S3	Possessed]
a		IN2	T	So the wife used to be like an
i		RS2	S1	Object
e	a	IN2	T	An object a property yes/a sort of decoration for his
				a
i		RS2	S3	House
c		SAT2	T	House
a		IN3	T	So what can you say about this remark
h		RS3	S2	We can say about this remark is that it true
				especially in the past
c		IN3	T	In the past it used to be true/but now
j		RS3	S2	Now all women
a		CON2	T	It's no longer
i		RS2	S2	er available
i		RS2	S3	Available
e	d	CON2	T	Availa/it's no longer true
c		RS2	S2	True

i a	IN3	T	Things have changed/what has changed
i	RS3	S3	Girls are more
b	CON1	T	Freer
i	RS1	S3	Freer
c	SAT3	T	Girls are freer than they used to be
i	RS3	S1	They become civilized
c a	IN3	T	They become civilized yes/what do you put in this word civilized
i	RS3	S1	They become freer because nowadays they have the rights as the husbands
e i	CTR3	T	They have the same rights as the
		S3	husbands/
		T	Sometimes they say even more
g	PM3	T	Yes
j	RS3	S3	She can contribute er she they can contribute to er society as
c	SAT3	T	They can contribute in society with their work
j	RS3	S3	And there there is a certain equality er with
h	CON1	T	Between
i	RS1	S3	Between er girls
i	IN1	S1	And boys
i	RS1	S3	And boys
c	SAT3	T	And boys and boys yes
i a	IN3	T	So the girls can be educated can have a job and what freedom this job can give her
i	RS3	S2	Financial
a	IN3	T	Sorry
i	RS3	S2	Financial
e a	R-IN3	T	Financial freedon/what else something else
j	RS3	S3	[Money
a	IN3	T	Is she] still in prison at home
i	RS3	Ss	No
c f	SAT3	T	No she can leave the house/go out er meet some friends talk to some friends have her opinions about society et cetera
l	IN3	T	I read
i	IN2	T	"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; <u>cowardly</u> 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"

h h	IN3	T	Now read silently for two minutes/and underline the difficult words very quickly (Silence)
a	IN3	T	What words did you underline
i	RS3	S1	Average ([dvɔreɪ˧ʒ])
a	IN3	T	Sorry
i	RS3	S1	Average ([ævɔreidʒ])
b	CON1	T	Average ([ævridʒ]) (writes the word on the blackboard)
a	IN3	T	Next
i	RS3	S2	Indeed
i	RS3	S3	Occur ([ɔkɔr])
a	IN3	T	Sorry
i	RS3	S1.	Occur ([ɔkjur])
a	IN3	T	Sorry
i	RS3	S2	"A separation occur" ([ɔkjur])
b	CON1	T	To occur ([ɔ'kɔː]) to occur (writes it down)
i	RS1	S2	Occur ([ɔ'kɔː])
c	SAT1	T	Occur yes
i	RS3	S3	Exclusively
c	SAT1	T	Exclusive or exclusively (writes it down)
i	RS3	S2	Ultimately
i	RS3	S1	Disaster
c a	IN3	T	Disaster disaster/next (writes it down)
b	CON1	S2	No [Zed]
a	IN3	T	Sorry
b	RS1	S2	No [Zed]
b	CON1	T	Disaster [ai][zed]
b	CON1	S2	[S]
i	RS1	T	Yes
		S2	[kiːfæːʃ] ("Well then" in LTAV)
		S3	[ɔjɑ rɑh] ("Big deal" in LTAV)
		S2	[nelʃib mʃæːk ʔinti] (boy to girl in LTAV "Who is talking to you")
a l	IN3	T	Next/Opportunity
i	RS3	S3	No we know it
		S3	[mʃæːtʃ ɔtkɛlɛmni ʃmiʃt] (student to his mate S2, in LTAV "Don't speak to me understood")
c	SAT3	T	We know this word
		S2	[mɛːti hʃimʃ] (S2 to S3 in LTAV "Aren't you ashamed of yourself")
i	RS3	S1	Obvious
a	IN3	T	Obvious
h	RS3	S1	line eight obvious
i	RS3	S2	Ultimately ultimately
		S3	[tɔskɔt] (same S3 in LTAV "Shut up")
		S2	Ultimately
e i	CTR3	T	Ultimately/we know these words (writes the word on board)
i	RS3	S3	Sick
e i f	CTR3	T	Sick/to be sick of something/I am sick of this question it makes me ill
g	PM3	T	Yes

i	RS3	S1	Adultery
e a	IN3	T	So adultery yes/is that all
i	RS3	S3	Yes
a	IN3	T	Average
g	PM3	T	Yes
i	RS3	S2	The age between nine and er nineteen
e i d	CON1	T	The average/that's teenager/you are confusing with a teenager
i	RS3	S3	It's adolescence
e b	CON3	T	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
a	IN3	T	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
i	RS3	S1	Divide
i a	IN3	T	You add up all the numbers/than divide by
i	RS3	S1	Four
c	SAT3	T	The number of times yes
h	IN2	T	Can you make an example with average average average (teacher writing on board)
g	PM2	T	Yes (Silence)
h f	R-RN2	T	An example with average/moyen ([mwɑjɛ̃] French for average)
i	RS2	S2	The average price for good fashionable clothes is er thirteen
a	CON2	T	For good a
i	RS2	S3	Clothes
eaff	CON2	T	Clothes/is er what clothes/Are all clothes the same/
i	RS2	S2	[Fashionable
		T	You can talk about]what
i	RS2	S3	Fashionable
e b a	CON2	T	Fashionable/w you can talk about shirts for instance or trousers/what is the average price for a shirt
i	RS2	S1	Thirteen
h	CON2	T	Make a sentence
i	RS1	S1	The average price for a shirt is thirteen dinars
e c f	SAT2	T	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
g	PM2	T	Yes
i	RS2	S2	The average of er birth risen from eight to ten
d b f f	CON2	T	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 birthrate 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
a	IN3	T	Indeed
i	RS3	S3	Soon
i	RS3	S2	It has two meanings
a	IN3	T	Sorry
i	RS3	S3	It has two meanings
e a	IN3	T	It has two meanings/yes ("yes what are they")
i	RS3	S2	Surely or in fact
b a	CTR3	T	In fact rather in fact/in deed if we divide this word er deed comes from the word to
i	RS3	Ss	Do

c f		SAT3	T	Do/in [bîlfíʕl] indeed that's the meaning (teacher translates "indeed" into "classical Arabic")
i		IN3	S3	We we say a friend ind in need is a friend indeed
d		CTR3	S2	The English English (it's an English saying. <u>we</u> don't say it)
a		IN3	T	Sorry
i		R-IN3	S3	We say a friend in need is a friend indeed
d		CTR3	S2	English English
j h		RS3	T	But the right the good friend is not the friend who likes you when you are in good condition/shsht
e c		SAT3	T	A friend in need is a friend indeed (writing)/this is a good example indeed
g		PM3	T	Yes
a		IN3	T	To occur
i		RS3	S1	To happen
e h f		IN2	T	To occur to happen (writing) occur to/will you make an example with to occur/to happen to take place
h h h h		IN3	T	Stop writing/and think of an example/nobody writes/ put your pens down
g a		R-IN2	T	Yes/occur
i		RS2	S2	Many crimes occurred in Palestine
c		SAT2	T	Many crimes have occurred during the last year in Palestine
i		IN2	S3	What occur I
i		CON1	T	We usually use here what's happened
i		RS1	S3	Happened
c		SAT1	T	Happened yes
g		PM3	T	Yes
j		IN2	S1	er it's many
b		CON1	T	There are
i		RS1	S1	There are many occurrences er
a		CON1	T	Many
i		RS1	S1	Many occurs
d b		CON1	T	No/
			Ss	[(laughter)
			T	Yes] the occurrence we say
c		SAT2	T	Yes many crimes have occurred occurred
h		IN3	T	Shsht please
			T	In Palestine (while writing)
a i a		IN3	T	Exclusive/sometimes on er written on er some cars that belong to the government this car should be used for service exclusively/it means
i		RS3	S3	[Only
c f		SAT3	T	Only] For service/everything else is excluded it should not be used in anything else
a		IN3	S2	"Why must it be" it
e a i i i		RS3	T	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
a		IN3	T	exclusive an example exclusive (Silence)
i		IN3	T	Now I gave an example
i		RS2	S3	Especial for
b		CON2	T	Only for
i		RS2	S1	Only for
e i		IN2	T	Only for/everything is excluded or this·property is excluded from other people
g		PM2	T	Yes
i		RS2	S2	This swimming pool is exclusive for tourists
c		SAT2	T	Yes the swimming pool should be used by tourists

			exclusively the swimming pool should be used by tourists exclusively (while writing)
a	IN3	T	A disaster
i	RS3	S3	A disease
d b	CTR3	T	Not a disease/a disease is always now a disease can
f f			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
i	IN3	S1	By the Israelis
cjh	CTR3	T	by the Israelis yes/why not by the Arabs
c	RS3	S3	[Yes
		T	who accepted]this/stop
		S2	(inaudible)
j f	RS3	T	Yes we know all the proverbs but we never respect . them/we never follow them
h a	IN3	T	A sentence with disaster
h i	IN3	T	And stop writing you/nobody's behind you
a	R-IN3	T	A sentence with disaster
			(Silence)
a	IN3	T	You understood the meaning
i	RS3	Ss	No
i	RS3	Ss	Yes
i i	IN2	T	A fire causes a disaster/there was a very famous disaster in Palestine last June or ju
	RS2	S3	June
e a	IN3	T	Oct June/it was in June
i	RS3	S2	June
d	CON3	T	Not really no no
i	RS3	S3	September
c	SAT3	T	September
i	IN3	S3	the seventeenth
a	IN3	T	Last September
i	RS3	S3	Yes yes
c	SAT3	T	Seventeenth of September yes
h	IN3	T	Yes can you make a sentence
g	PM3	T	Yes
i	RS2	S1	Many Arabs er eskei escaped from the disaster in Palestine
c a	IN2	T	Yes many Arabs escaped or many Palestinians escaped from their country
i	RS2	S2	To avoid
c f	SAT2	T	To avoid the disaster/or the disaster caused
f			thousands of people to die/the disaster caused the death of thousands of people
a	IN3	T	Chimeria chimeria is a
i	RS3	S3	Impossible
c f	SAT3	T	Impossible unreal
a a	IN3	T	Any question like this any difficulty/togetherness
i			you understand what it means/togetherness the fact of living happily together yes
			(Silence)
n l	IN3	T	Thank you/let's read the text
g	PM3	T	Yes
	RS2	S1	"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
c	SAT3	T	Yes thank you
i	RS2	S2	"Security is a chimeria ([kəmirə])
b	CON1	T	Chimeria ([kɑi'miərə])
i	RS1	S2	Chimeria ([kɑi'miərə])

h	IN2	T	Especially
i	RS2	S2	Especially if it is supposed to mean the pre (([prɛ])
b	CON1	T	The preservation (([prizəveiʃn])
i	RS1	S2	The preser the preservation of a
i h	IN	T	A state a state of togetherness/repeat
i	RS1	S2	A state of togetherness
a	IN3	T	Somebody else continues after security
i	RS2	S3	"Security is a chimeria especially if it is supposed to mean the preservation of a state of happy togetherness which exists at the time of a marriage a marriage (([mæriədʒ])"
g	PM2	T	Yes
i	RS2	S1	"Should no obvious (([obvz])
b	CON1	T	No obvious (([ɔbvjəs])
i	RS1	S1	No obvious disasters like adultery or separation occur (([ɔkjuə])
b	CON1	T	Occur (([ɔ'kə])
i	RS1	S1	Occur/people stil change neither partner will be ultimately (([ʌltimətəli])
b	CON1	T	Ultimately (([ʌltim tli])
i	RS1	S1	Iltimately 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 oppo.rtunities for work must be improved (([inpru:vəd]
b	CON1	T	Improved (([impru:vd])
i	RS1	S2	Improved not abandoned"
n	SAT2	T	Thank you
l h f h	IN3	T	Let's answer some questions/put your books upside down/upside down like this books upside down/and stop writing don't write (Silence)
a h	IN2	T	Why do you think a girl should marry/your opinion and according to the text/why do you think a girl should marry
g	PM2	T	Yes
j	RS2	S3	A girl should marriage
b	CON1	T	Should marry
i	RS1	S3	Marry she thinks she can escape from her father's authority
e a f	R-RN2	T	To escape from her father's authority/what else/why should a girl marry
j	RS2	S1	A girl should marry to lead a new life
c	SAT2	T	To lead a new way of life yes
j	RS2	S2	To have a decent life
c	SAT2	T	To have a decent life yes
a	IN2	T	According to the writer why does an average girl
i	RS2	S3	An average girl married
b	CON1	T	Marries
i	RS1	S3	To find security
c	SAT2	T	To find security
a	IN2	T	Now does the writer believe in marriage because of love (Silence)
a f	R-RN2	T	What's he think of love/what is love in his opinion
i	RS2	S1	Love can exist out of marriage
b	CON2	T	He thinks
i	RS2	S1	He thinks that love can exist outside marriage
a	IN2	T	Outside
i	RS2	S3	Marriage
c	SAT2	T	Marriage
a f	IN2	T	What does he say about love/it's a

i	RS2	S2	A chimera
i f	IN2	T	This idea is wrong/girls marry for love this idea in his opinion is wrong
j	RS3	S3	He must be speaking by experience
a	IN3	T	Sorry
j	RS3	S3	By experience
e j	IN3	T	By experience/so he must be a married man/
a			or especially a
j	RS3	S1	A married woman
e c	IN3	T	A married woman/the writer can be a married woman
j			yes/or a liberationist
j	RS3	S2	She didn't succeed in her marriage
e c	SAT3	T	She didn't/yes her marriage was not successful
g	PM3	T	Yes
j	IN2	S3	There were some problems in the past
b	CON2	T	There were to be less or fewer problems
i	RS2	S3	problems than nowadays/and they
b	CON2	T	Inspite of
i	RS2	S3	Inspite of they didn't marry out of love
c	SAT2	T	They didn't marry out of love
a f	IN2	T	Now what was the cause of this/why were there fewer problems in the past
j	RS2	S1	Because societies are not materialistic as now
c	SAT2	T	The society was not as materialistic as it is now
j	RS2	S3	Women had to obey their husbands
c a	R-IN2	T	Women wives had to obey their husbands/women were afraid of
i	RS2	S3	Divorce
c a	SAT2	T	They were always afraid of divorce/thank you

[End of lesson L 4 A]

APPENDIX VIII
FOURTH YEAR ENGLISH
lesson discourse (L 4 B)

Acts	Moves	Speakers	
a a	IN2	T	Everybody knows Friday in Mahdia yes/how are the streets on Friday
i	RS2	S3	Crowded
c	SAT2	T	Crowded
g	PM2	T	Yes
i	RS1	S1	Streets are crowded in Mahdia on Friday
e a	R-RN2	T	Streets are crowded/any other word for that
i	RS2	Ss	Overcrowded
e a	R-RN2	T	Yeah overcrowded/Or
i	RS2	S2	There are many crowds in Mahdia on Friday
a f	R-RN2	T	Any synonym of crowded/streets are crowded or
i	RS2	S3	Full of people
c	SAT2	T	Full of people
g	PM2	T	Yes
i	RS2	S3	Swarmed
g	PM2	T	Yes
i	RS1	S1	Streets are swarmed with people
a	CON1	T	The streets are
i	RS1	S1	Swarmed with people
e b	CON1	T	Are swarmed/streets are swarming with people
a	R-IN2	T	Or
i	RS2	S2	People swarm to the
a	IN1	T	To the
i	RS1	S3	To the market
ehf	IN1	T	Yes/repeat/people
i	RS1	S1	People swarmed to the market
b	CON1	T	People swarm to the market
i f	R-RN2	T	So the streets are swarming with people or the streets are teeming with people in Mahdia
h	IN1	T	Repeat Miss Ben Fraj*
i	RS1	S	The streets are teeming with people
c	SAT1	T	Yes
g	PM1	T	Miss Sbaa*
i	RS1	S3	Streets are ti teeming er with er people
e f	R-IN2	T	Streets are teeming er with people/or the streets are crammed with people
h	IN1	T	Repeat
i	RS1	S1	The streets are crammed with people
c c	SAT2	T	So we say streets are crowded with people/they are crammed with people
a	IN1	T	They are
i	RS1	Ss	Teeming
c	SAT1	T	Teeming with people
a a	IN2	T	Now what kind of animal is a pig/everybody knows the pig
i	RS2	Ss	Yes
a	R-RN2	T	What kind of animal is it
i	RS2	S2	It's a greedy animal
e a	R-RN2	T	Greedy animal/is it a clean animal
i	RS2	S3	No it's a dirty animal
eaf	R-RN2	T	It's a dirty animal/or it's very dirty/it's not only dirty
i	RS2	S1	It's a filthy animal
a	IN1	T	It's a
i	RS1	S3	Filthy animal
a	IN1	T	Is it a filthy animal

i	RS1	S2	Extremely filthy
a	IN2	T	And how is air in an industrial town
g	PM2	T	Yes Miss Bubaker*
i	RS2	S3	The air in an industrial town is filthy
ecf	SAT2	T	Is filthy/the air is filthy/very dirty
g	PM2	T	Yes
i	RS2	S1	The air in an industrial town is very spoiled
e a	R-RN2	T	It's very spoiled yes/Or
i	RS2	Ss	It's polluted
c	SAT2	T	Polluted yes
i a	IN2	T	If something is scarce/now especially in Ramadan everybody knows the month of Ramadan
i	RS2	Ss	Yes
i a	R-RN2	T	Especially eggs are scarce meat is scarce milk is also scarce/how are scarce things sold how are they sold
i	RS2	S1	They are sold very expensive
b	CON1	S2	Expensively
a	IN1	T	They are very
i	RS1	Ss	Expensive
c	SAT1	T	Expensive
a	R-RN2	T	How is the price then
i	RS2	S3	The price is very high
a	IN1	T	The price is very
i	RS1	Ss	High
i	R-RN2	T	Or it is exorbitant
i	RS1	S1	Exorbitant
a a	IN1	T	How are things sold when they are scarce how are things sold when they are scarce/they are sold at
i	RS1	Ss	An exorbitant price
h	IN1	T	Miss Bubaker* repeat
i	RS1	S1	When they scarce er things are sold er with a high price
b	CON1	T	At an exorbitant
i	RS1	Ss	Price
c	SAT1	T	Price
a	IN2	T	So what means exorbitant
i	RS2	Ss	Very expensive
e a	R-IN2	T	Very expensive/Or
i	RS2	Ss	Very high
h h	IN3	T	OK take your books on page one hundred and ninety four one hundred and ninety four/Soylent green
a	IN3	S2	Soylent
e p h	RS3	T	Soylent/will see that in the text/That's your job to tell me what is the meaning of Soylent
1 1	IN3	T	OK I read the text/I read the introduction
i	IN2	T	"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

i	RS3	S3	The author talks about the future
c	SAT2	T	The future mhm
a	IN2	T	What do they have have we seen any other writers talking about the future
i	RS2	Ss	Conditioning babies
a	IN2	T	Conditioning
i	RS2	S3	Babies
c	SAT2	T	Babies
a	IN2	T	So what do some writers t t try to imagine
i	RS2	S1	Some some writers t t try to imagine th the conditions er of life er in in in ten years up (student is a stutterer)
b	CON1	T	In ten years time
a	CON2	T	Only ten
i f	RS2	S1	Not only ten/many years on top
a	CON1	T	Many years many years after
i	RS1	Ss	A long time
e c f	SAT2	T	A long time/after a long period of time yes/a hundred years two hundred years one thousand years
a	IN2	T	Right is it usually er realistic what the author is talking about
i	RS2	S1	Unrealistic
a	R-IN2	T	Or is it
i	RS2	S3	Fictive
c	SAT2	T	Fictive yes
g	PM3	T	Yes Ben*
a j	CTR3	S2	Perhaps it is unrealistic/but er usually it tries er to er criticize many facts er in our own world
c	SAT3	T	Yes that's right
g	PM3	T	Mhmm
j j	RS3	S3	Science fiction is built er on the reality/and a ri and it may be er it might be er real in the future
e g	PM3	T	Ehein yes
j	RS3	S1	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
e g	PM3	T	Ehm/yes
j	RS3	S2	Most of the time er the scientific er tex text deal about about er something er which is er true
c	SAT3	T	Yes it deals with something true yes
h f	IN3	T	Now concentrate on the first paragraph/just have a look at the first paragraph (Silent reading)
a f	IN3	T	Tell me how you find er New York City/is it the same as er you hear about it today or is it different (Silence)
e a	R-RN3	T	Mhmm so what do you think of New York City in the year two thousand twenty two
a	IN2	T	What do factories let out
g	PM2	T	Yes Miss Bubaker*
i	RS2	S3	Factories let out fumes
a	R-IN2	T	Fumes and a
i	RS2	S3	And er and dust
a	R-IN2	T	Dust and a
i	RS2	S1	Smoke
a f f i	IN3	T	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
a	IN2	T	What does soot do to the houses
i	RS2	Ss	Black
b	CON1	Ss	Blacks

b	CON1	Ss	Blackens
e a	IN2	T	Smoke it blackens/to blacken or to
i	RS2	Ss	Darken
e a	IN2	T	Smoke it blackens/to blacken er to a
i	RS2	S3	Darken
a	IN2	T	What mean to blacken
i	RS2	Ss	To make something er
a	IN2	T	To make something
i	RS2	Ss	Black
c	SAT2	T	Black
a	IN2	T	And how are the streets in New York how are the streets in New York
g	PM2	T	Miss Fantar*
i	RS2	S3	The streets are teeming with people and er they are filthy
a	IN2	T	Who are filthy
i	RS2	S3	The streets
a	CTR2	T	The streets
i	RS2	Ss	People
c	SAT2	T	People are filthy
i	IN2	S1	People they they are
i	IN2	S2	Sick and hungry
a	IN2	T	Sick and a
i	RS2	Ss	Hungry
a	IN3	S3	And why er he said th they are sick and hungry
a	IN3	T	Why are they sick and hungry
j	RS3	S1	Probably er the air er is polluted
j	RS3	S2	Because they are er because they are living in a polluted area
d l	CTR3	T	No we will see that
a	R-RN3	T	Yes why did Anybody catch the meaning why they are hungry and sick
i	RS3	S3	There is overpopulation
e c	SAT3	T	There is overpopulation yes/the world is overpopulated in two thousand
i	RS3	S1	There is er two castes a rich caste and a p poor caste/so the (the same student who is a stutterer)
i	IN3	T	Class
i	RS3	S1	Class yes
c	SAT3	T	Mhmm
i	RS3	S1	The rich class enjow enjowed ([in ʒ oʍ]) itself but the poor class is leading a wretch life
c	SAT3	T	Yes
a	IN2	T	Now how do rich people and how do poor people live (Silence)
h f f	R-RN2	T	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
i	RS2	Ss	Opulently
c f	SAT2	T	Opulently yes/they live opulently or they live luxuriously
a	R-RN2	T	And how poor people live
i	RS2	S3	In wretched condition
c	SAT2	T	In wretched condition yes
a	IN2	T	In a
i	RS2	S3	Appalling
c	SAT2	T	Appalling condition yes
g	PM3	T	mhm
i	RS2	S2	They live in horrifying

c	SAT2	T	Horrifying condition yes
i	RS2	S3	Terrible
a	IN2	T	In a
i	RS2	S3	Terrible
c f	SAT2	T	Terrible condition yes/so we have a whole set of words that mean the same thing
a	IN2	T	How are the car parks how are the car parks
i	RS2	Ss	They are derelict
c	SAT2	T	Derelict car parks
a	IN2	T	What is the meaning can you guess the meaning of this word derelict parks
i	RS2	S1	They are falling in ruins
a	IN2	T	They are
i	RS2	S3	Falling in ruins
c	SAT2	T	Falling in ruins
a f	IN2	T	What kind of houses fall in ruins/where can you find derelict houses
i	RS2	S2	After
a	IN2	T	After what
i	RS2	S2	After ...(inaudible)
c	SAT2	T	After a seism perhaps
i	RS2	S3	After a war
c	SAT2	T	A war after a war
i	RS2	S1	After an earthquake
a	R-RN2	T	You know/without any natural phenomena like this (Silence)
a	R-RN2	T	Where do you find derelict houses in New York in London in Paris
i	CON2	Ss	In the ghettos
a	IN2	T	Near the
i	RS2	Ss	Near the ghettos
c	SAT2	T	The ghettos
a	IN2	T	Any place in Tunisia where there are derelict houses
i	RS2	Ss	Yes there are
a	R-IN2	T	Where
i	RS2	S2	In Mellassi:ne
c f	SAT2	T	In Mellassine mhm/a slum area/so there are derelict
f			houses falling in er ruins
a f	IN2	T	Where do you throw things that you don't need any more/where do you throw things that you don't need any longer (Silence)
a h	R-RN2	T	Which word/second paragraph er in the second paragraph
i	RS2	S2	To piles
a a	R-RN2	T	Which word mean which place/where do we throw things that we don't need (Silence)
a	R-RN2	T	In a
i	RS2	Ss	Junkyards
c	SAT2	T	In junkyards mhm
a a	IN2	T	Can you buy things in a junk yard can you buy things in a junkyard/Mr Shleifa can you buy things in a junkyard
i	RS2	S3	No
a	IN1	T	We can't
i	RS1	S3	We can't buy er things from junkyard
b	CON1	T	In a junkyard
i	RS1	S3	In a junkyard
a	IN2	T	So what do we find in a junkyard
i	RS2	S1	Old things

c	SAT2	T	Old things
i	RS2	S2	Rubbish
c	SAT2	T	Rubbish
i	RS2	S3	Garbage
c f	SAT2	T	Garbage yes/so discarded things discarded things that we don't need any more
a	IN2	T	Now when a city is overpopulated where do people live (Silence)
a	R-RN2	T	Everybody has a house of his own
i	CON2	Ss	No
a	R-IN2	T	Where do they live
i	RS2	Ss	Tenements
a	IN2	T	In a
i	RS2	Ss	Tenements
c	SAT2	T	Tenement yes
a	IN2	T	So what is a tenement what is a tenement then
i	RS2	Ss	They are sets of rooms
a	IN2	T	They are many
i	RS2	Ss	Sets of rooms
a	CON2	T	Rooms (are they really rooms)
i	RS2	Ss	Crowded crowded
a a	CON2	T	One family lives in all these rooms/
d i	CON2	S1	No
		T	Or one family lives in one room
		S1	Each family lives in one room
c	SAT2	T	In one room
a	IN2	T	So they are usually
i	RS2	Ss	Crowded
i	RS2	Ss	Crammed
e a	IN2	T	Crammed with er people living together/as immigrants in
i	RS2	S2	France
c f	SAT2	T	France/industrial town industrial area mhm
h	IN2	T	Give me a synonym of a crowd
g	PM2	T	Yes
j	IN3	S3	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
e p	CTR3	T	Exact/yes we will see about that/that's er the first
i f			impression/OK we will see if he is pessimistic or optimistic
a	IN2	T	Anyway what is the synonym of a crowd in the third paragraph
i	RS2	S1	Throng ([ˈrɔŋg])
c	SAT2	T	Throng ([θrɔŋɑ]) yes
a	IN2	T	What do dockers do when ships get into the harbour what do dockers do when ships get into the harbour
i	RS2	S2	Th er they unload the ships
c	SAT2	T	They unload the ships mhm
a	IN1	T	The opposite is to
i	RS1	Ss	To load
c f	SAT1	T	Load yes/load and load
a	IN1	T	And the noun is
i	RS1	Ss	A load
c	SAT1	T	A load yes
a	IN2	T	What do these people unload what do these people unload
g	PM2	T	Yes
i	RS2	S3	They unload er small red and yellow blocks
c	SAT2	T	Small er sacks of yellow or red er blocks

d i	CTR2	S1	They aren't
g	PM2	T	Ehein
		S1	They aren't they who would unload this er this blocks/they are waiting er for er large trucks that unload this
g	PM2	T	Mhmm
i	RS2	S2	When when the trucks arrived they unload er the sacks of small red and yellow blocks
c	SAT2	T	Blocks
a	IN3	T	Can you guess what are these blocks of red and yellow red and yellow blocks
i	RS2	S1	People wait only for what er what to eat
a	IN2	T	Yes why
i	RS2	S2	Because they are er looking
		S3	For food
c	SAT2	T	For food
i	RS2	S3	They are hungry
c a	IN2	T	Hungry/they are
i	RS1	Ss	[Starvation
i	RS1	Ss	Starving]
a	IN3	T	So are you afraid of year two thousand n twenty two
i	RS3	Ss	Yes
j p	CTR3	T	We never know/we will see er we will see about that
j i	IN3	S3	Sir it's only for Europe or for America/because er the help k cames k cames from other other countries by ship (student who is a stutterer)
g	PM3	T	Yes
j i	CTR3	S1	I don't think that it's only for Europe and er
f			America as he said/because we are relation with this countries/and if they're affected we are the first to are affected
i	IN3	T	By this shortage of food
c	RS3	S1	Mhmm
a f	IN2	T	Where does where do these blocks come from where do these blocks come from/these red and soylent yellow blocks
i	RS3	S3	From other country
a	R-RN2	T	No who makes them
i	RS2	S1	These blocks are coming er from a company
a	IN2	T	Company
i	RS2	Ss	Yes
g	PM2	T	Yes
i	RS2	S2	Which is called Soylent Green
c a	IN2	T	Soylent green company/So this Soylent Green Company provides a
i	RS2	Ss	Food
i	IN2	S3	This company provides food for er [people
a	IN2	T	People]
i	RS2	S3	Who are starving
i	IN2	S1	The food is take takes take from
b	CON1	T	Taken
i	RS1	Ss	Taken from plankton
c f	SAT2	T	Plankton/and synthetics
a	IN2	T	Do many people live on this food this kind of food
i	RS2	Ss	Half the world
a	IN2	T	Half a
i	RS2	Ss	The world
c a	IN2	T	Half the world/is it a big number
i	RS2	Ss	Yes
g	PM2	T	Yes
i	IN3	S2	They show the importance of this company

c		SAT3	T	Mhmm
h	f	IN3	T	Now paragraph four/concentrate on paragraph four (Silence)
a		IN3	T	Tell me if all the people live on these er soylent yellow and red blocks (Silence)
l a f		R-IN3	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
g		PM3	T	Miss Bubaker*
i f		RS3	S3	Society is divided into two kinds of er people/er the 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
a		IN2	T	What is it called this class
i		RS2	S3	It's called a high class
e a		R-IN2	T	High class/Or
i		RS2	Ss	Elite
c f		SAT2	T	Elite yes/we call it the elite as in French elite
g		PM3	T	Yes
i f f		IN3	S1	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
i		RS3	S2	It's a privilege
c a		IN2	T	Yes/real food has become a
i		RS2	Ss	A priviledge
a		IN2	T	A priviledge for who
i		RS2	S3	For the elite
b		CON2	S1	No
b		CON2	T	Yes
i		RS2	S3	Yes for the elite
a		IN2	T	What tells you that Miss Bubaker*
i		RS2	S3	"These are the people who have enough money to afford exorbitant black market prices for real food"
c		SAT2	T	Real food
a		IN2	T	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
i		RS2	S1	A shortage] of er real food
c		SAT2	T	Yes shortage
i		RS2	S2	It will be so exorbitant that we can't afford it
c		SAT2	T	That we can't afford it
i		RS2	S3	It will be sold in er black market
e a		IN2	T	In black market and how is the price in black market
i		RS2	Ss	They are exorbitant
i		RS2	S1	They are so exorbitant that people can't afford to buy
c		SAT2	T	Mhmm
a f		IN3	T	Where do these rich people live/the rich people the top drawer where do they live
i f		RS2	S2	Luxurious ultra modern
g		PM2	T	Yes Miss Miftah*
i		RS2	S2	They live in th in luxurious ultra modern apartments
c		SAT2	T	Yes
a		IN2	T	How are their buildings in which they live how are the buildings in which they live
i		RS2	S2	With security systems like fortress
e a		IN2	T	With security systems/what does that mean
i f i		IN3	S3	They aren't for security/they are afraid er of other people who are er homeless and hungry they're
i		IN3	S1	Snob

g	PM3	T	Yes
i	IN3	S2	They live er in locked
i	IN3	S3	Wards
bed	CON3	T	Locked places/locked wards/it's it's not a hospital
g	PM3	T	Yes
i	IN3	S1	They are sick of er/
a	IN3	S2	[χɔːʃ] ("Fear" in LTAV)
i	RS3	Ss	Fear
a	IN3	T	Who
i	RS3	Ss	The people
i	CON3	T	Rich people
c	SAT3	Ss	Yes rich people
i f	IN3	T	They may be they are afraid of thi er of the lower [class
i	RS3	Ss	Class]/
a	IN3	T	The poor people maybe they'll attack them/
i	RS3	Ss	Yes yes
a	IN3	T	To take the real
i	RS3	Ss	The real food
c	SAT3	T	Yes mhm
h	IN3	T	Now paragraph five the last one (Silence)
a	IN2	T	What do you call a dead man
i	RS2	Ss	A corpse
c	SAT2	T	A corpse yes
a	IN2	T	Where do you put a corpse
i	RS2	Ss	In a grave
e a f	R-RN2	T	In a grave/or in a/in a grave or another word for grave (Silence)
i	IN2	T	In a tomb mhm
h a f i f	IN3	T	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 priviledge" down to "the family"
i	RS3	S1	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
b	CON1	T	This is a bit broken
i	RS1	S1	I think er
h a	IN1	T	Yes mei how to make a constructive sentence/the government gives
i	RS1	Ss	Money
a	IN1	T	Money
i	RS1	S2	For the families who er lost one a member of a member
b	CON1	T	Who lost a member
c	SAT1	S2	Yes
i i	IN3	S1	If if a family wants to if a family wants to have money they they ehein ehein ehein can't kill the man er but they er they they should er (student is a stutterer)
a	RS3	T	Give the corpse
c	SAT3	S1	the corpse
a	IN3	T	To the
i	RS3	S1	To the rule
b	CON1	T	To the government
e i	RS3	S1	To the government/to be er
a	IN3	T	Yes
i	RS3	S1	To be paid
c	SAT3	T	Paid

a f	IN3	T	Why/what do we do with corpse
i	rS3	S1	Because it's the only way to er eat and to survive
c	SAT3	T	To survive
iii	IN3	S2	People each people eat each other/rich er
a	IN3	T	People eat er
i	rS3	Ss	Each other
i i	RS3	S2	Eat the corpse/it's true
i i	IN3	S3	The government eats eats the corpse/and er th the family eats money (laughter)
a	IN3	T	Where did you see this
i	RS2	S3	"Each corpse is worth a price"
i	IN3	S1	Perhaps the corpse er er is er costs a very expensive
b	CON1	T	Co costs much money
i	RS1	S1	Costs much money
i	IN1	T	It is expensive
i	RS3	S1	To do er the er
b	CON1	T	To make
i	RS1	S1	To make er er the experience and er
d	CON3	T	No no
d	CON3	Ss	No no
j h	IN3	T	If you look at line er line sixteen/look at line sixteen seventeen (Silence)
a	IN3	T	Where do the blocks come from
g	PM3	T	Miss Ben Frej*
i	RS3	S2	They are going to sell er corpse to Soylent Green Company
a a	R-RN3	T	W what tells you that/wh where do the blocks come
h			from/in line sixteen and seventeen (Silence)
a	R-RN3	T	Who provides the people with blocks
i	RS3	Ss	Soylent Green
i	RS3	S3	Soylent Green provides food
i	CON3	T	I know
i	RS3	S1	From Plankton and Synthetics
h i	CON3	T	line sixteen and seventeen/you are looking without brains
i	RS3	Ss	"Each corpse is worth it's worth"
d i	CON3	T	We will see/I am talking about sixteen seventeen/now
i			you're dz you are jumping on line twenty nine (Silence)
a f	R-IN3	T	Who makes this/who provides/who is responsible for
f			these blocks
i	RS3	S3	The government
c	SAT3	T	The government
a f	IN3	T	So where do the blocks come from then/can you guess (Silence)
a	R-IN3	T	The government the government buys er/
i i	RS3	S1	The blocks/
g	PM3	T	Mhmm
		S1	And gives er and took money for the k corpses corpses (the student who is a stutterer)
c	SAT3	T	For the corpse
a	R-RN3	T	So can you guess er the mystery of this soylent green
d	CTR3	S2	We haven't the right er to make this monsieur
a	IN3	T	Aha why
j	RS3	S2	It's so horrible to guess I think
a	IN3	T	It's horrible
i	RS3	S2	Yes
a	IN3	T	Aha why is it so horrible
i	RS3	S3	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
l	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 ([ælimanł]) (French [dlimõ]) 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 ([kɔ̃sɛrv]) (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
c a	IN3	T	In ano yes/it is this corpse is er
iil	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
i i	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
e a	CTR3	T	They must know/why do must they know
		S1	[Because they want er
i j	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
j f	CTR3	T	Yes] because there is one mouth less maybe for the government/there is one person less
j	CTR3	S3	Monsieur [msjœ] I don't I don't think er
a	IN3	T	So what do you think

j a		RS3	S3	I think that er if er it is so unhuman/why did people live in a family
i f	f	CTR3	T	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
i		RS3	S1	they were hungry]
a		IN3	T	What
i		RS3	S1	They are hungry they are starving
a		IN3	S2	And the human er
i		IN3	T	If you don't eat you die
i i		CTR3	S2	If we live in a family/we are er human people
i i		CTR3	T	There is no family at all in the year two thousand twenty two/people are dying every day
l		CTR3	S3	He said that there are there are a family
a a		CTR3	T	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
i		RS3	Ss	No
a		IN3	T	Or is it better to sell it
j		IN3	S1	Terrible
j		RS3	T	Yes
i i		IN3	S2	It's but this corpse er k k are are coming from the poor the poor class/and rich class rest er stay er (stutterer)
b		CON1	T	Remain
i		RS1	S2	Remain er
i		IN3	T	Without
i		RS3	S2	Without er any problem (student stutterer)
c		SAT3	T	Mhmm
i a		IN2	T	Now this's how this writer foresaw or predicted the future in a/in which country
i		RS2	Ss	New York the United States
l a		IN3	T	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
j		RS3	S3	It's not like in America
g		PM3	T	Yes
j		RS4	S1	I wil be a president
e d		CON3	T	You'll be the president/no you have to stay in the same theme
j		RS3	S2	I think that it will be the same
a		IN3	T	The same thing
i		RS3	S2	Mhmm
a		IN3	T	Yes yes you have to er
g		PM3	T	Yes
d j	j f	CON3	S3	I didn't I don't think sp/I I hope that er thin 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
f i	f			
a		IN3	T	Equality
c		RS3	S3	Equality each people each person have the same right
h		CON1	T	Has
			S3	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
h a		IN3	T	Jus]just a moment/what is the difference between er
k		PM3	S1	Sir
j		CON3	S1	If that's what we hope but I er don't I am not so optimist/

b	CON1	T	Optimistic
i	RS1	S1	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
c	SAT3	T	Will be worse than today
a f	R-IN2	T	What is the difference [between these two pupils/
		S1	Because]
		T	What are the adjectives that we give them
i	RS2	S3	Optimistic and pessimistic
c	SAT2	T	One is pessimistic and the other is optimistic
afhf	IN3	T	Who is better according to you and why/
		S1	[I think er
		T	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
		S1	I think er
g	PM3	T	Yes Miss Bubaker*
j j	IN3	S1	As we see nowadays er er people are materialistic/
j			and er money is the King in th in the society/but so we can't change morality so er so er fast and er so quickly/and er er people er are becoming more and more materialistic
k	PM3	T	Yes Mr
j j	CON3	S3	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
k	PM3	S2	Monsieur monsieur
g	PM3	T	Mhmm yes
j	IN3	S2	Monsieur it is going to change in er to the worst not to the better
b h	CON1	T	To the worse not to the better/Yes
i	RS1	S2	To the worse not to the better
a	IN3	T	Do you think it is bad now
j	RS3	S2	Yes
j	CON3	Ss	No
j	IN3	T	She is free [in her opinion
j	IN3	S2	Now er na] now er there is many things that er
b	CON1	T	There are
i	RS1	S2	There are er many things er bad and many things er good
j	RS3	T	Like everybody else yes
j	CON3	S2	But good er will become er bad and bad will become worse
j j	CON3	T	Oh so pessimistic/you have blackened all the
f			classroom/
k	PM3	S1	[Monsieur monsieur
		T	It has become polluted]
g	PM3	T	Miss Miftah* yes
l	IN4	T	Let's see something let's hear something sweet
c l	CON3	S1	I know er that the reality is so bad as er she
j d			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
b	CON1	T	Teach them
i	RS1	S2	Teach them how to er change the things to the the good side/
		T	Mhmm

			S1	We mustn't say that things are are bad but we must change them
c	n	SAT3	T	Yes from bad to good/yes thank you
a	g	PM3	T	Anybody else wishes er to er/yes
j	f	IN3	S3	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
j	j			
			T	Yes
			S3	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 consition of this country
c		SAT3	T	Yes
i	i	IN3	T	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
a				
i		RS3	Ss	Vegetables
j		CTR3	T	If there is vegetables
a		IN3	T	They become
				(Silence)
i	f	RS3	T	Vegetarian/they will be eating grass and flowers hein
j		CON3	S1	they will eat fish
c		SAT3	T	They will eat fish
j		CON3	S1	But fish will...
i		IN3	T	Disappear
i		IN3	Ss	Will be extended
b		CON1	T	Will be extinct
g		PM3	T	Yes
j	j	IN3	S1	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 er as far as pollution is er conserned 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 er more dangerous than for pollution in an in nowadays/ All the environment will be affected
f	j			
j	f			
c		SAT3	T	Yes yes
k		PM3	S2	Monsieur monsieur
g		PM3	T	Yes
j	i	CTR3	S2	Personally er Tunisia er remain er in the same condition/as we know now the town er er in er in in in
a		IN3	T	Yes
a		RS3	S2	You know (S2 is a stutterer)
a		IN3	T	Any word any word
a		RS3	S3	Une classe moyenne (French for middle class)
			T	[Ah in er
i		IN3	Ss	Average]
b		CON3	Ss	Middle middle class
i	f	CON3	T	That means it's not so developed and it's not undeveloped/it's middle way er mhm
c	n	SAT3	T	OK/yes thank you
h	a	IN3	T	For those who haven't participated in the lesson
j	h			they have to er participate by writing an essay

j n   for about fif 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]