INVESTIGATING DISCOURSE MARKERS IN ORAL COMMUNICATION AMONG UNIVERSITY LEARNERS OF FRENCH IN KENYA

BY

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DECLARATION

Declaration by Candidate

This thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other university. No part of this thesis may be reproduced without the prior written permission of the author and/or Moi University.

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"In the Teacher sent form God, all true educational work finds its center." - EGW

To Lynn and Simon, who God used to mentor me.

To God Almighty, without whom nothing that I have accomplished could have been.

"In the Teacher sent form God, all true educational work finds its center." - EGW

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If you can't fly, then run
If you can't run, then walk
If you can't walk, then crawl
But by all means, keep moving
-MLK Jr.

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ABSTRACT

Various studies have shown that learners of French as a foreign language in Kenya demonstrate a low level of oral proficiency, even after many years of exposure to the language. Considering discourse markers (DMs) as a hallmark of fluent French speakers, the general objective of the study was to investigate how oral French communication is taught and learnt, with particular reference to DM use among university learners of French in Kenya. The objectives of the study were as follows: first, to analyze emergent DM form, frequency and function and their impact on oral proficiency, secondly, to investigate how oral French is taught at public universities in Kenya. The third objective was to examine how students learn oral French at public universities in Kenya, and finally to assess pedagogical and learning implications of DM use on foreign language   teaching and learning, in relation to spoken discourse. For this we administered different sets of questionnaires to students and teachers respectively. The Rhetorical Structure and Relevance theories jointly offered a framework for analysis and interpretation of emergent DMs, in terms of coherence and relevance of speech, while the theories of teaching and learning were an instrumental guide in possible practices for the domain of foreign language erudition and pedagogy. Results on emergent DM form, frequency and function indicate preference for shorter, less complicated, mostly conjunctive DM forms by the learners, both as phrasal connectors and as cohesive devices. How DMs, if not appropriately used, can lead to dysfluency rather than fluency in oral communication was also observed. Additionally, we noticed the transference of L_1 and/or L_2 phonetic, phonological, morphological and syntactic processes onto French forms employed by the foreign language learner. Further findings reveal the use of pause and pausing patterns in conjunction with various DM forms, and how they impact on smoothness of speech and therefore on oral proficiency. On learning style in relation to teaching methodology, there was preference for a hands-on approach, with the kinesthetic style standing out. This study therefore contributes to an understanding of the role of DMs in oral proficiency, not only as cohesive and coherence devices but also in the realization of how they carry pragmatic meaning that helps the learner to maintain conversation amidst their challenges in speaking French. Being an action research, the study recommends that problems in oral communication among learners of French in Kenya can be controlled through curriculum inclusion of pragmatic competence-oriented approaches, of which discourse markers are a part.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

This study was about the influence of discourse markers on oral communication. Discourse Markers (henceforth DMs) are little items capable of turning the whole communicative exchange into a sensible and comprehensible interaction. Although they have in the past been considered 'empty fillers', today, their linguistic and pragmatic role in communication cannot be ignored; Fraser (1998) thus refers to discourse marker analysis as 'a growth market in linguistics'. They include French expressions like *euh (oh), tu sais (you know), par ce que (because), c'est-à-dire (I mean), bon (well), ouais (yeah), mais (but)* and *alors (so).* Among the roles that DMs play is the creation of discourse coherence by establishing coherence relationships among units of talk. The role of DMs in oral communication is, therefore, at the core of this research.

The geographical context for this study was Kenya, an East African country of about 47.5 million people as per the 2019 national census report (KNBS, 2019). Kenya occupies an area of 581,367 km^2, and lies on the equator while bordering the Indian Ocean to the South-East. Being a former British colony until 1963, English has been the country's sole official language since independence. However, in 2010, Kiswahili was accorded the status of official language alongside English. Kiswahili is also the national language of the Republic of Kenya. The state law also promotes and protects the diversity, development and use of the country's 43 indigenous languages. The constitution holds that the national language of the Republic shall be Kiswahili, that the official languages of the republic are English and Kiswahili, and that the State shall promote and protect the diversity of language of the people of Kenya (Constitution of

Kenya, 2010, Article 7). From this, we realize that the constitution is silent on the place of foreign languages in the country, although these have a recognized position within the schooling system.

Other than these, a growing foreign language learning trend has emerged as well in Kenya, with reports revealing that foreign language programmes are becoming more diversified as Kenyans seek competitive advantage in getting employment both within and without the country. With globalization, languages like Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Arabic, Spanish and French are increasingly gaining foot in Kenya. Of these, the French language has gained a stronger ground due to its deep entrenchment and status as an official language in neighboring African countries (Nganga, 2010). These include countries such as Burundi, Rwanda and the Democratic Republic of Congo.

Most people in Kenya therefore speak more than one language, and French only appears on the linguistic terrain of the country as a foreign language. French is taught as an examinable subject in secondary schools, where it is optional. It is also studied at University level. In Kenya, French language policy in education came into the limelight in 1967, occasioned by the need for local French language speakers in various sectors of the economy, including the Ministry of tourism and the Ministry of foreign affairs as well as the hospitality industry among others. Today, the country's need for local proficient speakers of French still holds, but what remains an issue of debate is whether or not the education system has been able to effectively produce communicatively competent French experts who can match the country's demand in various markets of the Kenyan economy. We now proceed to introduce the background to the study in the following section. This background entails a discussion of the general situation of the French language in Kenya as well as factors that both enhance and impede its development.

1.1 Background to the Study

French has been taught officially as a Foreign Language in Kenya since 1967. However, before then, by 1964 one year after independence, the French presence had begun to set foot in a few private Church-governed secondary schools, whose congregations were mainly from French speaking countries. In the 1970's, under a special programme initiated by the French government, French teachers came in from neighboring Francophone countries such as Rwanda and Burundi. By the 1980's however, the Ministry of Education spread out a planned programme on popularization and teaching of foreign languages. As a result, the number of schools teaching French in the country soared from the tens in 1960s to fifties in the 1980s; the number has continued to steadily increase over the years, and French programmes are now offered in Kenya at undergraduate and postgraduate levels. The planned programme also included training of teachers of French. Consequently, expatriate French teachers were progressively replaced by local ones (Oyugi, 2013). This, though a positive move, has been accompanied by a few hurdles relating to student quality and teacher effectiveness.

Various studies have pointed out some of the challenges at different levels of teaching and learning French in the country. These include availability and access to teaching material as well as effectiveness of teaching methodology, all of which have implications on the quality of students produced available literature reveals that ways of dealing with these challenges have not been sufficiently addressed (Chokah, 2013; Oyugi, 2013; Gumba, 2010). We hope that the research carried out in study will ultimately lead to discussing policy implications that may look into ways of how these challenges could be dealt with.

1.1.1 French Language in Kenya

In this section, we examine French language teaching in primary, high schools, college /university levels and privately-run accredited organizations that offer certificate courses in French. Language-in-education policy programmes play a vital role in ensuring the spread of a given language, in regard to prevailing socio-economic situations calling for social change, not only within the school environment but also within career sectors and particular interactive domains. The official commencement of French teaching in the education arena of the country was informed by need, both at the social and economic levels. These include career prospects at the economic level such as diplomatic interaction needs, trade opportunities and foreign exchange earning among others. On the social front, factors precipitating the learning of French in Kenya are, but not limited to need for friendship ties, travel, interaction and association.

It is noted that currently French companies are the largest foreign investors in Kenya. More than seventy French companies have commercial presence in Kenya, a 75% increase from about 33 companies in 2013" (PSCU Report, April 5, 2016). This, points to a strong French presence in Kenya, with potential opportunities for socio-economic progress through many avenues. French teaching and learning are therefore ultimately destined to address the said needs effectively.

In 2019, the Ministry of Education rolled out a novel education system based on a new paradigm shift towards a competency-based curriculum. Among the seven core competencies identified for the primary school Basic Education Curriculum Framework (BECF) in Kenya was communication and collaboration. With this move, the introduction of foreign languages including French, German, Chinese and Arabic was set to begin from primary school level. This opens up a larger catchment area of prospective learners of French.

Before this new move, French had not been an examinable course of study in Kenyan primary schools. However, for secondary school, the Ministry of Education has always categorized French together with German and Arabic as optional, examinable foreign language subjects and, of these, French has been observed to attract the highest number of students (Oyugi, 2013). With averagely 400 secondary schools teaching it as of 2006, the number has risen to almost 600 secondary schools (Ooko, 2006, Alliance Française - Bureau Linguistique, 2016). The population of secondary school initial enrollment of French Foreign Language (FFL) learners currently stands at about 30,000 pupils countrywide. (*Ufaransa Leo*, March 2013). However, a large number of these students drop French and only about 9% of the initial population end up sitting the Kenya Certificate of Secondary School Examination. It has also been observed that students' performance is generally poor in French, with 60% of overall candidates failing to get the required aggregate grade of C+ to access university education (Alliance Française, 2006).

The main text manual for French teaching in Kenya is *Parlons Français*, which can be described as 'A French book by Kenyans for Kenyans'; it approaches French teaching majorly through the Kenyan contextual perspective. Its pragmatic efficiency has thus been questioned, coupled with the fact that it is not frequently revised to cater for the dynamic socio-economic activities and proposals of the twenty first century. Thus questions have been raised as to the effectiveness of the French teaching manuals such as *Parlons Français* and *Entre Copains*, as stipulated by the curriculum, and as to whether they meet the communicative demands of the students (Gumba, 2010). After four years of learning French in secondary school, in readiness for university education, the students are observed to still stagnate greatly, especially in oral communicative ability (Oduke, 2006).

At university and college level, the total number of Kenyan Universities and their constituent colleges offering French courses stands at eighteen as per the *Directory of French Teaching in Kenya* (2015). These include both public universities (and their colleges), private universities and autonomous colleges, where French is offered either as a service course or as degree programme. However, considering only autonomous universities offering French, the number stands at twelve. The table below adapted and updated from Oyugi (2013) illustrates the nature of French programmes offered by various universities in Kenya.

Table 1a: Universities Offering French Programs

University	Status	French Programs Offered
Catholic University of Eastern Africa	Private	Beginners level: optional
Daystar University	Private	B.A., B.Ed., Beginners level
Egerton University	Public	Beginners level: optional
Kenyatta University	Public	B.A., B.Ed., M.A., FFL, Linguistics, Certificate
Maseno University	Public	B.Ed., M.Ed. PhD, Certificate, Diploma, French for Tourism
Masinde Muliro Uni. of Sc. & Tech	Public	B.Ed., Beginners level: optional
Moi University	Public	B.A, M.A., French for Tourism Beginners: mandatory
Strathmore University	Private	Beginners French & Elementary
United States International University	Private	Short French courses
Egerton University	Public	Diploma
Machakos University College	Public	Certificate
University of Eastern Africa Baraton	Private	Minor, Beginners: optional
Laikipia University College	Public	Certificate, Diploma
University of Nairobi	Public	B.A., B.Ed., Certificate
Pwani University	Public	B.Ed.

In some Universities, such as Moi, apart from the Bachelors students, those taking a degree in Tourism are expected to take a number of French courses. In the University

of Eastern Africa, Baraton, either French, English or Kiswahili must be taken as a General Language Requirement course by all students. French is also a service course for those taking BBA in Management with secretarial option. The status of French in Kenyan Universities ranges between French as a degree course (Bachelor of Arts, Bachelor of Education, Masters of Arts, Masters of Education, Doctor of Philosophy), and French as an optional or mandatory course for language requirement: beginners/elementary levels (Oyugi, 2013).

'Who then absorbs these French graduates? This is a question each learner would like to have an answer to, since it exposes one to the prospects available to them. French graduates can be absorbed into various fields, both within the public and private sectors. The largest employment sector is the teaching domains. Other sectors of employment for French graduates are secretarial, aviation, journalism, humanitarian NGOs, education, translation, interpretation, diplomacy, hotel and hospitality industry, tourism and consultancy. A personal inquiry we made with the Alliance Française, the French Embassy and the UN language section revealed that most sectors of the economy demanding French expertise in specific areas prefer to employ university graduates. These include translation, interpretation, teaching, diplomacy and journalism among others. The ability of Kenyan French graduates to effectively meet this demand is of great essence. Theoretical knowledge of French as well as oral proficiency must therefore interplay in order for this need to be met, and the employment sectors demand proficiency in French, of which good oral communication skills are a reflection of the theoretical grammatical knowledge gained. This has been found wanting. Despite the teaching and learning of French, and the available employment opportunities, these prospective employing organizations have issues with the oral communicative abilities of these learners, which they find to be below expected standards (Okiriing, H. 2017

July 26. Alliance Française Nairobi. Personal interview). Moreover, The United Nations organizes competitive examinations to recruit language professionals (editors, interpreters, translators, verbatim reporters and copy preparers/proofreaders/production editors) to fill posts in its language services. These are referred to as *language competitive examinations*. Concerning French, a follow–up on this with the UN's Language Department indicates that for these posts, there is preference for native speakers as they score better (UN Language Department, Nairobi. 2017 August 8 [Personal interview]; UN website (2017; 2020).

1.1.1.1 French in the Private Sector

It is important to note that apart from secondary schools, universities and colleges, French is also taught in a number of private primary schools, though not as an examinable subject at the national examinations level. There are also Language Resource Centres in major towns of the country, where learners can obtain knowledge of the French language, and which award certificates. These include The Language School in Kenya, Bonjour Institute, Prestige Global Language, Language Connections College and Kenya Institute of Foreign Languages among others. Also, important to note is the presence of The French School of Kenya - Dennis Diderot, in Nairobi. This school offers an all-French curriculum, from elementary to high school, to mostly children of French and Francophone expatriates, but it also offers open access to any other pupil, Kenyan or otherwise.

1.1.1.2 Alliance Française: French Government Support to French Learning in Kenya

The French government, through the Alliance Française network in association with Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development (KICD) and the Kenya association of teachers of French (KATF), offers much support in promoting the French language in

Kenya. The support includes incentives such as French books, promotional material and gifts awarded for example during Kenya National and Music Festivals where French entries are involved. Other than that, there is also an opportunity for learners to visit France via an annual national writing contest dubbed 'Let's go to France'.

 Another milestone, is the launch of the French radio station, Radio France International (RFI) in December 2009, with frequencies in Nairobi and its environs. This is the second FFL radio station in an English-speaking country, after Ghana. The Kenyan Armed Forces have not been left out either; with the help of the French Military Mission in Nairobi, FFL has been taught since 2002 to some members of the armed forces due to involvement of Kenya in UN peace keeping operations within the French speaking countries in Africa.

In the same vein, the Permanent Committee for the Francophonie organizes events which aim at promoting 'Frenchness'. Among these are annual functions such as the Francophonie day, an francophone luncheon as well the Francophonie Ball, all of which bring native and non-native French speakers together in a spectacular display of solidarity and culture. On average about 500 FFL students and 50 teachers participate annually, with representatives of 15 to 20 French speaking countries.

Besides, the Alliance Française network has been fundamental in offering international French language courses and exams (DELF and DALF) and awarding certificates to FFL learners. It is reported that the number of high school students sitting for these exams rose significantly between 2006 and 2009 by close to 80%. i.e., from 56 students to about 400; this increase could be attributed to the opening up of two exam centres outside Nairobi – one in Moi Forces Academy Lanet, and the other in Bunyore Girls School. There are currently four centres of Alliance Françaises; in Nairobi, Mombasa, Eldoret and Kisumu respectively.

Essentially, the Alliance Française has been a choice of preference for many who would like to start learning French or to improve their French knowledge, due to their unique language immersion methodology, which falls beyond the focus of this study. It is, however, interesting to note that both secondary school and university French students often join the Alliance Française, even after completion of their studies in order to 'improve' on their French. Alliance Française observes that students who have learnt French at Kenyan schools, universities and other institutions of learning often still have a problem with oral communication skills. Consequently, in posts needing competence in French, prospective employees of the Alliance Française, who have learnt French locally are required to undergo a language immersion programme dubbed, 'la perspective actionnelle'. This is a programme that is destined to give an action approach to language through intense oral communication activities (Okiriing, H. 2017 July 26). Alliance Française Nairobi. [Personal Interview]. The programme is also destined for training of all French language instructors of the Alliance Française, on how to improve oral communication teaching by embracing *la perspective actionnelle*.

> 'La perspective privilégié …est très généralement aussi, de type actionnel en ce qu'elle considère avant tout l'usager et l'apprenant d'une langue comme des **acteurs sociaux** ayant besoin à accomplir **des taches** (qui ne sont pas seulement langagières) dans des circonstances et un environnement donné, à l'intérieur d'un **domaine d'action** particulier' (Alliance Française CECRL, La perspective actionnelle, 2001).

> 'The privileged perspective... is, in a general sense, an action-oriented one in that it considers the language users and learners as **social actors** who need to perform certain **tasks** (which are not just language specific) in specific circumstances and contexts, existing within a particular **field of action**' (author's translation).

The programme focuses on the actualization of language into real life situations in a bid to maximize oral communicative competence of the French learner, thereby justifying the need to improve learners' oral communicative competence.

This study analyzed the role discourse markers play in enhancing oral communicative skills of learners of French. We now introduce what DMs are and discuss the role they play in enhancing oral communicative skills.

1.1.2 Discourse Markers

Discourse Markers (DMs) are a very common feature of spoken French, and are used more by native speakers of the language. DMs aid in enhancing coherence in discourse; they are cohesive devices as they reflect underlying connections between propositions, and their skilful use often indicates a higher level of oral communication (Alliance Française CECRL, La perspective actionnelle, 2001). DMs are considered a hallmark of fluent French speakers; good knowledge of French grammar has been consequently linked to higher frequency of DM use (Pellet, 2005). It is also however noted that 'inappropriate use of DMs may have a more unfortunate consequence for communication success than elementary grammar errors (Svavtivic, 1979). This seems to imply that a factor such as DM overuse ought to be kept in check.

The notion of DMs has however been said to be problematic in several ways, especially because they do not fall in a single homogenous group of the speech category classification. Hence, they appear as interjections, conjunctions, adverbs or phrasals. They have in the past been referred to as empty fillers, with no propositional meaning. Today, DMs have been found to carry pragmatic meaning, and in effect influence the interpretation of discourse. DM phrasal verb examples are *tu sais* (you know), *tu vois* (you see) and *par conséquent* (consequently). Adverbial discourse markers include bon (well), *d'accord* (okay), *voilà* (right, there), *d'abord* (firstly) and *ensuite* (next). Conjunctive DMs include words such as *et* (and), *mais* (but), *donc* (so) and *puisque* (since, as).

In the literature, different authors have accorded them various names as follows:

> " 'discourse markers' (Schiffrin 1987), 'discourse particles' (Fischer 2006, Aijmer 2007), 'discourse connectives' (Fraser 1988; Bazzanella 1990; Lamiroy 1994; Unger 1996; Degand 2000), 'pragmatic expressions' (Erman 1987), 'pragmatic markers' (Watts 1988; Redeker 1990; Caron-Prague & Caron 1991; Brinton 1996; Andersen 1998; Erman 2001), 'pragmatic particles' (Beeching 2002), 'ponctuants' (Vincent & Sankoff 1992), 'connecteurs' (Rossari 2000), 'marqueurs discursifs' (Dostie 2007), 'marqueurs énonciatifs ' (Flament-Boistrancourt 2009) and, more prescriptively, 'parasites', 'tics' and 'fillers'. These terms are well-known to be polysemous and to serve interactional, modal and connective functions (Pons-Bordería 2006)". Cited in (Beeching, 2011).

Other terms include discourse particles (Shourrup, 1985), pragmatic markers (Fraser, 1996), discourse connectives (Blakemore, 1987) and cue phrases (Knott & Dale, 1994), cited in Yang, (2014). The term "discourse marker" has been adopted for this study, because it is the most common and accepted term among researchers (Jucker and Ziv, 1998; Muller, 2005; Yang, 2014), as it highlights on the aspect of function, which in turn accords DMs a wide array of applications (Fung, 2003; Jucker and Ziv, 1998; Schourup, 1999). This choice notwithstanding, the functional term DM is not without critics, as it still raises the problem of distinguishing between discourse meaning and pragmatic meaning (Yang, 2014; Romero-Trillio, 2002). Despite the diverse perspectives on DM terminology, we have selected the term due to its function-oriented nature.

Operationally, Discourse Markers are 'syntactically dependent elements which bracket units of talk.' They show the connection between what is being said and the wider context. They include French expressions such as *bon* (well), alors (so, therefore), *c'est-a-dire* (in other words), *d'ailleurs* (moreover), *en fait* (in fact), *par contre* (contrarily), *mais* (but), *et* (and), *sinon* (otherwise) and *voilà* (right) among others. Characteristics of DMs can be summarized as follows: Syntactically, a DM can be integrated in the sentence, but it can also be omitted without affecting the grammaticality of the sentence.

Semantically, a DM does not affect the truth conditionality of the proposition in which it appears, and phonologically, DMs have distinct prosodic features regarding tonal variation in relation to the hosting proposition (Schifrin, 1987).

Functionally, DMs are fundamental in establishing connectivity in discourse. A felicitous discourse has to meet the very important criterion of being coherent. As such, the primary function of DMs is to contribute to discourse coherence. Cohesion depends on a process of semantic inferencing that departs from words and reaches text and discourse levels (Blakemore, 2006; Schiffrin, 1987). As such, DMs function both as coherence and cohesive devices given that they may carry pragmatic meaning.

Being devices that aid in conversational coherence, this study considered the use of DMs in relation to oral communication among university level learners of French in Kenya. DM frequency of use was analyzed and the emergent ones studied in view of their form, function and frequency. The frequency rate was then used to determine the extent to which DMs were used, and the implications of their usage on oral proficiency of French learners.

1.1.3 Issues Arising from French Teaching and Learning in Kenya

About fifty years have passed since the introduction of French language education in Kenya and although there have been success stories, there have also been challenges that require intervention, some of which this study sought to address. These challenges include those in the domains of: Declining performance and low student enrollment, oral proficiency, French teacher training and teaching methodology, employability and effectiveness of French graduates, difficulty in learning both written and spoken French.

a) Declining performance and low student enrollment

The teaching and learning of French as a foreign language in Kenya has been faced with a number of challenges, such as declining performance as well as low student enrollment at the Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education (KCSE) national examinations (Chokah, 2013). This implies that the number of students admitted to study French at the university is consequently affected negatively. Reports indicate that the figures progressively dwindle downwards in between first year and fourth year of university education (Choka, 2013; Omusonga *et al*, 2006). The challenge of declining performance has further implications on the quality of the graduates produced, as well as on their ability to compete effectively in the job market. On the other hand, low student enrollment at the at the KCSE French national examinations means that the number of prospective students of French at university level is further narrowed; and yet it is at university level where the validity and viability of French in education policy would be ultimately measured, as graduates are released into the job market.

b) Oral Proficiency

A well mastered language is marked by the speech produced by the speaker. Chomsky (1960, 1965) describes the notions of competence - the capacity to use language, and performance – the actual use of language in speech and/or, arguably, in writing as well. Linguistic performance is generally regarded as the yardstick of linguistic competence. Cognitive linguists have argued that knowledge of language is derived from patterns of language use, and that knowing a language means knowing how to use the language (Evans & Green, 2006). In line with this thought, the current study considers linguistic performance in terms of oral communication in French as a foreign language, to be a mirror of the learner's theoretical knowledge of the language. The extent to which this is true among our study population was verified as teaching methods and learning styles

were evaluated in relation to each other in relation to DM use in oral communication, as related to proficiency. As such, the study analyzed the impact of theoretical knowledge on oral speech production.

Studies indicate that communicative competence is a necessary component of foreign language learning, of which oral proficiency is a part. This study linked oral proficiency with what Canale and Swain (1980) refer to as discourse competence. They postulate discourse competence as being one of the four components of communicative competence. The latter as a notion was first introduced by Hymes (1972), and later expounded on by various scholars including Canale and Swain (1980), Canale (1983), Bachman and Palmer (1996) and Okvir (2005). Communicative competence encompasses four components, namely linguistic competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence (Canale, 1983). In this study, discourse competence (oral proficiency) was viewed as based on what the learner actually knows within the other competency levels: linguistic, sociolinguistic and strategic.

It has been observed that many who have studied French at both secondary school and university still struggle to express themselves orally in French (Oduke, 2006; 2013). The challenge of oral proficiency has been noted at various levels of learning and interaction, involving in and out of classroom settings. Problems bordering on spontaneity of expression, conversation maintenance, choice or lack of appropriate expression, as well as translations and code mixing have been observed. Students have also been observed to stick to obsolete linguistic forms, in place of new emergent ones, given the dynamic nature of language in relation to society (*ibid*). Most of the challenges so far discussed relate to situations requiring the learner to employ certain communicative strategies in order to ensure that discourse is maintained. Discourse

markers in spoken French act thus as conversational strategic devices. How and to what extent they help in ensuring and/or maintaining oral proficiency among learners was therefore core to this study.

c) French Teacher Training and Teaching Methodology

Both the quality of French teachers produced as well as the teaching material, methodology and practices as set by the Ministry of Education have been objects of study (Gicheri, 1983; Gumba, 2013; Chokah, 2013). At the wake of French teaching and learning in Kenya, expatriate native francophone teachers were used during the early formative years (the sixties and seventies) of French teaching as a foreign language in Kenya. The 1980s saw native French teachers replaced by locally trained teachers, who would have a period of internship in France before completion of their studies. This was to ensure that the future French teacher was well grounded in the language as well as the French culture in order for adequate all-round mastering of the language/ communicative competence to occur. Today, native francophone teachers have almost entirely been replaced by Kenyan teachers, and the overseas internships to France no longer exist (Oyugi, 2013). These could have dire consequences on French teacher training, given that communicative competence demands sociolinguistic knowledge. This kind of competence involves participatory hands-on experiential knowledge on how language is used within its natural native context. In the Kenyan situation, as in any other case of foreign language learning environment, native-like or near native-like ability is a measure of communicative competence. The overseas internships as part of teacher training were therefore essential. Thus, adequate and comprehensive training ensured competent teachers and in turn, well-grounded students. French teacher training in the country must therefore strive to ensure synchrony between teacher training and quality teaching despite prevailing challenges.

Currently, native online programmes are fronted as part of teacher training, but this too has its challenges in that learner participation is limited, and the virtual space is often just a simulation of the ideal.

Moreover, French teaching methodology and practices in the country have also been studied (Oduke, 2006; Chokah, 2013). Whereas the French curriculum contains a way forward on enhancing oral communication, it seems that the proposed methods, which include role plays, debates, discussions, and read aloud exercises, are not fully meeting the expectation; otherwise, the problem of oral communication, which this study focused on, would not be an issue. Challenges on teaching methodology include lack of innovation in classroom practices, methods glued to traditional approach instead of the modern action-based approach which stresses on the communicative approach, as well as problems with technical knowhow on use of current technology in foreign language teaching (Chokah, 2013).

Locally, the Kenyan Secondary School French curriculum equally maintains that in order to attain the objectives of teaching and learning French, a communicative approach to teaching/ learning is recommended. In recent years, the government of Kenya has signed a partnership agreement with the govrnmrnt of France for promotion of skills and talent, where learnesrs of French stay in France for sevent months as teaching assistants. This is a welcome move that enhances the language of the learners and consequently prespres then to fit better into a wide array of caeers.

d) Employability and Effectiveness of French graduates

The French language, though foreign, has a place in the Kenyan education system and in the country's socio-economic fabric as well. French is one of the languages of choice among other foreign language options in the schooling system. Kenya also hosts a number of French multinational firms and companies, and these boost the position of

French language in the country by acting as employment channels. They include firms in sectors such as energy (Total gas), electrical and electronics (Schneider Electronics), automobile (Michelin tyres, Peugeot, Renault), Transport and logistics (AGS, Frasers), cement (Lafarge), mobile telecommunication (Alcatel, Sagem) as well as the pharmaceutical sector. Numerous employment avenues are thus potentially available locally to French graduates. However, the relevance of French teaching in Kenyan universities is experiences various challenges that have had an impact on overall quality of the French teaching and learning process (Nginye, 2007).

There are currently more than seventy French companies operating in Kenya, and these are said to employ about ten thousand Kenyans, though knowledge of French in most of these is not essential as the companies are largely franchised. Of these, a proportion of employees requires communicative French ability in order to function affectively within the given career sector. Given the availability of numerous employment opportunities in various sectors, French attracts a number of learners.

Interviews with the Alliance Française and the UN reveal that recruitment into critical posts within international employing organizations that require knowledge of French language is curtailed by a lack of communicative competence among prospective employees. Due to this, it is the work place that is then expected to play the double role of stabilizing and giving value to the learner's French knowledge as they learn to put French into action in the work place. Prospective employers here include the United Nations and its arms including UNEP, UNHCR and UNICEF all of which have offices in Kenya, among others (Oyugi, 2013:117). With these in view, the job market seeking out for local French graduates is facing challenges in getting the quality of people they need, and more often than not, the employers' expectations fail to be met. As a result, some employers are now seeking out for native French speakers while others opt to re-

train the selected employees, in order for them to fit productively into the various domains of service.

Difficulty in learning French is also seen as a challenge by students. This is explained by the high turnover of secondary school students, who are initially attracted to the language but whose numbers steadily decrease with every school year. The low numbers, one can argue, could be a result of learning difficulties. Assertions have also been made pertaining to difficulty in mastering the language by students dropping French along the way during their years of study. The Kenyan Secondary School French curriculum also maintains that in order to attain the objectives of teaching and learning French, a communicative approach to teaching/ learning is recommended. This is important in the present study which argues for the communicative approach, in seeking how it can be enhanced among learners of French. It maintains that learners learn a language by using it to communicate. For the purpose of promoting communicative competence, classroom activities ought to be learner-centred and targeting authentic and meaningful communication by acknowledging the primacy of proficiency in communication; noting that communication involves integration of different language skills and asserting role of the teacher in facilitating the communication process (Arnaud & Savignon, 1997; 2005).

The Kenyan situation, as discussed, reveals high turnovers in French drop-outs and declining French standards despite the fact that French in Kenya's language-in-education policy is accorded a prestigious position as the country's first foreign language. This is also against the backdrop of a strong presence of French in Kenya as well as the possibility of a rewarding career after school. This is explained partly by the view among students that French is very difficult). (Omusonga et al, 2009). Initial numbers of students interested in French at secondary school level are usually high, but

the numbers of those remaining to stay put steadily reduces over the four-year study period. The same scenario is witnessed at university level. Nonetheless, those who decide to carry on do so knowing that it can be a worthy and rewarding path despite some challenges (Levy, 1995).

> 'La vue des apprenants est qu'apprendre une langue étrangère implique 'autre chose' que l'acquisition de compétence de communication. Alors, pour ces étudiants l'acquisition du français représente un investissement réel dans l'espace et le temps'. (Levy, 1992: 275-286).

> 'The learners' view is that learning a foreign language involves 'something much more' than acquiring communication skills. So for these students the acquisition of French represents a real investment in space and time (ibid).

In 2006, the Nairobi Alliance Française released a report on the status of French in Kenya, indicating that French has become more difficult to potential candidates due to modifications in KCSE; they also claimed that the modifications did not evaluate the ability of communicating in a foreign language, which is supposed to be the target of learning French (Ufaransa Leo, 2006). The said modifications involved annulling role plays as an oral exam tool and replacing them with readings followed by question and answer sessions, which are seen as not incentively and adequately gearing students toward natural oral expression and also not sufficiently examining oral communication among learners of French.

This study focused on oral communication, which highlights on the spoken form of language firstly because spoken language, 'Chomskyanly speaking', is a measure of what one knows about language and rules that govern it. Secondly, the issues arising out of FFL teaching in Kenya discussed above seem to be directly or indirectly related to oral communicative competence. Having highlighted in the foregoing discussion the issues arising from French teaching and learning in Kenya as well as the envisaged role

that oral proficiency plays therein, we now proceed to discuss communicative competence.

1.1.4 Communicative competence

Having established that one's speech production reflects largely their mastery of a given language, studies which stress on good oral skills acquisition should be put in place in order to help learners benefit from FFL in Kenya (Oduke, 2006;2013). According to the communicative approach, also known as Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) the goal of language education is the ability to communicate in the target language (Arnaud & Savignon, 1997). Communicative competence is a term coined by Dell Hymes in 1966. It was a reaction to Noam Chomskys's (1965) notion of 'linguistic competence'. Hymes describes *communicative competence as the intuitive functional knowledge and control of the principles of language usage.* In other words, a language user needs to use a given language not only correctly (based on linguistic competence – knowledge of grammar and vocabulary) but also appropriately (based on both sociolinguistic and strategic competence – knowledge of social socio-cultural code of language and how to communicate successfully in problematic communicative situations). The felicitous result of the entire speech production in context would therefore be discourse competence, otherwise referred to as communicative competence - intuitive functional knowledge and control of the principles of language usage. Canale and Swain, (1980), propounded on the notion of communicative competence and described it as consisting of the following four components hitherto discussed, namely:

- Linguistic competence: which involves knowing of a language's grammar and vocabulary, phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics.

- Sociolinguistic competence: which is about knowledge of sociocultural rules of language use, involving knowing how to use and respond to language appropriately in relation to context and topic of communication as well as relationships of those communicating.

- Discourse competence: which involves knowledge on how to produce and comprehend oral and written texts. It is knowing how to combine language structures into cohesive and coherent oral or written texts of different types. It therefore deals with organizing words, phrases and sentences in order to create conversations, speeches and written articles.

- Strategic competence: which is the ability to recognize and repair breakdowns before, during and after they occur. It involves strategies such as paraphrasing in case the speaker lacks a specific word or expression, turn taking, turn request, seeking clarification and use of gestures among others.

We propose that the above four components of communicative competence should be considered in foreign language teaching, and modern teaching methods do consider them as a whole. Communicative competence was the aim of French teaching and learning during its early formative years, for about twenty years, between the 1960s and 80s. Immersion programmes were in place, where French learners had to spend some time in France to allow for true 'mastering' of the language. Lack of such programmes today, puts in the limelight the issue of communicative competence in relation to effective FFL teaching and learning in Kenya.

This study focused on the discourse aspects of communicative competence, which highlights on the spoken form of language, first because spoken language is a measure of what one knows about language and rules that govern it, and second, because through an analysis of this kind, other levels of competency can also be gauged (Chomsky

1965). Moreover, the issues arising out of FFL teaching in Kenya earlier discussed seem to be directly or indirectly related to oral communication, otherwise known as discourse competence, in which the notions of coherence and cohesion are key to its success. The analysis of DMs is part of the more general analysis of discourse coherence; how speakers and hearers jointly integrate forms, meaning and actions to make overall sense out of what is said (Shiffrin, 2007 [1987]). This study therefore focused on the discourse competence component of communicative competence.

1.2 Background to the Problem

Evidence exists that learners of French as a foreign language in Kenya experience communicative challenges, even after having spent long years of study in the course. This is strengthened by the argument that a number of employing organizations in Kenya are currently in preference of native French speakers over locally trained ones. On the same note, the Alliance Française offers a mandatory French programme geared towards communicative competence; for a non-native French speaker to be employed within certain sectors in the organization demanding French knowledge, it is mandatory that one goes through this course, irrespective of the level of French earlier acquired. Would-be teachers of French at the institution are also required to undertake the course. Lack of oral proficiency, therefore, has career-wise implications at the level of efficiency, productivity and effectiveness of graduates thus produced.

The Kenyan mass media has oftentimes reported concerns about ''half baked'' graduates and the 'raw deal' employers get when they employ graduates from local institutions of higher learning in Kenya (Chokah, 2013). This is evidenced in statements such as the following:

> ➢ Customer executive jobs in Nairobi Kenya www.careerpointsolutionslimited.com

Virtual Recruitment Limited.

- "They are looking for two customer service executives who are **Native French Speakers**..."

➤ French speaking jobs in Kenya - the star classifieds-*The Star*, Kenya www.the-star.co.ke

- "Content Writer jobs, Kenya. **Native French Speaking 2017**"

➤ The Star Classifieds - *The Star*, Kenya www.the-star.co.ke

- "Oshwal Academy Nairobi. **Native** French Teacher Job Recruitment Kenya July 2016: Communication Assistants **(Native French Speakers)**

➤ Jobs in Nairobi....

- "**Native French Speaking** Customer Service Executives 2016 – Jobs in Kenya – http//jobwebkenya.com.

This observation presupposes some lack of a certain level of competence among those ready for the job market upon completing their French studies locally.

1.2.1 Statement of the Problem

It is generally expected that after at least eight years of learning, learners of French will demonstrate a near-native oral proficiency. However, it has been observed that most college-leavers cannot comfortably hold a five-minute conversation in French language, and even in cases where they can successfully converse in French, their language is devoid of features integral to oral proficiency. Focusing on discourse markers as one of the indicators of oral proficiency, this study therefore seeks to investigate how French language is taught and learnt as one of the contributing factors to low oral proficiency among French learners in Kenya. DMs were first elicited from respondents' speech and then analyzed. To examine students' learning styles and methods used in teaching oral French, we adminsitered questionnaires to students and teachers respectively. For analysis, we jointly employed DM theoretical approaches as well as theories of teaching and learning. This study contributes to an understanding of the role of DMs among French langauge speakers. Resolving the problem of oral

proficiency as proposed in the study also has repressussions on the university French curriculum, where we propose inclusion of pragmatic competence-oriented approaches, of which discourse markers are a part.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

This research established the relationship between Discourse Marker use and oral communication as reflected through university level learners of French in Kenya, by investigating how French language is taught and learnt. This study therefore sought to investigate the extent to which DM use impacts on the French learner's oral communication; and oral proficiency, being, supposedly, a product of the teaching and learning experience, we also undertook to establish the impact of these on the overall oral communicative experience of the learner. Specific Objectives of the study were as follows:

1.3-1 To analyze emergent DM form, frequency and function and their impact on oral proficiency.

1.3-2 To investigate how French is taught at public universities in Kenya.

1.3-3 To examine how French is learnt at public universities in Kenya.

1.3-4 To assess pedagogical and learning implications of DM use on foreign language teaching and learning, in relation to spoken discourse.

1.4 Research Questions

The following are the questions that guided the present research:

1.4-1 How do DM form-frequency-function relate to oral proficiency among learners of French as a foreign language?

1.4-2 To what extent does teaching methodology address the need for the learner to develop oral communicative skills in French language?

1.4-3   To what extent does learning style affect the student's oral skills acquisition?

1.4-4   How does DM teaching and learning affect pedagogical practices in French Foreign Language pedagogies in oral communication?

1.5 Justification of the Study

French was the first foreign language taught in Kenya and has been incorporated into the country's language in education policy for over fifty years now, since the 1960s. It is, therefore, expected that much progress should have taken place in relation to French teaching and learning in Kenya. Many students are attracted to study and learn the language, but only a few study it to the highest possible levels; there is high French dropout levels, both at secondary and university levels in every successive year; this denotes the existence of challenges in the teaching and learning process. Although the challenges are varied and involve problems in both oral and written communication, the present study focused on oral communication, which is usually considered an indicator of a well mastered language.

One of the major objectives of the French language curriculum in Kenya is to ensure oral communicative ability of the learner. Our study investigated how the relationship between teaching methods and learning styles addresses this need. Role plays were formerly used as an exam tool at the secondary school national examinations as a way of testing spontaneous oral expression in a simulated natural environment (Oduke, 2013). Role plays as an exam tool have since been replaced by readings followed by question and answer sessions, which are seen as not incentively and adequately gearing students toward natural oral expression and also not sufficiently examining oral communication among learners of French. The present study specifically assessed the place of DMs in influencing oral communication while at the same time seeking to

establish if teaching methods and learning styles are synchronized in order to enhance good oral communicative ability among learners of French.

In Kenya, the French presence has seen the establishment of French firms and multinational industries besides the setup, in Kenya, of international organizations using French as one of their official and working languages. The Kenya Alliance Française network works in collaboration with the French and Kenyan governments in transmitting knowledge of the French language, and with about 4,000 students, it is said to be the most populous Alliance Française in Africa (Oduke, 2013). Factors such as these, potentially increase the desire of Kenyans to learn French, for various reasons including socio-economic related ones.

Given this background, coupled with emergent career opportunities plus the exotic aura and prestige that French enjoys as a foreign language in Kenya, it is expected that a good number of learners of French would be motivated to pursue French language studies to the highest possible level but this is far from the truth. Many learners find the language difficult and it still remains unclear as to whether the problem lies with the pedagogical methods, the learning style, or other factors such as student satisfaction with language learning outcome, as well as ability to fit into the job market. Communicative ability, being the ultimate aim of language learning, is hardly achieved and more so the spoken expression (Oduke, 2006; Arnaud & Savignon, 1997).

A number of employers, including the UN and some private schools, are now seeking out for native French speakers, and as for the Alliance Française, learners of FFL in Kenya must undergo an intensive language course at the institution before being employed in specific mainstream sectors that require French knowledge. This training is irrespective of the level of French locally attained. Here, the issue of oral communication is key.

This study was, therefore, justified by the need to find out how coherence relations attributed by DMs are manifested through DM functions in order to ultimately lead to oral communicative competence among FFL learners. Further, the research is well aligned to language learning and testing principles of the *Cadre Européen Commun de Référence pour les Langues* (CECRL), also known as the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. In a general way, the framework offers an international standard for describing language ability on a six-point sacle, ranging from A1 for beginners to C2, which is referred to as the oral proficiency level, describing those who have mastered a given language.

1.6 Scope of the Study

The problem of oral communication among foreign language learners has been highlighted by various scholars. Different approaches have been proposed in attempting to solve it, ranging from language immersion strategies, role plays and simulations to debates and discussions among others. Although the approaches touch on aspects of grammar and linguistics in general, particular linguistic or grammatical aspects in relation to oral proficiency have barely been highlighted, especially as is the case of DMs which have usually been overlooked as being meaningless or unnecessary in communication. DM acquisition and role in oral communication were thus considered in this study, vis-à-vis FFL teaching and learning.

The present study was delimited to investigating the impact of DMs on oral communication of learners of French as a foreign language. The research was further delimited to finding out how teaching practices and learning mechanisms play out in oral French language teaching and learning, teaching being one of the avenues of DM acquisition. in order to assess. DMs emerging from the speech of university learners of French were elicited. Although French learning in Kenya has over the past years been

officially recognized from secondary school to university level, and in 2019 in the country's newly rolled Competency Based Curriculum, our study was delimited to university level learners in their final year of undergraduate programme, with the assumption that their oral communication skills would exhibit a more adequate ground for oral communication testing as well as for DM elicitation.

The DM forms elicited were then analyzed, first, for frequency of occurrence given that native speakers record a higher frequency of DM use than non-native speakers. This research sought to confirm if the said phenomena was true for the target study sample. The DMs elicited were then analyzed for functions realized in relation to coherence creation; the research therefore assessed the impact of DM use, in terms of forms employed and their frequencies, on oral communication of the learner. Specific coherence functions of DMs within discourse segments were thus identified.

Although DMs have been studied through various approaches, ranging from conversation analysis to construction grammar among others, the two main frameworks involved in the models are the coherence-based approach and the relevance-based approach to the study of DMs. Both acknowledge the role of DMs in coherence creation but from two different perspectives. Coherence based discourse analytic approaches to DMs experience certain loopholes which may be resolved within the relevance-based framework, and this study looked into the possibility of intertwining both frameworks.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This section includes a summary of past literature, research findings and methods used by other scholars, in order to show how the present study draws from them, in a bid to draw a relationship between oral proficiency and DM use, as well as the impact of teaching and learning methodologies on oral communication among learners of French.

2.1 Trends in Discourse Markers

A lot of research has been carried out on DMs over the past several years, spanning from the 1980's. The question of discourse markers was addressed extensively for the first time by Schiffrin (1987). Prior to this, however, there had been scattered studies on DMs in the 1980s. Currently, studies on DMs have seen an increase in various branches of linguistics and related fields, and hence DM analysis has been referred to as 'a growth industry in linguistics' (Fraser, 1998).

Different scholars have tackled the DM question from various perspectives, with some discussing a whole range of them (Schourup, 1982; Schiffrin, 1987; Watts 1989), cited in Beeching (2011). On the other hand, other researchers have chosen to narrow on individual DMs (Lakoff 1973; Svartvik 1980; Schiffrin, 1985). Discourse markers have been classified, first, on the basis of their core meaning as lexical items within the grammatical domain, and secondly, depending on the functions that they exude in discourse coherence. The following examples are cases in point. Schiffrin (1987) studies DM functions in terms of conversational coherence. Schiffrin's work is a comparative analysis of markers within conversational discourse, which she gathered in the course of her sociolinguistic-based fieldwork. Shiffrin's research concludes that DMs provide contextual coordinates that aid in the production and interpretation of

coherent conversation at both local and global levels of organization. Like the present study, it raises a wide range of theoretical and methodological issues important to discourse analysis - including the relationship between meaning and use, the role of qualitative and quantitative analyses. Schiffrin's work is, thus based on what people actually say, mean, and do with words in everyday social interaction. Blakemore (2002) argues for the role of DMs in creating relevance, and therefore, acting as pointers in understanding speaker intended meaning. She refers toDMs as discourse connectives and classifies them as follows: 1. Those that introduce contextual implications (e.g. too, so, also); 2. DMs concerned with strengthening (e.g. moreover, furthermore); 3. Those introducing denial (e.g., however, still, nevertheless, but); and 4. DMs that indicate the role of the utterance in the discourse in which they occur (e.g., anyway, finally, by the way).

On DM classification according to function, their role in interaction has been studied (Clift, 2001; Christodoulidou, 2014). According to Brinton (1996), DMs are pragmatic markers which can be used to comment on the state of understanding about to be expressed (examples are phrases such as 'like', 'you know'). Heritage (1984), studying the DM 'oh', says that it can be functionally grouped as expressing a change of state, so that the DM is used for subtle commentary, much like the DM 'well' (Jucker, 1993), which both seem to indicate that 'what seems to be the most relevant context is not appropriate'. In cases such as these, the lexical items are on their own, devoid of semantic content (Östman, 1982; Schiffrin, 1986; Vincent and Sankoff, 1992), and are rather dependent on the local context and sequence of talk for their interpretation.

Concerning the rise and development of DMs, Bernd (2019) notes that DMs are broadly considered to be the result of grammaticalization. More recently, however, it has been argued that this process also involves cooption, a process whereby pieces of a text are

depolyed for use on the level of discourse processing (Heine 2013; 2018a; Heine 2017). This view is, however, challenged by Degand and Evers-Vermeul (2015:72) and Brinton (2017:37), who argue that grammaticalization alone cannot account for DM use, and thus the notion of DMs and pragmaticalization sets in. It is on this basis that DMs are catagorized as fulfilling two broad functions, namely the textual and pragmatic functions (Brinton, 1996).

Current research on DMs also suggests that they may have a role in measuring linguistic communicative competence (Pellet, 2005). The current study is related to this in that we are considering how DMs relate to oral proficiency among French Foreign Language learners.

2.2 Definition of Discourse Markers

The term discourse marker has been used in a wide range of senses and for quite a number of different phenomena, extending from monosyllabic interjection-like particles, and formulae for social exchange, and hesitation fillers to clausal expressions. They are also referred to as pragmatic particles, pragmatic markers, discourse connectives, adverbials, connecting adverbials or simply conjunctions. DMs have been the subject of many studies as overviewed by Ajimer (2002) and Dér (2010).

Discourse Markers have been defined and referred to in different ways by various scholars due to their multifunctional nature, and also because of problematic issues related to their classification. It has thus been said that, "The notion of DM is problematic in several ways; there is little agreed terminology and even the definition is controversial" (Urgelles-Coll, 2010, p.23).

Among the terminologies used include: Discourse Markers (Schiffrin, 1987, 2001; Jucker and Ziv, 1998; Muller, 2005), discourse particles (Schourrup, 1985; Ajimer,

2002; Fischer, 2006), pragmatic markers (Fraser,1996), discourse connectives (Blakemore, 1987), cue phrases (Knott and Dale, 1994), discourse operators (Redeker 1990, 1991), fillers (Brown and Yule , 1983), semantic conjuncts (Quirk *et al.*, 1985), semantic connectives (Halliday and Hansen, 1976), pragmatic operators (Ariel, 1994), meta discourse markers (Mosegaard-Hansen, 1995), conversational structural markers (Auchlin, 1981), and many more. This array in terminology reflects the wide range of approaches that have been used in the study and analysis of DMs, as well as the multiple functions that these elements seem to fulfil.

DM definitions all seem to be directed towards one of the following three major perspectives, which have influenced research on discourse markers.

Schiffrin (1987) - Discourse coherence model

Fraser (1990, 1996) - Grammatical-pragmatic approach

Blakemore (1987, 1992) - Relevance theoretical approach

DMs are 'sequentially dependent elements which bracket units of talk' Schiffrin (1987: 31). Schiffrin is basically concerned with how DMs function to 'add to discourse coherence' (1987: 326). Redeker (1991) attempts to give Schifrin's work a clearer focus; using the term 'discourse operators'. She says that these are, ''words or phrases... that [are] uttered with the primary function of bringing to the listener's attention a particular kind of linkage of the upcoming utterance with the immediate discourse context'' (Redeker, 1991, p.1168). Redeker further suggests that discourse coherence is not only achieved by DM use; as such, she argues also for a definition of discourse coherence independent of DMs so that implicit coherence relations as well as semantic and pragmatic coherent links can be realized, whether they are signalled by a DM or not (ibid).

Another definition is by Fraser (1987), who earlier used the term "pragmatic formatives" and later, "pragmatic markers" (Fraser, 1987; 1996a), adding that they are usually lexical expressions which signal different messages, but without contributing to the propositional content of the sentence.

In his definition of DMs, Fraser regards them as,

> "[a] type of commentary pragmatic markers [that] signal how the speaker intends the basic message that follows to relate to prior discourse…… a class of lexical expressions drawn primarily from the syntactic classes of conjunctions, adverbs and prepositional phrases. With certain exceptions, they signal a relationship between the interpretation of the segment they introduce, S2, and the prior segment, S1. They have a core meaning, which is procedural, not conceptual, and their more specific interpretation is 'negotiated' by the context, both linguistic and conceptual". (Fraser 1999: 831)

This definition by Fraser is from a pragmatic view point. He singles out DM categories relative to either textual segment (local) or discourse segment (global) in structure (Fraser 1999: 946). Fraser's DM definition outrightly points to DM characteristic features, firstly, as having core meaning, whose specific sense is negotiated by the context, and secondly, that DMs signal a relationship between the interpretations of the segment they introduce, S2, and the prior segment, S1.

Another perspective on DMs is theoretical and is provided by Blakemore (1987, 1992). She works within the Relevance Theory framework proposed by Sperber and Wilson (1986). Referring to DMs as "discourse connectives", Blakemore focuses on how DMs impose constraints on implicatures. According to Blakemore, DMs 'do not have a representational meaning the way *boy* and *hypothesis* do, but only have a procedural meaning, which consists of instructions about how to manipulate the conceptual representation of the utterance.' (Blakemore 1987, 1992, 1995), in Fraser (1999).

Thus Blakemore (2002) views DMs as: 'Indicators and procedures that constrain the inferential part of the utterance interpretation, by guiding the hearer/reader to recognize

the intended cognitive effect with the least processing effort'. According to her, DMs allow the hearer to interpret discourse by acting as a narrowing device in the mind of the hearer, who then is constrained to limit the possible interpretations of discourse in order to finally arrive at the most relevant interpretation, thus accounting for coherence in discourse. Fraser, on the other hand, approaches DMs from a grammatical-pragmatic perspective. He foregrounds the aspect of context which he says, enriches the core meaning of a DM in use. Secondly, like Blakemore (2002), Fraser highlights the speaker's intended meaning regarding the relationship between the utterance introduced by the DM and the foregoing utterance; this is in contrast to Schiffrin, who only focuses on the relationship between DMs and the propositions, devoid of the speaker's intended meaning. It has also been noted that, 'although recent research on discourse markers is astonishingly progressing, consensus on discourse markers' definition and function has not yet been reached'Chen (2019).

In spite of the differences in definitions and terminologies, this study adopted the term Discourse Marker not only due to its functional nature, and its ability to be used interchangeably with other terms irrespective of the perspective taken; rather the present research chose the term 'discourse marker', more because of its indicative role in pointing to the situation of discourse, to which this study is core.

2.3 Formal Features of Discourse Markers

Although definitions of DMs have been diverse, scholars agree on certain basic characteristic features that cut across these little linguistic items. Let us consider the following definitions of DMs from various researchers. Being among the pioneer researchers on discourse markers, Schiffrin (1987) states that DMs are sequentially dependent elements that bracket units of talk, marginal in terms of word class, multifunctional, mostly sentence – initial, used by both sexes, but they experience a

higher frequency of use among females than males and that DMs do not contribute to the propositional or truth conditional content of their host utterance.

On his part, Heine (2013: 1211;2018a) considers DMs as being invariable expressions, are syntactically independent from their environment, and typically set off prosodically from the rest of the utterance. He also states that DMs are functionally metatextual, relating a discourse unit to the discourse situation, that is, to the organization of texts, speaker-hearer interaction, and/ or the attitudes of the speaker. Specifically, on French, Holker (1990) points out that DMs do not have a referential of denotative function and that they are syntactically flexible. This means that they are loosely integrated into the sentence, appearing at the initial, mid or final position within an utterance Another scholar, Brinton (1996) adds that, DMs are more frequently used in spoken than in written discourse, are negatively evaluated in written or formal discourse, tending to be short items, often unstressed, and that DMs may phonologically form tone groups that are separate from that of the hosting proposition. According to Schourup (1999), the following features are characteristic of discourse markers: connectivity, multifunctionality, optionality, non-truth conditionality, weak clause association, Initiality, orality and multi-categoriality. In this discussion, a trend of DM features can so far be established among various authors, propounding more or less similar views on DM features. We observed from our review of literature that Brinton's (1996:33-35) in Jucker and Ziv, (1998: 3) analysis on DMs, is systematic and exhaustive in nature. Brinton (ibid) highlights the following basic features of discourse markers: a) **Phonological and lexical features**: They are short and phonologically reduced, they form a separate tone group and are marginal forms, thus difficult to place within a traditional word class. b) **Syntactic features**: DMs are restricted to sentence-initial position, occur outside the syntactic structure or are only loosely attached to it and they

are optional as well. c) **Semantic feature**: DMs are sematically noted to have little or no propositional meaning. d) **Functional feature:** DMs are multifunctional, operating on several linguistic levels simultaneously. e) **Sociolinguistic and stylistic features**: Being more a feature of oral rather than written discourse, DMs are associated with informality, they appear with high frequency in spoken language, are stylistically stigmatised, and brinton (ibid) also notes that they are gender specific and more typical of women's speech.

We notice that some of the features as pointed out by various researchers may have similar or near similar connotations. We have, however, outlined them here in support of the shared views on DM features through the eyes of different scholars.

2.4 Functions of Discourse Markers

Brinton (1990:47f) offers the following insights into DM functions, stating that they function to:

1. Initaite discourse

2. Mark boundary in discourse, such as a shift in topic

3. Preface a reaction or a response

4. Act as a filler of a delaying tactic

5. Help the speaker in maintaining their turn

6. Effect the interaction between the interlocutors

7. Bracket discourse either cataphorically or anaphorically

8. Mark either foregrounded or backgrounded information

What Brinton implies by defining DMs as, "phonologically short items that have no or little referential meaning but serve pragmatic or procedural purpose" (2008:1), is that DMs act mainly in the pragmatic/metadiscourse plane of talk and have little or no

propositional contribution to the meaning of the discourse. The following table 2a portrays in summary Brinton's DM functions, adapted from Brinton's (1996) on summary of DM functions.

Table 2a: Brinton's Summary Table on DM Functions

Textual Functions	Opening frame marker	So, ok, now
	Closing frame marker	Ok, right, well
	Turn takers/Turn givers	Ok, yeah, and, e, well
	Filler/Turn keepers	Um, e. and
	Topic switchers	Ok, well, now
	New/old information indicators	And, because, so
	Sequence/relevance markers	So, and, the, and then, because
	Repair marker	Well, I mean, you know, like
Interpersonal Functions	Back-channel signals	Mhm, uh huh, yeah
	Cooperation/agreement marker	Ok, yes, yeah, mhm
	Disagreement markers	But, no
	Response/reaction markers	Yeah, oh, uh, but, oh, yeah, well, eh, oh really?
	Checking understanding markers	Right?, ok?
	Confirmation markers	Ah, I know, yeah, mhm, yes

Brinton's way of classifying DMs shows that they fulfill two broad functions, namely, textual and interpersonal functions respectively. The textual functions imply aspects related to the discourse structure to ensure flow of discourse such as '…to signal topic change, to constrain the relevance of adjacent utterances, to elaborate or comment on a preceding utterance and self- correction are among the functions of DMs in textual domain (Yilmaz, 2004)'.

Interpersonal DM functions, on the other hand, are used either subjectively to express attitude or interatively to help in attaining intimacy between the speaker and the person being addressed.

> 'From an interpersonal perspective, DMs are seen as vehicles contributing to the establishment and maintenance of relationships between the speaker and hearer. To show the relationship between the speaker and his/her orientation towards the produced discourse is considered an intrinsic feature of DMs. They are used as hedges to express uncertainty and as appeals to the hearer for confirmation. They could be used as a response or reaction to the preceding utterance as well (Yilmaz, 2004 in Alami, 2015)'.

From the interpersonal point of view, DMs function as vehicles that contribute to establishing and maintaining relationships between the tnterlocutors, that is, the speaker and the hearer. This function of DMs is viewed as an intrinsic feature that is characteristic of DMs. It has to do with the orientation of the speaker/hearer and their orientation towards the discourse produced. In order to decode the pragmatic functions of DMs, the hearer has to interpret the utterance in the context in order to understand the intended communicative goal. Speakers often add signals to their utterance which guide the listener in interpreting meaning in context (Foolen, 2011). The current study was especially interested in this aspect of DMs, given its role in oral communication, where they function as hedges denoting uncertainty, as elements for monitiring shared knowledge and as appeals to the hearer for confirmation or as a reaction or response to the preceeding uttereance.

Other classification models have also been proposed by various scholars. Fraser (1999) talks of contrastive markers (but, however); elaborative markers (moreover, in other words); inferential markers (so, therefore, thus); topic managemanet markers (before I forget, by the way). Another functional classification of DMs is by Schiffrin *et al.* (2003) in Muller (2005), is that, DMs function in:

1. Discourse initiation

2. Boundary marking

3. Prefacing a response or a reaction

4. Filling/delaying tactics

5. Turn maintaining markers

6. Interaction aid between speaker and hearer

7. Bracketing discourse cataphorically or anaphorically

8. Foregrounding or backgrounding information

9. Indexing propositional relations

DMs have also been classified according to the functions they fulfill, either formal or informal (Croucher, 2004). The following are formal functions of DMs:

1. Indicating a conversational turn (you know, well)

2. Identification of a diversion from the current topic (oh, by the way)

3. Sharing of one's feelings or attitude (like, I know)

4. Framing general conversation

The informal functions of discourse markers include:

1. Filling of pauses in conversation

2. Acting as a nervous cover-up for flaws in speech

DMs have also been considered to play a role in coherence creation by acting as markers of coherence relations. In this way, they assist the hearer in processing discourse especially concerning possible interpretations that the speaker's message may be conveying. Furthermore, they mark propositional or illocutionary force as well as interpersonal relations (Anderson 1998:147).

On the 'meta-textual work' of DMs, Traugott (1995:6) notes that DMs allow speakers and hearers to showcase their evaluations of the manner in which what is said is put

together rather than on the content of what is said. Fischer (2006) ascribes various functions to DMs including those that relate to the turn-taking system, those pointing to discourse relations, those serving as tools for structuring discourse, talk management devices, and as linguistic items for regulation of interpersonal relationships such as showing politeness.

With regard to DM definition and function, much as been said, but there is still yet to be a general concensus in this rich area of research. Chen (2019) asserts that 'although recent research on discourse markers is astonishingly progressing, consensus on discourse markers' definition and function has not yet been reached'.

The different perspectives reflect various conceptions of the overall definitions of DMs in communication. Some generalizations can, however, be made about DMs. In a nutshell, we have seen that DMs are a range of expressions drawn from classes of conjunctions, adverbials, prepositional phrases and other syntactic categories. They are used to express the speaker's communicative purposes, i.e. to make the utterance more fluent and easy to understand. They have no contribution to the meaning of the utterance, that is to say, if the DMs are removed from the utterance, the semantic relationship between the elements they connect remains the same; and without the DMs, the grammaticality of the utterance must still be intact.

About translation of oral productions, DMs are argued to fulfill certain functions in speech, which vary or are altered in machine translation as opossed to when interpreation is carried out. (Stede, M. & B. Schmitz, 2000). It has also been noted that functions of DMs are closely linked to the role of the speaker in interaction. (Fuller, J. M. 2003). This would be especially so because of the role of prosody or more precisely, voice tone, in influencing the meaning of an utterance. Morover, DMs have been found

to have unique prosodic features, different from that of the propositional group which hosts them (W. P. M, 2009; Wichmann et al, 2010, Trihartanti, 2020).

Despite the various terms, definitions and functions accorded to DMs, our study adopted the term 'Discourse Marker' due to its nature, which we found to be inclusive and all encompassing. This was especially important, considering our subject of study, whose core objective was to figure out the relationship between DM use and oral proficiency. Also, given that our population of study was learners of French as a foreign language, we found it important to consider for analysis any such item that would pass for a DM, going by the vast repatoire of DM definitions and functions discussed. Other than cosidering specific DM functions, we also functionally grouped them under the two broad categories as either fulfilling textual or pragmatic/interpersonal functions, the latter having a stronger manifestation in oral communuication.

2.5 Theoretical Concepts and Perspectives on Discourse Markers

Literature reviews on recurrent themes of the research are highlighted in this section and explained in order to see how they fit into the larger picture pointing to the main research question involving the extent to which DM use affects oral communication of learners of French.

2.5.1 Coherence and Cohesion

Irrespective of the approach taken towards the study of DMs, the concepts of coherence and cohesion cannot be ignored. On DM analysis, there are various approaches among which are conversation analysis (Schiffrin, 1987; Taguchi, 2003; Lee, 2003), constructive grammar (Brinton, 2008) and grammatical pragmatic approach (Fraser, 1990); all the approaches study coherence and DMs within either of the two mainstream frameworks, namely, coherence-based discourse analysis or relevance theoretical based analysis.

In both cases, coherence is core with the variance being in the different perspectives from which it is viewed in each (Alami, 2015). On the discourse coherence perspective, Schiffrin (1998) notes that: 'The study of discourse markers is part of the more general analysis of discourse coherence; how speakers and hearers jointly integrate forms, meanings, and actions to make overall sense out of what is said.'

Referring to the manner in which a text holds together by use of various connectives, cohesion plays an important role in discourse, and is realized by lexico-grammatical units in the discourse. Cohesion helps to create continuity that exists between one part of the discourse and another, and thus aids in attaining coherence. However, cohesion is not the only means of achieving discourse coherence, as people can rely as well on non-linguistic shared knowledge in order to construct a coherent discourse (Wang and Guo, 2014).

This research maintains that although DMs are lexio-grammatical units able to account for discourse coherence, and consequently, for oral proficiency, other knowledge factors may also come into play to ensure success in oral communication. In this study, we proposed that other such factors as the teaching and learning of a language have a role to play in ensuring that the need for oral communication is met.

The concepts of coherence and cohesion have been defined in different ways, with some scholars considering them as a whole entity yet others viewing them as separate entities. Crystal (1985: 53) considers coherence as 'the main principle of organization which is assumed to account for the underlying functional connectedness of a piece of spoken or written language. This underlying principle of organization is dependent on the language user's knowledge of the world, the inferences they make, and the assumptions they hold and specifically it involves the study of the way in which communication is mediated through speech acts' (ibid). In this definition, grammatical and lexical links

are not taken into consideration, implying the possibility of coherence with or without lexico-grammatical indicators such as DMs.

A different scholar, Renhert (1980) holds that coherence is composed of the semantic and grammatical connectedness between discourse and context. He views coherence as consisting of the three elements: connectedness, consistency and relevance, where:

- Connectedness - interconnection of sentences in a text / discourse joined with each other in semantics and grammar.

- Consistency - lack of contradiction between the propositions expressed by the sentences and the truthfulness of the said propositions to a certain extent.

- Relevance - the text should be related to the context, the sentences in a text/discourse should be related to each other and the sentences should be related to the general topic of the text/discourse.

In this definition, the concepts of coherence and cohesion are fused together.

Another definition proposes cohesion and coherence as two entirely different concepts. De Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) suggest that cohesion represents the structural relations on the text/discourse surface, with coherence representing the structural relations underlying the surface. This view is also held by Brown and Yule (1983), Stubbs (1983) and Tannen (1984).

This study maintains that DMs are cohesive devices and that although coherence entails cohesion, cohesive devices such as DMs are not necessarily the sole indicators of text connectedness. The study, while considering oral communication output as a product of both linguistic and non-linguistic factors, assessed the role of DMs in oral communication. Instances of DM attributed coherence were looked into.

2.5.2 Theoretical Foundation of Discourse Markers

Generally, two representative groups of scholars, namely coherence theorists represented by Schiffrin, Redeker, and Fraser, etc., and relevance theorists represented by Blakemore, Sperber, and Wilson, etc., delimit discourse markers in different categories and explore discourse markers' functions in different scopes. The former studies discourse markers mainly within discourse itself, claiming that discourse markers' crucial function is to contribute to discourse coherence locally or globally. On the contrary, the latter investigates discourse markers beyond the discourse, proposing that discourse markers should only be those items with procedural meaning rather than conceptual meaning, and forgoing the notion of coherence, which is deemed to be secondary and derivative to relevance (Chen, 2019). Other than these, some researchers have tackled DM studies simply from a descriptive corpus-based perspective, in order to understand their distribution patterns (Al-Yaari et al, 2013). The current study goes beyond this, to incorporate aspects of teaching and learning with DM form, frequency and function in oral communication. Certain DM groups have also been analyzed from the diachronic perspective in order to understand the posssible evolution of a lexeme from a regulae word to a DM exuding additional functions (Algama, D., & Bernaisch, 2012). Although in the current study we cosider DM functions well, ours is from a synchronic rathe rthan a dichronic point of view.

In Fraser's work (1987), he writes about a group of expressions which he calls "pragmatic formative" but later calls "pragmatic markers" (1996). DMs, as a grammatical category, are seen as a subclass of pragmatic markers. Specifically, he characterizes a DM as a linguistic expression which: (a) has a core meaning which can be enriched by the context; and (b) signals the relationship that the speakers intend between the utterance the DM introduces and the foregoing utterance. Based upon the

Relevance Theory, Blakemore, the most influential representative of this perspective, maintains that DMs can be regarded as linguistically specified constraints on cognitive context. She calls them "discourse connectives": "expressions that constrain the interpretation of the utterances which contain them by virtue of the inferential connections they express" (Blakemore, 1987). Thus the DMs are regarded as items which cognitively limit the hearer's interpretation in that they indicate the speaker's intention. So the employment of DMs is one means to make contextual assumptions more accessible to the hearer. From what was noted above, differences can be seen in defining DMs through the eyes of different scholars.

From the forgoing discussion, we note that there are two major deducible perspectives that linguists have attributed to discourse coherence (Wang, 2014). The two perspectives are:

- Coherence- as- product: a purely linguistic approach (coherence-based discourse analysis, Rhetorical Structure Theory).

- Coherence- as- process: an approach focusing on both linguistic and non-linguistic knowledge, and coherence being a product of both linguistic and non-linguistic cues. (Relevance Theoretical Approach).

The **discourse coherence-as-product** view studies how coherence relations are realized on the surface of discourse; that is, all the linguistic devices used to connect different parts in a discourse. In an attempt to characterize discourse as a linguistic phenomenon, the approach defines coherence as an observable and visible thing (Wang, 2014). Analysis along this line is text/discourse based, and is descriptive rather than explanatory. Proponents of this approach include the following, who also employ various reference terms for it: Halliday & Hasan (cohesion), van Dijk (macrostructure), Mann and Thompson (rhetorical structure), Dane and Fries (thematic progression). The

coherence-as-product view perceives coherence as solely an end result of overt use of linguistic features such as lexical items and discourse markers.

The coherence-as-product view is purely linguistic. It is known as the discourse coherence account, also referred to as 'coherence-based' is supported by scholars such as Schiffrin (1987), Redeker (1990, 1991), Giora (1997, 1998), Zwicky (1985) and Mann & Thompson (1988). The Rhetorical Structure Theory (RST) of Mann & Thompson (1988) has been used by linguists in the analysis of coherence with special attention to discourse markers. Research in this area include works by Power *et al.* (1999), Grote (1998), Grote & Stede (1999), Power (2000), Gallaway (2003).

On the other hand, **the discourse coherence-as-process** view takes discourse coherence as a dynamic process, and studies it from pragmatic and cognitive perspectives. This approach puts emphasis not only on linguistic factors, but also on non-linguistic factors such as co-text, situational context and cultural context, which are all seen to contribute to discourse coherence. Pragmatically, the role of inference and conversational implicature is also viewed as contributing to discourse coherence, even in sequential units that are seemingly linguistically incoherent. The coherence-as-process view considers coherence as a process of putting together both overt linguistic features and covert non-linguistic (pragmatic and cognitive) features in order to construct discourse coherence, both as intended by the speaker and as perceived by the hearer (Wang and Guo, 2014).

We conclude that the main difference between the two schools of thought lies in different analyses on how DMs contribute to discourse interpretation. Researchers in the coherence group argue that DMs play a major role in discourse interpretation by signalling coherence relations. This means that the interpretation of a text or discourse

according to the discourse-as-coherence group depends on the identification of coherence relations between the units of that text or discourse (Schourup, 1999: 240).

The relevance account (discourse-as-process) proponents consider DMs as indicators or procedures that constrain the inferential phase of utterance interpretation by guiding the process of utterance interpretation and offering cues that enable the hearer or reader to recognize the intended cognitive effect with the least processing effort (Blakemore, 2002: 464). In summary, the coherence group views DMs as linguistic devices that maintain coherence in the text or discourse by linking its units, while the relevance group considers the markers as pragmatic devices that constrain the relevance of discourse units, thereby creating coherence. These two major general approaches to DM analysis offered us a basis of argument as being the theoretical foundation of DMs. As already observed, both regard DMs as being of importance in creating coherence in communication, through distinct means, Chen (2019) provides the resume that, "although recent research on discourse markers is astonishingly progressing, consensus on discourse markers' definition and function is yet to be reached''.

In this sub-section, we highlight on the existance of two main schools of thought in understanding DM use, namely the coherence –based and relevance –based approaches respectively. The current research attempted to analyze the relationship between DM use and oral proficiency considering both the coherence and relevance approaches respectively, as we deemed both to be essential in understanding how oral proficiency plays out in the speech of learners, both cohesively leading to coherence creation and structutrally leading to creation of relevance.

A review of studies on DMs reveals that discourse markers are theoretically based on two analytical approaches. The Rhetorical Structure Theory (RST) of Mann and Thompson (1988) is used within the coherence-based approach. RST is both a theory

of text structure and computational linguistics involving hierarchic structures of text, built on small patterns known as schemas. The schemas, which compose the structural hierarchy of a text, describe the functions of the parts rather than their own characteristics (Descriptive RST). Relations between parts known as coherence relations are also important in RST (Explanatory RST).

On the other hand, the Relevance Theory (RT) of Sperber and Wilson (1986, 1995) narrows the interpretation process on coherence by use of various linguistic features including DMs. It considers coherence as a consequence of the hearer's search for optimal relevance and DMs are seen as a guide for the hearer, to achieve the intended interpretation. RT also deals with both explicatures and implicatures; and the coherence of a text here is or not dependent on whether the hearer can understand the speaker's utterance under the intended context. Here, DMs are considered as guiding in obtaining optimum relevance in text understanding and interpretation. Therefore, we postulated that whereas relevance gives an explanation to coherence through cohesion, rhetorical structure confirms coherence.

The first problematic area in this research is that of lack of good oral communication ability among learners of French in Kenya, and this consequently spills onto other areas demanding expertise in the field. Theoretically based DM analysis views coherence as an important factor in understanding discourse and all corroborate on DMs being cohesive devices, capable of impacting on coherence. DM researchers go for either the RST or RT as theoretical frameworks, as each is considered different from the other as revealed in the literature. The present study differs in that it proposes that both the Rhetorical Structure Theory and the Relevance Theory can work interdependently in the analysis of discourse coherence, which was assumed to impact on oral proficiency.

With the assumption that good oral communication is a result of both teacher and learner input, teaching and learning theories: behaviourism, constructivism, cognitivism and connectivism were employed to discover how learning of French takes place. The theories are categorized as either teacher-centred or learner-centred. Our study proposed a two- faceted DM theoretical approach and a dual theoretical perspective on teaching and learning, In this way, the study anticipated to contribute in a new way, to a better understanding of French foreign language learning and pedagogy, notably on the oral communication front among university-level learners of French.

2.6 Oral Proficiency

For foreign language learners, oral proficiency revolves around being fluent including being able to use a wide array of structures in grammar and vocabulary. Orally proficient speakers are also considered to be fluent and knowledgeable in the language, and various parameters have been used to measure oral proficiency in language, ranging from vocabulary use to sentence structure among others (Iwashita, 2010). Foreign language learners thus usually strive for oral proficiency. Oral proficiency is, therefore, often viewed as the ultimate test of demonstrating the knowledge of a language.

2.6.1 Trends in Oral Proficiency

Spanning from the 1980s to date, researchers have tried to explain between college-level foreign language teaching and learning and attainment of oral proficiency. Foreign languages studied include: "French by Freed, 1987; Magnan, 1986; German by Goertler, Kraemer, & Schenker, 2016; Norris & Pfeiffer, 2003; Tschirner, 1992 ; Tschirner & Heilenman, 1998; Russian by Thompson, 1996; Spanish by Hernández, 2006; Sanders, 2005; Spanish and French by Schmitt, 2014'', cited in (Zhang and winke, 2020) . This kind of research is of essence as it helps in an understanding of the impact of advanced level foreign language training on oral

proficiency of the learners. In turn, this should lead to an advanced professional - level or working proficiency upon completion of studies (Modern Language Association, 2007; National Standards Collaborative Board, 2015).

Current methods have witnessed trends in examination of oral proficiency testing, trends in the teaching of listening and speaking skills, instructor proficiency, classroom practices as well as pedagogical approaches. The present study looks at the relationship between DM use and oral proficiency in light of how French, as a foreign language, is taught and learnt. In recent years, the world has become a global village, trade and travel opportunities have increased, the desire for international-class education has seen a rise; with this, much emphasis has been laid on ability to speak a learnt language well, as a measure of one's successful acquisition of a language. The situation within the Kenyan foreign language curriculum is no different, hence this study.

2.6.2 Defining Oral Proficiency

Oral proficiency includes the ability to communicate verbally in a functional and accurate way in the target language. A high degree of oral proficiency implies having the ability to apply the linguistic knowledge to new contexts (topics) and situations (Omaggio, 1986). When different segments of oral discourse are not coherently held together, the speech can be said to lack fluency, and this is where DMs come in as connectors and text organizers in discourse. Usually, one's knowledge of a language is judged by how well they speak the language. It is held that what one knows theoretically about language ultimately realizes its practicality in speech, going by Chomsky's (1957) notion of competence and performance.

What then is oral proficiency? Studies indicate that communicative competence is a necessary component of foreign language learning, of which oral proficiency is part. This study linked oral proficiency with what Canale and Swain (1980) refer to as

'discourse competence'. They postulate discourse competence as being one of the four components of communicative competence. The latter, as a notion, was first introduced by Hymes (1972), and later expounded on by various scholars including Canale and Swain (1980), Canale (1983), Bachman and Palmer (1996) and Okvir (2005). It encompasses four components, namely linguistic competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence (Canale, 1983). In this study, discourse competence (oral proficiency) was viewed as based on what the learner actually knows within the other competency levels: linguistic, sociolinguistic and strategic.

It has been observed that many who have studied French at both secondary school and university still struggle to express themselves orally in French. They seem to stagnate at the beginner level (Oduke, 2006). The challenge of oral proficiency has been noted at various levels of learning and interaction, involving in and out of classroom settings. Problems bordering on spontaneity of expression, conversation maintenance, choice or lack of appropriate expression, as well as code switching and code mixing have been observed. Students have also been observed to stick to obsolete linguistic forms, in place of new emergent ones, given the dynamic nature of language in relation to society (ibid). Most of the challenges mentioned above relate to situations requiring the learner to employ certain communicative strategies in order to ensure that discourse is maintained. Discourse markers in spoken French act thus as conversational strategic devices. How and to what extent they help in ensuring and/or maintaining oral proficiency among learners was therefore core to this study.

2.6.3 Parameters in Oral Proficiency

The question of how to measure oral proficiency can be tackled from various perspectives including oral interviews, group work, role play and discussion. Aspects

to be tested are usually related to meaning, grammar, pronunciation, stress, intonation, accuracy, vocabulary and fluency (Salah, 2005). The parameters to be measured will normally depend on the purpose of study. Ours was pegged on how fluency is impacted on by DMs, and thus influencing proficiency. Park (2016) proposes a model of parameters in oral proficieny, which include fluency, accuracy, vocabulary, coherence, speed, smoothness, grammar, pronunciation and lexical diversity. The current study focused on parameters related to fluency in oral communication among learners of French.

2.6.4 DM Form-Function Relations and Oral Proficiency

It was our assumption to begin with, that there should be significant difference in DM use as the learner advances in study, and that oral communicative ability of the learner is directly proportional to his frequency of DM use in natural interactive speech situations. In spoken conversation, the frequency of DMs is significant compared to other word forms (Fung and Carter, 2007). They have a high frequency in occurrence in conversational practices (Schiffrin, 2003). One DM can have different forms, each having different prosodic features such as a pause, intonation and stress; the same DM can exhibit more than one form such as declarative form and interrogative form as in different cases of *'okay',* for example (Yang, 2014). It is also true that one DM can perform different functional categories, depending on the interactional moment and pedagogical requirement; the same function can also be realized by more than one DM (ibid). A particular DM can, therefore, convey meanings and relationships in more than one discoursal component' (Georgakopoulu & Goutsos, 2004). DMs are therefore multifunctional in nature; the chosen form reveals a particular function in line with the context of communication.

In a study on DM use among Chinese college English Foreign Language teacher talk, Yang (2014) discovered that there is a complex relationship between form and function of DMs in teacher-led classroom interaction, and that the relationship between form and function of DMs is not so clear-cut but rather one motivated and affected by context (Yang, 2014). Studies reveal that learners of second and foreign languages do not normally undergo consistent teaching of DMs in language instruction; rather, the acquisition of these markers by learners may be due to 'incidental learning of these forms as a result of the learner's socialization into the use of the language being learnt (Hellermenn and Vergun, 2007; Polat, 2011). Yang's (2014) research postulated that there is a direct correlation between exposure level to form (classroom and out of classroom), and its DM function within discursive discourse propositions. In a multi-layered analytical study on Chinese college EFL teacher talk, the same DM was found to be able to function in different domains including interpersonal, referential, structural, and cognitive categories (Yang, 2014).

The current research evaluated the extent to which DM form, frequency and function affected the French learner's oral proficiency.

2.6.5 Proficiency as DM Use

The Jargument for DM use parallelling oral proficiency can be debated upon from various angles, on the basis of functionality and their overall effect on discourse produced. First, DMs perform pragmatic functions, especially important in oral communication, where meaning is derived not only out of what is said, but how it is said. DMs thus have an interactive role in discourse, and can play a role in facilitating the development of second and foreign language fluency (Towell *et al.*, 1996; Hasselgreen, 2004). Through the use of DMs, the hearer is able to interpret the speaker's intended meaning by the markers acting as a narrowing device in helping to

select and settle for the intended meaning, sometimes among multiple possibilities. In this way, the intelocutors are able to 'feel' one another through the process of intersubjectivity (Overstreet and Yule, 1997; Blakemore, 2008; Aijmer, 2013). DMs have also been applauded for helping to create coherernce in speech (Halliday and Hasan, 1976; Schiffrin, 1987), and this is very essential in foreign language learning. It has, however, been noted that despite the diverse roles and their significance in the development of second and foreign language fluency, DMs have not been accorded enough focus in second and foreign language acquisition studies (Muller, 2005). Various studies have often been carried out involving individual DMs (Muller, 2005; Romero-trillo, 2002), however, not so many researchers have focused on DM use on the broader scale, with the inclusion of those that may be of less frequent use by second or/and foreign language learners.

Also, according to Hellermann & Vergun (2007) and Hasselgreen (2004), the frequency and variety of DMs used by language learners are a good pointer to the oral proficiency level of the learner. They however note that, 'few studies break down proficiency levels into sub-levels while examining the larger set of DMs.' Moreover, few researches lay emphasis on the silmilarities and differences between highly advanced learners, and native speakers with regard to the frequency and variety of discourse markers used. The undercurrent of (near) native-like proficiency in speech was behind the inclusion criteria of final year univerity learners of French as a second language as informants. Information such as this is importatnt in understanding the relationship between level of proficiency and pragmatic competence, and also the manner in which learners move progressively or rapidly in the advanced stages of foreign langauge learning. Native speakers have been found to register higher levels of frequency in DM use in comparison to non-natives (Fung and Carter, 2007; Romero-Trillo, 2002; Muller, 2005)

2.2.5.1 Discourse Markers and Discourse Competence

Discourse competence, otherwise referred to as oral proficiency, is one of the four components of communicative competence. Having surveyed, in the previous chapter, the concept of communicative competence introduced by Hymes (1966), and developed further by other scholars such as Canale and Swain (1980), the various components of communicative competence, i.e. grammatical competence, pragmatic competence, discourse competence and sociolinguistic competence, can be related to DM use in that discourse coherence is seen to be at the core of communicative competence (Canale, 1983), thus leading to discourse competence. For this reason, our study of DMs was englobed upon the backdrop of communicative competence, with particular attention to oral communicative proficiency, otherwise known as discourse competence. Discourse competence involves knowledge on how to produce and comprehend oral and written texts. It is knowing how to combine language structures into cohesive and coherent oral or written texts of different types. It, therefore, relates to how to organize words, phrases and sentences in order to create speeches, written articles or conversations. This research focused on discourse competence.

The dependent variable for this study was thus the French learner's oral communicative ability, against the independent variable, DM use. This was, therefore, what the research sought to explore. In order to speak a second or foreign language with relative ease and native-like ability, aspects pertaining to pragmatic, sociolinguistic, grammatical and discourse contexts all need to work in unison to ensure effective language teaching and learning. Therefore, communicative competence is viewed as a language user's grammatical knowledge of syntax, morphology, phonology, and the like as well as social knowledge about how and when to use utterances appropriately (Hymes, 1966). Although discourse competence is not necessarily equal to DM use, the use of the latter

appropriately within certain parameters is, in the French language, perceived as an indication of near native speaker ability.

DMs are more characteristic of spoken discourse and are, therefore, important indicators of L2/Foreign Language learners' communicative competence and oral fluency. There is a tendency for language learners not to use DMs in the same normative ways as native speakers do. Furthermore, studies have demonstrated that language learners with a higher proficiency are more likely to use discourse markers (Hellermann and Vergun, 2007). Research has, however, also shown that underuse and misuse of DMs among language learners can have negative consequences in communication (Romero-Trillo, 2002; Hellermenn and Vergun, 2007; Polat, 2011).

The language learner's insufficient discourse marker use has been attributed to a possible lack of exposure in the inter-language system of the learner (Hellermenn and Vergun, 2007). Studies also reveal that learners of second and foreign languages do not normally undergo a consistent teaching of DMs in language instruction, but rather, their acquisition by learners may be due to 'incidental learning' of these forms as a result of the learner's socialization into the use of the language being learnt (Hellermenn and Vergun, 2007; Polat, 2011). There is, therefore, an urgent need for more exposure of language instruction inside the classroom as well as conversational interaction outside the classroom, as the pervasiveness of DM used in speaking have various micro-functions, which increase oral proficiency, and therefore, discourse competence (O'Keeffe *et al*., 2011). High pragmatic value in interaction is also essential for the language learner, and O'Keefe (ibid) argues that this can be designed in oral communicative awareness building tasks for L2 and FL learners to acquire.

In this study, therefore, discourse competence is equivalent to oral proficiency. The French learner's level of oral proficiency was studied against discourse markers in order

to examine the extent to which the latter affects oral communication of the learner of French, in view of classroom practices entailing teaching and learning.

2.7 Teaching and Learning DMs

The current study looked at the relationship between DM use and oral proficiency, with a focus on teaching and learning. We, therefore, performed a situation analysis involving the role of teachers and learners in DM knowledge, acquisition and use. In this sub-section, we will discuss trends in oral foreign language teaching and learning, aspects as well as theories of language teaching and learning. Teaching is a deliberate intervetion that involves the planning and implementation of instructional activities ad experiences to meet intendned learning outcomes according to a teaching plan. Learning, on the other hand, is defined as the relatively permanent change in an individual's behavior in terms of kowledge, skill and attitude, that can occur at any time or place (Schmidt, 2009).

We argue that improving DM use may enhance attainment of oral proficiency. Crible, Ludivine & Cuenca, Maria (2017) note that 'planning and interactivity play a major role on the use of DMs; and while they address the characteristics of DMs in speech and challenges posed in corpus annotation, we found the very challenges to act as pointers on the way forward at improving DM use. They further argue that certain DM forms are essentially oral and are actualized in spontaneous, interactive discourse and while the other group can be said to be typical of written texts, which are usually meticulous and planned. They also note that, speech-oriented DMs have more varied forms and portray multifunctionality at various levels. Therefore,

> 'The structure of speech is linearly intricate, lexically vaguer and includes more repetition than written discourse. Interactivity and low planning in dialogical genres are prone to repair, turn-taking …In addition, DMs often seem to perform vague functions. Structural and

> modal functions (and combinations thereof) must be correctly identified…. (Crible & Cuenca, 2017).

It is therefore essential to understand the nature and functions of talk-oriented DMs in order for us to establish ways of improving their use, and thus positively influence oral proficiency.

2.7.1 Trends in Oral Foreign Language Teaching and Learning

Language education as a domain has experienced major changes across the years. There is currently a tendency of moving away from traditional notions to more novel and innovative ways of perceiving how learning and teaching takes place in the process of knowledge acquisition, affecting both classroom practices and content.

Historically, when teaching of modern langauges came to the limelight, the Grammar-Translation Method (GTM), was employed. It was largely literature-oriented, and emphasis was laid on accuracy and detailed rules of grammar, mechanisms of memorization, lists of bilingual vocabulary which needed to be crammed. The focus of GMT was on reading, writing and translation of classical texts. (Tokuhama -Espinosa, 2003; Schmitt, 2000; Zimmerman, 1997). Among the major challenges of the approach is that GTM was more concerned with the ability of learners to analyze language and not the ability to use it (Schmitt, 2000). The approach, therefore, did not do much in upholding the real-life use of the target language, since the main aim was in training students to pass standardized tests through reading and writing classical material. The students were, therefore, not really expected to put into use the taught language in real life and practical situations (Tokuhama -Espinosa, 2003). GTM was used up until the early twentieth century.

What followed was a reform movement, placing strong emphasis on three basic principles: a) the primacy of spoken language b) the centrality of the connected text as

being important in the teaching and learning process c) the absolute priority of an oral classroom methodology (Howatt and Widdowson, 2004). According to Zimmerman (1997), "Perhaps the Reformer's most significant departure from the past in the area of vocabulary instruction was that words came to be associated with reality rather than with other words and syntactic patterns. To this end, vocabulary was selected according to its simplicity and usefulness."

The Direct Method was then developed. It was an approach that bordered on interation as the core of natural language acquisition, and stressed on relating meaning directly with the target language without the inclusion of translation (Zimmerman, 1997). The main problem with this approach was insistance on using the target language completely devoid of any L1 translation, even when this technique would suffice. There was also risk of learners' not fully comprehending content in a language taught purely in the langauge being learnt (Killinger, 1975).

Taking vocabulary to the centrestage, Reading Method was developed. According to Richards and Rodgers (1986, as cited in J. crandall 2000) it was with this method that for the first time vocabulary was considered one of the most essential aspects of foreign language learning, in tandem with West (1930, cited in Espinosa, 2003), who commented that "the primary thing in learning a language is the acquisition of a vocabulary, and practice in using it" (p. 514). The failure of this method was that learners were learning to read, but not necessarily words that would be useful to help them speak the langauge in real life.

To mitigate the weak points of the overemphasis on vocabulary, the audio-lingual method was next but here, language learners in general oversimplified the role of isolated words. Twaddell (1980) highlighted that due to language learners' tendency to overvalue word knowledge, teachers and theoreticians reacted by downgrading the role

of vocabulary and consequently overemphasizing the role of grammar, resulting in adult learners having "an infantile vocabulary and an adult mentality" (p. 442). This was because prior to this reaction, students had grown to have a false security in the amount of vocabulary acquired, at the expense of other language learning skills.

The traching and learning of foreign languages then saw the communicative language teaching come into the scene, drawing from Chomsky's (1957) notion of competence and performance as well as Hyme's (1972) notion of communicative competence. In essence, it was discerned during this period that language learning entails more than mere habit formation, and that communicative competence embodies linguistic competence in the form of linguistic creativity. This led to a change in language instruction methods whereby communicative proficiency was given priority over structural control. According to Richards and Rodgers (1986), communicative language teaching strove to "make communicative competence the goal of language teaching. Nevertheless, a common aim of communicative methods was the promotion of fluency over accuracy and with regards to this, Rivers (1983), in considering how to help learners communicate meaning successfully, encouraged language instructors to pay more attention to vocabulary. Similarly, Widdowson (1978) observed that it is easier to comprehend ungrammatical utterances with accurate vocabulary than those with accurate grammar but inaccurate vocabulary. Wilkins (1974), meanwhile, commented on the fundamental importance of words and suggested substantial exposure to the target language as the only way to master its lexical system (Tin 2016).

Current methods in the teaching and learning of foreign language provide proof of learning, more so as realized in the learner's ability to orally put into practical use the language learnt. The assessment approaches are, therefore, individualized, customizable and learner-centred. On the part of the student, proof of learning would

entail speech or story telling. As such, focus is currently no longer on grammar, rote learning and memorization, but rather, its about using language and cultural knowledge as a way of communicating and connecting with people in diverse situations (Eaton, 2010).

Table 2b: Benchmarks for learning and teaching (adapted from Wilson and Peterson, 2006)

Benchmarks for…	Moving from	Moving towards
Learning	passive absorption of information	Active engagement with information
	Individual activity	Both individual activity and collective work
	Individual differences among students Seen as problems	Individual differences among students seen as resources
Knowledge	What: facts and procedures of a processes of inquiry and argument of a discipline	what, where and why: central ideas, concepts, facts, discipline
Teaching	Simple, straightforward work	Complex, intellectual work
	Teachers in infromation–deliverer role	Varied teacher roles, from information-deliverer to architect of educative experiences
	Teachers do most of the work	Teachers structure classroom for individual and shared work
	Lessons contain low-level content, concepts mentioned; lessons not coherently organized.	Lessons focus on high-level and basic content, Concepts developed and elaborated; lessons coherently organized.

2.7.2 Foreign Language Teaching and Learning

Teaching French as a foreign language in Kenya has had numerous hurdles to overcome, and learners have grappled to attain oral proficiency in the language. For this reason, we considered both the teacher and learner as stakeholders in moving

towards getting a remedy for the ailment. Elsewhere, success in teaching oral foreign language has been attributed to methods and strategies that use learner-centred instruction, such as the co-operative learning approach, which promotes speaking and social interaction among students, and also influences the development of the speaking skills of the learner. Currently, there is a move to methods that are more learner-centred as opposed to traditional methods that focused more on the teacher. One of the challenges that teachers face in teaching oral proficiency in foreign languages is that the speech context is usually not native, and so sociolinguistic aspects of language, those that are mostly 'caught' rather than 'taught' during interaction such as DMs, must find revolutionary methodologies towards acquisition. As such, the teacher and learner have to do much more in ensuring that oral proficiency is attained.

2.7.3 Teaching Methodology and Oral proficiency

Different studies have pointed out a relationship between teaching methodology and oral proficiency. Concerning DMs, McCarthy (1999) asserts that the lack of lexical content of DMs presents a problem to language pedagogy, which he says, 'traditionally divided teaching into grammar teaching and vocabulary teaching, with items such as DMs not fitting happily into either'. It is argued that a better understanding of DMs not only promotes second language acquisition, but also enhances the efficacy of language teaching, especially in higher education academic discourse (Yang, 2014). If this is true among our target population was subject to the findings of the present study.

Our study also evaluated teaching style and content in relation to DM use by learners of French. We assumed that teaching methodology on DM form, function and use by the teacher directly impacts on cohesion and coherence of the learner's oral communication. This occurs by actively creating awareness about DM forms, use and functions proportional to level of oral coherence and cohesion achieved by the learner,

and in turn this affects oral communicative output of the learner. DMs are regarded as effective cohesive devices with various meanings and functions in segment organization (Halliday and Hassan, 1976). Although the work of the latter is based primarily on written texts, it still sheds some light on the importance of DMs in function and meaning construction (Schiffrin, 2003).

Yang (2014), in a study of DM of English as a second language by Chinese teachers, says that understanding DMs in teacher talk can benefit discourse awareness in language teaching and curriculum design of spoken grammar, which she says impacts on effective communication and classroom practices for teachers. Poor communication skills of the teacher, have also been argued to be a fair reflection of the fundamental flaws of traditional teaching methods (Cheng, 2012).

2.7.4 Learning Style and Oral Proficiency

The ways in which an individual characteristically acquires, retains and retrieves information are collectively known as the individual's learning style (Felder and Henriques, 1995). It has been observed that serious mismatches may occur between the learning styles of students in class and the teaching method of the instructor (Felder and Verman, 1998; Lawrence, 1993; Oxford *et al.,* 1991; Schmech, 1988), with unfortunate potential consequences. Felder and Silverman (1988) and Oxford *et al.* (1991) among others observe that students in such a situation tend to get bored and inattentive in class, do poorly on test, get discouraged about the course, and may conclude that they are not good at the subject and give up.

On the Kenyan situation, Oduke (2006) reflects this same paradigm through his research entitled: 'Oral learning in FFL: Why the secondary school learner still stagnates at the beginner level after completion of studies.' The above researches imply

the existence of communicative and/or teaching and learning challenges that impede the progress in FFL learning. Oduke (ibid), further states that a well mastered language is judged by the speech produced by the speaker. He also adds that studies which stress on good oral skills acquisition should be put in place in order to help learners benefit from FFL in Kenya (Oduke, 2006). In the same vein, Chokah (2013) observes that 'due to numerous challenges faced by both teachers and learners in Secondary school, even those coming into university with grade A had (and still have) difficulty expressing themselves in French. Unfortunately, once at the university, where they are expected to work independently, they often become disillusioned and even lose interest. This study attempted to find out if there could be a disparity between learning style and teaching methodology of FFL learners.

The research also evaluated learning style in relation to oral communication as well as to DM acquisition and use. The assumption here was that the learning style of the learner predisposes them to use DMs more or less, as the learner strives for communicative competence. In view of foreign language learning, (Felder and Henriques, 1995) propose learning style dimensions derived from the work of Felder *et al.* (1988, 1993), indicating the ways in which the educational needs of students with certain strong preferences for certain poles of the dimensions are not met by traditional approaches to language instruction. The proposed dimensions of style reflect on how the learner receives information, the modality through which information is most effectively achieved, the learner's preferred way of processing information, the student's predisposition to progress toward understanding, and finally, how the student prefers the learning information to be organized. For the foreign language learner, to acquire a language means to pick it up gradually, gaining the ability to communicate with it without necessarily being able to articulate the rules (Coulter, 1983). Teaching

method and learning style should, therefore, be in congruence - a factor that the present study sought to establish.

2.7.5 Theories of Teaching and Learning

There exist many approaches to learning; however, out of these, there exist three basic theories. These are: the behaviorist, cognitive constructivist and social constructivist. Table 2c which follows demonstrates the different views of learning and teaching for each of the three approaches.

Table 2c: Teaching and Learning theories

	Behaviorism	**Cognitive Constructivism**	**Social Constructivism**
View of knowledge	Knowledge is a repertoire of behavioral responses to environmental stimuli.	Knowledge systems of cognitive structures are actively constructed by learners based on pre-existing cognitive structures.	Knowledge is constructed within social contexts through interactions with a knowledge community.
View of learning	Passive absorption of a predefined body of knowledge by the learner. Promoted by repetition and positive reinforcement.	Active assimilation and accommodation of new information to existing cognitive structures. Discovery by learners is emphasized.	Integration of students into a knowledge community. Collaborative assimilation and accommodation of new information.
View of motivation	Extrinsic, involving positive and negative reinforcement.	Intrinsic; learners set their own goals and motivate themselves to learn.	Intrinsic and extrinsic. Learning goals and motives are determined both by learners and extrinsic rewards provided by the knowledge community.
Implications for Teaching	Correct behavioral responses are transmitted by the teacher and absorbed by the students.	The teacher facilitates learning by providing an environment that promotes discovery and assimilation/accommodation.	Collaborative learning is facilitated and guided by the teacher. Group work is encouraged.

2.7.5.1 Behaviorism

The behaviorist approach of Skinner (1976) works on the basis of transfer of information from teacher to learner being a process of stimulus-response-reinforcement. It requires consistent repetition and small progressive sequences of tasks, as well as continuous positive reinforcement, without which learned responses would become extinct. The behaviorist way of teaching has worked well in areas where there is a "correct" response or easily memorized material (Reimann, 2018).

2.7.5.2 Social Constructivism

Pioneered by Vygotsky (1978), this approach argues that all cognitive functions are products of social interaction, and that learning does not simply compromise the assimilation and accommodation of new knowledge by learners. It is rather a process by which learners are integrated into a knowledge community, as language is regarded as being a collaborative social construct.

2.7.5.3 Cognitive Constructivism

The cognitive perspective, that 'learning is knowledge', is seen as something that is actively constructed by learners based on their existing cognitive structures. Therefore, learning is relative to their stage of cognitive development, and understanding the learner's existing intellectual framework is central to understanding the learning process. Cognitivist teaching methods aim to assist students in assimilating new information to existing knowledge, as well as enabling them to make the appropriate modifications to their existing intellectual framework to accommodate that information (Glasersfeld 1989, 1981; Jonassen, 1991; Marra and Jonassen 1993; Rorty, 1991). In brief, there is no single constructivist theory. Constructivist approaches to teaching and learning is grounded in several research traditions (Perkins, 1991; Paris & Byrnes, 1989).

In summary, while behaviorists maintain that knowledge is a passively absorbed series of behavior, cognitive constructivists argue instead that knowledge is actively constructed by learners and that they get to know thanks to the existence of cognitive structures. Knowledge thus involves active systems of intentional mental representations derived from past learning experiences. Each learner interprets experiences and information in the light of their existing knowledge, their stage of cognitive development, their cultural background, their personal history, and so forth. Learners use these factors to organize their experience and to select and transform new information. Knowledge is, therefore, actively constructed by the learner rather than passively absorbed; it is essentially dependent on the standpoint from which the learner approaches it.

Due to the fact that in social constructivism knowledge is actively constructed, learning is presented as a process of active discovery. The role of the instructor is not to drill knowledge into students through consistent repetition, or to goad them into learning through carefully employed rewards and punishments. Rather, the role of the teacher is to facilitate discovery by providing the necessary resources and by guiding learners as they attempt to assimilate new knowledge to old and to modify the old to accommodate the new. Teachers must thus take into account the knowledge that the learner currently possesses when deciding how to construct the curriculum and how to present, sequence, and structure new material. Table 2d (McLeod, 2019, as cited in O'Shaughnessy, 2000) is next, and it distinguishes between the behavioral and the constructivist perspectives in general.

Table 2d: Traditional versus modern teaching methods

Traditional Classroom - Behaviorist	Modern Classroom – Constructivist
Strict adherence to a fixed curriculum is highly valued	Pursuit of student questions and interests is valued
Learning is based on repetition	Learning is interactive, building on what the student already knows
Teacher-centered	Student-centered
The teacher's role is directive and rooted in authority	The teacher's role is interactive, rooted in negotiation

Teaching and learning methods are today focusing more on constructivist rather than behaviorist orientation. Whereas this should form a good background for acquisition of oral proficiency in foreign language learning, there still seems to be a problem. It is for this reason that our study proposed an alternative way of looking at the problem by undertaking a situation analysis on DM use as a possible catalyst for oral proficiency, with a focus on evaluation of teaching methodology and learning style.

2.7.6 Learning Style

Learning styles are defined as "the overall patterns that give general direction to learning behavior" (Cornett, in Oxford, 1983:9). Brown (2000) has defined learning style as a way in which individuals perceive and process information in learning situations. It is said to be both biologically and developmentally imposed and consists of characteristics that make the teaching and learning experience either pleasant or unwelcome to individuals. Various researchers have come up with different classifications, each measuring specific parameters of learning. The following table(2e), adapted from Ehrman & Oxford (1988) provides a resumé of a few learning style definitions and parameters for their classification.

Table 2e: Learning style definitions and parameters for classification

Author	Definition	Classification
Richard Felder (1993)	"Learning is the strongest contributor to learn a second language since learning styles are the ways in which an individual characteristically acquires, retains and retrieves the new information of the target language".	Sensing and intuitive Visual and verbal Active and reflective Sequential and global Inductive and deductive
Dunn & Griggs (1988)	"It is the biologically and developmentally imposed set of characteristics that make the same teaching method wonderful of some and terrible for others".	Environmental • Sound • Light • Temperature • Design Emotional • Motivation • Persistence • Responsibility • Structure Sociological • Learning alone • In a pair • With peers • With a teacher and /or in a variety of social patterns Physiological • Perception • Intake while learning • Chronobiological • Energy patterns • Mobility needs
Cornett in Ehrman & Oxford (1990)	"Learning styles are the overall patterns that give general direction to learning behavior"	Sensory preferences • Visual • Auditory • Kinesthetic • Tactile Personality type • Extroverted • Introverted

The study followed a modification of Barbe, Swassing, and Milone's (1981) model, which was further done by Fleming, (1987), cited in Moayyeri, H. (2015). who proposed three sensory learning modalities— Visual, Auditory and Kinesthetic [VAK] for the learners. The learners vary in strength with respect to one particular modality or may have a mix of these modalities. According to them, the modality strength may shift in favor of other modalities because of personal preferences, and even can be improved with practice, instruction and age.

> "Barbe, Swassing, and Milone (*ibid*) proposed three sensory learning Modalities-Visual, Auditory and Kinesthetic [VAK] for the learners. The learners vary in strength with respect to one particular modality or mix of these modalities and integrate with the person. The modality strength may shift in favor of other modalities because of personal preferences, and even can be improved with practice, instruction and age. Fleming [2016] improved this VAK model by introducing and including the modality of Read/write into his VARK model—Visual, Aural / Auditory, Read/write, and Kinesthetic. "Since the learners have the ability to apply all the approaches at the same time therefore they become multimodal depending upon context specificities. Application of this model also substantiates that learning through multiple modalities could satisfy the differentiated patterns of the learners". (Baig & Ahmad, 2016: 6695-6705)

Visual learners are sight oriented. They learn by seeing and remember well things that they see. For this group, visual representations for teaching such as pictures, graphs, posters, maps and other displays work well. They frequently use hand movements while talking and have a tendency to look upwards when thinking (Pritchard, 2009).

Auditory learners learn by listening. They prefer the audio and easily recall things that they hear. They prefer repetition, summaries and benefit from discussions, lectures, stories and the like. These learners have a tendency to tilt their heads and use eye movements when concentrating or recalling information (*ibid*).

Kinesthetic learners depend on doing to learn. They heavily incline towards interactions within the learning environment and especially with their bodies. They will easily recall

events or information attached to an experience or the feelings of a physical event. They learn best through field trips, physical activity, manipulating objects and touch. Kinesthetic learners tend to have high difficulty in sitting still and need frequent breaks when learning. Barbe and Milone (1981), cited in Papadatou-Pastou, M. et al (2018) Frontiers. discovered that individuals demonstrated approximately 30% visual strength, 30% mixed strengths, 25% auditory with 15% kinesthetic (Barbe & Milone, (*ibid*). We set out to find the case with learners of French as a foreign language in this study.

Of what importance therefore are the learning styles? The learning styles help policy makers in identifying and bridging up the gap between learning theories, way of learning and practices for the development of the learners, differentiated instruction and transformation of knowledge in the classroom in particular, and in the academia in general.

Barbe, Swassing & Milone (1979) discovered when matching an instructor with a student of the same modality strength that higher performance of the student was achieved. They propose that educators should use student modality strength in the instructional planning. This mode of learning is best achieved when instructors and educational administrators are aware of their modality strength, hence in our study, learning style and teaching methods were juxtaposed in order to see whether the students' problem of oral communication is impacted by any a possible gap that may need to be bridged.

2.8 Language Teaching and Learning Vs Proficiency

The current research recognizes that DM teaching and learning are not the only possible factors that could influence oral proficiency. Others include environmental, personality, learner's background, and socio-economic factors and more. We, however, settled on

teaching and learning as these are the primary interactants in the acquisition process and as such, practices employed could have significant effects on the teaching and learning outcome.

In the chapter that follows, we will elaborate further on how the factors discussed are directed towards analyzing the problem of oral proficiency, by DM use through the intervention of teaching and learning.

2.9 Study Approach

The overall aim of this research is to determine to what extent the problem of low oral proficiency among university learners of French is influenced by DM use. We tackled this from various persepctives. What then is the apprach taken by this study? We discuss this here, in light of our research questions, which are as follows:

a. How does DM form-frequency-function relate to oral proficiency?

According to the literature, DM form and frequency occur diversely and in high frequency among native speakers, (Huang, 2011; Asik and Cephe, 2013; Fox Tree, 2010; Sankoff et al, 1997, Fung and Carter, 2007; Pellet, 2005) in Yang (201) The present study seeks to find out the DM forms, frequency of occurrence and functions exhibited by the elicited various forms among university learners of French as a foreign language.

Various strategies seem to be adopted by foreign language learners in helping them cope with speaking problems. Research reveals that language-linguistic approaches to speaking problems have the following characteristics by nature: social affective, fluency-oriented, negotiation for meaning while speaking, accuracy-oriented, message reduction and alteration, employment of non-verbal strategies while speaking, message

abandonment, and attempt to think in the target language (Nakatani, 2010). The approach taken for this study was basically fluency-oriented, through an assessment of DM use in measuring the learner's efficiency of spoken expression in discourse. This we did by determining the role of DMs as cohesive devices, capable of creating coherence in discourse, and in turn translates to fluency. In this, we used the Relevance Theory (Sperber and Wilson, 1986; 2002) to determine coherence and the Rhetorical Structure Theory (Mann and Thompson, 1988; 1992) to explain coherence, through DM use.

    b. To what extent does teaching methodology address the need for the learner to develop oral communicative skills?

To answer this research question, the study approach followed was to investigate the methodologies employed by lecturers in teaching French, and the extent to which these methods cater for the need for oral communication and proficiency among the learners. A teaching method is characterised by a set of principles, procedures or strategies to be implemented by teachers to achieve desired learning in students (Liu & Shi, 2007 cited in Westwood, 2008). These principles and procedures are determined partly be the nature of the subject matter to be taught and partly be our beliefs and theories about how students learn (Westwood, 2008). It is for this reason that we sought to understand the role of both teaching methods and students' learning styles that would preferably lead to the desired overall output in French language teaching, and specifically to oral communicative competence. We analysed the teaching methods to be either more teacher-oriented or more student-oriented, thus leaning towards either instrtuctivist or constructivist theoretical approaches to teaching respectively. The latter are currently

embraced as being modern while the former as perceived as traditional and less proactive.

c) To what extent does learning style affect the student's oral skills acquisition?

This study supposes that one's preferred learning style may affect their capacity for oral skills acquisition. Learning styles are stable individual variations in perceiving, organizing, processing, and remembering information (Shipman & Shipman, 1985 cited in Schunk, 2012). It has to do with stylistic differences associated with differences in learning and receptivity to various forms of instruction (Messick, 1984 in Schunk, 2012). As a whole, learning styles are a totality of the characteristic cognitive, effective and psychological behaviours that serve as relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with and respond to the learning environment. Learning styles are varied and are considered a factor for success in higher education (Romanelli et al, 2009). Several potential scales and classifications of learning styles exist, and their similarity is that they focus on environmental preferences, sensory modalities, personality types and/or cognitive styles (Cook, 2006). In the study, we chose the VAK learning styles scale. The VAK learning style uses the three main sensory receivers: Visual, Auditory, and Kinesthetic to determine the dominant learning style, and it is sometimes known as VAKT (Visual, Auditory, Kinesthetic, & Tactile). (Alan Chapman, 2005, 2012 cited in Gholami, 2013:700).).

We concur with previous studies that knowing one's learning style can be important to both educators and students. Faculty members with knowledge of learning styles can tailor pedagogy so that it best coincides with learning styles exhibited by majority of students (Lubawy, 2003). In like manner, students with knowledge of their own preferences are empowered to use various techniques to enhance learning, which in turn

may influence overall educational satisfaction. This ability is especially essential when an instructor's teaching style does not match a student's learning style (Romanelli et al, 2009). It is from this perspective that we take the approach in the current study to evaluate overall preferred learning modalities of learners, in order to determine synchrony between the teaching methodologies and preferred learning styles, and to what extent oral skills acquisition is influenced by preferred learning style of the learner of French.

d) What are the pedagogical implications of DM use in French foreign language teaching and learning?

The current study is action research oriented. Action research consists of three major phases, namely, situation analysis, intervention and evaluation (Cardno and Piggot-Irvine, 1996; Rowley, 2003). At the core of this research is the situation analysis component of action research design, which is exploratory in nature. This means that the study focuses on establishing the research context- the problem of oral communication in our case, for the necessary future intervention and evaluation of proposed mechanisms at work. We thus look into the possibility of controlling problems in oral communication among learners of French in Kenya specifically through curriculum inclusion of pragmatic competence-oriented approaches, of which discourse markers are a part. This would entail blending in of appropriate teaching methodologies with prefrerred learning styles, all in abid to maximize the potential for oral proficiency of the learner of French.

The following model, figure 3-0, illustrates how the study variables relate in attempting to solve the current research problem.

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┌─────────────────────┐        ┌─────────────────────┐
│   High proficiency  │        │      Learner-       │
│                     │        │  centered/improved  │
│        ▲            │        │                     │
│       ╱ ╲           │        │                     │
│      ╱   ╲          │   ➡    │     WAYS OF         │
│     │ DM  │         │        │    TEACHING &       │
│     │ use │         │        │  LEARNING FRENCH    │
│      ╲   ╱          │   ⬅    │                     │
│       ╲ ╱           │        │                     │
│        ▼            │        │                     │
│   Low proficiency   │        │                     │
└─────────────────────┘        └─────────────────────┘
```
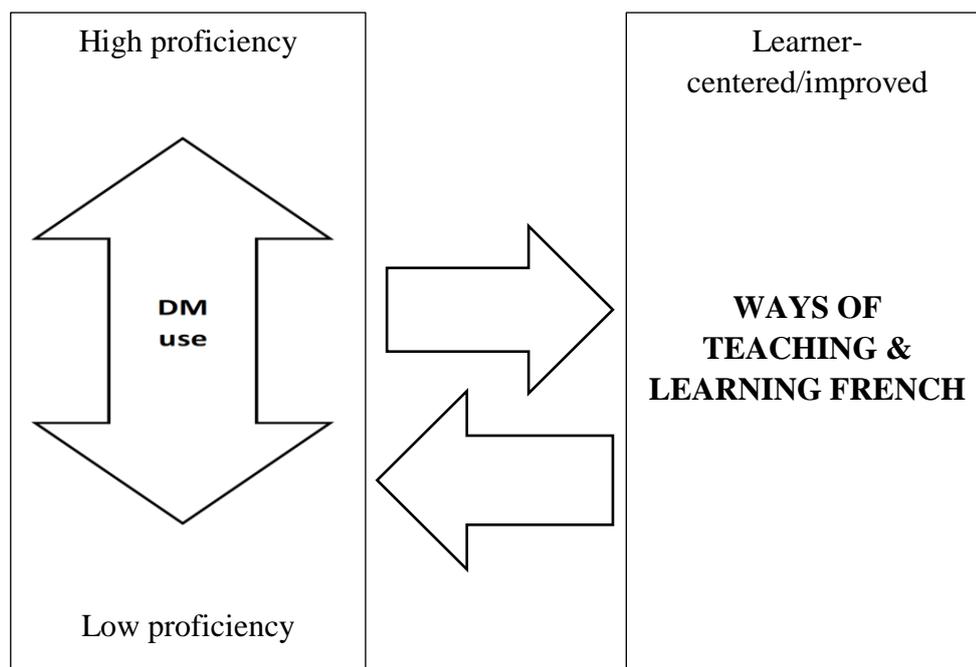
Figure 3-0 Study Approach Model

Figure 3-0, is a model depicting the orientation of the current study. In seeking to understand the problem of oral communication among learners of French, this research operates on the premise that the higher the frequency of DM use, the higher the oral proficiency level exhibited by the learner of French. We also consider oral proficiency, and DM use in particular, to be a possible product of teaching methods employed by the instructor and preferred learning style of the student. Although we postulate that appropriate and frequent DM use may be conditioned by other causes such as living in a francophone environment and French immersion learning, among others, our research was delimited to French teaching and learning, given that within the school system, these are the integral units of measurement of quality, upon which success pegged. The study also holds that oral proficiency levels of the student will increase when teaching methodology and learning style is more learner than teacher-centred.

With this guiding principle, we shall now move to the next chapter, where we will discuss the research design and methodology that we used in carrying out the study.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter describes the nature of the current research and procedures involved in attempting to address the problem of oral communication among university learners of French, in relation to teaching methods employed and learning styles of students. In these, of essence is the role of DMs in oral communication. This study investigated how oral French communication is taught and learnt, with particular reference to DM use among university learners of French in Kenya. The study, therefore, offers insights into approaches in the oral communication domain of foreign language learning and teaching, in order to suggest remedies to the problem of low proficiency. The research was guided by a mix of theoretical principles governing DM use on the one hand, and theories of teaching and learning, on the other.

3.1 Research Design

This study followed the Action Research Design. Focusing on DMs, which we consider as a hallmark of oral proficiency and which are wanting in oral speech among the French speakers in Kenyan universities, our aim was to gather information related to how DMs are taught and learnt and to analyze it as a basis for future intervention. The research design was informed by the nature of the research problem, whose core objective was to address the issue of communicative competence among university-level French language learners, with the ulterior aim of maximizing on their productivity and efficiency within various socio-economic spaces upon completion of their studies.

The current situation of low oral proficiency among learners of French was analyzed, after which we proposed a plan of improvement, through intervention, by means of both

quantitative and qualitative processes (Blaxter, Hughers & Tight, 2001). Action research is cyclical in form and comprises three major cycles of activity, including: situation analysis, intervention and evaluation (Cardno and Piggot-Irvine, 1996; Rowley, 2003). The present study focused on the situation analysis component of action research design, as it was exploratory in nature, focusing on establishment of the research context for the necessary future intervention; this formed the delimitation of our study.

The intervention stage follows and is all about implementation of the activities agreed upon, following the situation analysis stage of action research. Next is the evaluation stage, which focuses on outcomes of the intervention. There being various stakeholders involved towards the success of university-level French academic programme, including researchers, teachers and learners, this study focused on the preliminary step, which was within the delimitation boundaries of our research. It further recommended that the latter two steps within the design be considered as a sequential study, within a different framework.

3.2 Methodology

Variables studied were DM use vis-à-vis oral communication. The methods used for collecting, measuring and analyzing data were informed by the following objectives:

a. To analyze emergent DM form, frequency and function and their impact on oral proficiency.

b. To investigate how French is taught at public universities in Kenya.

c. To examine how French is learnt at public universities in Kenya.

d. To assess pedagogical and learning implications of DM use on foreign language teaching and learning, in relation to spoken discourse.

Methods used to analyze emergent DM form, frequency and function and their impact on oral proficiency, involved eliciting DMs from the speech of respondents'. We first had the students watch a short no-sound video after which they orally narrated the story, one after the othe then analyzed DMs emanating from the narrations for form and frequency of occurrence. We then established the functions of the DM forms as per grammatical category, and this was necessary in helping us establish the role of DMs in oral proficiency.

Secondly, we investigated French teaching methods used in selected Kenyan universities, with particular attention to oral communication. To do this, we administered two sets of questionnaires; one for students and the other for teachers. The teachers' questionnaire also investigated DM knowledge and use by teachers, these being possible factors to DM transmission and use among learners.

We then examined students' preferred learning styles. To achieve this, we included in the students' questionnaire a section investigating the styles. Inclination to any of the three major styles – visual, auditory or kinesthetic was the established. This was followed by a side-by-side analysis of learning styles and French teaching methods. We then evaluated the extent to which the two agree, and the effect of this on oral communication. The Rhetorical Structure and Relevance theories jointly offered a framework of analysis and interpretation of emergent DMs, in terms of coherence and relevance of speech, while the theories of teaching and learning were an instrumental guide in proposed practices for adoption in the domain of foreign language erudition and pedagogy.

3.1.1 The Study Area and Study Population

Our study focused on all fourth year French students and all their teachers from all six Kenyan universities that offer French studies at Bachelors degree level, at the period of

fieldwork. Despite disparity in numbers, each institution was offered an equal chance in participation of respondents in order to account for a balanced, unbiased analysis. A total of 17 teachers and 80 students participated in the questionnaire interview. For students, the figure, however, reduced to 60 percent of the total, with the number of those participating in the oral interview standing at 48. We note here that ethical standards were maintained, and coercion of respondents' participation was not a factor. We noticed, interestingly, that all were more than willing to participate in the questionnaire interview, but a number were quite elusive regarding the oral part. This explains the downward shift in number of respondents. It is however important to note that the figure of those who responded to the oral narration in relation to the total population of study was still within acceptable sample size limits, at 95% confidence level with a confidence interval of 10 for the said entire population of 80 student respondents..

3.1.2 Sampling Procedures

Owing to the relatively low number of students graduating with French option, we purposively selected all French final-year students from all the six universities to form a census study group so as to maximize on result validity and reliability. Why public universities? As opposed to private universities in the country, the public universities have had a longer history with French teaching and learning at degree level; we therefore counted on the experience of the latter.

3.1.3 Data Type and Sources of Data

We sought to find out how the French learners express themselves in spoken French, and whether their learning styles were catered for by French teaching methodologies employed. Therefore, we obtained data on oral speech of the learner respondents and also data on their learning styles. It was important as well, for us to find out from both

teachers and students the methods used in teaching French. This enabled us to analyze the extent to which results from the two teams were in tandem. Through oral narrations given by respondents, the occurrence frequency of DM forms elicited accounted for quantitative data, while DM functions majorly presented qualitative data for analysis and interpretation.

3.1.4 Data Instruments, Elicitation, Analysis and Presentation

The first objective of the study was to investigate emergent DM form, frequency and function and then evaluate their impact on oral proficiency on the part of the student. To do this, respondents were required to watch a short image-only, no sound, video clip. The 5:55 minute ive-minute 'silent video' type series entitled 'The Pear Film' (Chafe, W. L. (Ed.), 1980). A url hyperlink to the video has been provided in Appendix III. The *Pear Film* was developed specifically to provide a platform for respondents to orally narrate stories in the foreign/ second language being learnt. Our respondents first watched the silent video, then each narrated the story. In a few cases, a single narration was completed by more than one individual, in instances where a respondent was unable to complete their oral narration. We then audio recorded every individual student narration, transcribed and translated the oral narration (Appendix IV contains selected oral data that was analyzed in this study). A total of 48 learners of French in their final year of study participated. For audio recording, we used a digital recording app, downloaded in a Samsung Tab 4 device. We then listened to the oral data and manually transcribed it with pen on paper, after which we typed it on the computer. This was followed by a semi-automated translation technique: the machine-aided human translation, which involves the use of computer software to perform part of the process of translation (Sager, 1994:326), with the help of the researcher. This approach was productive, both for speed and efficacy.

Our second study objective was to investigate how French is taught. For this, questionnaires were administered to both learners and teachers (Appendix I and Appendix II), within the six institutions of higher learning offering French at degree level. Results obtained from the 80 learners acted as a validating tool of teachers' responses obtained from the 17 teachers who participated in the exercise, thus controlling bias. We postulated that if significant results were obtained, they could have implications on the teaching of French in Kenya as a foreign language.

The next objective of the research was to examine learning styles of students in order to identify their unique preferred styles of learning and also to verify to what extent these learning styles were collectively catered for by the teaching methods employed. The student questionnaire (Appendix I) that we administered catered for this. It also checked for DM knowledgeability and use among the learners of French; this was validated by the student oral narrations of the silent video clip.

The final research objective was to assess pedagogical and learning implications of DM use on French Foreign Language teaching and learning, in relation to spoken discourse. This we did through analyzing and interpreting data collected on DM use and oral communication, by using the processes detailed above. This was of essence in our action research design, through which we managed to carry out a situation analysis of the problem of study, and offered recommendations on implementation of proposed practices in oral French Foreign Language teaching and learning.

3.1.5 Data Analysis

To organize and analyze questionnaire data, we used SPSS version 25 for quantitative data on DM form and frequency, learning styles and teaching methodology. The study then used the non-parametric Spearman's correlation test to measure the extent of the relationship between preferred learning styles and teaching methods employed. The

next step involved identification of DM forms within various discourse segments and establishing their specific function in creation of discourse coherence. We then concurrently employed a double-faceted approach to DM analysis based on, first, the Relevance Theory (RT) of Sperber and Wilson (1995) to establish the function of DMs as connectives, and therefore, as cohesive devices which act as cues for discourse interpretation, as the hearer attempts to gauge the speaker's intended meaning. Secondly, we employed the Rhetorical Structure Theory (RST) of Mann and Thompson (1987) to identify how coherence relations, through DM use, influenced the speech of learners of French. The RST analysis offered was mostly descriptive in nature, drawing inferences from transcribed and translated data. Selected oral data samples were also analyzed through the traditional explanatory tree structures, all in an attempt to explain proficiency as a result of possible coherence creation by DM use. This is to say dialectically that, where RT confirmed coherence through cohesion, RST explained coherence through structural organization of discourse. In this way, we attempted to explain the role of DMs in oral communication via coherence relations.

The analysis of teaching methodology and learning style were questionnaire based. The student questionnaire explored individual students' learning style as well as their knowledgeability and use of DMs. The questionnaire also went ahead to find out how their teachers taught them oral French. The teacher questionnaire also focused on French teaching methodology, from the teacher's point of view. It sought as well to test knowledgeability and DM use among teachers of French at university level. We classified teaching methodology in terms of being either teacher-centered, which leans more towards the traditional behaviorist approaches or student-centered, which encompasses the improved constructivist approaches to teaching. The teacher-centered approaches view the teacher as the main authority figure and the student plays a rather

passive role. On the other hand, student-centered approaches consider both teachers and students as playing an active role in the learning process. The analysis of the learning style involved identifying specific styles for each student as being, to varying levels of combinations of visual, auditory and kinesthetic styles. We then analyzed the aggregate prefered learning style combinations among the students. The influence of DM use on oral proficiency (high or low) through analysis of teaching methods and learning styles was thus established.

3.1.6 Ethical Issues

To ensure adhereance to ethical considerations on the study premises and the subjects involved in our study, we subjected our research proposal for ethical clearance and approval by the Research Ethics Committee of the University of Esatrern Africa, Baraton which is accredited by the country's National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI). The clearance letter is attached in Appendix V as a research authorization document.

Among the matters we looked into was confidentiality of the respondents' especially because of the possible subjective nature of learners' orally produced discourse, as well as on their views concerning how their teachers taught them French. No names were required and assurance was given that the data would be used for the sole purpose of the current study. The teacher respondents were also thus assured. Information regarding performance by the various universities studied was also treated confidentially. Neither the names of the teachers nor those of the institutions were divulged to protect their identity and integrity. Further, data obtained was strictly used for the prescribed purpose in view of understanding the problem at hand and the way forward. In the chapter that follows, we shall offer a discussion on analysis and interpretation of data that we collected.

CHAPTER FOUR

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

4.0 Introduction

In the present study, we sought to find out the extent to which DMs are used in oral communication among learners of French as a foreign language. The population of study was fourth year students of French in Kenyan public universities. We purposively selected this group of final year students for this research, with the assumption that their oral communication abilities would be the most proficient as compared to the lower level groups. Based on the main aim of the research, which was to establish the relationship between Discourse Marker use and oral communication among learners of French, we investigated the extent to which DM use impacts on the French learners' oral communication. The study also sought to establish the various teaching methods as well as the learning styles of students and the impact of these on the overall oral communicative experience of the learner. The objectives of this research were as follows:

a. To analyze emergent DM form, frequency and function and their impact on oral proficiency.

b. To investigate how oral French is taught.

c. To examine how students learn oral French.

d. To assess pedagogical and learning implications of DM use on foreign language teaching and learning, in relation to spoken discourse.

In this section we present an analysis of DM forms that emerged from the speech of respondents as they narrated a story. We will also consider the functions achieved by various DM forms as well as their frequency of occurrence, and the impact of these on the oral production of the respondents. Existing literature reveals that native speakers

of French exhibit a higher frequency of DM use than non-native speakers. DMs are considered the hallmark of fluent French speakers (Pellet, 2005). In agreement with this, is Secova (2010), who affirms that spoken French language is characterised by a frequent use of discourse markers. These expressions, she says, are very frequent in and typical of spontaneous speech, and have a wide range of different functions. The functions have also been described as being both micro and macro, operating on a wide spectrum of discourse spaces, depending of the form of DM used (Furko, 2012).

Why are DMs a significant feature of fluent French speakers? This observation has been attributed to what various scholars regard as the ability of Discourse Markers to contribute to discourse connectedness, and therefore, possibly to coherence in discourse as well. The measure to which this is true was also core to our study. Schiffrin (1998) views the study of Discourse Markers as being part of the more general analysis of discourse coherence. Referring to the manner in which a text holds together by use of various connectives, cohesion plays an important role in discourse, and is realized by lexico-grammatical units in the discourse. Cohesion helps to create continuity that exists between one part of the discourse and another, and thus aids in attaining coherence. This perspective is also supported by Renhert (1980), who holds that coherence is composed of the semantic and grammatical connectedness between discourse and context. He fuses coherence and cohesion together and regards them as consisting of three elements, namely connectedness, consistency and relevance. Other scholars, however, propose cohesion and coherence as two entirely different concepts. De Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) suggest that cohesion represents the structural relations on the discourse surface, while coherence represents the structural relations underlying the surface. This view is also held by Brown and Yule (1983), Stubbs (1983) and Tannen (1984). Either way, this study explored how DMs can possibly influence

oral communication by creating discourse connectedness through coherence and cohesion. In this analysis, we will also look into the strategies that the non-native French speaker puts in place, as an attempt to create coherence and cohesion in the event that accessibility to DMs is limited. Our research aimed at finding out how DMs, being explicit rather than implicit cohesive devices are able to impact on oral communication output of the learner. For this reason, analysis of DM form, frequency and function was core to the current research.

The 'fluidity' of Discourse Markers – What are the repercusions of this on oral production of non-native speakers of French? The Discourse Marker class is purported to consist of a group of linguistic items that are rather fluid, because the items are derived from multiple grammatical catagories. This means that a particular Discourse Marker is able to operate in different functional or grammatical categories, depending on the interactional moment and pedagogical requirement at any one given time. This shows that the same function can also be realized by more than one DM (Yang, 2014). A particular DM can thus convey meanings and relationships in more than one 'discoursal component' (Georgakopoulu and Goutsos, 2004). DMs are, therefore, multifunctional in nature; the chosen form reveals a particular function in line with context of communication. But to what extent are learners of French accessible to the DM pool? And to what extent are they able to pick and use the appropriate DM contextually? Our study deduced that DMs are a hallmark of fluent French speakers because of exposure to their use in natural language use settings. The meanings portrayed by the DMs are not only based on the speaker's intention but more so, on the ability of the hearer to accurately understand the speaker's intended message, with the DM offering the ostensive-stimulus response and thus helping to create relevance of the message sent (Blakemore, 2002). In this way, it acts not only as a fronter for

connectedness, but also as a device that enables the listener to deduce the meaning of a message by employing the least possible effort.

Based on reports from the literature, fluent speakers were found to intrinsically understand the flexibility of DMs in terms of form semanticity and grammatical categorization. In other words, they have access to the complex relationship between DM form and function in relation to context. In addition to this, various scholars agree that DM accessibility is 'caught' rather than 'taught' (Yang, 2014). This is in reference to the sociolinguistic and pragmatic competence, the key sub-domains of communicative competence. We found out that this access may be minimal to non-native French speakers due to their limited sociolinguistic and pragmatic competence. These assertions are supported by such studies done by Hellermenn and Vergun (2007), Polat, (2011) and Yang (2014). How to achieve the various competence levels of communication through direct intervention of DMs being taught to non-native speakers was of interest to the present study. This research, therefore, sought as well to establish the extent to which DMs are used by learners of French, and the repercussions of this on the students' oral communication abilities, regarding oral proficiency. In this chapter, we will analyze these aspects of our research.

4.1 Analysis of Discourse Marker Form, Frequency and Function

In this section, we analyze various DM forms that emanated from the discourse of the learners of French that we studied. We carried out an analysis of the frequency and functions of the emergent forms. In this way, we were able to establish the relationship between DM form-frequency-function and oral proficiency of the French learners. The research studied university-level learners of French in their final year of study. We considered this particular group as the best suited source of collecting the data we

required, given their readiness for the job market and their experience in terms of years of French learning. By this level, all the student respondents had studied French consecutively for at least eight years, having accumulated on average 350 hours of French learning in secondary school, and another 595 hours, maximum, of French learning at university (Chokah, 2013). All final-year French students from a total of six public universities, were studied. To evaluate oral French teaching methodology and students learning style we administered questionnaires to all student respondents; eighty in total. We also carried out a test on actual use of DMs by respondents and this was done by subjecting the students to watching a short six-minute video, and then having them orally tell the story. From their narrations, we elicited and analyzed DM forms used for various functions. Although all respondents had an equal chance of responding to questionnaires and narrating the video story, there was a notable fluctuation in figures between the two sets as shown in the table 4.0 which ensues.

Table 4-0: Ratio of questionnaire versus video respondents per university

University	Total Questionnaire Respondents	Total Video Respondents
A	22	10
B	25	10
C	9	10
D	12	10
E	3	3
F	9	4
Total	**80**	**47**

From the table 4-0, it can be seen that although we undertook a census survey, which was captured by the questionnaire student respondents at 100%, we noticed that the figure reduced to about 59% of the population, for those who watched the video and narrated the story. In both cases no coercion was imposed on the respondents, and we found this downward shift to be significant in understanding certain aspects of oral

communication among learners of French as a foreign language, as we shall see later in the discussion.

Which video and why? We used an all-time classic no-sound video entitled '*The Pear Film*' developed by University of California linguistics Professor Chafe, Wallace (1980). Although *The Pear Film* is not one that was recently developed, we found this very fact to be pivotal for its choice as a tool for collecting the data we needed, given the vast amount of interdisciplinary research that the video has generated and accumulated over time. The aim of the video has always been to present cinematically a series of more or less natural events to multiple viewers, who are then asked to verbalize what they remember. The debut research on *The Pear Film* is documented in, '*The Pear Stories: Cognitive, Cultural, and Linguistic Aspects of Narrative Production,*' (Chafe, 1980).

The nearly six-minute film has over the years been shown to speakers of a number of languages, who were then asked to tell what happened in it. The video has been used in a variety of other studies across languages. Erbaugh, (2001,) studied the grammatical category of sortal classifiers and used *The Pear Film* to elicit narratives from Chinese speakers. She reiterates that, 'all the speakers describe the same specially made experimental film about some children stealing fruits. The *'Pear Stories'* film has sound effects, but no words.' Professor Wallace Chafe designed the film to elicit language samples around the world, including English, German, Greek, Japanese, Haitian Creole, and a Mayan Indian language. These stories have already been used as a foundation for progress in understanding spoken and written language' (Erbaugh, 2001). Like Erbaugh's (2001) study, our research was also keen on narration from a grammatical view point, but with a focus on use of French Discourse Markers. Pavlenko (2014)

used *The Pear Film* in narrative elicitation from the psychoanalytical perspective of the basis of language and thought, by looking into lexical choices with regard to particular referents. To some extent, Pavlenko's (2014) study would be similar to ours in as far as both deal with lexical choices. What, however, puts our study apart is the particular lexical choice in consideration - DMs and their role in oral proficiency?

Another research inspired by the *Pear Stories Project/ Pear Film* is the Pear Tree Project by Igareda, Paula & Matamala Anna (2012). Unlike previous works described, the study investigated how different cultures and languages described what they saw, but aimed to shed light on two issues: translation and target audience, and how these variables could influence final production. This study is different from ours in that other than narration, it focused on the perspective of translation with specific target audiences, while our focus was on French Foreign language learning and oral proficiency.

What is the scope and content of the *Pear Film*? The '*Pear Stories Film*' was designed to elicit narratives worldwide (Chafe, 1980). Native speakers have described the film in both spoken and written English (ibid), in Greek (Tannen, 1980,1982,1993), Japanese (Clancy, 1980; Downing, 1986), German, Mayan, Haitian creole and other languages, as have foreign students of Mandarin (Polio, 1994). We considered two narrations of the story by different scholars respectively, aginst which we validated the narrations of our respondents, especially in terms of the broader theme and general plot of events in the story. The following is the narration of the film content by Erbaugh:

> "The nearly six-minute color film has background sounds, such as chirping birds, but no dialogue. The story is deliberately loose to minimize cultural bias. Actors depict a dark-haired man climbing a tree and picking   pears. A man leads a goat across the screen, then disappears. Some boys ride along on their bikes, steal a basket of pears, and ride away. They bump into a rock, one loses his hat, and

they spill the pears. In the last shot, the farmer discovers that a [his] whole basket of pears is missing" (2002).

The above presents us the broader theme and more general plot of the happenings in the film. A considerable number of our respondents seemed to produce French verions of the narrative of this kind, albeit with much repetition, stutters and pauses and DMs to a limited extent. The next narration depicted of *The Pear Film* is by Pavlenko (2014).

"The pear film portrays a man picking pears on a ladder in a tree. Below the tree there are three baskets into which he dumps the pears from the pocket of his apron. A boy on a bicycle approaches the tree, takes a basket full of pears, places it on the rack and rides off. Then we see the boy riding down the road and a girl on a bicycle approaching from the other direction. As the boy turns to look at the girl, his bike hits a rock and falls over, and the pears spill out onto the ground. Three boys pick up the scattered pears and put them back in the basket. The bike boy offers them three pears and they walk away, eating the pears. Meanwhile, the pear picker gets down and notices that he only has two baskets where there were three. Then he sees three boys approaching, eating their pears. He watches them as they pass by and walk into the distance."

From this second narration, the theme and plot of the story are made clearer by inclusion of details. The sentences are also more compact as opposed to the phrasal kind in the earlier narration. This latter narrative also carries to some extent, necessary connectives such as conjunctions and prepositions which help in cohesion of elements of the discourse thus creating coherence to an appreciable degree. From our study, this level of discourse narration was limited due to several factors not limited to but including being non-native speakers of the French language and, therefore, limited accessibility to sociolinguistic and pragmatic competence in oral communication. We shall further discuss this in the chapter.

How appropriate was the pear film for this research? We required a valid and reliable tool, which was tried, tested, standard across the divide, and able to collect the data necessary for the study. For this, we found *The Pear Film* most appropriate. Various tools **have been proposed for** use in field of linguistics and language description. Such

tools guide the linguist in both eliciting data and extracting information from naturalistic texts (Davis et al, 2015). **S**cholars refer to such tools as **language** elicitation kits, and these 'allow the researcher to present movie clips and similar language stimuli to native **or non-native** speaker consultants to see how they would describe the event shown' (Ibid). Examples of other stimulus kit types, other than *The Pear Film* include the following:

- Scope Fieldwork Project, whose purpose was to investigate the syntax of quantifiers and scope in the languages of the world. This is done by creating a series of pictures that can be used to elicit scope judgments from native speakers of the language being investigated (Bruening, Benjamin 2001, 2008). Another set of language elicitation tool is the Language and Cognition Field Manuals and Stimulation kits used in psychology and field linguistics for elicitation of semantics and collection of verbal behavior. These were developed by: Language & Cognition Group at Max Planck Institute for Psycholinguistics, Netherlands.

- **Story-Builder - This is another language elicitation kit, consisting of picture cards for language activities.** Story-builder was initiated as a research course project in the Cognitive Systems program at the University of British Columbia, led by Sardinha (Katie Sardinha, www.story-builder.ca). It is an adaptable set of picture cards for facilitating creative story-telling and eliciting natural speech on a wide range of topics. Speakers use picture cards to create visual stories, which can be narrated in the speakers' own words. This is used in field linguistic research as well as for language pedagogy and games.

- **Totem Field Storyboards - Sto**ryboards are pictorial representations of stories, which speakers are asked to tell in their own words. The storyboards are important in eliciting semantic, pragmatic, syntactic, morphological, phonological or phonetic data (Davis et al, 2015).

- *The Pear Film* - Although this video was originally used to measure aspects cognition and oral communication among native language speakers who were asked to tell the story of the video in their own words, it has equally been used with non-native speakers, as in the present study, where it was used to determine DM occurrence in terms of frequency and function, and how these relate to oral production. We found the silent video to be an appropriate tool for investigating many aspects of language by providing a stimulus that evokes the desired linguistic activity, such as DM use in our case, rather than by simply asking a question to the respondent. *The Pear Film,* therefore, acted as a suitable stimulus kit in eliciting DMs in oral communication. Being almost six minutes long, and containing a systematically built story line, we found the video clip to be most suitable in terms of brevity as well as in the ability to prompt the learner to begin and develop the viewed story to completion. In this way, we were able to clearly see the role of Discourse Markers in discourse coherence and proficiency.

We also noted from the present research, and in agreement with past studies that DMs fulfil various linguistic and pragmatic functions, contrary to what some have speculated. How this assumption is arrived at is beyond the scope of this study.

Based on function, Discourse Markers have been classified differently by different scholars. Brinton (1996), for example considers DMs as broadly fulfilling either the

textual or interpersonal functions and further, under these, are specific functions. The textual functions according to Brinton (ibid), are realized by DMs acting as opening or closing frame markers, turn-takers, turn-givers and turn keepers, fillers, topic switches, information indicators, sequence markers and repair markers. On the other hand, interpersonal functions of DMs are attained by response markers, back-channel signals, confirmation seekers and face-savers. However, *Andreas & Ziv (1998)* narrow their classification of DMs into four broad categories, depending on the functions they fulfil. These include: interpersonal, referential, structural, and cognitive *functions. Let us consider the examples that follow.*

- Interpersonal markers are used to indicate the relationship between the speaker and the listener:

    - Perception: "look" *regarde*

    - Agreement: "exactly" - *voilà*, or disagreement: "I'm not sure"- *je ne suis pas sur*

    - Amazement: "wow" - *oh la la*

- Referential markers, usually conjunctions, are used to indicate the sequence, causality, and coordination between statements:

    - Sequence: "now" – *maintenant*, "then"- *puis*

    - Causality: "because"- *par ce que*

    - Coordination: "and"- *et*, or non-coordination: "but" – *mais*

- Structural markers indicate the hierarchy of conversational actions at the time in which they are spoken. These markers indicate which statements the speaker believes to be most or least important:

    - Organization: "first of all" – *tout d'abord*

- Introduction: "so" – *alors*

- Summarization: "in the end" – *enfin*

- Cognitive markers reveal the speaker's thought process:

- Processing information: "uhh"- *euh*

- Realization: "oh!" - *ah*

-Rephrasing: "I mean" – *c'est-à-dire*

We deduced from our research that DM functions are varied and as numerous as are the DMs. This chapter will offer an analysis in context, of selected high frequency DMs emanating from the discourse of the learners of French, and finally, how these impact on oral proficiency of the learners. Before then, we analyze in the ensuing section, emergent DM forms and their frequency of occurrence.

4.1.1 Analysis of Discourse Marker Form - Frequency

As already mentioned in the current discussion, one of the objectives of this research was to assess the nature of DM forms used by French learners as well as the frequency of occurrence of the said forms. We shall later on discuss, in the section after this, how these relate to function. The six tables that follow represent DMs elicited from the oral French communication of our study group per respondent, within each learning institution, as they narrated the '*Pear Film*' story.

Table 4a: University A - DM form-frequency occurrence pattern

	DMs																							DMs
	Et	Avec ça	Par ce que	Donc	C'est à dire	Alors	Quand	Euh/ah/mm	Là	On peut dire	Aussi	C'est comme ça	Mais	C'est ça	Après	Puis	La première fois	peut-être	oui	Ok	d'après moi	Après avoir	Malheureusement	Après ça
Respondents																								
A1	4	2	4	1	1	1	1	1	2	-														
A2	13	-	1	1					1	1														
A3	7		1				1	2	1		1	1	3	1	1									
A4	5		1										1			1	1							
A5	19						2		1		4					6			6					
A6	3							1										1	1	1	1			
A7	6							3					1			1						1	2	1
A8	4						1	1						1										1
A9	1	2					4	3								1				1				
A10	7						1	3				1				4						2	1	1
Totals	69	4	7	2	1	1	10	14	5	1	5	2	5	2	1	13	1	1	7	2	1	3	3	3

University A top ranking: Et -69, Euh/ah/mm =14, Puis =13, Quand =10

Table 4b: University B - DM form-frequency occurrence pattern

	DMs Et	Alors	Par ce que	Donc	C'est à dire	Qqch. Comme ça	Quand	Euh/ah/mm	Là	C'est intéressant que	Aussi	Je apr que	Mais	Ça va	Après	Puis	à mon avis	peut-être	oui	d'après moi	Après avoir	Malheureusement	Après ça	Je crois	Bon	En fait	déjà	C'est tout	Tout ça	Ben	Je vois que	Je ne sais pas	C'est comme si	D'accord	pour
Respondents																																			
B1	20			2		1		7	8		2		1	1		13	2		11	1				2	1		1	1	1	1	1	3			1
B2	4					2		9							3	2		1													1				
B3	9			5			2	3	2	1		1	2		1		1																	1	
B4	10	1					4		1		4				4						1													1	
B5	8						1	4			3	1	3		1			2					1												
B6	11	1		2			1	2			1	1				1			3				1												
B7	7	1					4	8			2	3				7			4			1													1
B8	4		2					1	1		3	3			2																				
B9	12														1																				
B10				6	3			4							2				2					2		4		1							
Totals	85	1	4	15	3	1	14	38	12	1	15	9	6		10	18	3	3	11	1	1	1	2	4	1	4	1	2	2	1	1	3	1	1	2

University B top ranking: Et=85, euh/ah/mm=38, puis =18, donc =15, Aussi =15, quand =14, la=12, oui=11, Après=10

Table 4c: University C - DM Occurrence

Respondents	Et	C'est tout	Parce que	Donc	C'est à dire	Alors	Quand	Euh/ah/mm/eeh	Je sais pas	On peut dire	Aussi	La premiere fois	Mais	C'est ça	Après	Puis	quand	peut-être	oui	Ok/d'ac	d'après moi	Après avoir	Malheureuse-ment	Je pense que	Yeah	Si vraiment	Je dirais	Après ça
C1	7							8	1				4	1				2	2	1		1	2	1		1	1	
C2								15					1			4			6									
C3	12	1	1	6			4	4									2		2									
C4	6										2																	
C5	8							5			`1		1				2		2	1								3
C6	6					2		6								2												
C7	2							7							3													
C8	4		2					1				1	1						1						2			
C9	9			1				2							1	2												
C10	5						1	4								1												
Totals	59	1	3	7		2	5	52	1		3	1	7	1	4	9	4	2	13	2		1	2	1	2	1	1	3

University C top ranking: Et = 59, euh/ah/mm = 52, oui=13

Table 4d: University D - DM form-frequency occurrence pattern

DMs Respondents	Et	C'est tout/c'est fini	Par ce que	Donc	Quoi	Avant	ça va	Alors	Quand	Euh/aah/mm/eeh	Je sais pas	Bon	Ah bon	pourquoi	Aussi	voila	Mais	Encore	Après	Puis	D'abord/premiere mement	peut-être	oui	à la même fois	Ok	Là/là bas	En fait	Malheureusement	Je pense que	Yeah	Qqch.la*	Déjà	Après ça.
D1	2	1													2										1								
D2	9		1	1						1												4	7	4		1				2	1		4
D3	25		2	1			1	2	2	5					2	2	3		6		1		1	1	1								
D4	5	1	2							1							1			3			1						4				
D5	24	1						2	2	2	2	2	1		1		1			19	3					5	1						
D6	4									1					1			1											3			2	2
D7	11	1				1				6					1		2						1										1
D8	4	4								1													2							8			
D9	10			1						10				1	1						1		2										3
D10	23			4	1			3		4		1					2				3				3	7	1		5				1
Totals	117	8	5	6	2	1	1	7	4	31	2	3	1	1	8	2	8	1	6	17	5		14	4	5	6	1	1	12	10	1		

University D top ranking: Et =117, euh/aah/mm = 31, puis =17, oui =14, je pense que =12, yeah =10

Table 4e: University E - Dm Form-Frequency Occurrence Pattern

Respondents	Et	Alors	Par ce que	Donc	Euh/ah/mm	Aussi	Je pense que	mais	Puis	peut-être	oui	ouais	Après ça	C'est tout	Tout ça	Ben	Je vois que	Je ne sais pas	C'est comme si	D'accord	pour
E1	11		1		8		1	3	3					1	1	1	1	3			1
E2	11			4	9	5		11		2	1		3		1						
E3	7		3	8	2	1		9	3			1	3						1	1	
	29		4	12	19	6	1	23	6	2	1	1	6	1	2	1	1	3	1	1	1

University E top ranking DMs: Et =29, mais = 23, euh/ah/mm = 19, donc =12

Table 4f: University F - DM form-frequency occurrence pattern

Respondents	Et	Alors	Par ce que	Donc	C'est à dire	Quand	Euh/ah/mm	C'est interessant que	Aussi	Je pense que	mais	Ça va	Après	Puis	à mon avis	peut-être	oui	yeah	ok	d'après moi	là	(Mal)heureusement	Après ça	Je crois	En train de	déjà	C'est tout	Tout ça	Ben	Je vois que	Je ne sais pas	comme ça	D'accord	premiereme net
F1	11		1				4						6					2							3									1
F2	12		5		3		18				8		7				7		7			3									2		1	
F3	1						4													3	2													
F4	4						2				2					2																		
F5	13				2		6							1			2	3	1		7				1						1			
Totals	41		6		5		34				10		13	1		2	12	2	8		10	5			4						2		1	1

University F top-ranking DMs: Et =41, euh/ah/mm= 34, après = 13, mais = 10, la=10, oui=12,

Based on information on the six tables presented, we now offer a summary of top – ranking DMs per university. These have occurrence tokens of 10 and above:

University A top ranking: Et = 69, Euh/ah/mm =14, Puis =13, Quand =10

University B top ranking: Et = 85, euh/ah/mm=38, puis =18, donc =15, aussi =15, quand =14, là=12, oui=11, après=10

University C top ranking: Et = 59, euh/ah/mm = 52, oui=13

University D top ranking: Et =117, euh/aah/mm = 31, puis =17, oui =14, je pense que =12, yeah =10

University E top ranking: Et =29, mais = 23, euh/ah/mm = 19, donc =12

University F top-ranking: Et =41, euh/ah/mm= 34, après = 13, mais = 10, la=10, oui=12,

Table 4g: Summary of top-ranking DMs across universities

DM	Total top DM occurrence token across universities
Et	400
Euh/ah/mm	188
Puis	48
Oui	37
Mais	33
Quand	24
Là	22
Aussi	15
Donc	15
Après	10
Yeah (English, but used by the learners of French)	10

We have also represented this same information through a bar chart in Figure 4-1 that follows, depicting overall frequencies of top-occurring DMs from narrations of respondents. The gap further widens across the divide. Possible reasons for and implications of these, we shall discuss in sub-section 4.2 on DM functions.
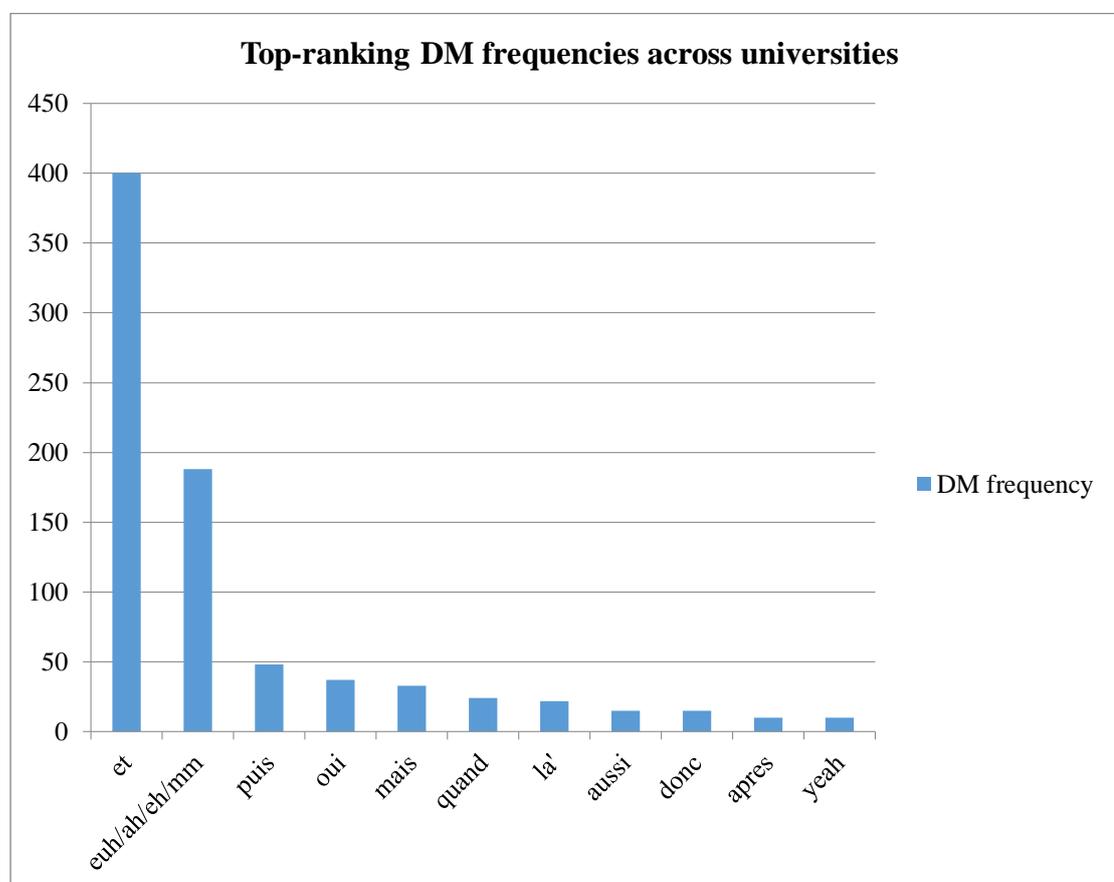
Figure 4-1 Summary of top ranking DM frequencies across universities

We notice that top on the list, way above all the rest is the DM *et* with 400 occurrences, followed with a large margin by a combined group of interjectory DMs in the *euh/ah/mm* type. Reasons for and implications of these, we shall discuss in sub-section 4.2 below.

Further, we carried out a comparative analysis on how DM use played out among the learners of French within the six public universities studied. We now present the aggregate average analysis of elicited DMs per university. Through this, were able to

produce a more valid overall result, given that the number of respondents was not uniform across the six universities studied. Results obtained are depicted in Table 4h and Figure 4-2 as follows:

Table 4h: Average cummulative frequency of DM use per university

University	No. of respondents	Cumulative DMs	Average DM occurrence frequency
A	10	162	16
B	10	245	25
C	10	152	15
D	10	285	29
E	3	117	39
F	5	153	31

Figure 4-2 that follows gives an overt visual representation of the details in Table 4h.
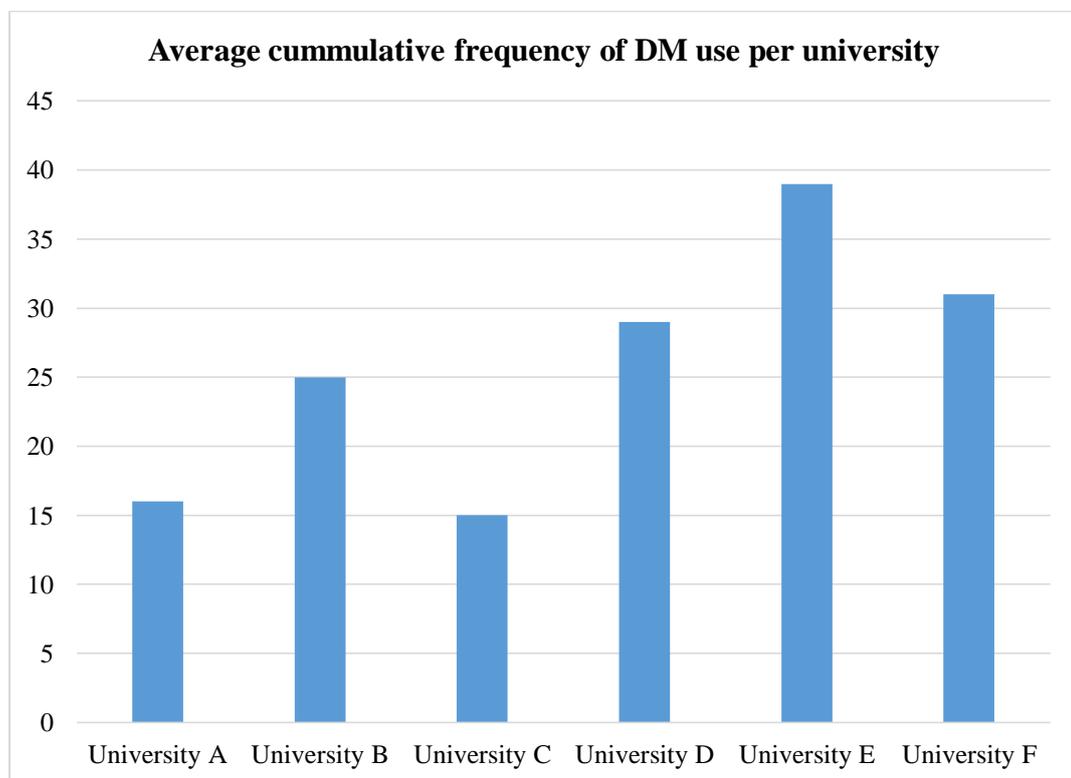
Figure 4-2: Average cumulative frequency of DM use per university

The totality of analyses so far represented will be further understood in light of DMs and their functions. Therefore, the ensuing part of the discussion will focus on various

DM functions with a highlight on selected high frequency occurring DMs vis-a vis low frequency occurring ones, the importance of which will lead to an understanding into why certain forms are realized more than others and vice versa. Also, the impact of this phenomenon on oral communication will be discussed.

4.2 Analysis of DM Function

In this section, we analyse emergent DM forms used by respondents while narrating 'The Pear Story', a silent video recording. Respondents first watched the no-sound video, then told the story of the events. The video lasted five minutes and fifty-five seconds. A recorded copy is found on Appendix III of this report.

The table hereafter depicted shows the various DM forms that emerged as the respondents narrated the story, as well as their description and frequency of occurrence. We note here that the grammatical description hints to their functional properties.

Table 4i: Emergent DISCOURSE MARKER form and frequency

DM Form (French)	Grammatical Description	DM Form (English equivalent)	Frequency
Et	Co-ordinating conjunction	And	400
Puis	Adverb	then	48
Euh/ah	Interjection	uh	70
Mmm/mm	Interjection	Mmm	59
Quand	Sub-ordinating conjunction/adverb	when	24
Oui	Adverb	Yes, okay	37
Donc	Co-ordinating conjunction/Adverb	So, therefore, consequently	15
Aussi	Adverb	also	15
Mais	Co-ordinating conjunction	but	33
Je pense	Pronoun+verb	I think	30
Apres ca	Adverb	after that, afterwards	29
Yeah (ouais)	Interjection (English)	yeah	10
Là	Adverb	There	12
Ben	Adverb interjection	well, of course	21
Parce que	Sub-ordinating conjunction	because	20
Où	Sub-ordinating conjunction/adverb	Where/when	12
Alors	Adverb	So then	10
Quoi	Relative pronoun	What	10
Bon	Adverb	Well	9
Malheureusement	Adverb	Unfortunately	9
Euhm	Interjection	Ahm/um	6
Okey, ok	Adverb/Adjective	Okay, alright	5
C'est tout	Pronoun+verb+pronoun	That's all	5
En fait	Preposition+common noun (masc sing)	In fact	3
D'abord	Adverb	First	3
D'accord	Adverb/Adjective	Okey, alright	3
Je sais pas	Pronoun+verb+negation	I don't know	3
Premierement	Adverb	Firstly	2
C'est ça	Interjection	That's it	2
En ce moment là	Adverbial phrasal locution	At that time	2
C'est-à-dire	Adverb	That means/ in other words	2
Tout d'abord	Adverb	First of all	1
Vraiment	Adverb	Truly	1
Par exemple	Preposition+noun	For example	1
Même si	Sub-ordinating conjunction	Even if	1
Meme fois	Adj+noun phrasal	Same time	1
Puisque	Subordinating conjunction	Since, because, as	1
Je ne sais pas	Pronoun+negation+verb+ negation	I don't know	1
Tu sais	Pronoun+verb	You know	1
On peut dire	Pronoun+verb+verb	We can say	1
Heureusement	Adverb	Fortunately	1
Quelque chose comme ça		Something like that	1

From Table 4i above, we deduce a number of phenomena regarding the extent of use of various forms. First, the DM forms used by the respondents were multicategorical, drawing from various grammatical classes. We have further, subsequently, shown the nature and extent of the different emergent DM forms in order to arrive at a clear portrayal of the frequency of occurrence of the distinctive forms, according to their various grammatical catagories.

4.2.1 Comparative Distribution of DM Forms per Grammatical Catagory

We now show the distribution of various emergent DM forms according to their grammatical catagories. We have done by presenting tables of DMs used as per grammatical class, which could also embody their functionality. Through this, we were able to analyse the extent to which multicategoriality of DMs was manifested in the oral production. The following tables 4j-4m refer.

Table 4j: Adverb DM form-frequency distribution

DM Form (French)	Grammatical Description	DM Form (English equivalent)	Frequency
Puis	Adverb	Then	48
Quand	Sub-ordinating conjunction/adverb	When	24
Oui	Adverb	Yes, okay	37
Donc	Coordinating conjunction/Adverb	So, therefore, consequently	15
Aussi	Adverb	Also	38
Apres ca	Adverb	After that, afterwards	29
Ben/Bon	Adverb interjection	Well, of course	30
Alors	Adverb	So then	10
Malheureusement	Adverb	Unfortunately	9
Okey, ok	Adverb/Adjective	Okay, alright	5
D'abord	Adverb	First	3
D'accord	Adverb/Adjective	Okey, alright	3
Premierement	Adverb	Firstly	2
En ce moment là	Adverbial phrasal locution	At that time	2
C'est-à-dire	Adverb	That means/ in other words	2
Tout d'abord	Adverb	First of all	1
Vraiment	Adverb	Truly	1
Heureusement	Adverb	Fortunately	1
Là	Adverb	There	1
Total (%)			261 (30%)

Table 4k: Conjunctive DM form-frequency distribution

DM Form (French)	Grammatical Description	DM Form (English equivalent)	Frequency
Et	Coordinating conjunction	And	400
Quand	Subordinating conjunction/adverb	When	24
Donc	Coordinating conjunction/Adverb	So, therefore, consequently	15
Mais	Coordinating conjunction	But	33
Parce que	Sub-ordinating conjunction	Because	20
Où	Subordinating conjunction/adverb	Where/when	12
Même si	Subordinating conjunction	Even if	1
Meme fois	adj+noun phrasal	Same time	1
Puisque	Subordinating conjunction	Since, because, as	1
Total (%)			507 (44%)

Table 4l: Interjectional DM form-frequency distribution

DM Form (French)	Grammatical Description	DM Form (English equivalent)	Frequency
Euh/ah	interjection	Uh	70
Mmm/mm	Interjection	Mmm	59
Oui	Adverb	Yes, okay	45
Yeah (ouais)	Interjection (English)	Yeah	10
Ben/Bon	adverb interjection	Well, of course	30
Euhm	Interjection	Ahm/um	6
C'est ça	Interjection	That's it	2
Total (%)			225 (19%)

Table 4m Phrasal locutionary DM form-frequency distribution

DM Form (French)	Grammatical Description	DM Form (English Equivalent)	Frequency
Je pense -	Pronoun+verb	I think	30
Après ça -	Adverb	After that	29
En ce moment là -	Adverbial phrasal locution	At that time	2
C'est tout -	Pronoun+verb+pronoun	That's all	5
En fait -	Preposition+common noun (masc. sing)	In fact	3
Je (ne) sais pas-	Pronoun+negation+verb+ negation	I don't know	3
Tout d'abord -	Adverb	First of all	1
C'est-à-dire -	Adverb	That means/ in other words	2
Tu sais -	Pronoun+verb	You know	1
On peut dire -	Pronoun+verb+verb	We can say	1
Quelque chose comme ça -		Something like that	
Tu sais -	Proverb+verb	You know	1
Par exemple -	Preposition+noun	For example	1
Meme si-	Phrasal sub-ordinating conjunction	Even if	1
Meme fois	A+noun phrasal	Same time	1
Total (%)			81 (8%)
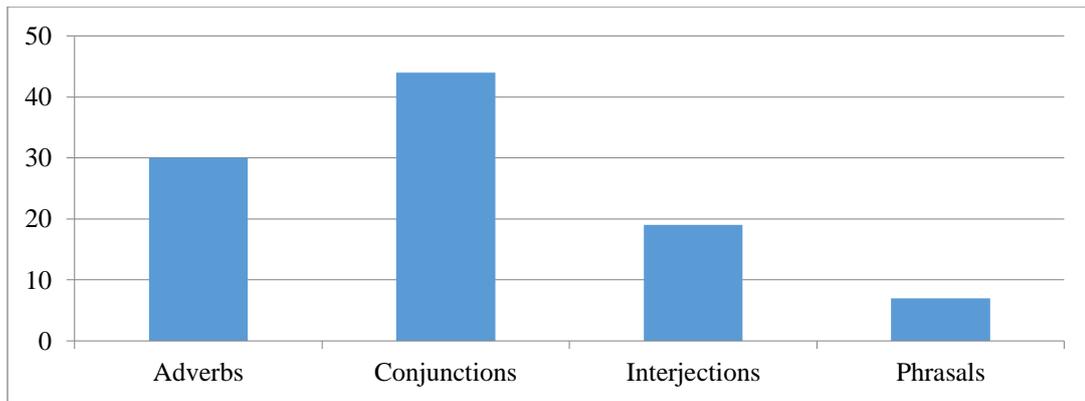
Fig 4-3 Overall DM Frequency-Form Distribution across grammatical class

In this section, we have shown emergent DM forms and analysed their distribution patterns. In the next part of the discussion, we interpret the data in line with our research problem on the relationship between DM use and oral communication. We started off by transcribing the data obtained, after which we translated it from French to English for the purpose of this study. For the entire set of collected data, we did a two-fold translation, the first invoving a word for word translation and the second involving the actual bonafide translation of the narration, as shown in Appendix iv – Data Transcription, Translation and Interpretation. The translated data in the appendix has been presented in pairs for purposes of analysis. The first part of the set is the transcribed French data we obtained from the respondent, and it appears in italics. The second part is the translated English equivalent; one contains a word for word translation and the other contains the bonafide translation of the utterance. The transalations appear in normal characters, not italicised. In both cases, emergent DMs are in bold.

We have presented here the transcribed French data as spoken by the respondents. For this particular section, we translated the data using the faithful translation method. This method attempts to produce the precise contextual meaning of the original within the constraints of the grammatical structures of the target langauge (Newmark 1988b:45-

47). We purposively selected the faithul translation method as we considered it suitable in realising our aim of producing a true and unadulterated translation yet comprehensible, thanks to its operation within the constraints of the grammatical structure of the target language, which is English in this case. However, as earlier noted, in appendix IV, we have provided the original transcribed data in French, a word for word English translation, and finally, the equivalent literal, faithful translation in English.

In the sub section that ensues, for every emergent grammatical category of DMs, we purposively selected a few DMs in each class, in terms of frequency of occurrence.

4.2.2 Conjunctive DM Functions

The results we obtained from analysing DM form-frequency distribution indicate that the students mostly used DMs belonging to the grammatical category of **conjunctions,** with an occurrence frequency of 44%. Given that a discourse marker includes words or phrases that play an active role in managing the flow and structure of discourse, conjunctions are essential in that they act as connectives in discourse, linking one proposition to another. They are, in essence, the glue that overtly holds the discourse together, thereby acting as cohesive devices. Below, we review how some of the conjunctive DMs were used, and the ineterpretations thereof.

4.2.2.1 The Conjunctive DM Et (and)

In this sub-section, we discuss the conjunctive DM 'et'. This was the highest frequency rating DM across all universities. In the analysis that follows, we see the various contextual manifesations of 'et' as used by the learners of French. This will be important in helping us to evaluate its funcional value.

1. The additive value of et

B6 Line 1-7

*Mmm… il y avait un paysan qui récolte les..des poires. On les met dans un… un… panier euh...a ce moment là il y avait un enfant qui traverse la bas **et** les a vu **et** les a volé **et** se met sur son bicyclette **et** puis il a commencé de cycler quand il a vu une fille oui, **et** il… il était distrait par ca, donc it est tomber par terre.*

Mmm...there was a farmer harvesting pears, putting them in a…a…basket. Uh… at that time, there was a child crossing over there **and** saw them **and** stole them **and** got on his bicycle **and** then he began to ride when he saw a girl…yes…**and** he got distracted by that, so he fell down.

Et (and) in excerpt B6 Line 1-7 above is used to introduce propositions in a manner to imply continuation. It, therefore, acts additively, incrementally asserting action after action. This is seen in the first four appearances of *et* (and) in the said example.

***et** les a vu **et** les a volé **et** se met sur son bicyclette **et** puis il a commencé de cycler…*

and saw them **and** stole them **and** got on his bicycle **and** then he began to ride…

We, therefore, deduce here that *et* has an additive role, incrementally positioning one action after another as shown in the excerpt above.

3. The consequential value of et

Using the same data, we notice another *et* (and), the fifth in the sentential utterance but it seemingly has a different meaning. It comes in to complete the sentence in the previous part of the excerpt as follows:

***et** puis il a commencé de cycler quand il a vu une fille oui, **et** il… il était distrait par ça*

and then he began to ride when he saw a girl…yes…**and** he got distracted.

The getting distracted is introduced by the conjunctive DM *et* (and), and the action preceding the distraction is 'seeeing a girl'. *Et* (and) in this case comes in to introduce

a consequence or conditional result, which is different from the role it plays as an additive conjunction.

3. Extra value for collocations with *et*

We also noticed that *et* (and) has a tendancy to appear together with *puis* (then). Sixty-four such collocations were registered.

> A5 Line 14-16
> ***et puis*** *il constate que ce monsieur là a fait quoi... a oublié son chapeau **et puis** un de ces garçons va **et** lui remettre son chapeau*
>
> **and then** he realises that the man has done what…has forgotten his hat and then one of the boys goes and returns his hat to him.

Et (and), therefore, collocates with the conjunctive adverbial *puis* (then), which then seems to clothe the additive marker with a temporal aspect, thereby adding dimension in space and time to the assertion.

4. The adversative value of et

We identified also that in some instances, the respondents used *et* (and) adversatively, such that instead of the usual additive function of continuation, the conjunctive DM assumed a nature enabling it to introduce an opinion contrary to the preceding utterance. We will use the same example previously used, but with empahsis on the sequence of events and how they culminate.

> A5 Line 14-16
> *et puis il constate que ce monsieur là a fait quoi... a oublié son chapeau **et** puis un de ces garçons va et lui remettre son chapeau*
>
> and then he realises that the man has done what…has forgotten his hat **and** then one of the boys goes and returns his hat to him.

Here, there are two main events: One, man forgets hat; two, boy returns hat to man. Given that the second action counters the first, a plausible way of joining the two propositions would be to use an adversative conjunction such as *mais* (but) or *cependant*

(however). The respondent, however, joins the two utterance segments by the additive DM *et* (and), and yet the listener still manages to understand the message accordingly. Here, we find *et* (and) acting as a DM per se.

5. The conjunctive value of et

Data from excerpt A5 line3-7 that follows demonstrates yet another use of *et* (and) sandwiched between two pauses. It also manifests a distinct tone group, as noted from the raw recorded data.

> A5 Line 3-7
> *Il ...il... rencontre une fille qui est aussi... qui a aussi une bicyclette et je pense que cette fille la confus...et... en la regardant...oui, des choses se passent... des choses se passent et il ne sais pas comment marcher avec son bicyclette et puis il tombe sur terre **et** ...... il fait quoi...... il se blesse les jambes et tous les fruits qui l'a volé se tombent aussi sur terre....*
>
> He...he...meets a girl who is also…who also has a bike and I think this girl confused him **…and …** as he looked at her, things happened …things happen and he cannot walk with his bike and then he falls on the ground. What does he do…he hurts his legs and all the fruits that he stole also fall on the ground...

In this data item, *et* (and) appearing between two pauses compels us to consider its conjunctive role of holding propositions together. We consider here both the local and global discourse structure to verify its grammatical conjunctive DM role. The proposition being forwarded by the respondent takes the pattern:

> [boy meets girl; girl also has bike; girl confuses boy…. pause; conjunctive DM, *et* (and) pause… boy looks at girl; things happen; boy cannot ride his bike; boy falls down].

This sequence of events does not come in an easy stretch, as shown in the data. We notice stutters and repetitions (denoted by dotted underlining) in the segments before and after the pause-sandwiched conjunctive DM, which takes a rather different tone.

The segments themselves also contain sub-segments intertwined within, and *et* (and) comes in to join these different segments.

6. The cognitive realm of *et*

Et (and) carries further meaning in this particular position between pauses, and is expressed in a distinct tone, as a hesitation marker, while also denoting an on-going thought process. We infer from the data that this on-going thought process may actually be an attempt to see how best to make the oral presentation, with minimum mistakes. Among the segments we have underlined, are simply repeated stutters like *il…il...* (he…he…) and *des choses se passent…des choses se passent* (things happen…things happen). Following the second pause (probably more thinking time involving cognitive language processing strategies) after the DM *et* (and), the respondent fails to arrive at the optimal expression to describe 'the boy's spellbound attraction to the girl'. The respondent uses the expression 'things happen' to describe this phenomenon, and her langauage processing strategies employed during the post-DM pause fail the respondent again when in the segment that follows, she does not succeed to get the expression 'ride his bike' in French. Instead, she says 'he walks with his bike'. The use of *et* (and) as explained here also goes beyond its regular grammatical meaning to a more pragmatic realm. The repetition of phrases and and pauses surrounding *et* (and) in this case point to a posssible cognitive process on the part of the respondent, as he tries to seek the very expression required for narration of the story.

From the above analyses on *et* (and), we conclude that although *et* (and) has a role in the grammatical system of French, where it is used as a norm to structure particular sequences of discourse, it can also be analysed as a DM in that basically, *et* (and) does not interfere with the truth conditionality of the host utterance. Grammatically, it coheres one proposition to another (Schiffrin, 1987). The present research revealed that

as a DM, other features such as adversity, intonation and pre or post conjunction pauses are able to act pragmatically on the hosting sentence segment to unravel further meaning. This latter interpretation on pre and post DM pauses we have not found documented anywhere before in the literature.

We reiterate here that in the present study, of all emergent DMs, *et* (and) recorded the highest fequency in use, with a total occurrence of 364 tokens. In this section, we have shown that *et* (and) is used as a source of structure in particular sequences. We concur with past studies (Schiffrin, *op cit*), that the presence of *et* (and) signals the speakers identification of an upcoming unit which is co-ordinate in structure to some prior unit. However, because texts contain units which are both locally and globally related, through either functional or referential means, *et* (and) marks different kinds of units at different levels of discourse structure. Therefore, wherever we find *et* (and), we know we have a unit that is connected to a stucturally equivalent unit somewhere in the prior discourse - but the identification of these units depends on the use of textual information beyond *et* (and) itself.

The DM *Et* (and), therefore, comes in grammatically, to structure discourse as a cohesive device while pragmatically, it has a role in interaction and this role must be cognitively processed by the listener in order to guage the speaker's intended message. This is known as inferential pragmatics. Its goal is to explain how the hearer infers the speaker's meaning on the basis of the evidence provided (Sperber and Wilson, 2004). Likewise, utterances are said to automatically create expectations which guide the hearer towards the speaker's intended meaning. These expectations can be described in terms of co-operative principles and the maxims of conversation which speakers are expected to observe (Grice, 1975).

4.2.2.2 The Conjunctive DM Mais (But)

We now analyse the different meanings encoded by the DM *mais* (but) in French, as manifested in the discourse of the learners of French we studied. Once again, data excerpts have been presented in pairs. In the transribed version, we chose to use square brackets to show the correct word as should have been said by the student. This is in cases where the respondent used the wrong word for lack of getting the right one.

1. The denial-of-expectation value of *mais*

The data that follows shows the use of *mais* (but) as encoding a denial of expectation between the two conjuncts it links.

> B4 Line 8-9
> le chever [chèvre] veut manger les frites [fruits] mais l'homme n'accepte pas.
>
> The goat wants to eat the fruits **but** the man does not accept.

The expectation is that since the goat wants to eat the fruits, it will go ahead and eat the fruits. However, our expectation of this event is unfulfilled as seen in the second conjunct which states,

> '**mais** l'homme n'accepte pas'(**but** the man does not accept).

Lakoff and Blakemore (1987, 2002) attest the role of *mais* (but) in encoding denial of expectation between the two propositions it links. This implies that the expectation in the first conjunct is contradicted in the second.

2. The contrastive value of *mais*

Another way the DM *mais* (but) emerged was as a marker of contrast, as opposed to one of expressing denial of expectation, as follows:

> A3 Line 4-6
> *les jeunes n'a [n'ont] pas beaucoup des [d'] activités dans la vie mais*
> *ils pensent [a] beaucoup des [de] choses.*

The young do not have many activities in life **but** they think of many things.

In the above data, *mais* (but) simply encodes a relationship of contrast between the state of affairs represented in each clause (Lakoff 1971:33). The sentence would otherwise be re-read as:

'The young do not have many activities in life, *however*, they think of many things'.

The adverbial conjunction *cependant* (however), would work synonymously with *mais* (but) as a marker of contrast. Therefore, *mais* (but) in this case does not carry an implied meaning or a denial of expectation as previously seen. Rather, here, it just denotes contrast in meaning of information in the two clauses.

3. Correction marker value of *mais*

Other than the above, *mais* (but) also came out not merely as a marker of contradiction but also as a correction marker. The excerpt below refers.

E2 Line 24
*...avant de passer il volait des fruits qui sont dans un panier. ce n'est pas gentil là **mais** c'est comme [ça] la vie.*

…before passing, he stole the fruits that were in the basket. Its not good **but** life is like that.

The use of **mais** (but) in this excerpt does not really involve contradiction. It is not that the case of the frist conjunct (it's not good) implies the negation of the second conjunct (life is like that), or the other way round. The use of *mais* (but) in this way comes as having a 'correction' use (Anscombre & Ducrot, 1977), cited in Ariel (2010). The first clause in the example proposes that the act performed is not good; the second clause introduced by **mais** (but) attempts to 'correct' the utterance in the first clause by affirming that 'life is like that'. In this case, the clause introduced by *mais* (but), provides a correct replacement for the assumption given in the first clause.

4. The discourse organising value of *mais*

In the excerpt which follows, we reveal yet another possible function of the DM *mais* (but). It can be used by a speaker to signal a return to the main topic of discourse. In the shown data, the researcher compliments the respondent soon after narrating the story, and in her response, the respondent uses *mais* (but) mid-sententially. The researcher's utterances are encapsulated in brackets.

> C 3 Line 21-22
> *(Tu as très bien rencontré l'histoire) Oh, merci... ((Je vois que to a compris l'histoire).* (You narrated the story very well). Oh, Thanks... (I see you understood the story).
>
> *Oui, j'ai compris **mais** l'oral c'est un peu difficile, tu sais.*
> Yes, I did understand **but** orals are rather difficult, you know.

This use of *mais* (but), is at the global level of discourse, playing a 'sequential' role, which can only be understood within the broader context of the given discourse unit. Here, *mais* (but) does not act as a true conjunction but rather as a discourse organiser, creating coherence between the proposition it initiates and previous proposition(s) in a discourse (Bell, 1998: 527).

In the given example, the sequence is as follows:

> The researcher compliments the respondent for doing a good narration; the respondent says 'thanks', to which the researcher further compliments the respondent for having understood the story. To this latter proposition, the respondent jumps back to the initial part of the discourse stretch, which interestingly, does not deal with the current proposition of understanding the story, but rather with narration proper of the story.

In this last part, therefore, the repondent maintains coherence at the global level of discourse by employing *mais* (but) sequentially, though not locally, with the immediate preceding proposition. Bell (*op cit*) claims that the use of *mais* (but) in this way signals a return to the main topic of discourse. He describes the but-clause as a cancelling clause

which nullifies or cancels the immediate adjacent proposition in discourse. Although Bell (*ibid*) argues that this kind of *mais* (but) usually occurs at the sentence - initial position, this study reveals that the discourse or sequential *mais* 'but' can also appear mid-sententially with success as shown in the preceeding example.

In this section, we have reviewed and analysed the meanings encoded by the conjunctive DM *mais* (but) in French. In agreement with other scholars, (Lakoff, 1971; Blakemore, 1987; 2002, Horn, 1989; Bell, 1998 and Iten, 2005), cited in Hussein (2008), we attest that the meanings of *mais* (but) include denial of expectation, contrast, correction and cancellation.

4.2.2.3 The Conjunctive DM *Parce que* (because)

Parce que (because) is another conjunctive DM used in a relatively frequent measure by the learners. The following is an analysis of the various functions of this DM as revealed from the discourse of respondents.

1. The consequential value of *parce que* at the microstructure level

In the example below, *parce que* (because) is used consequentially, to give an explanation as to why something happened.

> C3 Line 19-20
> *il est choqué **parce que** la gamin... euh...les gamins mangent les poires là* [qu'ils avaient volé]
>
> he is shocked because the kid…uh…the kids are eating the very pears [that they had stolen]

The DM *parce que* (because) in this example fulfills a relationship of cause and effect. The cause of the man's shock is that the boys are eating the pears they have stolen from him. *Parce que* (because) is in this instance operating at the local level as a cohesive device holding two adjacent propositions together, thereby creating a flow or coherence

in this stretch of discourse. This is referred to as the micro-syntaxic operation of the DM as opposed to the macro-syntaxic operation, which functions to create coherence at the global level of discourse (Debaisieux, 1994), cited in Hankock (2005). The next example denotes *parce que* operating at the macro-syntaxic level.

2. The consequential value of *parce que* at the macrostructure level

Let us conssider the following data fragment.

> A1 Line 1-4
> *Donc selon moi y a un homme qui fait...... qui fait de quoi ...plaquer des fruits... c'est des fruits.... elle... des fruits. Euhm.... je vois qu'il est travailleur **parce que** il y a un jardin **et** elle prend des fruits.*
>
> So acccording to me, there is a man who does…who does what…who tackles [is plucking] fruits…she…some fruits. Uh…I see that he is a worker **because** there is a garden and she [he] is taking the fruits.

In the above data, *parce que* (because) may appear to be misplaced, as the clause it introduces does not seem to cohere with the preceeding one. Moreover, the respondent appears to have a problem with the flow or coherence of discourse, as portrayed by the many pauses in between, notwithstanding that her speech also contains some grammatical errors. A closer look, however, reveals that the two segments of discourse introduced by by *parce que* (because) seem disjointed:

> *Euhm.... je vois qu'il est travailleur **parce que** il y a un jardin **et** elle prend des fruits*
>
> Uhm…I see that he is a worker **because** there is a garden and she [he] is taking the fruits

Evidently, there being a garden and he, taking the fruits does not necessarily mean that the man is a worker. The qualification of the man being a worker, in the principal clause, is fulfilled in the earlier segments of discourse, right at the beginning where we meet the man working in the garden, picking fruits. This is the operation of *parce que* (because) at the macro-syntactic level, denoting its function as a true DM (Blanche-

Benveniste, 1990). At this level. They are also referred to as pragmatic connectors (Moeschler, 1986; Roulet, 1985), cited in Ali-Bencherif (2009). Research suggests that it is the macro-syntaxic operation of *parce que* that renders it especially pertient in in the analysis of oral data. This is true of other DMs as well.

3. The illustrative value of *parce que*

We also found *parce que* (because) to have an illustrative value. The data below refers.

> A1 Line 1-11
> *...il y a une leçon là-bas **parce que c'est c'est-à-dire** on doit travailler pour… on doit travailler génui… génui (student tries to look for right word) on doit travailler génuine…[sincèrement.]*
>
> …there is a lesson there because **it means** one should work for…one should work genui…genui…genuine…[genuinely]

The illustrative value of *parce que* (because) implies a possibility of other selections in its place. These include 'for example', 'such as', and 'meaning' among others connectors. In the data shown above, we noticed that the DM *parce que* (because) is overtly followed by *c'est c'est-à-dire* (that means). This kind of expression is almost unheard of in written discourse and yet permissible in spoken discourse due to the different dynamics of the two modes of communication. By placing *c'est c'est-à-dire (that means)* in direct sequence to *parce que* (because), the respondent expresses the illustrative function of the DM *parce que* denoting that at this particular point of discourse, *parce que* (because) and *c'est c'est-à-dire (that means)* are actually operating on the same plane. It further distinguishes the illustrative value of *parce que* (because) as being explicative: seeking to illustrate and explain further, as opposed to its causative value which is explicit in nature (Gaulmyn, 1987), cited in Hancock (2000).

4. The contrastive value of *parce que*

Another manifestation of the DM *parce que* (because) was as a marker of contrast at the global level of discourse structure. Let us consider the reference below.

> A3 Line 6-11
> *par exemple un garçon a voler eeh. les fruits et après ça il était confus en regardant la fille la.... et il est tombé et c'est comme ça eeh... mais il y a les autres qui sont.... ils n'ont rien pour faire **parce qu'ils** marchent dans la route et ils faire ah… rien et c'est ça...*
>
> For example, a boy stole eh…fruits and after that he got confused while looking at a girl and he fell and that's how it is eh…but there are others who have nothing to do **because** they are walking on the road doing nothing, and that's all.

In the excerpt, *parce que* (because) is introduced by another clause beginning with the interjection *eh…* (a possible pragmatic filler marker of thought in process) then followed immediately by the conjunctive DM of contrast *mais* (but). The two segments housing the DM *parce que* (because) read as follows:

> ***eeh... mais** il y a les autres qui sont...... ils n'ont rien pour faire **parce qu'ils** marchent dans la route et ils faire ah… rien et c'est ça...*
>
> **eh…but** there are others who have nothing to do **because** they are walking on the road doing nothing, and that's all.

The speaker in this case does not necessarily seem to imply that walking on the road is as a consequence of not having anything to do. However, the presence of mais in the first segment is preceeded by an event involving a boy falling down as a result of staring at a pretty girl. The *parce que* (because)-clause comes in to introduce a kind of implied contrast. This is in regard to the expectation that some other boy has fallen and needs to be helped.

The utteranace claiming 'having nothing to do' and just 'walking on the road' is in contrast to a sense of an unfulfilled expectation – to help. *Parce que* here also seems to be an afterthought of the speaker because the preceding clause talks about the boys

'having nothing to do', and in the second clause, the speaker simply elaborates a second time that the boys have nothing to do, and that's why they are walking on the road. The propositions are, therefore, characterised as being semantically opposed to each other. Halliday and Hansen (1976), cited in Flowerdew and Mahlberg (2009), call this an afterthought effect, which is characteristic of spoken langauge, and here *parce que* (but) denotes contrast.

5. The 'petition for principle' value of *parce que*

The present study also discovered that the DM *parce que* (because) has potential to join different clausal propositions and yet not add any new value to the proposition it introduces. Consider the example below:

> D2 Line 11-12
> *Peut-être il a volé **parce que** l'homme était haut dans [sur] l'arbre à la même fois il a volé...*
>
> Maybe he stole **because** the man was up on the tree at the same time he [the boy] stole.

The main idea in this discourse stretch is that someone stole- 'he stole'. After the DM, the argument introduces the other man [seemingly the proprietor], being on the tree, apparently creating an ideal condition for the stealing of the harvested fruits below to actually take place. The aim of this is to lay emphasis once again on the fact that the first man stole -'he stole', which is how this stretch ends. Both clausal propositions hosting *parce que* (because) here, therefore bear the same message. This role of *parce que* (because) is known as 'petition of principle' (Hancock, 1997; 2000). The argument introduced by *parce que* contains nothing new in terms of information relayed in relation to the proposition fowarded.

From the discussion on the analysis above on conjunctive DMs, we realize that by using discourse connectives such as *et (and), mais (but)* and *parce que(because),* the students

not only sought to form cohesive units of discourse but rather, they also cognitively sought both textual and contextual relevance. This helped the researcher to stand a better chance of understanding their intended meaning through the presentation of a unified whole, both at local and global levels of discourse.

On relevance theory, Sperber and Wilson (1995) cited in Grundy, (2013), describe the cognitive principle of relevence by noting that human cognition tends to be geared to the maximization of relevance. We deduce from the above results that in an attempt to create a speech that flows, the respondents used conjunctions to try and create cohesion or connectedness in their oral French communication. Relevance is defined in terms of processing effort and contextual effects: the greater the contextual effects, the greater the relvance and; the smaller the processing effort the greater the relevance. The students used conjunctive DMs, which are essentially joining words, acting both locally (between propostions), and globally (on the textual level) to bring about connection within the given discourse context, and therefore, enhancing the logical flow of discourse.

Our data on conjuctive DM forms provides a new insight: that French Foreign Language (FFL) learners largely exhibit a *'written-like talk'* in their oral communication. The data also contributes to a clearer understanding of this manifestation. At the level of communicative competence, the need for the student to be grammatically correct - the sub level referred to as linguistic competence- tended to override other three sub levels, which all together constitiute communicative competence; the other three being sociolinguistic/pragmatic, discourse and strategic competence. The relatively high frequencies on conjunctive DM use tends more towards the written text, where overt use of conjunctive DMs accounts for cohesion and coherence.

In spoken discourse however, a cohesive device such as a conjunctive DM must not necessarily be overtly expressed in order for coherence to be manifested, as coherence can be covertly implied through the speech context. In their oral commuication, the students did not therefore just need to be grammatically correct (linguistic competence). Rather, they also needed to aspire equally for sociolinguistic, and strategic competence. These will be further analysed in the ongoing discussion.

4.2.3 Adverb DMs

The **adverb DMs** were the second most used in narration, recording a frequency of 30%, after conjunctions. Prevoius studies indicate that ideally, among native French speakers, most DMs belong to this class. Being a very loose category, the adverbials had different kinds of words and constructions, including not only adverbs, but also prepositional phrases and subordinate clauses as well. While conjunctions ensured that the discourse was lexico-grammatically held together to render it cohesive, the adverbs were able to act on the extraclausal domain as DMs, thereby fulfilling conversation management functions. Within the intraclausal domain, they also acted among others as connectives, metadiscursive organizers and topicalizing markers.

We will now highlight in the data excerpts that follow, the roles played by various emergent adverbial discoure markers as used by the student respondents.

4.2.3.1 *Bon* as an adverb DM

We will now discuss the various functions manifested by '*bon*' as a discourse marker, beginning with the dispreferred response value.

1. **The dispreferred response value of *Bon* (well)**

Although ideally an adjective, *bon* (well) has an adverbial value pragmatically speaking in that rather than acting adjectivally as a noun qualifier, *bon* can work as an adverb to

indicate that an unexpected, dispreferred response has been received by the speaker. The following excerpt refers.

C1 Line 23-35

*le garcon qui avait un bicyclette… (il n'a pas volé?) …Je n'avais pas imagant [imagineé] qu'il était un voleur ..moi j'ai pensé qu'il etait un… aah qu'il faisait partie de la famille…mais pourquoi il est tombé de la bicyclette… je n'ai pas bien compris. Mais...si vraiment il etait [un] voleur, **bon.**..quand la bicyclette est tombée les autres sont arriveees mais ils ne l'ont pas attaqué...tous ces personnes ils ont travailé ensemble. Ils ont ramassé les poiriers, ils ont remis dans le panier...je n'ai pas vu une situation ou ils se disputaient qui a volé, qui es-tu, d'ou viens-tu, j'ai vu une assemble une assemble (une assemblage de presonnes) … c'est ca.*

the boy who had a bicycle ... (did he steal?) … I did not think he was a thief ... I thought he was a ... aah he was part of the family ... but why he fell from the bicycle ... I did not understand well. but...if he really was a thief, **well** ... when the bike fell the others arrived but they did not attack him. All these people worked together. They picked up the pear trees, put them back in the basket ... I did not see a situation where they were arguing who stole, who are you from, where did you come from, I saw an assembly (a gathering of people) ... that's it.

The theme running through this particular section of the narration is that of 'the boy' being a thief. As the respondent talks about the boy in the story, the researcher asks, "did he steal"? By this question, the respondent is somewhat taken aback, and he responds to the negative. He tries to justify why he thinks that the boy is not a thief. To contrast the researcher's question, he starts off by categorically stating his opinion about the boy not being a thief. Soon after, to justify his point further, the respondent uses the expression '*mais si vraiment il était un voleur…*' (but if he was really a thief…). This expression combines two DMs, *mais* (but) and *vraiment* (truly, really) to contrast what the researcher's opinion of the boy might be, while at the same time pleading innocence for the boy.

*Mais...si vraiment il etait [un] voleur, **bon.**..quand la bicyclette est tombée les autres sont arriveees mais ils ne l'ont pas attaqué...tous ces personnes ils ont travailé ensemble. Ils ont ramassé les poiriers, ils ont remis dans le panier...je n'ai pas vu une situation ou ils se disputaient qui a volé, qui es-tu, d'ou viens-tu, j'ai vu une assemble une assemble (une assemblage de presonnes) … c'est ca.*

> but...if he really was a thief, **well** ... when the bike fell the others arrived but they did not attack him. All these people worked together. They picked up the pear trees, put them back in the basket ... I did not see a situation where they were arguing who stole, who are you from, where did you come from, I saw an assembly (an assembly of presonnes) ... that's it.

When the respondent, finally, brings *bon* (well) in the last stretch of his argument, it is simply to solidify his prefferred opinion in order to rest his case. Well is thus used in the initial position to a response as an initiation of a dispreferred response (Pomerantz, 1984), cited in Leung (2002). It indicates that there is something in the previous reponse which requires correction. Schiffrin (1985), cited in MacEnery and Hardie, (2011), describes *bon* (well) as a marker of response, capable of signalling that an assumption made by the previous speaker requires correction; in this case, 'the boy is not a thief', is the narrative that the respondent is trying to forward, contrary to the researcher's proposal.

2. ***Bon* (well) as a syntactic reformulation marker**

The use of *bon* to start-off a restatement of an ongoing proposition was also evident from our data. This was to clarify a point, by stating it in other words. Its use in this case would be in congruence with *c'est-à- dire* (I mean, in other words, that is to say). Consider the following example.

> B 10 Line 20-22
>
> *En fait je ne peux pas dire qu'il a volé... **Bon…. en fait ce que je peux dire c'est que** les trois garçons ils sont venus l'aider... donc c'est l'aspect de gentillesse, respect...*
>
> In fact, I cannot say that he stole ... **well .... in fact, what I can say is that** the three boys came to help him... so that's kindness, respect.

In this passage, the narrator uses *bon* (well), followed by *en fait* (in fact) after the first proposition, where he holds the opinion that the boy did not steal. In an attempt to elaborate his point further, the respondent employs two adverbial DMs, *bon* and *en fait* to mark the strating point of reformulating the preceeding statement. Jayez (2004) refers

this as the syntactic reformulation marker use of *bon*. The adverb *bon* (well), therefore, plays a major role in the interpretation of its discourse function, just as *c'est-à-dire* (I mean, in other words, that is to say) does. The modifications marked by these DMs would hence include both expansion of ideas and expansion of intention (Schiffrin, 1987), cited in Gee, (2015).

3. ***Bon* (well) as a lexical choice correction-marker**

The data we collected reveals that in some instances, the speaker selected a given lexical item, but would quickly realize the particular choice to be inappropriate. An easy way to give up the selected item and introduce a better option seemed to be the employment of bon as a lexical choice correction-marker.

> C1 Line 7-13
>
> *Bon... après avoir fini à ramasser les poires de l'arbre **malheureusement** ...**bon**... il est... il...est descend [descendu], il a... il a... mis tous les poires dans un panier, et après ça il est parti... je pense qu'il est allé [allait] à la maison, **malheureusement**, en route il est tombé du [de la] bicyclette et tous les poires étaient sur terre...*
>
> Well ... after finishing to pick the pears from the tree unfortunately ...**well** ... he goes down… he puts all the pears in a basket, and after that he leaves... I think he was going to the house, **unfortunately**, on the way he fell off the bicycle and all the pears were on the ground ...

We highlight here the second *bon* in this passage. It is preceeded by another adverbial DM, *malheureusement* (unfortunately), which should normally immediately introduce a notion, event or thing that negatively appeals to the speaker due to its bad effect or disappointing nature. It can be used synonymously in English with *unluckily*. In the excerpt, however, rather than the narrator introducing the disappointing event after employing *malheureusement* (unfortunately), he follows it immediately with *bon* (well) sandwiched between pauses. After this, we do not see any unfortunate thing, as the respondent goes ahead to just explain what the boy was doing with the pears. In the final proposition of the narration, we again meet *malheureusement* (unfortunately), but

this time devoid of *bon,* and the expectation of a following disappointing event is now realised as the boy falls off his bicycle and all the pears get scattered on the ground.

We conclude that in the first instance, *bon* is used by the narrator to lead the listener to a new line of thought, as an indicator that the preceeding expression, *malheureusement* (unfortunately) was not the intended lexical item. *Bon* then intervenes as a correction marker for introducing the desired sequence of events at the time. In this case, *bon* can be paraphrased by 'no'. It is thus employed as a strategic device by the speaker, as a correction or concession marker (Schiffrin, 1987; Waltereit, 2006).

4.2.4 Phrasal Discourse Markers

In this category, we grouped all discourse markers comprising more than a single isolated lexical item. Phrasal DMs are usually referred to as adverbials. Formally, the notion of adverbials encompasses different grammatical catagories, and is generally used in the literature to refer to prepositional phrases, noun phrases, adverbs and clauses. From the data we gathered, longer phrasal DMs fell in the lower ranking in terms of frequency of use as the respondents seemed to prefer shorter ones. We have offered the following analyses of some of the phrasals in use.

4.2.4.1 *Et puis* (and then) and *après ça* (after that) as phrasal DMs

Our data revealed that almost all the occurrences of puis collocated with *et*, the latter preceeding the former. As a phrasal unit, 64 such collocations were realized, revealing various functions. *Et* (and) as a single entity is a conjunction with roles including additive, consequential, adversative, conjunctive and cognitive among others. As a conjunctional DM, our research revealed as peviously stated that of all DMs used by respondendts, *et* (and) demonstrated the highest token in use. *Puis* on the other hand is an adverb, whose functions we have discussed earlier in this analysis as ranging from sequencing, conjunctive to affirmative functions.

Après ça (after that) is another collocation closely related to *et puis* (and then). For this reason, we have analysed them concurrently in this section. On its own, *après* (after) can function in various grammatical catagories depending on context of use; these include prepositional, adverbial, adjectival, conjunctive and even nominal roles. Likewise, *ça* (that) as an individual entity is capable of manifesting several grammatical purposes ranging from conjunctive, demonstrative, adverbial and complementizer roles. In this section, we analyse collocations of *et* and *puis* as well as those of *après* and *ça* in their respective orders as revealed from the data we collected.

1. The sequential value of *et puis*

We found out as discussed previously, that in isolation *et* and *puis* both individually carry sequential meaning, denoting an order to demonstrate what follows what. Likewise, we discovered from our data that collocations of *et* and *puis* exhibit sequential value as well. We selected the following excerpt from a section of one of the respondent's narration to illustrate this point.

> B1 Line 23-35
>
> *Donc lui, il pris le basket et mis en vélo **et puis** il a cyclé, oui... et quand il a cyclé là... il a vu une fille qui vient a sa direction la **et puis** son attention ...et là a il a croisé [trébuché] sur une pierre **et puis** là il est tombé par terre.et prrr oui..ça va **et puis** ses amis a vient [sont venus] lui [l'] aider **et puis** il a lui mis [ils l'ont mis] en debout **et puis** [ils lui ont] remis le basket [et] son chapeau aussi [qui] a été [avait] tombé par terre...oui aussi il a lui remise [le lui ont remis] **et puis** ils ont continué avec son chemin [sur leur chemin] ou quoi...je ne sais pas... quelque chose comme ça passant en route là, **et puis** il y a les trois... les trois enfants de lui ...ils ont passé par là ou le mec là plume [cueille] les fruits là [d'un arbre]...*
>
> So he took the basket and put it on his bike **and then** he cycled, yes ... and as he cycled... he saw a girl coming towards his direction **and then** his attention ... and he stumbeld on a stone **and then** he fell on the ground, and prrr yes..its fine… **and then** his friends came to help him to get up, **and then** they handed him the basket and his hat too which had fallen on the ground ... yes they gave it to him **and then** they continued on their way, or what ... I do not know ... something

like that , **and then** there were three… three children passing that way…They passed a man picking fruits [from a tree]…

From this data, the narrator employs *et puis* as a sequential marker. We infer from the literature that since both have sequential value in isolation from each other, then the addition of the adverb *puis* to *et* helps to add a temporal aspect to the latter as in other similar collocations with *et* in French such as *et alors* (and so) and *et ensuite* (and after that). We have, therefore, coined the term 'sequentio-temporal' markers in reference to such phrasal expressions as these. DMs are often used in direct sequence with other DMs, resulting in two-part sequences such as shown. It has also been pointed out that such sequences may hold interesting analytical insights (Koops and Lohmann, 2013; Ajimer, 2002). Nevertheless, Fraser (2011) notes that the phenomenon of DM sequencing has received surprisingly little attention in the literature on discourse markers. Also, research on DM sequencing so far has been restricted to written discourse from the field of automatic text generation (Knott, 1996; Oates, 2000). Our current analysis on the sequencing of DM *et puis* in spoken discourse is thus valid.

We concur with Koops and Lohmann (2013) that grammatical properties of DMs have implications on their sequencing relative to one another, and we add that this consequently acts upon the grammaticalization of larger discourse segments. In the excerpt displayed, for example, the phrasal expression *et puis* (and then) can be seen as sequentially bracketing units of spoken discourse as follows:

Translation B1 Line 23-35

So he took the basket and put it on his bike **and then** he cycled, yes ... and as he cycled,... he saw a girl coming towards his direction **and then** his attention ... and he stumbeld on a stone **and then** he fell on the ground, and prrr yes..its fine… **and then** his friends came to help him to get up, **and then** they handed him the basket and his hat too which had fallen on the ground ... yes they gave it to him **and then** they continued on their way, or what ... I do not know ... something like that, **and then** there were three… three children passing that way…They passed a man picking fruits [from a tree] …

1. Boy puts basket on bike **and then**…

2. Boy cycles and spots a girl coming towards his direction **and then**…

3. Boy is distracted and falls down **and then**…

4. His friends come to help him get up **and then**…

5. They hand him the basket and the fallen hat **and then**…

6. They continue on their way **and then…**

7. There were three children passing that way

In this demonstration, we see a sequence of events occurring within the wider discourse, and the various segments are systematically linked together by *et puis,* thus creating a cummulative kind of flow on the stretch of discourse.

2. The additive value of *et puis*

From the data item above under analysis, we realised that ***et puis*** can also exhibit an additive value, which is different from the sequential value hitherto described. Making use of the same data item B1 line 23-35 which we summerized and numbered, we notice that the use of après ***ça*** from numbers 1-5 are used by the narrator to sequence action after action in their systematic order of occurrence. The sixth and final use of ***après ça*** in the data excerpt is however different, as hereby explained:

6. They continue on their way **and then…**

7. There were three children passing that way

Rather than number 7 acting as a sequence to number 6, the linking DM *et puis* (and then) seem to bring in a new line of thought, with the DM ***et puis*** (and then) acting additively upon the discourse segment. In this case, ***et puis*** (and then) acts synonymously with ***et aussi*** (and also). Fraser (2009) refers to DMs acting in this way as elaborative markers. They include DMs such as for example, also, for instance, and

in addition among others. Such discourse markers as these actually allow the listener to derive a contextual implication of the speaker's intended meaning (Blakemore, 2002). In this instance, we consider the two actions being described in numbers 6 and 7 of the said data, that is: the [boys] continuing on their way and the three children passing that way as two different unrelated events, which do not sequentially bear upon one another. From the context, we derive the implication that ***après ça*** (after that) in this case is used by the speaker to introduce a concurrently occurring event and hence it is additive rather than sequential. We now move on to the collocation *après ça* (after that).

1. **The attempted sequential value of *après ça* (after that)**

The phrasal expression *après ça* (after that) is an adverbial locution, and works more or less like *et puis* (and then) earlier discussed. In the stretch of data below, we show how the learner of French attempts to create a flow in discourse, which is, however, botched due to incoherence of the segements. We came up with the term 'attempted sequential marker' to expalin this phenomenon. An analysis of the data item below reveals an example of how *après ça* can function within discourse as an attempted sequential marker.

Transcription F1 Line 11-22
*Il a un accident et les…les fruits… **après ça** il y a quelqu'un qui vient avec la bicyclette et c'est la voleur. Pendant la…en train d'arriver en train de…de… bouger de la l' arbre qui est… ou est les fruits et vouleur... et sont volee, il est l'accident la. **Après ça** il y les autres qui viennent et l'aider. **Après** l'aider, il y a les autres qui viennent l'aider, ils sont aah…les gens qui…qui l'aideer je pense aah, il ah… sont aah… ils ont quoi... yeah...**après ça**, moi je ne connais pas que **parce que** apres l'aider ...il se donne…il se donne trois fruits seulement. Moi je sais qui il est volee et il donne trois seulement. **Après ça** il y a les deux…les trois...les trois qui...qui...il aider et la voler vient. ..vient à cote de… de l'arbre qui ..qui les fruits a volee. Et il finit... (c'est fini comme ça) … C'est fini.*

He has an accident and the… fruits… **after that** there is someone who comes with the bicycle and it is the thief. During the ... coming in the process of ... moving ... from the tree that is ... or is the fruit and will ... and are stolen, it is the accident. **After that**, there are the others who come and help him. After helping him, there are others who come to help him, they are aah ... people who ... who help him I think aah, there are aah, they have three... Yeah ...

> **after that**, I do not do not know that because after helping him ... he gives himself ... he gives himself only three fruits. I know who is stolen and gives only three. **After that** there are the two ... the three...the three who ... who ... he help and steal comes. ...is next to ... the tree that ... the fruit has stolen. And he finishes ... (it's over like that) It's over.

An immediate look at the data reveals the struggle of the French learner to speak, in that the speech is not only incoherent but inconsistent as well. At the local level of discourse, the narrator uses a few instances of *et* (and) to link clauses together as shown in the following data segment.

> *Il a un accident **et** les…les fruits… **après ça** il y a quelqu'un qui vient avec la bicyclette **et** c'est la [un] voleur.*
>
> He has an accident **and** the… fruits… **after that** there is someone who comes with the bicycle **and** it is the thief.

In this portion of discourse, the respondent uses *après ça* which acts globally on discourse coherence by attempting to link various clauses together. Both the two clauses preceding *après ça* and those two that ensue it are independent, given that they are all linked by the co-ordinating conjunction *et* (and). However, whereas the independent clauses following *après ça* are complete and comprehensible, the beginning clauses forming the initial part of **the** discourse are not despite the fact that they are joined by *et* (and) as a co-ordinating conjunction. The excerpt which follows refers.

> He has an accident **and** the… fruits… **after that** there is someone who comes with the bicycle **and** it is the thief.

> -Segment I: *Il a un accident **et** les…les fruits… **après ça***
> Clause 1 + **coordinating conjunction** +
> Clause 2 + **adverbial phrasal**
> He has an accident   **and**   the…the
> fruits…**after that**

> -Segment II: *il y a quelqu'un qui vient avec la bicyclette **et** c'est la [un] voleur.*
> Clause 1 + **coordinating conjunction** +
> clause 2
> there is someone who comes with the bicycle **and** it is the thief.

The problem with the discourse stretch is that segemnt I is incomplete in that we fail to hear what the speaker intends to say about the fruits. We, the researchers, however know that the fruits fell, and the pauses in between, act too as DMs indicating an ongoing thought process on the part of the respondent in search of the relevant expression to use. When the desired expression completely fails, the respondent goes ahead to use *après ça* to join the incomplete segement to the next.

We noted that the entire selected data item F1 line 11-22 previously shown also has a good number of repetitious expressions, false starts, a code-switch, incomplete sentences and DM pause fillers, all of which the respondent attempts to hopefully bring to a unified whole. The easiest way out for the narrator to sequentially organaize the whole discourse at a global level seems to be the use of après *ça.* Unfortunately, this fails because most of the discourse parts are not logically connected to each other. In this case, therefore, we postulate that the DM *après ça* acts strategically as a face-saving device in a bid not to give up the narration at all costs. The result is, however, not impressive. We have labelled this ocurrence 'the attempted sequential value' of **après ça.** It is a phenomenon that may be replicated with other DMs that act globally on larger discourse segments among foreign language learners. Further research on this would be in order.

4.2.4.2 *Je pense* (I think) as a phrasal DM

One of the phrasals that experienced a relatively high ocurrence among the phrasals was the DM *je pense* (I think). An analysis of its use among the respondents revealed various roles as hereby discussed.

1. ***Je pense* as a face-saving device**

The data we collected demontrated that among learners of French, the DM ***je pense*** (I think) was able to be emplyed strategically and pragmatically as a face-saving mechanism. Let us consider the following example.

> A5 line 1-7
> *.... Ah...après avoir volé les poires.... oui après avoir volé il commence son voyage chez lui....* ***Je pense****. ... peut-être là où il va.... et en voyageant, il. ....il...... rencontre une fille qui est aussi.... qui a aussi une bicyclette et* ***je pense*** *que cette fille l'a confus [confondu]....et.... en la regardant.... oui, des choses se passent... des choses se passent et il ne sais pas comment marcher avec son bicyclette et puis il tombe sur terre*
>
> .... Ah ... after stealing the pears .... yes, after stealing he starts his journey home .... **I think**. ... maybe wherever it is that he's going .... and while traveling, he. ..... he ...... meets a girl who is also .... who also has a bicycle and **I think** this girl confused him .... and .... as he looked at her ... yes, things happened ... things happened and he does not know how to walk with [ride] his bicycle and so he falls on the ground

2. **Semantic role of *je pense***

Je pense (I think) also portrays a semantic role, indicating the the speaker's opinion or even showing some doubt on a given proposition. Je pense in essence negates outright knowledge of the upcoming proposition, especially when viwed in line with 'je sais' (I know). *Je pense* thus helps in distinguishing facts from opinion (Goddard, 2003). Let us consider the data sample that follows.

> A5 line 17-19
>
> ***et puis*** *quand ce garçon lui donne son chapeau ce garçon les [leur] donne des fruits* ***comme quoi****....* ***je pense*** *comme cadeau pour leur dire merci.*
>
> and then ..... when who. ..... and then that boy gives him his hat this boy gives them fruits like what .... I think as a gift to say thank you.

Here, the narrator, seems not to be sure of why the boy gave out the fruits. The DM *'je pense'* therefore acts to align the hearer to this fact and thus implies that should the reason for giving out the fruits be any other than to show gratitude, then the narrator cannot be faulted. The DM *je pense* in this way, plays a semantic role that is understood by both speaker and hearer. This is further strengthened by its position, context as well as intonation, as we observed from the data.

3. Organizational value of *je pense*

Je pense was also found to depict discourse organization, indicating a boundary or a new perspective from the prevoius turn. For example:

> Trancription B7
>
> *Aah… dans la clip j'ai vu **aah**… un garçon qui... **je pense qu'**il est traversé la route où le gardien [jardin], puis on avait un fermier...un fermier qui rassemblait son… les fruits et quand il rassemblait **je pense** qu'il n'était pas très **aah**… **aah**...il n'avait pas regardée… (il n'avait pas fait attention)..**oui** il n'avait pas fait attention puis le petit garçon est venu **et puis** il a volé … (rire)...il a volé les fruits…*
>
> Translation B7
>
> Aah ... in the clip I saw aah ... a boy who **I think** crossing the road or the caretaker [garden], then we had a farmer ... a farmer who was collecting his fruit and when he gathered **I think** he was not very aah ... aah ... he had not looked ... (he was not paying attention) ... yes he was not paying attention then the little boy came and then he stole ... (respondent laughs) ... he stole the fruits ...

In this excerpt, we see the respondent struggling to organize the discourse, in the sense that even the grammmatical structure of the narration is wanting and the speaker seems to find difficulty in expressing themself. *Je pense* comes in here not only as a discourse organizer, but also as face-saving device, playing on the pragmatic level. The DM *je pense* thus play a role in identification of discourse stages and also in interaction between interlocutors (Mullan, 2010).

4.2.4.3 *En fait* (in fact) as a Phrasal DM

En fait is a phrasal adverb in French. It translates to 'in fact' or 'actually in English.

Ideally, it should be used to state an actual fact. However, as a DM, other roles of *en*

fait can be realized as follows:

1. **Correction marking value of *en fait***

   In the excerpt that follows, en fait is used as a correction marker.

   B10 Line 3-5

   *Bon! euh…ce que j'ai regardé...**en fait** ce que je peux dire... euh. i' y avait ce monsieur... i' y avait pas de son donc je peux pas imaginer le nom... oui...il était en train de arracher je sais pas c'était des pommes…*

   Well! uh…what I saw…**in fact** what I can say uh…there was this man…there was no sound, so I can't imagine his name…yes…he was in the process of plucking…I don't know…if it was some pears…

In this example, the first thing we realize is the false start with which the speaker kicks

off the narrative, beginning with 'what I saw' sandwiched between pauses and

preceeded by two consecutive interjectory DMs, and this structure we see as exhibiting

a kind of uncertainty on probably how to structure the upcoming series of utterances.

The next part of the proposition is then introduced by *en fait,* anad what follows seems

to be an attempt to correct the first proposition, from 'what I saw' to 'what I can say'.

2. En fait value as a call to 'see it as I see it please'

This is based on the fact that what the spaeker is introducing by *en fait* may not in actual

sense be an absolute fact. Rather, it may only be "a fact" to the extent that the speaker

is seeking have the listener share the same perspective. This enables the interlocutors

to operate on the same plane. In the same data sample, we perceive a difference in

mindset of the hearer as the speaker moves away from 'what I saw', *ce que j'ai vu*, to

'**in fact,** what I can say', *en fait ce que je peut dire,* the speaker is in essence begging

for a shared mindset from the listener. In this particular case, the DM also plays a double role as an affirmative phrase, which is capable of absolving the speaker from balme just in case 'the way I see it is not the way you see it'. In such a case, the fact in *en fait* absolvingly becomes "my fact" just in case the listener fails to be convinced on the content matter of talk.

The main functions of adverbial DMs is to "structure discourse, call for the addressee's attention, emphasize thematic progression and enable or facilitate turn-taking" (Fagard 2010: 247). Results from our data indicate that apart from being adverbs, a fifth of the recorded adverbial DMs also function as conjunctions; these include *puis 'then', quand 'when', donc 'so/therefore'* and *alors 'so/therefore'*.

Table 4n: Conjuctive adverbs

DM in French	Grammatical Class	DM in English	Frequency of occurrence
Puis	Adverb/coordinating conjunction	then	48
Quand	Adverb/subordinating conjunction	when	24
Alors	Adverb/subordinating conjunction	so, then	10
Donc	Adverb/coordinating conjunction	so, therefore, consequently	15

This observation strengthens our asssertaion regarding the high occurrence of conjuncive DMs as used by the respondents, that top on their priority - knowingly or unknowingly- is the need to ensure 'lexico-grammatical correctness' (linguistic competence) through conjunction use as a means of overtly holding the text together.

We reiterate here that the relatively high occurrence of conjunctive DMs – either as conjunctive adverbials or simply as connectors, is typical of the written expression, where cohesion and coherence are overtly exhibited. In oral communication, however, we postulate that cohesion and coherence must not necessarily be explicitly denoted by

joining words, but rather, that these processes of coherence and cohesion can be implied within a given context of oral communication, even without the use of lexical connectors of adverbial or conjunctive nature. We have, consequently, coined the term *'written-like talk'* in reference to the oral production exhibited by our respondents.

Past studies indicate that adverbial discourse markers organise longer pieces of conversation or text, and that most discourse markers belong to the class of adverbs. Chanet's (2003) research on DM frequencies for spoken French. They can mark the openings or closings of conversations, changes in topics, and other functions connected with organising a conversation or text. The data collected reveals that repondents used adverbs of varying kinds, to greater or lesser degrees, with conjuctive adverbials topping the list. We found it interesting to note that although the respondents used onversation opening and closing markers, these only recorded low tokens in use. The opening marker *d'abord 'first'* had three occurrences, *tout d'abord 'first of all'* had one while *premièrement 'firstly'* recorded two occurrences. For opening and closing markers *c'est tout 'that's all'* registered seven occurrences while *c'est ça 'that's it'* had three entries.

Pragmatic markers of emotion such as *malheuresement, heureusement and vraiment were* also used but all with low tokens of below ten. We had expected on the contrary, to record highly on these, given the emotive nature of the story and also due to the fact that the oral narration of the story involved the respondent and the actual researcher as opposed to the respondent possibly mechanically recording the story on an audio device and presenting it to the researcher. The student respondents had a good opportunity to demontrate DMs in use as interpersonal oral communication markers. However, this

was not the case, leading once again to the *'written-like talk'*. Let us consider the excerpt C9 that follows.

Transcription C9

*Euh...j'ai vu un agriculture [agronome] qui ceuillait les fruits de poires **et** un homme passait avec une chèvre **et puis** un garçon arrivait avec... ahh...une vole. Et il s'arretait **et** il est en autobus depuis, il est tombé et trois garçons l'aidait a ceuiller les fruits **et**... il est recompensé comme il est lui donné son chapeau. Le panier monté **et** trouvé ses fruits disparus, **et puis** il voit trois garcons manger des fruits similaires... **Après** le fermière monter **et** il est ...il était choqué **parce que** il voit des garcons manger des fruits*

Translation C9

Uh ... I saw an agriculture [farmer] picking pear fruits and a man was passing by with a goat and then a boy was coming with ... ahh ... a theft. And he stopped and he's been on a bus [bike] ever since, he fell and three boys were helping him pick the fruit ... and ... he is rewarded as he is given his hat and… hat. The basket went up and found his missing fruit, and then he saw three boys eating similar fruits… After the farmer went up and he was ...he was shocked because he saw boys eating fruits.

At a glance, the piece of narration is compact, the different propositions are well held together mostly by use of the conjunctive DM 'et'. Very few pauses are realized, much like in written texts. The respondent seems to be aspiring to talk well, as if reading from a book, at the expense of the logical arrangement of the flow of thought. This is because a closer look at the narrative shows a rather disjointed piece, where the DMs used fail to constrain spaeker intended meaning. The hearer, therefore, gets an incoherent message, which ironically is cohesively held together. This hence produces an incoherent rhetorical structure.

4.2.5 Interjections as DMs

Respondents' use of **interjectional DMs** recorded an occurrence frequency of 19%, coming after the adverbs. In the present study, interjections such as *ah* and *mmm* recorded higher tokens. Gauging their intended meaning and therefore function required cognitive effort on our part in order to arrive at a required understanding of the message. As such, their meaning would depend particularly on an understanding of the

tonal contour of the specific interjection in use. These two interjections, *ah* and *mmm in* this study, for example, appeared at both sentence initial and mid sentential positions, with potenially different functions.

Interjections represent a large, potentially infinitely extendable class of items, which apparently accepts an unlimited number of new items. This open-ended nature of the class of interjections is based on the fact that they maintain a general status as expressions of shifts in cognitive states of various kinds. Previous research reveals the need to stress on the importance of interjections in foreign language learning especially because interjectional DMs constitute one of the pointers to pragmatic competence among foreign langauge students (Hismanoglu 2010). Our respondents only scored 19% on interjectional DM use.

The interjections *Mmm 'mmm', euh/ah 'uh', euhm 'uhm', yeah 'yeah'* and *oui* 'yes' were interestingly almost fully used as discourse fillers in conversation. Our interest was in whether they were appropriately used by the respondents, who were basically non-native French speakers, and also whether their use was more as a marker of fluency or as a marker of dysfluency. We have analyzed, the following two excerpts in 4.2.5.1 and 4.2.5.2, with a free translation of each in order to evaluate the potential for interjectional DMs to reveal either fluency or dysfluency in foreign language learning.

4.2.5.1 Mmm as an Interjectional DM

This is one of the common interjections that was used by the respondents, revealing different DM functions as discussed below.

1. The turn-taking indication value of *mmm*

Data A7. Line1-3

Mmm*... Après avoir volé les poires, le petit… le petit… le petit garçon… **euh**... conduire son bicyclette est il est allé sur la la route et malheureusement il a vu une fille.*

> **Mmm**…after having stolen the pears, the little…the little…the little boy…**uh**…to ride [rides] his bicycle and he went on the road and unfortunately, he saw a girl.

The interjection *mmm* is in this case used sentence–initially, notwithstanding the fact that the French interjectional DM *euh* would be a more likely manifestation at this position for a native French speaker. It plays a turn-taking role on the part of the respondent and implies a readying of oneself for the story narration. Our respondents were all learners of French as a foreign language and their use of the interjection *mmm* rather than the common interjection *euh* for turn-taking at sentence initial position is indicative of lexical item transference from L1-in this case, English, Kiswahili or native langauge spoken by the respondents. This scenario is especially made accessible to the Kenyan learner of French due to the fact that the mid-cental vowel [ø] representing 'euh', is virtually inexistent in the L1 or L2 of the learner.

2. The pause-filling and turn-maintaining values of interjections *mmm* and *euh*

The data we collected also revealed that interjections, coupled with other discourse coherence strategies can be employed in speech situations to act as pause fillers. Let us consider the following discourse segment previously used:

Data A7. Line1-3

> ***Mmm****… Après avoir volé les poires, le petit… le petit… le petit garçon…* **euh***... conduire son bicyclette est il est allé sur la la route et malheureusement il a vu une fille.*

> **Mmm**…after having stolen the pears, the little…the little…the little boy…**uh**…to ride [rides] his bicycle and he went on the road and unfortunately, he saw a girl.

After the first proposition in the discourse, seperated by a comma, the respondent somewhat manifests a stutter by repeating the expression '*the little*' three times; the final round being *'the little boy'*. The pauses in between the stutter may also act as non verbal DMs, kind of paralinguistic in nature, and sending information to the listener

that the repondent is cognitively searching for the right word. This is in agreement with past research on the possibility of having non-verbal DMs (Schiffrin, 1987). The stuttering can therefore be said to be false and more of a face saving mechanism as the speaker attempts to get hold of the right expression to use.

After the repeated expression and a successful completion of the utterance *'the little boy'*, the interjection *uh* comes immediately after a brief pause and is followed again by another pause. It is no wonder then that interjections of this kind are also often referred to as pause fillers. Like the stuttering and pauses heretofore described, the interjectional DM *uh* in this case acts as a filler. It is also a turn-keeper/maintainer, helping the speaker to keep his or her turn while in the meantime seeking to find the right expression. After this interjection, the respondent ends up with the desired expression *conduire 'to drive',* which is the closest expression to the desired one- 'to ride a bike'. This, in French, is represented with the idiomatic expression '*faire du vélo'*, an expression that seems neither to be within the active vocabulary of the respondent, nor to have a direct equivalent translation in English. The chosen expression however is used inappropriately in the infinitive form, without conjugation- *conduire (to drive)* instead of *conduit (drives),* proving that the DM *euh* 'uh' sandwiched between pauses acts as a filler while also serving as a face-saving mechanism. A re-look at the data excerpt will be of essence here:

> **Mmm***... Après avoir volé les poires, le petit… le petit… le petit garçon…* **euh***... conduire son bicyclette*
>
> **Mmm**…after having stolen the pears, the little …the little…the little boy…**uh**…to drive [drives] his bicycle.

In the excerpt shown, the respondent's struggle to find the right French expression for 'rides his bike' fails. We inferred that the interjectional DM *euh* 'uh' sandwiched between pause-fillers depicted a cognitive process entailing a search for the acceptable

expression, since the respondent seemed not know how to translate the expression the 'little boy…uh… *rides his bike'* as 'le petit garcon…euh…*fait du velo*'.

4.2.5.2 Ahh/ahm (uhh/uhm) as an interjectional DM

This group of markers were realized in various ways by the respondents. Let us have a look at some of these in the following discussion.

1. **The fluency/dysfluency value of paralinguistic-sandwithed interjections and repetitions**

The data below also shows interjections, pauses and repetitions all intertwined together, thus manifestig again, the face-saving phenomenon earlier discussed. The difference here is that these aspects all occur with greater frequency, coupled with repetitions of various segments within the discourse excerpt.

> Data C10. Line 1-3
> *Ahh... je j'ai vu mmm…**ahhm**... un [une] personne qui... qui... **ahhm**... collectait les…les…les poires de l'arbre et un…un garçon a volé…volé les…les poires...*
>
> **Uhh**…I saw **mmm**…**uhm**…a person who…who…**uhm**… was collecting the…the…the pears from the tree and a…a boy stole…stole the…the pears…

Although current research indicates that native French speakers record high occurrence of DMs in oral communication, and that this high DM occurrence is a hallmark of the spoken expression (Pellet, 2005), the present study reveals that this is not always true. We assume that non verbal DMs are included in this package in concurrence with schiffrin (1987), who suggests that paralinguistic features and non-verbal gestures are possible DMs. She states that:

> Discourse markers are "linguistic, paralinguistic, or nonverbal elements that signal relations between units of talk by virtue of their syntactic and semantic properties and by virtue of their sequential relations as initial or terminal brackets demarcating discourse units" (Schiffrin, 1987: 40).

The excerpt from Data C10 cited, for example, shows actual inerjectional DMs in use. These give way to pauses and repetitious expressions, which we view as carrying nonverbal and paralinguistic communicative aspects. Therefore, within this short ecxerpt, there is an existance of various DMs. This phenomenon should understandably translate to fluency, going by prevoius studies. Our data, however, reveals the contrary. The results obtained from the present study point to the fact that a high DM occurrence in oral communication is not always an indicator of fluency, but rather could be a pointer to dysfluency due to the multiple 'interruptions' between actual propositional utterances.

Dysfluency in speech refers to any of various breaks, irregularities, or non-lexical vocables that occur within the flow of otherwise fluent speech. Stuttering is considered the most common form of dysfluency. It is used to refer to any of the situations where the speaker feels unable to move ahead in speech, he or she feels stuch, or repeats sound or prolongs sounds. Speech dysfluencies reflect the temporal nature of the cognitive mechanisms underlying speech production and comprehension (Cribe, 2018). According to Fraundorf *et al*. (2017),

> "dysfluencies are interruptions in the regular flow of speech, such as using *uh* and *um,* pausing silently, repeating words, or interrupting oneself to correct something previously said. Dysfluency can be distinguished from speech errors in which the speaker produces wrong words or speech sounds but may do so without any interruptions in the flow of speech. Dysfluencies commonly stem from delays or errors in the cognitive processes of language production…"

We therefore infer from this study that DM overuse, especially those of the 'interjection- pause- filler- repetition' kind actually does constitute speech dysfluency.

2. Interjections *Euh, mm* and the first/second language factor

We noted that all the respondents had superior knowledge of both English and Kiswahili as a first or second language. Almost all respondents also spoke a third language, a local native language, which is their mother tongue. They were all learning French as a foreign language. We noticed that in a number of cases, the non native French-speaking respondents employed the interjectional DMs *euh* and *mm* in a manner that was more congruent with English or Kiswahili discourse rather than for French. From the excerpt that follows, we see a possible manifestatoin of dysfluency as opposed to fluency. From the data, we realised that ceratin times, respondents' use and manner of use of particular DM forms tended to go against the expected norm. This led us to an analytical review of fluency vi-à-vis dysfluency. A review of the data below expounds.

> C10. Line 1-3
> ***Ahh...*** *je j'ai vu mmm…**ahhm**. un[une] personne qui... qui... **ahhm**.. collectait les…les…les poires de l'arbre et un…un garçon a volé…volé les…les poires...*
>
> **Uhh**…I saw **mmm**…**uhm**…a person who…who…**uhm**… was collecting the…the…the pears from the tree and a…a boy stole…stole the…the pears…

From the the data fragment above, we noted that the respondent employs DM forms that are not primarily French. '*Ahh/uh*' [a] and '*ahhm/uhm*' [am] are English versions of the French interjections *euh* [Ø] and *euhm* [øm]. Both the English and French versions either are or begin with [a] and [Ø]. Whereas [a] is a low, back, lax vowel, [Ø] is a mid, cental tense vowel. Further, [a] is articulated with non rounded, open lips while [Ø] is articulated with lips in a rounded, semi-closed position. Top on our argument is that the vowel [Ø] neither exists in English nor in Kiswahili. For this reason, also, the English/Kiswahili- speaking respondents found it easier to use the interjectional DM

mmm [mm] in sentence initial position, rarely used here, instead of the common French interjection *euh* [Ø] at the sentence-initial position. These kinds of manifestations are a crucial pointer to the need to evaluate the sociolinguistic sub-level of communicative competence among FFL learners.

It is worth noting that sociolinguistic competence has been an integral part of communicative competence in that it includes learning pragmatic and sociolinguistic knowledge about how to use appropriate language in the requisite social context. However, a number of studies highlight the lack of such communicative skills among foreign language learners regardless of their proficiency level of linguistic knowledge. More specially, learners may not be able to develop socio-pragmatic knowledge of language as much as grammatical knowledge of the language being learnt (Mede and Dikilitas, 2015). We see this as the case with our study population, where the students actually have an idea on what is grammatically acceptable, as depicted in their attempt to structure their sentences correctly. Where this fails, they attempt to somewhat unknowingly cover up for the loses by use of DM 'fillers', key of which are interjections *euh* (uh) and its variants. It is interseting to note that this interjection is in essence considered as being the universal interjection, with different variations across languages. Due to its universality, we infered that our respondents found it much easier to use the English and Kiwahili variants [uh]/[ah] and [a] repectively instead of the French one [Ø].

Previous research has also noted that usage of interjections differs from one language block to another, with regard to frequency and form used, citing that this is probably a cultural phenomenon, suggesting that it could be subject to further study (Biber *et al.*, 1990:1097). Our research results, therefore, contribute to a clearer understanding on

why learneres of French as a foreign langauge may exhibit speech dysfluencies not only at the syntactic and morphological levels, but also at the phonological level as well. These range from cases of transfer of lexical items from one langauge to another, to use of strategic techniques such as repetitions, pauses and interjectional DM particles. Based on this, we note that our repsondents portrayal of these features in some cases led to speech dysfluency. Ironically, though, it is these very features that would earn the repondents scores at the strategic competence sub-level of communicative competence, as what appears as dysfluencies could also be strategic devices, spontaneously arising out of the need to ensure a flow in speech.

We conclude from the foregoing discussion, and based on evidence from data on interjections, that although interjections have been regarded by some scholars as having no linguistic value (Wilkins 1992:122), the respondents demonstrated that interjections do indeed have linguistic significance. We concur with Ulrike (2009), and other scholars who consider interjections as linguistic, given that they are conventionalised items of a langauge, consisting of certain semantic components and particular cross-linguistic differences.

4.3 Phonetic and Phonological Implications on DM Frequency-Form Distribution

The top ten DMs all registered frequency tokens of 30 and above, with *'et'* (and) recording the highest occurrence frequency of 364 tokens. The data also reveals that phonologically shorter DMs are prefereable to learners of French. The DMs in table 4o below were top ten

in use. We have indicated their phonetic transcriptions in order to show their actual phonological realizatios. The number of syllables per DM form helped us to guage the length of the various marker forms realized.

Table 4o: Top-ten Discourse Marker forms

DM Form	Phonetic Transcription	Syllable Number of Form
Et	[e]	1
Puis	[pɥi]	1
Euh/Ah	[Ø]/[a]	1
Mmm	[mm]	1
Quand	[kɑ̃]	1
Oui	[wi]	1
Donc	[dɔ̃k]	1
Aussi	[osi]	2
Mais	[mɛ]	1
Je pense	[ʒəpɑ̃s]	2

From this analysis, the DMs represented are in two groups: monosyllabic and bisyllabic. Their percentage token realization is at 80% and 20% respectively. The shortest markers were monoyllabic in nature and tended to be used more by the learners, followed by the two-syllable DMs. This finding agrees with earlier research that most DMs tend to be short items, often ustressed and phonologically forming seperate tone groups (Brinton, 1996). Our results also reveal that students used relatively less of the DMs that seemed phonologically longer. The longest were quadri-syllabic in nature, and all recorded frequencies of only one token each. Further, they all appeared at the bottom- ten of the list as follows in table 4p.

Table 4p: Bottom-ten Discourse Marker forms

DM Form	Phonetic Transcription	Syllable Number of DM form
Tout d'abord	[tudabɔʁ]	3
Vraiment	[vʁɛmɑ̃]	2
Par exemple	[paʁɛgzɑ̃plə]	4
Même si	[mɛmsi]	2
Même fois	[mɛmfwa]	2
Puisque	[pɥiskə]	2
Je ne sais pas	[ʒənəsɛpa]	4
Tu sais	[tysɛ]	2
On peut dire	[ɔ̃pødiʁ]	3
Heureusement	[øʁøzəmɑ̃]	4

We observed that the DM forms appearing at the bottom end of the record, only registered one token each. The analyis in table 4p reveals that the students also used some relatively longer DM forms, notwithstanding the fact the most DMs are genrally rather short. The slightly longer forms, however, received lesser tokens in use. Wheareas none was monosyllabic in the bottom-ten list, bisyllabic, trisyllabic and quadrisyllabic DM forms each received a 50%, 20% and 30% token in use respectively. Overall, we observed that the DM forms most used by respondents were phonologically shorter whereas the least used had some relatively longer forms. From the two anlyses above, we infer that the students knowingly or not, applied the principle of economy in language during the narration process. We also observed during the course of the research that a good number of respondents did not feel comfortable enough to adeqautely narrate the story in French. Implicitly, therefore, the students sought to apply 'the principle of least effort' in achieving the narration goal; and although the economy principle in language can manifest at all linguistic levels including phonetics/phonology, morphology and syntax, in this section, we have analysed the DM forms used by learners of French, highlighting their phonetic/ phonological aspects of sound and length. The higher frequencies of the shorter forms have a general implication on the overall oral production in terms of maximizing on speed of the entire oral presentation, with very minimum effort, in line with the economy principle in language (Vicentini, 2003).

4.4 Code-switches and Mixes with Discourse Markers

Our data also revealed that respondents used some English DM forms where French and not English was the required language of use. Students employed on equal scale the English adverbial *okey* and its French equivalent *d'accord,* with both obtaining a frequency token of five each. The excerpts below are lines from different respondents.

A6. Line 1
okey… d'apres moi *il y a un homme qui travaille…ah…*
okey, according to me, there is a man who is working…uh…

A9. Line 1
Okey…*dans cette histoire il y a un homme dabs son jardin*
Okey, in this story there is a man in his garden

D1 Line 1
Okey, *j'ai vu des gens qui collectaient les fruits*
Okey, I saw people collecting fruits

In most of the instances, as shown, the students used the English DM *okey* at the sentence-initial position, followed by the rest of the narration in French, as shown in the first three excerpts: A6 Line1, A9 Line1 and D1 Line 1. We also noticed such a phenomenon with the English colloquial adverb *yeah,* which had a frequency of 22, while its French equivalent *ouais* was not realised. However, in place of the French colloquial version *ouais*, the more formal version *oui (yes)*, recorded a frequency of 45 tokens. The inverse would be true for native French speakers. The following excerpts refer.

D2 Line 20
Après ça *ils le [l'] aide…ils le aide à installer [monter] le sac*
After that, they help him…they help him mount the bag

D2 Line 21
Sur la bicycette… ***yeah****…et le…le garçon*
On the bicycle… **yeah**, and the …the boy

The sentence in excerpt D2 Line 20 continues to D2 Line 21, with the English DM *yeah* appearing mid-sentencially afterwhich the narration continues in French. In D2 Line 14 and D8, Line 2 to Line 4, we also see *yeah* in a similar manifestation. Also, both sets of excerpts contain the interjections *ehh/eeh* and *aa/ah/uh*, which are actually English versions of the French interjectory discourse marker *euh.* The data that follows refers.

D2 Line 14

*Cet garcon **ehh…**est sur sa route**…yeah…** et il rencontre*
This boy is **ehh…** is on his way**…yeah…**and he meets

D8 Line 2 –D8 Line 4
D8 Line 2
…dans un arbre…uh… et les autres hommes passaient
…in a tree…uh… and the other men were passing

D8 Line 3
*Avec le chev...moutom…quelquechose…**yeah**, et*
With a goa[t]…sheep…something…**yeah**, and

D8 Line 4
autres hommes passaient et cuillère [cuilliaient] les fruits
other men were passing and picked the fruits

The data items above represent code- mixing and code-switching scenarios between a language already well known – either first language (L1) or second language (L2) and the foreign language being learnt. In this case, students specifically employed the phenomenon of French–English code- mixing and code- switching across the data. Factors influening foreign langauge learning have been studied. These include age, culture, gender, motivation, anxiety and native language factors (Aziz, 2012). We highlight here the native language factor.

In the study, we considered English as the native language in question, given that it is the official language in Kenya. We, however, noted that virtually all repondents spoke at least three other languages to a greater or lesser extent, apart from French. These include English, Kiwahili, and an indigenous local language also known as mother tongue. Furthermore, all repondents had knowledge of Sheng, a Kenyan dynamic, urban language constantly developing out of a mix of English, Kiswahili and Kenyan local languages, which is common amongst the youth. We infer that the code choice specifically infuencing mixing of DMs forms among multilingual learners of French in

Kenya has not been documented. Further research will, therefore, be of essence in this domain. The current study, however, reveals that in Kenya, the French learner's choice of DM lexical items is relatively influenced by already spoken languages, including English and Kiswahili, the already better mastered languages. The researcher aimed at every encounter with the respondent, to create a free, easy and unofficial discourse context.

4.5 Discourse Marker Frequency-Form-Function Distribution

In this section we analyze and interpret the frequency of DMs used by respondents' vis-à vis their form and function. We consider DM functions in line with the effect they achieve in discourse, in terms of the illocutionary force excerted by the particular DM. Having reviewed the cohesive role that DMs play in structuring discourse, this section discusses 'function' with particular reference to coherence and coherence relations with the view that it is these features that define DM function. There are multiple DM functions, and different scholars have attempted to offer varied classifications of these functions (Muller, 2005; Brinton, 1996; Schiffrin, 1987; Sanders *et al.*, 1992/93; Sperber and wilson (2002), Blakemore, 2002; Fraser, 2009) among others. The common string that runs through these works is the role of DMs in coherence creation. The Relevance Theoretical approach (RT) and the Rhetorical Structure Theory (RST) have been proposed as a means of establishing the overall DM function of creating coherence in discourse.

Although previous studies have based their analytical approach to DMs on either RT or to RST, the current study proposed an approach intertwining the relevance-based model and the coherence-based model to greater or lesser extents. We began by establishing the role played by each emergent DM in structuring discourse. We then further

distinguished the particular overall function that the DM establishes in discourse: textual or interpersonal/pragmatic function as shown in table 4q. Next, we analysed the extent to which the DM functions account for proficiency in oral communication.

Although each specific DM carries with it a particular function within a given discourse, two general groups have been proposed for aggregating these mini-functions. These are the textual and the interpersonal functions. The results we obtained from our data revealed that of the two broad groupings of DM functions, the textual function overrode the interpersonal or pragmatic DM functions as shown in table 4q that follows.

Table 4q: DM frequency-function distribution

Form (French)	Grammatical Description	Form (English equivalent)	Frequency	Function		
				Role	Textual function	Inter-personal function
Et	Coordinating conjunction	And	400	Sequence marker	✓	
Puis	Adverb	Then	48	Sequence marker	✓	
Euh/Ah	Interjection	Uh	89	Pause filler		✓
Mmm/mm	Interjection	Mmm/mm	99	Pause filler		✓
Quand	Subordinating conjunction/adverb	When	24		✓	
Oui	Adverb	Yes, okay	37			✓
Donc	Coordinating conjunction/Adverb	So, therefore, consequently	15	Sequence marker	✓	
Aussi	Adverb	Also	15	Additive marker	✓	
Mais	Coordinating conjunction	But	33	Contrastive marker	✓	
Je pense	Pronoun+verb	I think	30			✓
Après ça	Adverb	After that, afterwards	29	Sequence marker	✓	
Yeah (ouais)	Interjection (English)	Yeah	10			✓
Ben	Adverb/interjection	Well/of course	9	Response marker, information management marker		✓
Parce que	Subordinating conjunction	Because	16	Cause-result marker	✓	
Où	Subordinating conjunction/adverb	Where/when	12		✓	

Alors	Adverb	So, then	10	Sequence/relevance marler	✓	
Quoi	Relative pronoun	What	10			✓
Bon	Adverb	Well	21	Conversation management marker		✓
Malheureusement	Adverb	Unfortunately	9	Assessment marker		✓
Euhm	Interjection	Ahm/um	6	Filler		✓
Okey, ok	Adverb/Adjective	Okay, alright	5	Conversation management marker		✓
C'est tout	Pronoun+verb+pronoun	That's all	5	Boundery marker		✓
En fait	Preposition+common noun (masculin singular)	In fact	3	Digression marker		✓
D'abord	Adverb	First	3	Opening frame marker		✓
D'accord	Adjective	Okey, alright	3	Cooperation/agreement marker		✓
Je sais pas	Pronoun+verb+negation	I don't know	3	Meta-knowledge marker		✓
Premierement	Adverb	Firstly	2	Opening frame marker		✓
C'est ça	Interjection	That's it	2	Closing frame marker		✓
En ce moment là	Adverbial locution	At that time	2			✓
C'est-a-dire	Adverb	That means/ in other words	2	Elaboration marker		✓
Tout d'abord	Adverb	First of all	1	Opening frame marker		✓
Vraiment	Adverb	Truly	1	Evidential marker		✓

Par exemple	Preposition+noun	For example	1	Elaboration marker		✓
Meme si	Subordinating conjunction	Even if	1			✓
Meme fois		Same time	1			✓
Puisque	Subordinating conjunction	Since, because, as	1	Cause-result marker	✓	
Oee/ohe	interjecton	Oee	1	Filler		✓
Je ne sais pas	Pronoun+negation+verb+ negation	I don't know	1	Meta-knowledge marker		✓
Tu sais	Pronoun+verb	You know	1	Meta-knowledge marker		✓
On peut dire	Pronoun+verb+verb	We can say	1	Manner-of-speaking marker		✓
Heureusement	Adverb	Fortunately	1	Assessment marker		✓
Là	Adverb	There	1			✓
		(68%)				(32%)

The explanation that follows elaborates on the scores from the analysis on DM broader functions, that is, textual and interpersonal/pragmatic DM functions, portrayed on table 4Q.

4.5.1 Textual Function of Discourse Markers

Whereas the textual function was realised at 68%, the interpersonal function of DMs as used by the respondents was realised at 32%. Our data reveals that although this outlook should have, to a larger extent, led to textual/discourse coherence, this was not always the case. The textual function of DMs accounts for how DMs make a text coherent, and the principles behind the coherence of a text. Halliday (1985) notes that the textual function is concerned with the textual resources that the speaker has for creating coherence. This implies lexical items, of which DMs are part.

The textual function of DMs is to contribute to coherence in discourse (Schiffrin, 1987). Our data, however, revealed the contrary, to some extent. From the analysis of data hitherto discussed, we have discovered that although DMs, being cohesive devices, should ideally lead to coherence of texts, this is not always the case. In our scenario, for example, much as DMs destined to exhibit the textual function were achieved at 68%, textual coherence was not always the result. In our previous discussions on selected DMs, we observed that DM use meant for textual coherence would sometimes fall short of achieving this endaevour. This, therefore, leads to dysfluency rather than fluency within the said contexts.

Instances of the fluency-dysfluency phenomenon under discussion can be drawn from the data excerpts we earlier presented. We will single out some examples, to elaborate on this. First to note, is the cognitive realm of the DM *et* (and), whereby the listener is forced to think deeper into the speaker's intended meaning, because of the unusual manner of its use. We realised that when *et* (and) appears within pauses, usually with a

distinct tonal variation, it could act pragmatically rather than textually upon the discourse. In such a case, the DM comes across as a hestitation marker, thus leading to incoherence. Also, in some cases, the respondent attempted to use either the DM *et* (and), après ça (after that) or *et puis* (and then) as a sequential marker but the discourse flow would be interrrupted as the sequential marker would fail to achieve the desired outcome, as demonstrated in the adjacent segment after the DM. We also discussed on how certain DMs such as *bon* (well) came into use as lexical choice correction markers while others such as *je pense* (I think) were used as a face-saving device, in instances where the respondent seemed unable to find the right expression to employ in narrating the story. All such instances, we realised, led to incoherence rather than coherence, in as far as the textual analysis of the discourse was concerned.

Although, in the ongoing discussion, we only partially agree with past studies on DMs as coherence creation devices (Schiffrin, 1987; Halliday & Hasan, 1985), we note that where the textual function of the DM failed to create the desired coherence result on the text, the pragmatic role of the DM abounded, albeit more often than not, unintentionally. According to the Relevance Theory (RT), the DM creates an ostensive stimulus on the hearer, thereby guiding the listener to be able to infer on what to generally expect on the adjacent segment of the text and /or on other ensuing portions of the dicourse (Sperber & Wilson, 2004). It is through such ostensive-inferential processes that the listener for instance gets to expect that the use of the DM *et* (and) infers sequence or addition, and that the DM *mais* (but) infers contrast while *parce que* (because) infers consequence. In cases where incoherence is pointed out, the inferred expectation on the discourse is not realised by the listener because the speaker's sequential discourse flow introduced by the DM fails to deliver the expected inference. We deduce thus that this leads to discourse incoherence.

The Relevance Theory supposes that if a text is coherent, then it is relevant and if it is relevant, then it is coherent. The two, in this view, are thus interdependent. The goal of the Relavance Theory is to explain how the hearer infers the speaker's meaning on the basis of the evidence provided. Likewise, utterances are said to automatically create expectations which guide the hearer towards the speaker's intended meaning (Sperber and Wlison, 2004).

Going by the data collected, we realised that on the flip side of what appears to be incoherence is strategic competence on the part to the learner of French. In other words, where DMs appear to have been used inappropriately, a closer look reveals that there was still inherent meaning portrayed, even amidst the perceived incoherence. These included DMs introducing self-correction measures, face-saving mechanisms as well as DMs acting as hesitation markers helping in turn-keeping. Overall, we discovered that when DMs destined to exhibit textual functions fail to fulfil this role, the result is discourse incoherence, which then further redefines the role of the DM used to a more pragmatic realm, as discussed. We observed that in such scenarios, the pragmatic function of the DM would point more towards difficulties experienced by the learner of French, and that the DM used in like instances is pragmatically translated as a mechanism of overcoming barriers in communication among the learners.

4.5.2 Interpersonal Function of Discourse Markers

Table 4q reveals that DMs exhibiting interpersonal functions stood at 32%, in comparison with those exhibiting textual functions, at 68%. We deduce from this that the learners of French were more keen on ensuring a well orderd discourse rather than engaging in informal acts of discourse that interactively and socially bind the listener to the speaker; one of the characteristics that distinguishes written discourse from spoken discourse. DMs are, therefore, said to perform a 'meta-textual work' or a work

beyond the text alone (Traugott, 1995). This happens as *the DMs allow the speaker to display their evaluations not of the content of what is said, but the way it is put together* (ibid). Therefore, other than agreeing with past documentations in the literature on the interpersonal function of DMs as being one of the characteristics that distinguishes spoken discourse from the written text, we go beyond this to state that the interpersonal function of DMs is *really* what is at the heart of spoken discourse. The data we collected reveals that our respondents, through their choice and use of DMs, were more inclined to the text/discourse itself other than to 'work beyond the text'. We note here again the expression we coined earlier describing their discourse as taking the form of 'written-like talk', implying that to a large extent, it fails to come out as a natural, relaxed spontaneous one-on-one speech. From an interpersonal perspective, DMs are seen as vehicles which contribute to establishing and maintaining relationships between speakers and hearers. The interpersonal function is said to be an intrinsic feature of DMs (Alami, 2015). We consider it the 'magic' that makes the ideal spoken discourse alive; when well employed, DMs bringing out the interpersonal or pragmatic function are the precipitating factors to what we have termed 'easy unmechanical talk' in spoken dicourse.

We observed that among the emergent DMs exhibiting interpersonal functions, top on the list were inerjections used as pause-fillers. These included *euh/ah* (uh/ah)*, mmm* (mmm) and *oui* (yes/yeah). The choice of these pause-fillers is rather rudimentary, in that they act more as hesitation markers, indicating an on-going thought process in terms of seeking an appropiriate expression to use, and therefore, difficulty in communication. The pragmatic value of these DMs, therefore, comes in, as the speaker attempts to employ them as turn maintaining strategies as well as face-saving devices in order to cover up for areas of inefficiency in oral communication. Other true

interpersonal markers other than fillers would otherwise have been used to fully satisfy the pragmatic /interpersonal functions of DMs, including those that subjectively express attitude and those that operate interactively to achieve closeness between speaker and listener. Such DMs would include those that express politeness, acting as hedges to soften the negative effects of upcoming discourse and those that ensure that the speaker and listener are in tandem with each other during talk-in-interaction.

4.5.3 Discourse Markers in Coherence and Cohesion

Coherence refers to the 'connections which can be made by the reader or listener based on knowledge outside or inside the discourse'. Coherence relations have been proposed as an explanation for construction of coherence in discourse. Cohesion on the other hand is the grammatical and lexical linking within a text or sentence which hold a text together and gives it meaning. Cohesion is, therefore, related to coherence, which is broader in scope. It is not clear how much speakers and hearers are aware of their presence, but it is uncontroversial that hearers and readers process text incrementally, adding new information to a representation of the ongoing discourse (Van Dijk & Kintsch, 1983). This sub-section discusses DM form, frequency and function vis-à vis coherence and cohesion. Our study revealed that DM may or may not lead to discourse coherence among learners of French as a foreign language. From the analyses previously discussed in this chapter, we discovered that when properly used, in terms of selection of form selection and non redundant overuse of the DMs, coherence and cohesion are achieved in discourse. Discourse Markers have been established as the most frequently studied markers signalling coherene relations (Taboada, 2006).

So far, we have discussed various DM groups including conjunctive, adverbial, interjectional and phrasal DMs. We highlighted in the discussion the various attributes that are brought out by the DMs in terms of functions. In this section, we consider how

coherence might or might not be brought out by the various DMs. According to this study, the conjunctive DM *et* (and) was the most elicited, overall. The values it carried included the additive, consequential, adversative, connective and cognitive values. Through theses values, coherence in discourse is seen to be portrayed to greater or lesser extents. This was followed by the conjunctive DM *mais* (but), which we have shown to have revealed values such as contrast, denial of expectation, correction marker and discourse organising value. Louwerse and Mitchell (2003) consider connectives as cohesive devices that cue coherence relations, marking transition points within a sentence, between sentences, or between turns, both at the local and the global levels of conversation and discourse. Their consideration of discourse markers as cohesive devices is in line with Halliday and Hasan's (1976) account of cohesion, by which conjunctions signal cohesiveness by means of additive, adversative, causal and temporal relations. As earlier indicated, the present study revealed not only the above, but more conjunctive mechanisms to account for coherence and cohesion in the discourse of university learners of French as a second language.

A number of researches have combined the study of discourse markers with that of coherence relations (Knott, 1996; Knott and Dale, 1994; Pit, 2003; Sanders *et al*., 1992, 1993). Similarly, different motivations have led to the study of lexical markers of rhetorical relations. Working in Dutch, Sanders and colleagues (1992), for instance, were interested in the adequacy of a taxonomy, and in the psychological plausibility of coherence relations as proof for coherence. To this extent, our study complies. The conjunctive coherence relations thus created, which would account for discourse coherence, as per Halliay's (1994) model on coherenc relations and their meanings, include the following:

- Elaboration –Its sub-types include:

  o Appositives: This creates coherence by restating or re-presenting an element. Examples are the conjuctive phrasal *c'est -a -dire* (in other words/that is to say), *par exemple* (for exemple) and *alors* (so).

  o Clarification: This makes an utterance more precise or reinstates it. They include items such as by the way, in any case, anyway, to sum up. This sub -type was barely represented in the speech of our respondents, and the lack of it, we attributed, as one of the factors that contributed to rigid 'written-like' talk.

- Extension – Its sub-types include:

  o Additive: Signals inclusion. They include *et* (and), *aussi* (also) and mais (but).

  o Variation: Showing degree of relatedness. For example, contrarily, apart from, alternatively. Among these, the adverb DM, *par contraire* (contrarily) seemed to be at the disposal of some of the learners to a lesser degree though.

- Enhancement: its sub-types are:

  o Temporal: Related to time and duration. This registered a relatively high frequency of usage among the study population. We noted here DMs of various classes including *pour commencer* (to begin with), (*pius*) next, *et puis* and then, *après ça* (after that) and *finalement* (finally) frequently used. These included mostly adverbs which helped the respondents in structuring their discourse.

- o Comparative: Relating concepts of equal or different value: examples: likewise, similarly, in a different way. This category was barely registered by our respondents.

- o Causal: Related to or being a cause of something. Examples include par *conséquent* (consequently) and à *cause de ça* (because of that), which appeared in the discourse of a small section of the respondents. We had hoped that the respondents would use a greater percentage of these and their variations due to the nature of the story, and failure to do so reflected on the possibility of limited vocabulary on the part of the learners.

- o Conditional: indicating one proposition depending on another. In this class, *mais* (but) was frequently used in place of true conditionals like *cependant* (however), even so and nevertheless.

- o Concession: Conceding. Examples are *or* (yet), *quand-même* and *cependant* (however). The latter appeared from time to time.

For this discussion, we have provided a sample analysis from Data Excerpt C9 contained in Appendix V. In this analysis, we agree with past studies on the psychological plausibility of coherence relations as proof for coherence (Sanders *et al.*, 1992). Therefore, to the extent that the learners were able or not able to use various DMs appropriately, in terms of from and function, to the satisfaction of delivering the speaker's intended meaning and to satisfactorily be understood by the listener with minimum processing effort, is what the Relevance Theory (RT) supposes as leading to discourse coherence. According to this theory, the ostensive-stimulus response is the role played by DMs in overtly accounting for coherence in discourse. The DMs, in this

case, act as narrowing devices, enabling the listener to use the least processing effort in interpreting the speaker's intended message (Blakemore, 2002). From our data excerpts, we noted that this was not always the case.

Due a multiplicity of factors -including lack of sufficient vocabulary on the part of the learners, DMs used as empty fillers just to ensure turn-maintenance, DM code-swithing, redudant repetitions and stutters on DMs - coherence was often compromised. In such cases, oral proficiency was also at stake. Of all the oral narrations collected, less than a fifth portrayed proper DM use; this group also tended to be better French speakers than their counterparts. Our study confirms that DMs do indeed play a vital role in oral communication in terms of discourse cohesion, coherence and proficiency. The study also draws, mostly, from the descriptive rather than the explanatory arm of the Rhetorical Structure Theory as a way of accounting for coherence in discourse. We used the theory in indexing and modelling comprehension of discourse as a way of explaining coherence or lack of it thereof (Thomson & Mann, 1992). We took the descriptive approach to RST which accounts for coherence by identifying emergent coherence relations in discourse as earlier discussed. This is in line with other works on DMs (Knott, 1996; Knott and Dale, 1994; Pit, 2003; Sanders *et al.*, 1992, 1993; Halliday,1994). Juxtaposing of both the RT and RST in DM analysis has not been noted in past studies, but this research confirms that this can be done by having the broader coherence groups (semantic, rhetorical and sequential relations), represented by Relevance Theory and the sub-types proposed by Redeker (1991) -justification, elaboration, result, digression, concession - represented by RT, thus moving from the broad to the narrow in an attempt to locate coherence in discourse. Based on this, the present research discovered that the broader coherence relation that stood out most among the respondents was the sequential relation and its narrower sub-sets indicating

attribution of coherence through segment continuation, which as indicated earlier, was not always successful. Appendix V refers.

The other two broader categories used for coherence attribution are firstly, the semantic relations and its sub-sets, which generally seek for addition of information on propositions already stated. This was only minimally realised among the study population. This was probably as a result of wanting to take the least duration of time in narrating the story, based on the economy principle. It was however noticed that among the better speakers, the semantic relations came out more. The rhetorical relations and its sub-sets are very pragmatic oriented, and have the ability to render interpersonal verbal oral discourse more flexible in structure and feel. The rhetorical relations have the capacity not only to render the discourse coherent, but also to make it real, natural and engaging. The low outcome on the realisation of the rhetrorical relation further augers with our analysis earlier in this chapter on DM functions, with the textual functions recording higher occurrence than the pragmatic ones.

To conclude this section, we affirm that although appropriate use of DMs can impact positively on both textual and pragmatic coherence, their lack of use, underuse, overuse or wrong use can have negatives effects on coherence as a whole.

4.6 Discourse Markers and Oral Proficiency

In this portion, we analyze and discuss DMs in view of oral proficiency as revealed from the data collected. Oral proficiency has been described as being composed of various components, including fluency, accuracy and vocabulary (Lennon 1990, 2000; Soohwak, 2016). Although evaluating proficiency in speaking is considered an important aspect in evaluating overall language proficiency, the testing of speaking is limited due to difficulties in collecting and anlysing speech samples. The current research collected speech samples and attempted to analyse oral proficiency vis-a-vis

discourse marker use. We further broadened the perspective of DMs in analysing oral proficiency by borrowing from Schiffrin's assertion that DMs may include non verbal language as well. The focus of this part of the analysis was, therefore, on both explicit and implicit DMs. For the latter, we considered pausing patterns both as a component of fluency and as an implicit DM.

4.6.1 Extent of Discourse Marker Use and Oral Proficiency

From the data gathered, and in agreement with past research, we affirm that DMs are indeed a common feature of spoken French. However, we note that the extent of use, the complexity and richness forms employed would distinguish a native French speaker from a non native speaker. Although virtually every respondent used a certain amount of DMs in their speech production, our study revealed that most DMs employed were basically acting on the textual level of discourse, much as occurs more in writing rather than speaking. It is from this that we formed the expression 'written-like talk' in reference to our study population. This explains the higher fequencies obtained for DMs conjunctive proper, scoring close to 45% of total DM use by respondents. Even among the Adverbial DM group whose use followed at close to 30% of the total, conjunctive adverbials topped the list.

An assessment on frequency of DM use by native French speakers reveals that top of the list are adverb(ial) DMs. These include adverb DMs such as *alors* (so), *aussi* (also), *ben* (well), *bon* (well), *enfin* (finally) and *là* (there) up on the list. The Corpus of Reference for Spoken French, *Corpus de Référence de Français Parlé* (Chanet, 2004), also shows that phrasals of adverbial and prepositional nature also experience high frequency use among native French speakers, with phrasal DMs such as *ah bon* (is that so)*, d'ailleurs* (anyway)*, de toute facon* (anyway)*, du coup* (therefore), *en fait* (in fact),

par contre (on the other hand) *, par exemple* (for example) and *parce que* (because) enjoying high frequency of use.

Among our study group, less than a quarter of the top occurring DMs in native-speaker talk occurr in a simmilar manner. The adverb and phrasal DMs occuring more liberally as per records on native talk, point to a situation that complements our findings through opposition: that lacked among our non native French speaking respondents is actually what makes the native speaker's speech 'talk-like talk' as opposed to a 'written-like talk'. This is because adverbs as well as phrasals have a way of structuring discourse through the power of illocutionary force exerted on by specific the DMs. Table 4q of this study reveals that this group of DMs plays more on the pragmatic/interpersonal plane of speech, which is great essence in oral communication. The score on this plane was at 32%. The textual functions of DMs, on the other hand, are of primary importance in the written discourse, where they should register high scores. The present study on spoken discourse shows that of the DMs elicited from recorded spoken data, DMs demonstrating textual functions on discourse registered a score of 68%. Form this, we deduced that pragmatic knowledge of non native language learners and that of native speakers can be quite different.

Our '*written-like talk' vs 'talk-like talk'* expression draws from the fact that for the non-native learner of French, there seems to be a need for preparation in order for an oral production to be realised. This is a factor that, from our obseravtion can impact negatively on fluency, and hence on oral proficiency. Unprepared or spontaenous speech among non-native learners of French means that more attention is paid to content of speech rather than form. In other words, the speaker is more concerned with the elements that make up the whole rather the whole speech production experience. The results of this observation also agree with Kampen's (1977) findings indicating that

when focus is on conceptualisation rather than on formulation, then dysfluencies rather than fluency can arise.

4.6.2 Fluency, Dysfluency and Discourse Markers

Fluency is one of the components of oral proficiency. It is defined as the speed and smoothness of an oral delivery (Lennon, 1990, 2000; Roberts, 2016). Dysfluencies, on the other hand, are interruptions in the regular flow of speech, such as using *uh* and *um,* pausing silently, repeating words, or interrupting oneself to correct something previously said. Dysfluency can be distinguished from speech errors in which the speaker produces wrong words or speech sounds but may do so without any interruptions in the flow of speech. Dysfluencies commonly stem from delays or errors in the cognitive processes of language production (Lee and Fraundorf, 2017). Discourse markers although being linguistic items that do not affect the truth conditions of an utterenace, are known to convey textual meaning, and current research affirms that they carry pragmatic meaning too, especially in oral speech communication. Trihartanti (2016; 2020), affirms that it is impossible for us not to use discourse markers in our utterance because without being realized we need them to make our utterance more meaningful. It is, as such, argued that the importance and the function of DMs haven't been known widely by students. Results obtained from the present research revealed that although DMs were used by virtually all study repondents, their use was not always necessarily a sign of fluency in spoken language. To the extent that the DMs were able to fulfill textual functions of discourse, we argue that they indeed fulfilled textual functions of discourse, when well employed. This was established especially through their conjunctive role as previously discussed. Textual DM functions that emerged from our data include the connective, consequential, adversative, contrastive and discourse organising functions.

However, we realised that rather than leading to fluency, certain DMs actually resulted in speech dysfluency, depending on their pattern and extent of use within a given speech production. A case in point are the interjectional discoure marker. The respondents under study exhibited an array of DM use. This included forms that are not authentically French, both in morphological form and phonological structure. Examples in point are *ah, eh* and *mm*, all of which seemed more acceptable and comfortably used in languages already spoken by the respondents, such as English and the local Kenyan languages of the respondents. Another phenomenon that was observed is the literal lifting and usage of common DM lexemes from English to French. Such was the the case observed with the DM *yeah* and its variant *yes.* Dysfluency in all theses cases occurs due to use of non authentic DMs in as far as French language is concerned hence leading to some compromise in overall oral proficiency.

We also observed, as earlier discussed, that of all DMs used as interjections seemed to have been used sometimes as filling words or fillers, to keep the speech going. Sometimes they appeared as stutters, and at other times they were overly repeated within short segments of discourse. We were tempted to suppose that in instances such as these, the DMs were devoid of meaning; however, where the textual meaning lacked, the pragmatic function took over, but at the expense of fluency in speech production. The results obtained from this study, therefore, contribute to a clearer understanding on why learneres of French as a foreign langauge may exhibit speech dysfluencies not only at the syntactic and morphological levels, but at the phonological level as well. These range from cases of transfer of lexical items from one langauge to another, to use of strategic techniques such as repetitions, pauses and interjectional DM particles. Based on this, we note that our repsondents portrayal of these features, in some cases, led to speech dysfluency. Ironically though, as we noted earlier in the discussion, it is these

very features that would earn the repondents scores at the strategic competence sub-level of communicative competence, since what appears as dysfluencies could also be strategic devices, spontaneously arising out of the need to ensure a flow in speech.

4.6.3 Pausing Patterns and Oral Proficiency

In this sub section, we discuss pause and pausing patterns in relation to oral proficiency. This is motivated by an assertion on the possibility of DMs being either verbal or non verbal cues that carry pragmatic meaning (Schiffrin, 1987). We argue for the place of the pause in speech as a potential DM. This ia a pheneomenon that we observed among our respondents to a greater or lesser extent, from one repondent to another. It was particularly interesting to notice the manner in which the pausing patterns intertwined with lexical DMs, in most cases those of the interjection category. In many instances, DMs were sandwiched between pause units, thus forming a recurrent pattern of 'pause-DM-pause'. This we earlier discussed in this chapter. From that observation, we deduced that pausing and pausing patterns were an important strategy in assisting the non native learner of French to to fulfill cognitive roles in ensuring sustanance of the oral production. However, although success might have been obtained in sustaining the discourse through this pattern, the overall outcome of the oral production was often marred by the very pausing strategy, hence resulting in a perceived lack of proficiency.

Although pausing is a normal occurrence in natural oral communication, when the pause is longer than necessary, it is worth questioning. We recorded a relatively high total of 1,074 such pauses from a total of 45 out of 80 repondents who took part in the excerice. They each spent an average of 4 minutes to orally narrate the events in 'The Pear Story', a no-sound video lasting about 5 minutes. Pauses are generally regarded as hesitation markers in oral communication. They are also considered an evidence of non fluency. Past research asserts that speech samples from higher proficiency level

speakers contain fewer pauses since higher proficiency speakers do not hesitste as much as lower proficiency speakers in oral communication (Petrie, 1987; Riggenbach, 1991; Park, 2016). Fluency is defined as the speeed and smoothness of an oral delivery (Lennon ,1990, 2000), cited in Roosdianna and Anam, (2018) , Park, (2016). We, however, note that speaking without unnecessary pauses would be fast and fluent but without coherence. In such a case, oral proficiency would still not be achieved. Such was the case with some of the respondents interviewed. Data excerpt C9 that follows refers. This data item contains one of the least pause counts (represented by two or more dots) among the data gathered, and yet it does not seem to hold together.

Transcription Data C9

*Euh...j'ai vu un agriculture [agronome] qui ceuillait les fruits de poires et un homme passait avec une chèvre **et puis** un garçon arrivait avec... ahh...une vole. Et il s'arretait et il est en autobus depuis, il est tombé et trois garçons l'aidait a ceuiller les fruits et... il est recompensé comme il est lui donné son chapeau. Le panier monté et trouvé ses fruits disparus, **et puis** il voit trois garcons manger des fruits similaires... Après le fermière monter et il est ...il était choqué **parce qu[e]** il voit des garcons manger des fruits*

Translation Data C9

Uh ... I saw an agriculture [farmer] picking pear fruits and a man was passing by with a goat and then a boy was coming with ... ahh ... a theft. And he stopped and he's been on a bus [bike] ever since, he fell and three boys were helping him pick the fruit ... and ... he is rewarded as he is given his hat and… hat. The basket went up and found his missing fruit, and then he saw three boys eating similar fruits… After the farmer went up and he was ...he was shocked because he saw boys eating fruits.

This speech production can be said to not to be proficent because the different segments fail to hold together in a coherent manner. The speaker seems to lack the appropriate words to use in order to express their thoughts in a clear manner, therefore interjections sandwiched between pauses. For this reason, we argue that pause and pausing patterns are only a component of what would constitute oral proficiency. Others include accuracy and vocabulary as brought out by the Park (2016) model of oral proficiency. From results obtained in the present study, we have modified the model by including the coherence arm and its sub-sets as follows:
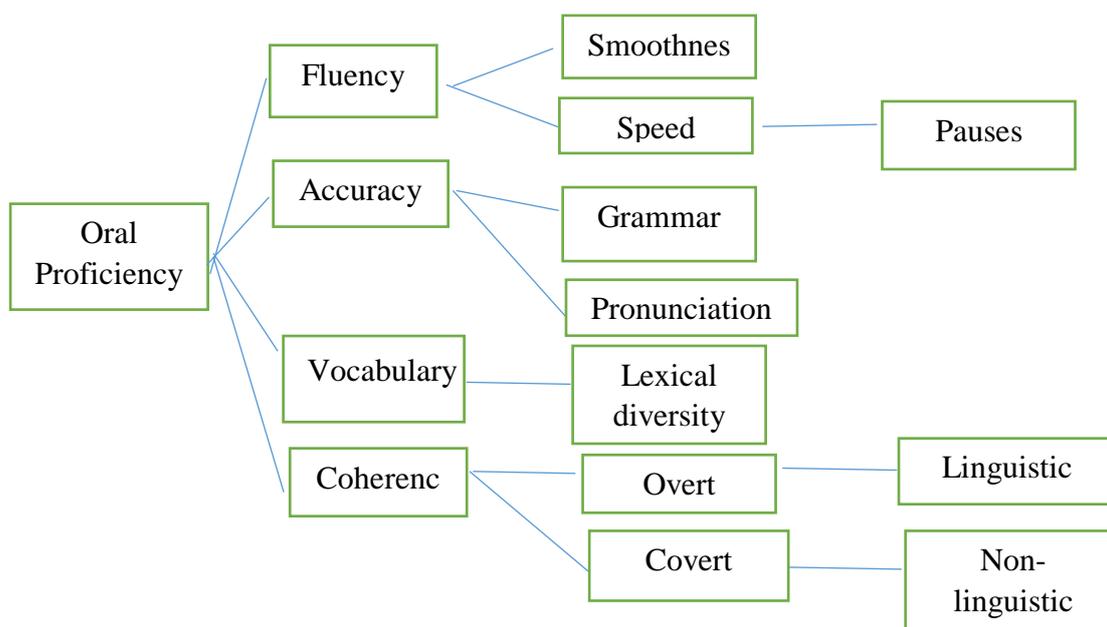
Figure 4-4 Components of Oral Proficiency

The formulated figure 4-4 shows that oral proficiency is composed of various constituents, and although, this research was limited to DMs in one way or another, further study on the individual units can be undertaken through diverse approaches as need be. Interestingly though, we discovered that the level of oral proficiency is somewhat subconsciously detected by the listener at both the local and global domains of discourse. Therefore, although the present study was delimited to some particular constituent of oral proficiency, listeners are still able to guage the general proficiency of an oral production. Such is the case with data excerpt C cited. We realised that the pauses and pausing patterns used by our respondents in general were a pointer to cognitive processing in an attempt to find the right syntactic formulation or the right expression to employ. The 'pause-DM (interjection)-pause' pattern was observed to frequently and recurrently occur.

To conclude this section, we attest that although DM use is considered a hallmark of the French spoken expression (Pellet, 2005), this might not always be true for the learner of French, who has to grapple with issues pertaining to the appropriate use of

the markers, failure to which dysfluency would result and thus lack of expected oral proficiency. The uveruse of certain DMs as empty fillers is thus a face saving strategy for the learner as they try to seek mechanisms of sustaining oral production of the language, as learners. Pausing and pausing patterns are hence possible non linguistic DMs to this extent.

4.7 Teaching Methodology, Learning Style and Oral Communication Skills Acquisition

In this section, we explore how both teaching methodology and student learning style impact on the French learner's ability to acquire oral communication skills. This we did with the underlying principle that quality of oral communication is a product of various forces in interaction. Although the role of DMs in oral production was core, we considered it *vis-à- vis* factors related to French teaching and learning.

4.7.1 Teaching Methodology and Oral Proficiency

We begin here with a discussion on the methods used to teach French in Kenyan public universities, in order to determine the extent to which these methodologies address the need for oral communicative competence among the learners. We formulated a questionnaire for the lecturers of French, inquiring on the teaching strategies employed, their knowledge on discourse markers as well as their perception on the efficacy of the courses geared towards oral communication in French. The questionnaire items were bent more towards methodologies employed in teaching oral French communication. Although they included mostly approaches that we postulated to be more involving on the part of the students, through the teacher's intervention, a few proposed measures involved the teacher alone as the knowledge imparter.

The questionnaire was drawn on the assumption that for students to master oral French communication skills, a deliberate move must be made by the teacher to employ strategies that are thus inclined. A total of seventeen teachers of French and eighty students from all six public universities offering French at degree level in Kenya participated in the exercise. To validate the teachers' responses, we administerd the exact questions to the students in a section of the students' questionnaire. We have provided a copy each of the questionnaires in the appendices section of this thesis.

4.7.1.1 Oral French Communication Teaching Strategies: Perspective of Teachers

The following analysis and discussion is based on the report by teachers on how they teach oral French communication. The questionnare entailed various teaching strategies skewed towards oral communicative competence in French, and when used **very often** in combination, would possibly lead to favorable results on oral proficiency ratings. We further postulated that the extent of use of each of the strategies in combination with all the others itemised, would in turn depict the effectiveness of the said teaching strategies. Therefore, for both teacher and students, a higher value on **very often** or **rather often** would reflect a perfect or near perfect score respectively. Likewise, high scores on the **never** and **rarely** categories were far from the desired perfect score, thus reflecting negatively on the teaching strategies which in combination, are essential in achieving oral proficiency. Tables 5a and 5b respectively show reports of teachers and students regarding various teaching strategies for oral French and their extent of use.

Table 5a: Teachers' perspective on teaching strategies

Frequency of use of teaching strategies

	Never	Rarely	Rather often	Very often	Total
	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)
Teaching Strategies					
Formal lecture	2 (11.8)	3 (17.6)	4 (23.5)	8 (47.1)	17 (100)
Responsive lecture	-	-	5 (29.4)	12 (70.6)	17 (100)
Demos	-	4 (23.5)	4 (23.5)	9 (52.9)	17 (100)
Readings with Discussions	-	2 (11.8)	8 (47.1)	7 (41.2)	17 (100)
Overhead projectors	6 (35.3)	8 (47.1)	2 (11.8)	1 (5.9)	17 (100)
Blackboard	-	2 (12.5)	3 (8.8)	11 (68.8)	16 (94)
Films	6 (35.3)	9 (52.9)	1 (5.9)	1 (5.9)	17 (100)
Audiotapes	1 (6.7)	10 (66.7)	4 (26.7)	-	15 (88)
Practical real life Simulations	-	3 (18.8)	4 (25.0)	9 (56.3)	16 (94)
Discussions between Students	-	1 (6.3)	2 (12.5)	13 (81.3)	16 (94)
Collaborative discussions with teacher	1 (5.9)	-	4 (23.5)	12 (70.6)	17 (100)
Class discussions	-	-	5 (29.4)	12 (70.6)	17 (100)
Seminar presentations	-	-	11 (64.7)	6 (35.3)	17 (100)
Brainstorming sessions	1 (6.7)	-	10 (66.7)	4 (26.7)	15 (88)
Student poems, narrations	-	3 (17.6)	7 (41.2)	7 (41.2)	17 (100)
Francophone guest Speakers	4 (25.0)	12 (75)	-	-	16 (94)
Story telling	-	7 (43.8)	9 (56.3)	-	16 (94)
Francophone field trips	8 (47.1)	7 (41.2)	2 (11.8)	-	17 (100)
Comments on each others work	1 (5.9)	3 (17.6)	12 (70.6)	1 (5.9)	17 (100)
Real life assimilation of concepts	-	6 (35.3)	7 (41.2)	4 (23.5)	17 (100)
Student projects	-	3 (17.6)	7 (41.2)	7 (41.2)	17 (100)
Experiments	9 (52.9)	6 (35.3)	1 (5.9)	1 (5.9)	17 (100)
Explain real life Problems and solutions	-	1 (5.9)	11 (64.7)	5 (29.4)	17 (100)
Games and simulations	1 (5.9)	7 (41.2)	5 (29.4)	4 (23.5)	17 (100)
Role plays	-	6 (35.3)	6 (35.3)	5 (29.4)	17 (100)
Other strategies	-	-	8 (61.5)	5 (38.5)	13 (77)

4.7.1. 2 Oral French Communication Teaching Strategies: Perspective of Students

To validate the teachers' responses, we included in the students' questionnaire, a section demanding their perception on the same teaching strategies that the teachers rsponded on. Through this mechanism, we were able to take care of the element of subjectivity. Table 5b shows the report given by students regarding their perception on the extent to which their teachers employed various strategies in teaching them oral communication in French.

Table 5b Students' perspective on teaching strategies

	Frequency of use of teaching strategies				
	Never No. (%)	**Rarely** No. (%)	**Rather often** No. (%)	**Very Often** No. (%)	**Total** No. (%)
Teaching Strategies					
Formal lecture	2 (2.5)	3 (3.8)	12 (15.2)	62 (78.5)	79 (99)
Responsive lecture	1 (1.3)	12 (15.2)	27 (34.2)	39 (49.4)	79 (99)
Demos	12 (15.0)	45 (56.3)	13 (16.3)	10 (12.5)	80 (100)
Readings with Discussions	1(1.3)	25 (31.3)	25 (31.3)	29 (36.3)	80 (100)
Overhead projectors	20 (25.0)	37 (46.3)	17 (21.3)	6 (7.5)	80 (100)
Blackboard	2 (2.5)	3 (3.8)	10 (12.7)	64 (81.0)	79 (99)
Films	23 (28.7)	39 (48.8)	12 (15.0)	6 (7.5)	80 (100)
Audiotapes	20 (25)	29 (36.3)	16 (20.0)	15 (15.8)	80 (100)
Practical real life Simulations	11 (13.8)	21 (26.3)	27 (33.8)	21 (26.3)	80 (100)
Discussions between Students	2 (2.5)	11 (13.8)	25 (31.3)	42 (42.5)	80 (100)
Collaborative discussions with teacher	6 (7.7)	20 (25.6)	25 (32.1)	27 (34.6)	78 (98)
Class discussions	2 (2.5)	13 (6.3)	20 (25)	45 (56.3)	80 (100)
Seminar presentations	9 (11.5)	21 (26.9)	26 (33.3)	22 (28.2)	78 (98)
Brainstorming sessions	12 (15.0)	20 (25.0)	35 (43.8)	13 (16.3)	80 (100)
Student poems, narrations	15 (19.2)	31 (39.7)	22 (28.2)	10 (12.8)	78 (98)
Francophone guest Speakers	28 (35.0)	37 (46.3)	10 (12.5)	5 (6.3)	80 (100)
Story telling	23 (28.7)	36 (45.0)	14 (17.5)	7 (8.8)	80 (100)
Francophone field trips	34 (43.0)	22 (27.8)	19 (24.1)	4 (5.1)	79 (99)
Comments on each others work	20 (25.3)	27 (34.2)	18 (22.8)	14 (17.7)	79 (99)
Real life assimilation of concepts	21 (26.9)	33 (42.3)	17 (21.8)	7 (9.0)	78 (98)
Student projects	20 (25.3)	23 (29.1)	27 (34.2)	9 (11.4)	79 (99)
Experiments	34 (44.2)	25 (32.5)	11 (14.3)	7 (9.1)	77 (96)
Explain real life problems and solutions	9 (11.5)	27 (34.6)	27 (34.6)	15 (19.2)	78 (98)
Games and simulations	34 (42.5)	29 (36.3)	8 (10.0)	9 (11.3)	80 (100)
Role plays	16 (20.0)	24 (30.0)	31 (39.7)	15 (19.2)	78 (100)
Other strategies	8 (10.3)	24 (30.8)	31 (39.7)	15 (19.2)	78 (98)

We scored the responses on teaching strategies for every study participant. The means and standard deviations from the scores are shown in table 5c. The intevals between the scores were computed accordingly and rated as follows: 0-26 *Never*; 27-52 *Rarely*; 53-78 *Rather often*; 79-104 Very often. Results obtained for teachers and students respectively in regard to their perceptions on teaching methodologies indicate a mean score for each group falling within the *Rather often* range of 53-78, indicating that the said teaching methodologies are rather often used by the teachers in teaching oral communication. The means obtaines were 66.1 and 73.4 for students and teachers respectively, thus a near perfect score in each case. Data obtained from the analysis of spoken data earlier discussed in this chapter, however, points to a problem with the oral expression among the learners to a greater or lesser extent. What comes out clear from the present analysis is that the approach of the teachers is acceptable from their own perspective and from the perspective of the students. Where then could the crux of the matter be? We will attempt to relook the issue as the discussion ensues. Table 5c gives a summary of the means and standard deviations obtained for each of the two groups.

Table 5c: Summary of teaching strategies: teachers' vs students' perspectives

Group	Mean	Standard deviation
Students	66.1	13.2
Teachers	73.4	8.7

An independent t-test was conducted to determine a significant difference between the means of the two groups: students' perspective vis-à-vis teachers' perspective. From the t-test conducted, a significant ($t = 2.174$, $df = 95$, $p = 0.032$) difference was found. With this result, the null hypothesis stating that there is no significant difference between the perspective of teachers and that of students was rejected. This is to say that although both groups registered a near perfect score, the lower mean value (66.1) for the students implies that they were not as confident as the teachers were, with a higher

mean value (73.4) about the teaching strategies employed in teaching oral communication, hence the significance difference obtained from the t-test.

4.8 Learning Style and Oral Proficiency

This sub-section discusses the results obtained on the preferential styles of learning for each of the student respondents. We administered questionnaires as a data collection instrument to the students. A total of eighty students participated, with a response rate of a hundred percent. 31% of the respondents were male and 69% were female. Of these, 86% were less tha 25 years of age, 11% were between 25 and 30 years old, and 1% registrered 40 years and above. The large majority, therefore, consisted of the average youth, ready to enter the workforce, soon after completing university education. All had studied French for a minimum of 8 years. The questionnaire contained a total of 24 questions targeting the three main different learning styles namely visual, auditory and kinesthetic or tactile styles. Each of the learning styles was apportioned a third of the questions and students responded accordingly. The following is a discussion of the results obtained for each of the learning styles in question.

4.8.1 Visual Learning Style

For visual learners, the sense of sight plays a big role in effective learning. They look around and examine the situation. They may stare when angry and beam when happy. Facial expression is a good indicator of emotion in the visual learner. They think in pictures and detail and have vivid imaginations. When extensive listening is required, they may be quiet and become impatient. Neat in appearance, they may dress in the same manner all the time. They have greater immediate recall of words that are presented visually. Visual learners like to take notes. Relatively unaware of sounds, they can be distracted by visual disorder or movement. They solve problems deliberately, planning in advance and organizing their thoughts by writing them down.

They like to see descriptions and narratives rather than listen to them. From our data analysis, we found out that the learners *frequently* preferred the visual style for learning oral French communication skills. The score was at 83.6%. Table 5d refers.

Table 5d: Overall results on visual learning style

Variable	Rarely N°. (%)	Sometimes N°. (%)	Frequently N°. (%)	Total N°. (%)
Writes for visual aid	3 (3.8)	30 (38.0)	46 (58.2)	79 (99)
Take notes for visual review	5 (6.3)	17 (21.3)	56 (70)	78 (98)
Likes graphs and charts	42 (52.5)	23 (28.7)	25 (18.8)	80 (100)
Understands maps	7 (8.8)	21 (26.3)	50 (52.5)	78 (98)
Likes to read than listen	17 (21.3)	26 (32.5)	36 (45)	79 (99)
Remembers by mental pictures	2 (2.5)	12 (15)	64 (80)	78 (98)
Likes jigsaw puzzles and mazes	28 (35.0)	26 (32.5)	26 (32.5)	80 (100)
Prefers information by reading	4 (5)	15 (18.8)	61 (76.3)	80 (100)
	Score 1-8	score 9-16	Score 17-24	
Visual Overall	0 (0)	11 (13.8)	69 (86.3)	80 (100)

Results obatined from Spearman's test on correlation between teaching strategies and the visual style indicate that there was significant ($r_{s=}$ 0.223, p = 0.047; r_s = 0.249, p = 0.027; r_s = 0.235, p = 0.036) relationship between group activity tasks, students' projects, other strategies employed by the teacher to enhance oral communication respectively vis-a vis visual learning style. On learners' knowledgeability and use of DMs and visual style, we found a significant (r_s = 0.229, p = 0.043) correlational relationship between the overall visual style and students seeing and hearing teachers use DMs in spoken French.

4.8.2 Auditory Learning Style

Auditory learners have been found to learn best by using their ears as the main perception organ. They talk about what to do, about the pros and cons of a situation. They indicate emotion through the tone, pitch, and volume of their voices. They enjoy listening and talking in equal measure. They tend toward long and repetitive descriptions. They like hearing themselves and others talk. They tend to remember names but forget faces and are easily distracted by sounds. They enjoy reading dialogue, plays and anything readable. Auditory learners benefit from oral instruction, either from the teacher or from themselves. They prefer to hear or recite information and benefit from auditory repetition. Results from the present study indicate that the learners were frequently inclined to the auditory learning style 64% of the time as shown in table 5e.

Table 5e: Overall results on auditory learning style

Variable	Rarely N^o (%)	Sometimes N^o (%)	Frequently N^o (%)	Total N^o (%)
Lecture method	0 (0)	28 (35)	52 (65)	80 (100)
Likes explanations	19 (24.1)	33 (41.8)	27 (34.2)	79 (99)
Perceives sound better	6 (7.8)	26 (33.8)	45 (58.4)	77 (96)
Likes listening	12 (15)	19 (23.8)	49 (61.3)	80 (100)
Learns by repeating aloud	19 (24.4)	18 (23.1)	41 (52.6)	78 (98)
Prefers to listen than read books	10 (12.5)	27 (33.8)	43 (53.8)	80 (100)
Listens to news rather than read newspapers	10 (12.5)	27 (33.8)	43 (53.8)	80 (100)
Follows oral directions rather than written	19 (23.8)	28 (35.0)	33 (41.3)	80 (100)
	Score 1-8	Score 9-16	Score 17-24	
Auditory Overall	0 (0)	16 (20)	64 (80)	80 (100)

For the auditory learning style, the Spearman's correlation test revealed that there was a significant (r_s = 0.251, p = 0.025) between teaching strategies involving demonstrations such as use of visual aids and auditory learning style respectively. The other teaching methodologies did not reveal a significant relationship for the auditory

style. The results, therefore, mean that the learners only appreciated the auditory teaching method where teachers did not use it unilaterally, but rather where it was employed with other approaches involving hands-on and visual strategies. On knowledgeability and use of DMs, respondents recorded a significant (r_s =0.288, p = 0.011) relationship between the auditory learning style and hearing them used by more orally proficient learners. Significant relationships were also registered between students' use of DMs in writing and DM use with collegues (r_s = 0.232, p = 0.040), hearing teachers use them in class and learner using them in writing (r_s = 0.266, p = 0.036), and hearing teachers use them in speech, and teachers using them in writing (r_s 0.436, p = 0.001). However, the aggregate overall auditory style in relation to DM knowledgeability and use did not yield a significant relationship.

4.8.3 Kinesthetic Learning Style

Kinesthetic learners like to try things out, touch, feel and manipulate objects. Body tension is a good indication of their emotions. They gesture when speaking, are poor listeners, stand very close when speaking or listening, and quickly lose interest in long discourse. They remember best by doing, not what they have seen or talked about. Kinesthetic learners prefer direct involvement in what they are learning. They are distractible, and find it difficult to pay attention to auditory or visual presentations. They are not keen readers, and may fidget frequently while handling a book. Often poor spellers, they need to write down words to determine if they "feel" right. From our study, out of the three major styles considered, the kinesthetic learning style recorded the highest percentage score at 90%, with students indicating that it was sometimes the most appealing to them in ensuring effective learning of French oral communication skills. Implications of the results will also be further discussed. Table 5f shows a summary of the results on the kinesthetic learning style.

Table 5f : Overall results on kinesthetic learning style

Variable	Rarely N° (%)	Sometimes N° (%)	Frequently N° (%)	Total N° (%)
Manual class activities	28 (35.4)	25 (31.6)	26 (32.9)	79 (99)
Enjoys working hands	14 (17.7)	31 (39.2)	34 (43.0)	79 (99)
Remembers by writing	4 (5.2)	12 (15.6)	60 (77.9)	77 (96)
Plays with coins and keys	62 (78.5)	12 (15.0)	5 (6.3)	79 (99)
Chews or eats during study	62 (78.5)	11 (13.9)	6 (7.6)	79 (99)
Learns spelling by writing	65 (83.3)	9 (11.5)	4 (5.1)	78 (98)
Fiddles objects during learning	49 (61.3)	23 (28.7)	8 (10.0)	80 (100)
Likes touching people/things	45 (57.0)	25 (31.6)	9 (11.4)	79 (99)
	Score 1-8	Score 9-16	Score 17-24	
Kinesthetic overall	1 (1.3)	72 (90.0)	7 (8.8)	80 (100)

On kinesthetic learning style, the students recorded the highest score of 90%, indicating that this was their preferred style at the 'sometimes' frequency bar level. Teaching approaches that spelt a significant relationship on the Spearman's correlation coeffiecnt test with the kinesthetic learning style were as follows: group activities ($r_s = 0.266$, p = 0.017), role excercises ($r_s = 0.276$, p = 0.013), student projects ($r_s = 0.237$, p= 0.035), field trips to Francophone set-up ($r_s = 0.241$, p = 0.033), story telling ($r_s = 0.226$, p = 0.044) and group activities ($r_s = 0.266$, p = 0.017).

We also carried out a correlation test between DM knowledgeability and use in relation to the kinesthetic learning style. A significant relationship was established between this style and the following specific factors relating to Discourse Markers in oral communication: learner hearing and using DMs in spoken French ($r_s = 0.229$, p = 0.043), learner hears DMs used by more proficient speakers ($r_s = 0.302$, p = 0.007). Overall results for the kinesthetic learning style results showed the highest number of overall significant relationship relating to knowledgeability and use of DM as follows. There was a significant ($r_s = 0.259$, p = 0.020) relationship where learners use DMs in spoken French, in cases where learners use DMs with colleagues (rs =0.328, p = 0.003), and in cases where the students use DMs with teachers ($r_s = 0.263$, p = 0.019)

Overall results on learning style in this study indicate that the learners are mostly visually oriented, registreing 86% on the *'frequently'* bar. This is followed by their inclination toward the auditory stlye, standing at 64% on the *'frequently'* bar as well. The kinesthetic style registered the highest score and this was recorded on the *'sometimes'* bar at 90%. The implication of this result is that the kinesthetic-visual top the rank followed by the kinesthetic- auditory.

Implications of these findings suggest that the students would best learn oral communication skills when teaching methods geared towards the kinesthetic learning style are incorporated as the basis of learning French oral communication. The said methods involve practical activities which enable the student to put into practice the theoretical aspects of the language. According to the results obtained, we affirm that at any one given time, the students would learn better, first and foremeost, when teaching methods leaning toward the kinesthetic and visual learning styles are combined together. This means they would want to see and do. We employed the Spearman's Rank Correlation Coefficient (r_s), to test for the strength of a link between the proposed learning styles and various teaching methodolgies, at a confidence level of 95%.

Teaching and learning theories have presently been purported to best apply where focus in on the students' success in meeting objectives of the course in question. Of the four main theories of teaching and learning, behaviorism and cognitivism theories are viewed as being teacher-oriented while constructivism and connectivism are generally student-centered (Romanelli, 2009). Results obatined from the current study suggest that teaching methods favoring the kinesthetic-visual combination would be most favorable for the learning of French oral communication skills among foreign language

skills. The methods preferred by the learners should therefore be more student-involving and participatory in nature.

Issues on Discourse Marker acquisition were also found to be more pronounced within the kinesthetic style domain, recording a significant relationship between the style and several aspects pertaining to knowledgeability and use of DM in relation to oral communication.

The results we obtained from this study, therefore, highlight on the superiority of the kinesthetic style in its ability to be incorporated with the other styles for effective teaching of foreign language oral communication skills. The use of and exposure to DMs was also found to correlate most with the kinesthetic learning style. A significant $(r_s = 0.259, p = 0.020)$ relationship was found between kinesthetic style overall results and knowledgeability and use of spoken French. This tends to agree with Neil Fleming's (1987) VARK model, which holds that the kinesthetic style is a hands-on experimental learning. The style is said to help learners excel in concrete learning such as on-the-job training, work experience, internships and simulations among others (Kte'pi, 2016). We observed that this is exactly what the learners need to ensure excellence in learning oral French communication, as they prepare to join the work force. To conclude this chapter, we attest that teaching methodologies for learning foreign language oral communication skills would be more effective and rewarding if proactive activities involving the students are incorporated, coupled, primarily with visually oriented methods to a greater extent and secondly, with auditory inclined approaches to a lesser extent.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

5.1 Summary

This study was carried out with the aim of investigating how French is taught and learnt, with a focus on DM use and its impacts on the French learner's oral communication skills. We viewed oral proficiency as supposedly being a product of the teaching and learning experience. We, therefore, also undertook to establish the impact of these on the overall oral communicative experience of the learner of French. Our study population was university-level learners of French from all six Kenyan public universities offering French as a full-fledged degree course, either as an education or arts-oriented course. The research was motivated by the oral communication skills problems experienced by students and graduates who have studied French, and some, for a relatively long period of time. The impact of this has a ripple effect, ranging from issues bordering on the ego for lack of adequate communicative competence in spite of training, to those that spill over to competency in the work place where practical exercise is demanded out of the theoretical experience gained through formation. When expectations fail to be met, then possible measures must be taken to seek a possible solution.

The study proposed to analyse oral communication skills vis-à-vis discourse markers, little lexical items, which have sometimes been argued as adding no linguistic value to linguistic propositions. Various studies have been conducted both to affirm and refute this assertion. We thus sought to ascertain these claims while at the same time considering the extent to which the Discourse Markers influenced oral communication of the learners of French as a foreign language.

It is for this reason that the study sought to examine the relationship between Discourse Markers and oral communication. This, we did, by attempting to find answers to the following key questions that guided our research:

a. How do DM form-frequency-function relate to oral proficiency among learners of French as a foreign language?

b. To what extent does teaching methodology address the need for the learner to develop oral communicative skills in French language?

c) To what extent does learning style affect the student's oral skills acquisition?

d) How does DM teaching and learning affect pedagogical practices in French Foreign Language pedagogies in oral communication?

To answer these questions, we performed a situation analysis, which is an action-based research. We undertook a census study of the target population, due to its relative manageability in terms of numbers and also to account for validity and reliability as much as possible. The study population consisted of final year learners of French in Kenyan public universities. The approach taken for the research was mixed, involving both qualitative and quantitative analysis. Research instruments were selected based on the problem stated and the specific objective at hand. Student respondents were exposed to a short five minute, no-sound video which they watched and then orally narrated the story. The aim of this was to collect emergent Discourse Markers in the speech of the respondents as well as their frequency of occurrence and ultimately the functions fulfilled by the DMs. The oral data was then transcribed and translated from French to English, to enable a wider readership notably within the Kenyan context. A questionnaire was then administered to both student and teacher respondents to evaluate teaching methodology and learning style in relation to their influence on oral French

pedagogies and learning. The questionnaire also tested both categories of respondents on knowledgeability and use of DMs.

5.2 Conclusions

The following are conclusions arrived at, based on the objectives and research questions, whose answers the study sought to find. The conclusions of this research therefore relate, first, to DM use in terms of from, frequency and function vis-à-vis oral proficiency of university learners of French as a foreign language in Kenya. Secondly, the work draws conclusions regarding the extent to which teaching methodology addresses the need for the learner to develop oral communicative skills in French language. Next, we report on conclusions entailing the measure to which preferred learning style affects the student's oral skills acquisition?

5.2.1 How do DM form-frequency-function relate to oral proficiency among learners of French as a foreign language?

Analysis of data revealed that although some form of DM was virtually used by almost all the student respondents, their repertoire of available DMs was limited, and the same DMs tended to be reused by respondents across the board. Moreover, the forms employed by the learners showed a marked contrast with those used regularly by native French speakers, as documented in the Reference Corpus for Spoken French, 'Corpus *de Reference de Français Parlé,* which was among the literature we reviewed. It is important to however note that the current study was not comparative in nature, but rather considered that the learner of French should aspire to attain a near native or native-like oral proficiency. Concerning the DMs employed, the learners used DMs in speech that largely exhibited the textual function much as is more common in writing. Native French speaker oral communication however usually portrays DM use that reflects more on the pragmatic, interpersonal domain. From this phenomenon, our study

discovered that the learner of French as a foreign language exhibits what we referred to as a *'written-like'* kind of talk, as opposed to a *'talk-like'* talk. We found this to be a major finding in light of oral communication and DM use. There was also preference for DM forms with shorter syllabic structures among the learners. These included mostly conjunctions of different kinds as well as an array of interjections, that tended to be either monosyllabic or bi-syllabic in nature. From their use of the shorter DM forms, this study realized that the learners of French as a foreign language tried to effectively employ the principle of linguistic economy, which aims at saving as much time and energy as possible, in an attempt to convey more information with minimum effort. We argued that reasons for this kind of manifestation among the learners could be varied; one would be due to lack of adequate vocabulary, thus use of certain DMs, especially of the interjection form, to strategically act as fillers where the speaker out rightly lacks a desired expression. According to the study findings, another reason for high interjectional DM use, was as a mechanism to depict ongoing cognitive processes, as the learner attempted to find, sometimes unsuccessfully, the right expression to use in spontaneous oral communication.

Concerning DM functions, the study revealed that the markers are capable of playing a role in coherence through coherence relations due to their attribute as cohesive devises, and therefore, their ability to hold propositions together within discourse segments. An analysis of this was done by employing both Relevance Theory (RT) and Rhetorical Structure Theory (RST). The Relevance Theory (RT) was important in helping us to establish the function of DMs as connectives, and therefore, as cohesive devices which act as cues for discourse interpretation as the hearer attempts to understand the speaker's intended meaning. The Rhetorical Structure Theory (RST)was useful in identifying how coherence relations, through DM use, influenced the speech of learners

of French. Therefore, where RT confirmed coherence through cohesion, RST explained coherence through structural organization of discourse. Our RST analysis was more inferential, based on the text structure of the discourse produced by the learner. This is exhibited on the table format we used for data transcription and translation. We also did samples of traditional RST, and the discourse structures portayed, either way, wer important in helping us to confirm proficiency through overt coherence relations through DM use. In this way, we attempted to explain the role of DMs in oral communication via coherence relations. Through RT, we were able to categorize the DM in the broader functional categories: semantic, rhetorical and ideational. We proceeded to analyse the emergent coherence relations. Results obtained once again revealed that the rhetorical, relation exhibited the least expression in the discourse of the respondents. This relation is capable not only to render discourse coherent, but also to add pragmatic value to it, and this is an essential feature of spoken language.

On DM functions, the role of DMs in attributing to fluency or dysfluency was also confirmed. Cases of DM overuse, underuse or wrong use, were noted and it was discovered that when wrongly employed, DMs can lead to dysfluency rather than fluency. Pauses and DM pause-fillers were also analysed, revealing that these often act as strategic devices which the learner cognitively uses in order to maintain conversation, thus unconsciously revealing that cognitive processes are at work in attempts to retrieve expressions that might not be known or be readily remembered/available at the disposal of the speaker at the time of talk. This was exhibited not only as pauses and pause-fillers, but also in redundant repetitions and stutters. Although such a phenomenon led to incoherence and dysfluency, it enabled the learners to score highly on strategic competence.

We concluded that DM forms employed as well as their frequencies were a helpful guide in determining oral proficiency levels among learners of French, especially when considered in view of functions they fulfil within the discourse propositions that carry them. The present study found out that the extent to which DMs contribute to oral proficiency at both local and global levels of discourse is dependent on the forms employed, their frequency of use within any given discourse segment, and inherent specific functions they fulfil therein.

5.2.2 To what extent does teaching methodology address the need for the learner to develop oral communicative skills in French language?

Results from employed teaching methodology and preferred learning style in oral French teaching and learning were obtained through an analysis of a similar questionnaires for both teachers and students. Whereas analysis of the teacher questionnaire was essential in discovering the view of teachers on the methods they put to use in French teaching, that of students was important in validating the said view of the teachers. Analysis was aimed at finding out whether methods of teaching French learners at university level was directed towards meeting the oral communication requirements of the students. Results obtained from means and correlational analysis of the two groups' perspectives on teaching methodologies revealed that for both students and teachers, the perspective is that methods geared towards oral communication are *rather often* employed in teaching oral French. Even so, there was a significant difference in values obtained, with a greater standard deviation from the means obtained on the perspective of learners. This led to the conclusion that although both groups recorded that methods used in teaching French were *rather often* employed, the learners' view on the said methods was not as diverse as that reported by their teachers. According to the teachers, French language teaching methods that they *very often* used

included use of blackboard, giving formal lectures, responsive lectures, students explaining real life problems and solutions, student narrations and poems, and discussions between students in class, with or without collaborative action of the teacher. On the contrary, findings from analysis of the students' questionnaire did not indicate as much variety in their perception of how they were taught French, in terms of methodologies used, aiming at meeting the demand of students for oral proficiency. Among the strategies that stood out for this latter group were formal lecture, blackboard use, and class discussions between students. Furthermore, the teachers' report revealed that among all courses offered in the French bachelor's programme, those that were directly linked towards improvement of oral communication skills of the learners were generally limited to about two or three on average.

On knowledgeability and use of DMs, the study revealed that despite being potential coherence markers, DMs are not explicitly included in the university French language teaching curriculum, neither have most students and teachers heard about the term *Discourse Marker*, despite the fact that when learnt and appropriately used they play a pragmatic role in oral communication, thus impacting not only on discourse competence but on strategic competence as well. We demonstrated from data collected that other than holding discourse propositions together, DMs act overtly as lexical items that manage coherence relations, hence impacting on fluency and oral proficiency.

5.2.3 To what extent does learning style affect the student's oral skills acquisition?

The data we collected on learning styles of students was useful in analyzing how the diversity of styles played out in relation to the students' oral communication needs, and also the measure to which the said styles correlated with the teaching methodologies employed. Overall results on learning style in this study revealed that the visual learning style was frequently preferred by the learners, at 86%, followed by the auditory learning

style at 64%. The highest score was however registered by the kinesthetic learning style, recording 90% preference on the *'sometimes'* bar. The implication of this result is that the kinesthetic-visual topped the rank followed by the kinesthetic- auditory, in terms of preference of the learners. Results obtained on learners' perspective on teaching methods employed were more oriented towards the auditory style; these included use of formal lecture, organizing discussions between students and the visual was more concentrated on the use of blackboard. Implications of these findings suggest that the students would best learn oral communication skills when teaching methods geared towards the kinesthetic learning style are incorporated as the basis of learning French oral communication. The teaching methods would thus involve practical activities which enable the student to put into practice theoretical aspects of the language, invloving the kinesthetic technique at the foundation, thus offering a multi-sensory learning platfrom for the French language student. We employed the Spearman's Rank Correlation Coefficient to test (r_s) to test the direction and extent of the relationship between the proposed learning styles and various teaching methodolgies, at a confidence level of 95%. Results obtained pointed to the superiority of the kinesthetic style, in the learners' perspectives, on its ability to be incorporated with the other styles for effective teaching of foreign language oral communication skills. The use of and exposure to DMs was also found to correlate most with the kinesthetic learning style. A significant ($r_s = 0.259$, $p = 0.020$) relationship was found between kinesthetic style overall results and knowledgeability and use of spoken French.

Data collected from the students of French further revealed that although the students were able to identify various DM forms, their knowledgeability of them was limited to them as lexical items of various grammatical classes such as conjuncions, adverbs, interjections and phrasals of rather than as DMs. None of the students, like their

teachers, had heard of the term *discourse marker*, nor had they any knowledge of the possible place of DMs in oral communication.

We therefore conclude that methods preferred by the learners were more student-involving and participatory in nature. The students therefore registered a preference for the kinesthetic learning style coupled with either the visual or auditory style in that order, for optimum mastery of oral communication skills in French as a foreign language.

5.3 Recommendations

Recommendations that follow are based on conclusuions drawn from this study. They majorly highlight on DM teaching and learning in relation to pedagogical practices in French Foreign Language pedagogies in oral communication.

We have argued that improving DM use may enhance attainment of oral proficiency, and that whereas certain DM froms are more commonly used in speech, during spontaneous oral communication, others are more typical in written texts, which are ideally planned and more formal in nature. The current study highlighted on oral communication of learners of French, by examining the measure to which oral proficiency was dependent on DM use. The research concluded that although majority of the students had challenges with oral expression, they nonetheless exhibited DM use to some degree. Among the more proficient learners, the role of DMs in creating overt/explicit coherence, was evidenced in their ability to act as cohesive devices. Discourse structures thus produced exhibited coherence relations such as elaboration, comparison, cause and contrast, among others, all of which pointed to how DMs act as ostensive-stimulus devices, helping the speaker to signal to the hearer, the intended meaning of an utterance, through inference and relevance creation.

Less coherent discourse structures were similarly witnessed among the less orally proficient learners, whose DM use was found to be either limited or replete with the filler DM types, unnecessary repetitions and pauses. Amomg this latter group, DMs were still found to be important markers of strategic competence, acting to fill in linguistic gaps, where particular words or expressions were not known to the learner or were forgotten. This phenomenon tended towards dysfluency. The study thus **recommends** that the teaching and learning of DMs, in terms of appropriateness and use would be an essential component of French Foreign Language teaching and learning. We **recommend** that sensitization on DM use be an integral part of oral communication in the teaching and learning of French as a foreign language. This will help teachers and learners to understand the nature and functions of talk-oriented DMs in order to establish ways of improving their use, and thus positively influence oral proficiency. These, we considered, would need proactivity on both the teachers' and students' part, as follows: The study **recommends** that there is need to educate teachers and learners on:

a) How DMs act on different levels: that is, how they are capable of implementing propositional and non-propositional meanings, and thus leading to an understanding that the "one form-one function" principle does not always apply.

b) Understanding both structural and modal functions of DMs and how they play out in creating disambiguity in speech through creation of relevance, by constraining meaning.

c) The manner in which DMs contribute to being better understood as a speaker, thanks to their discourse organizing role, at both local and global levels of discourse.

d) The versatile nature of DMs, stressing on their multi-functionality and how incorporating them in oral communication would enrich spoken discourse both at the local and global levels.

e) How DMs emerge as strategic competence markers and, therefore, help in disambiguating speech that may otherwise sound senseless

f) The awareness of common DM forms and collocations as found in native or near native spoken French language. This would lead in orienting the learner towards sociolinguistic competence, a component of the whole communicative experience.

g) Embracing the notion that even simple items such as DMs can be 'taught' rather than just being 'caught', and that dissemination of DM use as in this case would involve immersion into real-life speech contexts, virtual or real, in which DMs naturally occur, and their pragmatic meanings understood.

h) How DMs, if improperly utilized, may compromise oral proficiency, but also, how this plays out on strategic competence within given limits.

On teaching methods and preferred learning styles of students, the current research **recommends** that more learner-centered approaches be adopted in the teaching and learning of French as a foreign language, given that according to study results, students would learn the oral expression best when exposed to hands-on, real-life type experiences are largely incorporated into the methods of teaching.

Given that the present study focused on the situation analysis component of action research design, which was exploratory in nature, our delimitation parameters were keen on establishing the research context – teaching and learning of French oral

communication, and the influence of DMs on oral expression. We **recommend** that intervention stage of the current study be pursued. This would involve implementation of mechanisms aimed at improving oral communication among university learners of French, first, through sensitizing and educating teachers of French on the importance and role of DMs in oral communication. Next, we **recommend** that the students be decidedly taught on mastery of appropriate use of DMs in oral communication, as a way of enhancing fluency and oral proficiency. These would also involve French Foreign Language curriculum developers in ensuring that the outcome of French teaching and learning is within desirable standards.

According to *le Cadre Européen Commun de Référence pour les Langues – CECRL* (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages – CEFR), which is an international standard framework for describing langauge ability, the apex level is ranked as C2, and is also referred to as the level of Proficiency. Level C2 is what the current study advocated for, and is preceded by intermediate and basic levels, the lowest being ranked as Pre A1. Language learners are expected to aspire for C2, the level of proficiency in language. Acknowledging that proficiency in language is product of various possible mechanisms at work apart from classroom teaching and learning, we **recommend** that learners of French as a Foreign Language make use of available resources to have a simulation immersion experience in French Foreign Language learning. These would necessarily include online audio-visual learning material involving native speaker talk and foreign language training. These can be easily accessed by learners through an array of media, including phones, computers, radio and televisions, which can also be internet-enabled. Such simulated immersion experiences would be essential in building the sociolinguistic and pragmatic competence of the learner. We also **recommend** for the learner of French as a Foreign Language to

recognize emerging media of learning, and realize that they have a personal role to educate themselves and also to self-evaluate, as a step towards attaining proficiency in the French language.

There being various stakeholders involved towards the success of university-level French academic programme, including researchers, teachers and learners, this study focused on the preliminary step, that of identifying the problem proposing a possible solution to the problem. This is the component of action research which was within the delimitation boundaries of our research. We **recommend** that the current study act as a stepping-stone for future research with regard to implementation and evaluation. The study further **recommends** that the latter two steps within the design be considered as a sequential study, within a different framework. We also **recommend** that more research be done in the domain of French Foreign Language learning and teaching, hinged on modern pedagogical theoretical approaches that are more learner-based as opposed to traditional teacher-oriented methods. We **recommend** also that further research be carried out to determine optimal practices on French teaching and learning in the country, by seeking mechanisms of implementing findings of the present study, and evaluating the extent of change created on the domain.

In conclusion, this research contributes to an understanding of the nature of oral communicative competence among learners of French as a foreign language and on how challenges in the domain of oral communication in French can be mitigated through the intervention of pedagogical approaches and accommodation of a diversity of learning styles. In this, the role of DMs is of essence, as the current study reveals. The study issues a call to educational stakeholders including curriculum leaders, foreign language education policy makers, students and teachers of French as a foreign

language to act their part in synchrony to ensure that the teaching and learning of French in the country is successful. Finally, the study offers insights into an understanding towards a possible theory of discourse markers.

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APPENDICES

Appendix I: Student Questionnaire

This questionnaire sought to find out from the student respondents, the learning style that they are inclined to and whether their personal learning orientation was met through the methods employed in teaching French.

The questionnaire was divided into three parts. The first part evaluated learning style (adopted from Brett Bixler's Learning Styles Inventory); the second assessed teaching methods employed in French language pedagogy and the third section consisted of a test on knowledgeability and use of French Discourse markers by the student respondent.

QUESTIONNAIRE

1. **Introduction**

Greeting, my name is Martha Mambo, a PhD candidate in the Department of Linguistics and Foreign Languages at Moi University. Thank you for accepting to be part of this survey, which seeks to understand how oral French communication is taught and learnt in Kenyan public universities; this will enable us evaluate and adopt best practices in oral French teaching and learning. My research topic is entitled*: Investigating Discourse Markers in Oral Communication among University Learners of French in Kenya*, as a partial fulfillment for the requirements of a degree in Doctor of Philosophy in Linguistics. The results obtained will be used solely for purposes of this research and will be treated with utmost confidentiality. Please answer as honestly as possible. Thank you.

2. General Respondent Information

Please tick accordingly.

 Gender: Male [   ]   Female [   ]

Age bracket 20-25 [   ] 30-35 [   ] 35-40 [   ] 40-45 [   ]

I have studied Frenhc for at least _____ years

3. Questions

This part of the questionnaire will help in understanding how best you, as a student learns concepts and subject matter taught in class. For each question, tick appropriately below one column.

Section A

QUESTIONS	Rarely	Sometimes	Often
1. I can remember more about a subject through the lecture method with information, explanations and discussion.			
2. I prefer information to be presented with the use of visual aids.			
3. I like to write things down or to take notes for visual review			
4. I prefer to make posters, physical models, or actual practice and some activities in class.			
5. I require explanations of diagrams, graphs or visual directions.			
6. I enjoy working with my hands or making things			
7. I am skillful with and enjoy developing and making graphs and charts.			
8. I can tell if sounds match when presented with pairs of sounds.			
9. I remember best by writing things down several times.			
10. I can understand and follow directions on maps.			
11. I do better at academic subjects by listening to lectures and tapes as opposed to reading a textbook.			
12. I play with coins or keys in pockets.			
13. I learn to spell better by repeating the words out loud than by writing the word on papers.			
14. I can better understand a news article by reading about it in the paper than by listening to the radio.			

15. I chew gum or snack during studies.			
16. I feel the best way to remember is to picture it in your head.			
17. I learn spelling by tracing the letters with my fingers.			
18. I would rather listen to a good lecture or speech than read about the same material in a textbook.			
19. I am good at working and solving jigsaw puzzles and mazes.			
20. I play with objects in hands during learning period.			
21. I remember more by listening to the news on radio rather than reading about it in the newspaper.			
22. I obtain information on an interesting subject by reading relevant materials.			
23. I feel very comfortable touching objects and people.			
24. I follow oral directions better than written ones.			

Section B

This part of the questionnaire will help in understanding how best the classroom subject matter is delivered to you by your French teacher (s). Please give a description of the frequency with which your French teacher(s) use the following teaching methods, materials or equipment in their teaching course. For each, tick appropriately below one column.

	TEACHING STRATEGIES	Never	Rarely	Rather often	Very often
1	Lecture (formal)				
2	Responsive lecture i.e. student-teacher involvement				
3	Demonstrations				
4	Reading with discussion				
5	Overhead projector				
6	Blackboard				

7	Films				
8	Audiotapes				
9	Practical exercises e.g., simulation of real life situations				
10	Small group activities e.g. discussions between students in French				
11	Collaborative /cooperative learning i.e. group discussions with guidance of teacher				
12	Class discussion (students actively involved)				
13	Seminar discussions i.e. class oral presentations by students, then question & answer sessions				
14	Brainstorming sessions				
15	Other student presentations eg poems, narratives, reading aloud				
16	Guest speakers from francophone countries				
17	Story telling				
18	Field trips to francophone setups				
19	Students commenting on each other's work				
20	Case studies on how concepts taught are used in real life.				
21	Student projects				
22	Experiments				
23	Problem solving activities e.g. explaining real life problems and giving solutions in spoken French				
24	Simulations and games				
25	Role-playing exercises				
26	Other strategies used by the teacher to enhance oral communication				

Section C

This part of the questionnaire evaluates your knowledge, understanding and usage of certain expressions, known as Discourse Markers, used in communication. Please give a description of the frequency with which you use them in French

Alors	D'ailleurs	Enfin	Par exemple	Sinon
Aussi	De toute facon	Ainsi	Parce que	Surtout
Après tout	Donc	Mais	Puis	Voilà
Bon	Disons que	Meme	Tu sais	Vraiment
C'est-à- dire	En fait	Par contre	Quoi	Encore

Table 1.0

A. KNOWLEDGEABILITYAND USE	Never	Seldom	Rather often	Very often
1. I use them in spoken French				
2. I use them in written French				
3. My teachers use them in spoken French				
4. My teachers use them in written French				
5. I use them with my colleagues				
6. I use them with my teachers				
7. I hear them in class used by teachers				
8. I hear them in class used by fellow students				
9. I hear them in French videos and films				
10. I hear them in French conversational audio material				
11. I see them in my linguistic text books under a topic entitled Discourse Markers				
12. I see them in my literature text books involving conversational discourse				
13. I hear them used by those that are more proficient in spoken French				
14. I hear them used by those that are less proficient in spoken French				
15. Those who are good in both written and spoken French use them more.				

Appendix II: Teacher Questionnaire

Greeting, my name is Martha Mambo, a PhD candidate in the Department of Linguistics and Foreign Languages at moi University. Thank you for accepting to be part of this survey, which seeks to understand how oral French communication is taught and learnt in Kenyan public universities; this will enable us evaluate and adopt best practices in oral French teaching and learning. My research tpoic is entitled: *Discourse Markers in Oral Communication among University Learners of French in Kenya*, as a partial fulfillment for the requirements of adegree in Doctor of Philosophy in Linguistics. The results obtained will be used solely for purposes of this research and will be treated with utmost confidentiality. Please answer as honestly as possible. Thank you.

GENERAL RESPONDENT INFORMATION

Please tick accordingly.

Gender:　　　Male [　　]　　　Female [　　]

Age bracket: 25-30 [　　] 30-35 [　　] 35-40 [　]　 40-45[　] 45-50 [　] 50 + [　]

QUESTIONS

This part of the questionnaire will help in understanding the classroom teaching methodology that you as a French teacher prefer in delivering subject matter to your students please give a description of the frequency with which you as a French teacher use the following teaching methods, materials or equipment in your courses. For each, tick appropriately below one column.

	TEACHING STRATEGIES	Never	Seldom	Rather often	Very often
1	Lecture (formal)				
2	Responsive lecture i.e. student-teacher involvement				
3	Demonstrations				
4	Reading with discussion				

5	Overhead projector				
6	Blackboard				
7	Films				
8	Audiotapes				
9	Practical exercises e.g., simulation of real life situations				
10	Small group activities e.g. discussions between students in French				
11	Collaborative /cooperative learning i.e. group discussions with guidance of teacher				
12	Class discussion (students actively involved)				
13	Seminar discussions i.e. class oral presentations by students, then question & answer sessions				
14	Brainstorming sessions				
15	Other student presentations eg poems, narratives, reading aloud				
16	Guest speakers from francophone countries				
17	Story telling				
18	Field trips to francophone setups				
19	Students commenting on each other's work				
20	Case studies on how concepts taught are used in real life.				
21	Student projects				
22	Experiments				
23	Problem solving activities e.g. explaining real life problems and giving solutions in spoken French				
24	Simulations and games				
25	Role-playing exercises				

26	Other strategies used by the teacher to enhance oral communication				

a) Briefly name oral communication–oriented French courses that you teach

b) Briefly explain how exactly you help the student to achieve oral communicative ability through the courses.

c) What class texts and materials geared towards oral proficiency do you use?

d) Have you ever come across the topic 'Discourse Markers' in your teaching of French at university? If not, the question that is not applicable. If yes, kindly respond to the next question.

e) What do you think is the role of discourse markers in helping your students to construct coherent sentences in spoken French?

Thank you for taking your time to respond to this questionnaire

Appendix III: Silent Video

The *Pear Film* developed by Chafe Wallace, (1980)

Student respondents watched a silent video, known as the *Pear Film.* The film has sound effects but no words. It lasts a little over five minutes. Respondents watched the *Pear Film*, and then narrated the story orally. The silent video was a tool for collecting DMs emanating from the speech of the learners of French as a foreign language. The url hyperlink to the video is as follows. https://youtu.be/bRNSTxTpG7U

Appendix IV: Data Transcription and Translation-Selected Excerpts and Grid Tables

This section contains a selection of data transcriptions and translations of full narrations, whose excerpts were used in analysis.

Data transcription and translation A1

A1. Line 1

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Donc	selon	moi	y	a	un	homme	qui	fait...	qui	fait
So	according to	me	there	has	a	man	who	does…	who	does
So, according to me there is a man who does ... who does...										

A1. Line 2

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
de	**quoi**	...plaquer	des	fruits...	c'est	des	fruits…	eh	…des
of	what…	leaves	[some]	fruits …	it's	[some]	fruits…	eh…	[some]
what? ...*leaves* fruits ... it is fruits.... eh… some-									

A1. Line 3

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
fruits**.**	**Euhm...**	je	vois	qu'il	est	travailleur	parce	qu'	il
fruits.	**Euhm**…	I	see	that	he is		hardworking	because	it
fruits. Euhm….I see that he is hardworking because-									

A1. Line 4

1	3	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
y	a	un	jardin	et	elle	prend	des	fruits	**et**
There	has	a	garden	and	*she*	takes	[some]	fruits	and
there is a garden and *she* takes fruits, and-									

A1. Line 5

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Des	fruits.	Il	y	a	un…	Il	y	a	un	enfant	qui	vient
[some]	fruits.	It	there	has	a…	It	there	has	a	child	who	comes
fruits. There is a child who comes,												

A1. Line 6

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
et	**quand**	il	est	dans	sur	l'	arbre	l'	enfant	prend	un	sac	des
and	when	he	is	in	on	the	tree	the	child	takes	a	bag	of the
and when he is in, on the tree the child takes a bag of-													

A1. Line 7

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
fruits.	Après,	certains	de	l'	enfant	quitte	avec	un	sac	de	fruits
fruits.	After,	certain	of	the	child	leave	with	a	bag	of	fruits
fruits. After, *some of the child* leaves with a bag of fruits,											

A1. Line 8

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
il	y	a	un	accident	dans	la	route	**et**	**avec**	**ça**
it	there	has	an	accident	in	the	road	**and**	**with**	**that**

there is an accident on the road, **and with that,**

A1. Line 9

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
il	y	a	un	leçon	là-	bas	parce	que	c'est…	c'est-	**à-**	dire
it	there	has	a	lesson	there	under	by	that	it's	it's	to	say

There is a lesson over there, because it means,

A1. Line 10

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
on	doit	travailler	pour…	on	doit	travailler	genui…	genui…
one	should	to work	for…	one	should	to work	genui…	genui…

one should work for…one should work genui…genui…(*student tries to look for right word*)

A1. Line 11

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
on	doit	travailler	geniune	parce	que	l'	enfant…
one	should	to work	geniune	by	that	the	child…

One should work *genuine,* because the child…

A1. Line 12

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
l'	enfant	là	a	fait	l'	accident	parce	que	les	fruits	là
the	child	there	has	done	the	accident	by	that	the	fruit	there

that child caused the accident because those fruits-

A1. Line 13

1	2	3	4	5
n'	étaient	pas	à	Lui.
not	were	not	for	him

were not his

A1. Line 14

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Oh!	le	petit	garçon	a	volé	les	Fruits!
Oh!	the	little	boy	has	stolen	the	Fruits!

Oh! The little boy stole the fruits!

Data transcription and translation A3

A3. Line 1

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Ah....	**d'accord**,	**quant**	**à**	**moi**	je...	ai...	vu	que	cette	histoire	est
Uh	Fine	According	To	Me	I	Have	Seen	That	This	Stopry	is

Uh...fine. As for me, I saw that this story is

A3. Line 2

1	2	*3*	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
basée	sur	*la*	village	**euh**…	**car**	il	y	a	là	**où**	il	y	a
Based	On	The	Village	Uh	Since	It	There	Has	There	Where	It	There	has

Based on the village uh…since there is [a place] where there is

A3. Line 3

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	
beaucoup	des	activités,	beaucoup	de	personnes	mm…	et	les	gens	plus	âgés

A lot	Of	Activities	A lot	Of	People	mm…	And	The	People	More	aged

A lot of activities, alot of people, mm… and elderly people

A3. Line 4

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
et	il	y	a	**aussi**	les	juenes...	et	...	il	s'	agit	que
And	It	There	Has	Also	The	Young	and	...	it	itself	concerns	that

The young are alo there and it is about *that*

A3. Line 5

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
les	jeunes	n'	a	pas	beaucoup	des	activités	dans	la	vie
The	Young	Not	Have	Not	Much	Of	Activities	In	The	life

The young do not have a lot of activities in life

A3. Line 6

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
mais	ils	pensent	beaucoup	des	choses…	**par**	**exemple**
But	They	Think	Much	Of	Things	**For**	**example**

But they thinkm of lota of things, for example

A3. Line 7

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10				
un	garçon	a	voler	et	les	fruits	et	**après**	ça				
A	Boy	Has	Stolen	And	The	Fruits	And	After	that				

A boy stol eh fruits and after that

A3. Line 8

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
il	était	confus	en	regardant	la	fille	là...	**et**	il	est	tombé
he	Was	Confused	In	Looking at	The	Girl	There	And	He	Is	fallen

He got confused while looking at that girl and he fell

A3. Line 9

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
et	**c'est**	**comme**	**ça**	et	**mais**	il	y	a	les	autres	qui	sont...

And thats how it is but there are others who are

A3. Line 10

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
ils	n'	ont	rien	pour	faire	**parce**	**qu'**	**ils**	marchent
They	Not	Have	Nothing	For	To do	By	That	They	walk

They dont have anything for dong because they are walking

A3. Line 11

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
la	route	et	ils	faire	à	rien	et	**c'est**	**ça….**
The	Road	And	They	To do	For	Nothing	And	It's	that
[on] the road and they to de [do] nothing and that's it									

Data Transcription and Translation-A5

A5. Line 1

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
..ah…	Apres	Avoir	Volé	Les	Poires…	**Oui**	Apres	Avoir	volé
…uh…	After	To have	Stolen	The	Pears…	Yes	After	To have	stolen
Uh…stealing the pears…yes, after stealing									

A5. Line 2

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
il	commence	son	voyage	chez	lui…	**je**	**pense**...	**peut-**	**être**
He	Begins	His	Journey	Place	To him	I	Think	Can	To be
He began the journey to his place									

A5. Line 3

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
là	**où**	il	va...	**et**	en	voyageant,	il…	il...	rencontre	une	fille	qui
There	Where	He	Goes	And	By	Travelling	He...	He...	Meets	A	Girl	who
Wherever he was going and on the way, he...he...meets a girl who												

A5. Line 4

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
est	**aussi**...	qui	a	**aussi**	une	bicyclette	et	je	pense	que			
S	Also…	Who	Has	Also	A	Bicycle	And	I	Think	that			
Is also…who also has a bike and I think													

A5. Line 5

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
cette	fille	l'	a	confus...	**et**...	en	la	regardant...	**oui**,	des	choses	se	passent
This	Girl	Him	Has	Confused	And	On	Her	Seeing	Yes,	Some	things	Themselves	happen
This girl confused him…and …as he looked at her, things happened													

A5. Line 6

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
... des	choses	se	passent	et	il	ne	sais	pas	comment	marcher
Some	Things	Themselves	Happen	And	He	Not	Know	Not	How	To walk
…things happen and he cannot walk [ride]										

A5. Line 7

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
avec	son	bicyclette	**et**	**puis**	il	tombe	sur	terre	**et** ...
With	His	Bike	And	Then	He	Falls	On	Ground	and

With his bike and then he falls on the ground

A5. Line 8

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	12	13	14
il	**fait**	**quoi**...	il	se	blesse	les	jambes	**et**				
He	Does	What	He	Himself	Hurts	The	Legs	and				

What does he do…he hurts his legs and

A5. Line 9

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
tous	les	fruits	qu'	Il	a	volé	se	tombent	**aussi**	sur	terre...	**oui**…
All	The	Fruits	That	He	Has	Stolen	Themselves	Fall	Also	On	Ground...	Yes...

All the fruits that he stole also fall on the ground...yes...

A5. Line 10

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
puis...	des	enfants	qui...	marchent	dans	la	rue	lui	voient
Tyhen	Some	Children	Who	Walk	In	The	Street	To him	see

Then the children walking on the street see him

A5. Line 11

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
et	il	l'aider....	**oui**	ils	l'	aide	à	ramasser	les	fruits...	**oui**…
And	He	Him help	Yes	They	Him	Help	To	To collect	The	Fruits	yes

And help him…yes, they help him to collect the fruits…yes…

A5. Line 12

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
et	**après**	l'	aider	à	ramasser	les	fruits	il	continue	avec	son	voyage
And	After	Him	To help	To	To collect	The	Fruits	He	Continues	With	His	journey

And after helping to collect the fruits, he continues with his journey

A5. Line 13

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
et	les	enfants	continuent	**aussi**	avec	son	**quoi**...	avec	ses	affaires	....**oui**
And	The	Children	Continue	Also	With	His	What	With	Ses	Business	…yes

And the children also continue with his [their] what…with thier business…yes.

A5. Line 14

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
... **et**	**puis**	il	constate	que	ce	monsieur-	là	a	fait	**quoi**...
And	Then	He	Realizes	That	That	Man	There	Has	Done	what
And then he realizes that the man has done what…										

A5. Line 15

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
a	oublier	son	chapeau	**et**	**puis**	un	de	ces	garçons	va
Has	Forgotten	His	Hat	And	Then	One	Of	Those	Boys	go
Has forgotten his hat and then one of those boys goes										

A5. Line 16

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
et	lui	remettre	son	chapeau...	**et**	**puis**...	**quand**	qui...
and	To him	Return	His	Hat	And	then	When	Who…
And returns to him his hat and then when who…								

A5. Line 17

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
et	**puis**	**quand**	ce	garçon	lui	donne	son	chapeau
And	Then	When	This	Boy	To him	Give	His	hat
And then when that boy gives him his hat								

A5. Line 18

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
ce	garçon	*les*	donne	des	fruits	**comme**	**quoi**...
This	Boy	Them	Gives	Some	Fruits	Sa	What…
The boy gives them some fruits as what…							

A5. Line 19

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
je	**pense**	comme	cadeau	pour	leur	dire	merci
I	Think	As	Gift	For	Them	To say	thanks
As a gift..i think…to say thank you.							

Data Transcription and Translation-A6

A6. Line 1

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Okey…	D'apres	moi	il	y	a	un	homme	qui	travaille…	Ah…
Okey..	According to	Me	It	There	Has	A	Man	Who	Works	uh
Okey, according to me, the ris aman who is wotking …uh…										

A6. Line 2

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Sur	Les	Bons	Fruits	Des	Poires...	Ah..	et	Au	travail
On	The	Good	Fruits	Of	Pears	Uh...	And	At the	work
On good pear fruits...uh...and at work									

A6. Line 3

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Les	Bons	Fruits	De	L'	Arbre…	**Oui**,	De	L'	arbre
The	Good	Fruits	from	The	Tree…	Yes,	From	The	tree
The good fruits from the tree…yes, from the tree									

Data Transcription and translation -A7

A7. Line 1

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Mmm	... **après**	**avoir**	volé	les	poires	le…	petit…	le	petit…
mmm	….after	to have	stolen	the	pears	the…	little …	the	little
Mmm, after having stolen the pears, the little…the little..									

A7. Line 2

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
le	petit	garçon	euh...	conduire	son	bicyclette	est	il	est	allé
the	little	boy	euh…	To drive	his	bicycle	is	he	Is	gone
the little boy uh…to ride his bicycle and he went										

A7. Line 3

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
sur	la	la	route	et	**malheureusement**	il	a	vu	une	fille.....
on	the	the	road	and	unfortunately	he	has	seen	a	girl
on the…the road. Unfortunately he saw a girl.										

A7. Line 4

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Malheureusement	il	a	vu	une	fille	qui	a	corrompu	qui
unfortunately	he	has	seen	a	girl	who	has	corrupted	who
Unfortunately he saw a girl who corrupted, who									

A7. Line 5

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
lui	a	corrompu	**et**	il	a....	et	il	a	il	*a*	tombé	avec
to him	has	corrupted	and	he	has	and	he	has	he	has	fallen	with
Corrupted to him, and he fell with												

A7. Line 6

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
son	bicyclette	et	a	blessé	*son*	jambes
His	bicycle	and	has	hurt	his	leg
His bicycle and hurt his legs.						

A7. Line 7

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
mais	les	autres	enfants	....les	autres	enfants	venaient	sur	la
but	the	others	children	…the	others	children	came	on	the
But the other children, the other children were coming on the									

A7. Line 8

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
même	route....	ils	ont	t'	aider	le	garçon	à	ramasser	les.....	poires
same	road	they	have	you	tu	help	boy	to	collect	the	pears
Same road. They helped you the boy to gather the pears											

A7. Line 9

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
qui	sont....	qui	sont	tombés	partout	dans	la	route.	**Mmm**…
who	are	who	are	fallen	everywhere	in	the	road.	**Mmm**…
Which fell all over on the road. Mmm…									

A7. Line 10

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
après	*ça*	le	le	*le*	*petit*	*garçon*	qui	lui	a	aidé	a	*continuer*
after	that	the	the	the	little	boy	who	to him	has	helped	has	continued
After that, the the the little boy who helped *to* him continued												

A7. Line 11

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
avec	ses	affaires	**et**	il	a	continué	avec	son	voyage
with	his	business	and	he	has	continued	with	his	journey
With his business and he continued with his journey									

Data transcription and translation- A9

A9. Line 1

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12		
Ok...	dans	cette	histoire	il	y	a	un	homme	dans	son	jardin		
Ok...	In	This	Story	It	Thera	Has	A	Man	In	His	garden		
Okey, in this story, there is a man in his garden													

A9. Line 2

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
qui	est	en	train	de	prendre	des	poires.
Who	Is	In	Process	Of	To take	Some	pears
Who is in the process of taking some pears,							

A9. Line 3

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
euh…	car	il	y	a	des	autres	activités	qui	se	passe	**aussi**.
uh…	since	it	there	has	some	others	activities	which	themselves	happen	also
Uh... since there are some other activities which are also taking place.											

A9. Line 4

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
.....**euh**...	il	y	a	un	homme	qui	passe	avec	son	chèvre			
Uh	It	Ther	Has	A	Man	Who	Passes	With	His	goat			

A9. Line 5

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9				
euh...	**quand**	il	**quand**	il	Mmm	**quand**	il	montre				
Uh	When	he	When	He	mmm	When	He	Shows				
Uh…when he…when he…mmm when he climbs												

A9. Line 6

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	
il	y	a	un	petit	garçon	qui	vient	avec	*un*	bicyclette	
It	There	Has	A	little	Boy	Who	Comes	With	A	bicycle	
There is aliottle boy who comes with a bike,											

A9. Line 7

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Qui	était	sûr	que	l'	homme	qui	prend	des	poires
Who	Was	Sure	That	The	Man	Who	Takes	Some	pears
Who was sure that the man taking the pears									

A9. Line 8

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
ne	lui	voit	Pas.	il	prend	les	poires	de	cet	homme	et	part
not	to him	sees	not	he	takes	the	pears	of	that	man	and	leaves
Is not seeing him. He takes the paers of this man and leaves												

Data transcription and translation B1

B1. Line 1

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11		
Aah...	l'	histoire...	**d'**	**après**	**moi**	je	voir	que	ce	film		
Aah	The	Story	Of	After	Me	I	see	That	This	film		
Uh, the story, according to me, I see the film												

B1. Line 2

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	
s'	est	concentre	sur	**euh**…	un...	un	**bon**...	de	la	voleur...	
itself	is	concentrated	on	uh..	a	a	well...	of	the	thief	

B1. Line 3

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
de	la	vole	**car**	j'	ai	vu	Quelqu'	un	qui	est	là	
of	the	theft	since	i	have	seen	some	one	who	is	there	
Of theft since i saw someone who is there												

B1. Line 4

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12		
qui	plume	les	fruits	**mais**	je	ne	sais	pas	quel	type	de		
who	Plucks	the	fruits	but	i	not	know	not	which	type	of		
Who is plucking fruits but i dont know what type of fruits													

B1. Line 5

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
fruits	**car**	j'	ai	pas	vu.	(les poires...je crois).
fruits	since	i	have	not	seen	(pears, I think)
Fruits since I did not see. (pears, I think)						

B1. Line 6

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
...ce	sont	les	poires?	(**oui**)	…**oui**,	ce	sont	les	poires
These	Are	The	Pears?	(yes)	Yes	These	Are	The	pears
They are pears? (yes). Yes, they are pears									

B1. Line 7

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
il	est	en	train	puis	il	les	mis	en	panier	la	au	dessous
he	is	in	process	then	he	puts	them	in	basket	there	on the	under
He is in the process, the he puts them in a basket down there												

B1. Line 8

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10				
… **oui**	..il	*montre*	sur	l'	arbre	avec	*un...*	une	échelle				
yes	he	shows	on	the	tree	with	a	a	ladder				
Yes, he shows [climbs] on the tree with a..a ladder													

B1. Line 9

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
et	**puis**	**là**	il	essaye	de	le	prendre
and	then	there	he	tries	of	the	to take
And then there, he tries to take it							

B1. Line 10

1	2	3	4	5					
Il	y	trois	baskets...	**oui**					
it	there	three	backets	yes					
There are three baskets….yes.									

B1. Line 11

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Il	a	**déjà**	remplit	deux	il	est	entrain	de	remplir
he	has	already	filled	two	he	is	in process	of	to fill
He has alredy filled twoand he is continuing to fill									

B1. Line 12

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
une	autre	la	troisième	**et**	**puis**	il	y	a	quelqu'	un	qui
one	other	the	third	and	then	it	there	has	some	one	who
The third one and then there is someone who											

B1. Line 13

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
a	passé	avec	un	mouton	...je	ne	sais	pas	c'	est	un	mouton
has	passed	with	a	sheep	i	not	know	not	it	is	a	sheep
Passed with a sheep. I don't know; it's a sheep												

B1. Line 14

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
(un chèvre)...	**oui,**	c'est	dans	la	famille	là…	**quelque**	**chose**	**comme**	**ça**
(a goat)	yes	It's	In	The	Family	There	Some	Thing	Like	that
(a goat). Yes, its in that family. Something like that										

B1. Line 15

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
il	a	passé	par	là,	il	était	un	peu	…un	peu	vieux,
He	has	passed	by	there	he	was	a	little	a	little	old
He passed by there. He was a little ...a little old,											

B1. Line 16

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
je	crois,	**et**	**puis**	il	a	passé	un	enfant…	**oui,**	je	peux
i	think,	, and	then	he	has	passed	a	child.	yes	i	can
I think. And then he passed a child. Yes, I 'd											

B1. Line 17

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
dire	un	enfant	**car**	il	était	de	petit	taille...
To say	A	Child	Since	He	Was	Of	Small	size
Say a child since he was of small stature								

B1. Line 18

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
il	n'	a	pas	de	barbe	**et**	**tout**	**ca**...	il	était	petit.
he	not	has	not	of	beards	and	all	that	he	was	small
He has no beards and all that. He was small											

B1. Line 19

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Il	est	venu	avec	un	vélo	laa	**et**	**puis**	il	a	vu	ce…
he	is	come	with	a	bicycle	there	and	then	he	has	seen	that
He came with a bike there and then he saw the												

B1. Line 20

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
ce	mec	la	qui	plume	les	fruits	là
that	guy	there	who	pluchs	the	fruits	there
Guy plucking the fruits there							

B1. Line 21

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8					
Il	est...	son	attention	c'	est	tout	là.					
he	is	his	attention	it	is	all	there					
He is...his attention is all there												

B1. Line 22

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Il	ne	regarde	pas	ce	qui	se	passait	la	en	bas...
he	not	sees	not	that	which	itself	happens	there	in	under
He is not seeing what is going on down there										

B1. Line 23

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
qu'	est	-ce	qui	se	passait	**Donc**	lui	il	pris	le	basket
what	is	this	which	itself	happened	so	him	he	taken	the	basket
What was happening... so him, he takes the basket											

B1. Line 24

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
et	mis	en	vélo	**et**	**puis**	il	a	cyclé	**oui**	et	**<u>quand</u>**	il
and	put	on	bike	and	then	he	has	cycled	yes	and	when	he
And puts on the bike and then he rode. Yes. And when he												

B1. Line 25

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
a	cyclé	là...	il	a	vu	une	fille	qui	vient	à	sa	direction	- là
has	cycled	ther	he	has	seen	a	girl	who	comes	to	his	direction	there
rode there, he saw a girl coming in his diection													

B1. Line 26

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
et	**puis**	son	attention	...**et**	**là**	**ah**	il	a	croisé	sur	une	
And	Then	His	Attention	Is	There	Ah	He	Has	Crissed	On	a	
And then his attention....and there, uh he knocked over a												

B1. Line 27

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
pierre	**et**	**puis**	là	il	est	tombé	par	terre	**.et**	**prrr**	**oui**...
stone	and	then	there	he	is	fallen	by	earth	and	prrr	yes
Stone and then there, he fell on the ground and prrr, yes											

B1. Line 28

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
ça	**va**	**et**	**puis**	ses	amis	*a*	*vient*	*lui*	aider
That	Goes	And	Then	His	Friends	Has	Come	To him	To help

Its **okey** and then his friends has come to help him

B1. Line 29

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
et	puis	*il*	*a*	*lui*	*mis*	en	debout	**et**	**puis**	remis	le	basket
And	Then	He	Has	To	Him	Put	Stand	And	Then	Put back	The	basket

And then they got him up and then returned the basket

B1. Line 30

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Son	chapeau	**aussi**	a	été	tombé	par	terre	...**oui.**
His	Hat	Also	Has	Been	Fallen	By	Earth	yes

His hat also fell on the ground. yes

B1. Line 31

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Aussi	*il*	*a*	*lui*	*remise*	**et**	**puis**	ils	ont	continué	avec
also	he	has	to him	returned	and	then	they	have	continued	with

[he]They also returned to him and then they continued on

B1. Line 32

.1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
son	chemin	**ou**	**quoi…**	**je**	**ne**	**sais**	**pas...**	**quelque**	**chose**	**comme**	**ça**
his	way	or	what…	i	not	know	not	some	thing	like	that

His [their] way or what……i don't know…something like that

B1. Line 33

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
Passant	en	route	là,	**et**	**puis**	il	y	a	les	trois…			
Passing	In	The	Road	And	Then	It	There	Has	The	three			

Passing on the road there, and then there are three boys

B1. Line 34

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
les	trois	enfants	qui	ils	ont	passé	par	là	**où**	le			
the	three	children	who	they	have	passed	by	there	where	the			

The three chidren who had passed by there where the

B1. Line 35

1	2	3	4	5	6						
mec	là	plume	les	fruits	là...						
guy	there	plucks	the	fruits	there						

Guy was plucking fruits

B1. Line 36

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
Donc	**là**...	il	a	vu...	il	a	constaté	**euh**	**ben**!	**oéé**!			
So	There	He	Has	Seen	He	Has	Thought	Uh	Well!	Oee!			
So there, he was ...he thought uh, well, oee!													

B1. Line 37

1		2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Ça		vient	d'	**où**?	Ça	vient	d'	**où**	...**oui,**	et	comme	ça	sa	termine
that		comes	from	where	that	comes	from	where	yes	and	like	that	itself	ends
	Where is this from? Where is this from? Yes, and it ends that way.													

Data transcription and translation- B4

B4 Line 1

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10			
D'	**accord**.	Dans	la	vidéo	il	y	a	un	homme			
In	Agreement	In	The	Video	It	There	Has	A	man			
Fine. In the video, there is a man												

B4 Line 2

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9				
dans	un	jardin	**et**	accueillit	les	fruits,	des	poires.				
In	A	Garden	And	Welcomes	The	Fruits	Of	pears				
In garden and welcomes [picked]fruits...pears												

B4 Line 3

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11		
Et	il	a	les	paniers.	**Alors**	**après**	**avoir**	cueilli	les	fruits		
And	He	Has	The	Baskets	So	After	To have	Picked	The	fruits		
And he has baskets. So after having picked the fruits												

B4 Line 4

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9				
il	les	place	dans	les	paniers.	**A près**	le	premier,				
He	Them	Places	In	The	Basket	After	The	first				
He puts them in the baskets. After the first												

B4 Line 5

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9			
ou...	quelques	temps	de	monter	sur	l'	arbre	descendre			
or	some	time	of	to climb	on	the	tree	To descend			
Or sometime after climbing the tree, [he] comes down											

B4 Line 6

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12		
il	y	a	un	homme	qui...	qui	vient	a	travers	des	frites...		
It	There	Has	A	Man	Who	Who	Comes	to	Across	Some	fries		
There is aman who comes across the fires [fruits]													

B4 Line 7

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9				
a	travers	les	paniers	des	frites...	avec	une	chèvre				
To	Across	The	Baskets	Of	Fries	With	A	goat				

Across the baskets of fries [fruits], with a goat

B4 Line 8

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10			
et	**c'**	**est**	**comme**	le	chevre	veut	manger	les	frites			
And	**It**	**Is**	**like**	The	Goat	Wants	To eat	The	fries			

And it's like the goat wants to eat the fries [fruits]

B4 Line 9

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11		
mais	l'	homme	n'	accepte	pas.	**Après**	**ca**	il	y	a		
But	The	Man	Net	Accepte	Not.	After	That	It	There	has		

But the man does not accept. After that there is

B4 Line 10

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8					
un	petit	garçon	qui	vient	sur	la	bicyclette					

A small boy who comes on a bike

B4 Line 11

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9				
et	**quand**	il	vient	**aussi**	a	travers	les	frites				
Eeh	When	He	Comes	Also	To	Across	Te	fries				

And when he also comes across the fire [fruits]

B4 Line 12

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10			
il	vole	une…	il	vole	un	panier	**et**	**après**	**ca**			
He	Steals	One	He	Steals	One	Basket	And	After	that			

He steals one...he steals a basket and after that

B4 Line 13

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8					
quand	il	est	en	route	a	quelque	part,					
When	He	Is	In	Road	To	Some	part					

When he is on the way somewhere

B4 Line 14

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10			
quelque	lieu	n'	importe	**où**	il	a	vu	une	fille...			
some	place	not	wherever	where	he	has	seen	a	girl			

Some place, wherever, he saw a girl

B4 Line 15

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
il...	**c'**	**est**	**comme**	il	l'	aime.	**Quelque**	**chose**	**comme**	**ca...**			
He	**It**	**Is**	**like**	He	Her	Likes.	**Some**	**Thing**	**Like**	**that**			

He... it's like he likes her. Something like that

B4 Line 16

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12		
et	il	tombe	par	terre	et	**après**	**ca**	il	…il	y	a		
And	He	Falls	By	Earth	And	After	That	He	It	there	has		

And he falls down and after that there are

B4 Line 17

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9				
les	autres	garçons.	C'	est	les	trois	petits	garçons...				
The	Others	Boys.	It	Is	The	Three	Little	boys				

Other boys; three small boys

B4 Line 18

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12		
les	petits	garçons	qui	viennent	*lui*	aider	**et**	a	cause	de	ca		
the	little	boys	who	come	him	to help	and	in	reason	of	that		

The small boys who come to help him and because of that

B4 Line 19

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
il	les	a	donné	les	fruits	**aussi**.	**Et**	les	garçons	passent			
he	them	has	given	the	fruits	also.	and	the	boys	pass			

He gave them fruits as well. And tyhe boys pass

B4 Line 20

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10				
aussi	a	travers	les	autres	paniers	**aussi**	avec	les	poires				
Also	At	Across	The	Others	Baskets	Also	With	The	pears				

Also across the other baskets with pears

B4 Line 21

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10				
et	**quand**	le	l'	homme	qui	était	sur	l'	arbre...				
And	When	The	The	Man	Who	Was	On	The	tree				

And when the man who was on the tree

B4 Line 22

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
quand	il	descend	il…	il	a	regardé	qu'	il	y	a			
When	He	Descends	He	He	Has	Seen	That	It	There	has			

When he comes down, he... he looked that there is

B4 Line 23

1	2	3	4	5							
un	panier	quelque	part	la .							
A	Basket	Somep	Part	there							
A basket somewhere there											

Data transcription and translation B6

B6 Line 1

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Mmm…	il	y	avait	un	paysan	qui	récolte	*les..*	*des*	poires
Mmm	It	There	Was	A	Farmer	Who	Harvest	The	Some	pears
Mmm, there was a farmer harvesting pears										

B6 Line 2

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
On	les	met	dans	un	un	panier	euh	...a	ce	moment	là	
One	Them	Puts	In	A	A	Basket	Uh	At	That	Moment	there	
Putting them in abasket. Uh, at that time												

B6 Line 3

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10			
Il	y	avait	un	enfant	qui	traverse	la	bas	**et**			
It	There	Was	A	Child	Who	Crosses	There	Below	and			
There was a child crossing there and												

B6 Line 4

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	
les	a	vu	**et**	les	a	volé	et	se	met	sur	son	bicyclette	
them	has	seen	and	them	has	stolen	and	himself	puts	on	the	bicycle	
And saw them and stole them and put them on his bicycle													

B6 Line 5

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9 a	10	11	12	
et	**puis**	il	a	commencé	de	cycler	**quand**	il	vu	une	fille.	
And	Then	He	Has	Began	To	Cycle	When	He	Seen	A	girl	
And then he started to ride when he saw a girl												

B6 Line 6

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
Oui,	**et**	il…	il	était	distrait	il …	était	distrait	par	ca…			
Yes	And	He	He	Was	distracted	He	Was	Distracted	By	that			
Yes, and he, he was distracted. He was distracted by that													

B6 Line 7

1	2	3	4	5	6						
Donc	il	est	tombé	par	terre.						
So	He	Is	Fallen	By	earth						
So he fell down											

B6 Line 8

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Donc	il	y	avait	trois	gens	qui	marchent	la	bas	**aussi**.
so	it	there	was	three	people	who	walk	there	below	also
So there were three people walking there as well										

B6 Line 9

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Ils	*lui*	*a*	vu	**et**	ils	sont	venir…	venus	pour	leur	besoin…
they	to him	has	seen	and	they	are	to come	came	for	their	need
They saw him and they to come ...came for their need											

B6 Line 10

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Oui...	*ils*	*lui*	*a*	aidé	à	ramasser	les	poires
yes	they	to him	has	helped	to	to collect	the	pears
Yes, they helped him to collect the pears								

B6 Line 11

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
et	*il*	*ont…*	*il*	*lui…*	*il*	*leur...*	*ont…*	a	payé
And	He	Has	He	Ti him	He	To them	Have	Has	paid
And he have...he to him...he them...have...has paid [he paid them]									

B6 Line 12

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
pour	remercier…	**oui**…	**parce**	**qu'**	**il**..	il	est…
For	To thank	Yes	By	That	He	He	is
To thank...yes, because he...he is							

B6 Line 13

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
ils	*ont*	*lui*	*aider.*	**Aah**...	**après**	**ca**	ils	ont	commencé
they	are	to him	to help.	aah	after	that	they	have	began
They have helped to him [helped him]. Uh, after that they began									

B6 Line 14

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
à	marcher…	a	quitter	et	le	paysan	*lui*	*a*	*vu*	**et**
to	to walk	to	to leave	and	the	farmer	to him	has	seen	and
To walk, to leave and the farmer *saw to him* [saw him] and										

B6 Line 15

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
il	est	il	est	choqué	de	voir	les	gens	avec
He	Is	He	Is	Shocked	For	To	See	People	with
He is, he is shocked to see the people with									

B6 Line 16

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8					
les	poires	qu'	il	récolte...	il	était	choqué.					
The	Pears	That	He	Harvests	He	Is	shocked					
The pears that he is harvesting...he is shocked												

Data Transcription and Translation-B7

B7 Line 1

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
Aah…	dans	la	clip	j'	ai	vu	**aah**…	un	garçon	qui			
Aah	In	The	Clip	I	Have	Seen	Aah	A	Boy	who			
Uh, in the video clip I saw uh... a boy who													

B7 Line 2

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8				
je	pense	qu'	il	est	traverser	la	route				
I	Think	That	He	Is	To cross	The	road				
I think that he eeh was crossing the road											

B7 Line 3

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8					
ou	le	*garden*,	puis	on	avait	un	fermier...					
Or	The	Garden	Then	We	Had	A	farmer					
Or the garden then we had a farmer												

B7 Line 4

1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
un	fermier	qui	rassemblait	son	*les*	fruits					
A	Farmer	Who	Collected	His	The	fruits					
A farmer who was putting together his fruits											

B7 Line 5

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8				
et	**quand**	il	rassemblait	je	pense	qu'	il				
And	When	He	Collected	I	Think	That	he				
And when he was collecting I think that he											

B7 Line 6

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
n'	était	pas	très	**aah**…	**aah**...	il	n'	avait	pas	regardée…			
Not	Was	Not	Very	Ah	Ah	He	Not	Had	Not	looked			
Was not very uh...uh... he had not looked													

B7 Line 7

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8					
(il n'avait pas fait attention)…	**oui**	il	n'	avait	pas	fait	attention					
(he had not paid attention)	Yes	He	Not	Had	Not	Done	Attention					
(he had not paid attention) yes, he had not paid attention												

B7 Line 8

1	2	3	4	5	6						
puis	le	petit	garçon	est	venu						
Then	The	Little	Boy	Is	come						
Then the little boy came											

B7 Line 9

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10			
et	**puis**	il	a	volé … (rire)...	il	a	volé	les	fruits.			
And	Then	He	Has	Stolen (laughs)	He	Has	Stolen	The	fruits			
And then he stole (laughs). He stole the fruits												

B7 Line 10

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Oui…	**malheureusement**	il	a…	il	a	rencontré	une	petite	fille
Yes	Unfortunately	He	Has	He	Has	Met	A	Little	girl
Yes, unfortunately he has...he met a little girl									

B7 Line 11

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9				
Quand	il	regarderait,	toutes	des	fruits	ils	sont	tombés				
when	he	was looking	all	of the	fruits	they	are	fallen				
When he looked, all the fruits they fell												

B7 Line 12

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8				
et	**puis**	les	autres	deux	garçons	sont	vénus				
And	Then	The	Others	Two	Boys	Are	came				
And then the other two boys came											

B7 Line 13

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9				
pour	lui	aider	**et**	**puis**	il	a	leur	donner				
For	To him	Help	And	Then	He	Has	To them	given				
To help to him [to help him]. Then he gave them												

B7 Line 14

1	2	3	4	5							
a	chaque	un	fruit								
To	Each	A	fruit	(pour dire merci)...							
Each a fruit (to thank them)											

B7 Line 15

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8						
oui…	pour	dire	merci	**et**	**puis**	<u>quand</u>	euh...						
Yes	For	To day	Thanks	And	Then	When	Uh..						
Yes, to thank them and then when uh...													

B7 Line 16

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8					
<u>**Quand**</u>	le	fermière	est	descendre	dans	l'	arbre					
When	The	Farmer	Is	Descended	In	The	tree					
When the farmer came down from the tree												

B7 Line 17

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10				
il	A	trouvé	que	les	fruits	n'	étaient	pas	là.				
He	Has	Found	That	The	Fruits	Not	Werw	Not	there				
He found that the fruits were not there													

B7 Line 18

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12		
Et	**puis**	j'	ai	vu	**aussi**	un	un	homme	qui	avait	**aah**...		
And	Then	I	Have	Seen	Also	A	A	Man	Who	Had	Uh...		
And the I also saw a man who ha uh...													

B7 Line 19

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10				
une	chèvre	un	chèvre...	et	je	pense	qu'	il	a…				
Un	Goat	A	Goat	And	I	Think	That	He	has				
A goat...a goat...and I think he has...													

B7 Line 20

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10				
il	A	**euh**…	essayer	de	résister	de	peut	pas	marcher				
He	Has	Uh	To try	of	To resist	Of	Can	Not	To walk				
He has uh... tried to stop [the goat] from walking													

B7 Line 21

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9				
parce	**que**	**peut**	**être**	il	voulait	des	fruits	**aussi**…				
By	That	Can	Be	He	Wanted	Some	Fruits	also				
Because may be it also wanted the fruits												

B7 Line 22

1	2	3	4	5	6					
peut	**être**…	**oui,**	**c'**	**est**	ca...					
Can	Be	Yes	It	Is	that					
May be... yes, that's it.										

Data Transcription and Translation-B10

B10 Line 1

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9				
Bon !	**euh**…	ce	que	j'	ai	regardé...	**en**	**fait**				
Well	Uh	That	Which	I	Have	Seen	In	fact				
Well, uh...what I saw in fact												

B10 Line 2

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11		
ce	**que**	**je**	**peut**	**dire**	**euh..**	il	y	avait	ce	monsieur..		
That	**Which**	**I**	**Can**	**Say**	**uh**	It	There	Was	This	man		
What I can say uh... that was this man												

B10 Line 3

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
il	y	avait	pas	de	son	**donc**	*je*	*peux*	*pas*	imaginer	le.	nom
it	there	was	not	any	sound	so	i	can	not	to imagine	the	name
There was no sound so I can't imagine his name												

B10 Line 4

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10			
Oui...	il	était	en	train	de	arracher	*je*	*sais*	*pas*			
Yes	He	Was	In	Process	Of	Removing	**I**	**Don't**	**know**			
Yes, he was in the process of removing I don't know												

B10 Line 5

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10			
c'	était	des	pommes…	**et**	**puis**	est	venu	un	mec			
That	Was	Some	Apples	And	Then	Is	Came	A	guy			
[if] it was apples... and then came a guy												

B10 Line 6

1	2	3	4	5	6	7						
en	bicyclette,	avec	un	bicyclette	**et**	**puis**						
On	Bicycle	With	A	Bicycle	And	then						
Riding a bike...with a bike and then												

B10 Line 7

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11		
il	a	pris	un	corbeille	il	s'	en	va	**et**	**puis**		
He	Has	Taken	A	Bin	He	Himself	For	Goes	And	then		
He took a bin. He leaves and then												

B10 Line 8

1	2	3	4	5	6							
dans	la	route,	il	est	tombé.							
In	The	Road	He	Is	fallen							
On the way, he fell												

B10 Line 9

1	2	3	4	5	6						
Puis	il	y	avait	des mecs	partout.						
Then	It	There	Was	Guys	everywhere						
Then there were guys all over											

B10 Line 10

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8				
En	**fait**	ils	sont	venus	**euh**…	les	récupérer…				
In	Fact	They	Are	Came	Uh	Them	To recover				
In fact, they came uh...to collect them [the pears]...											

B10 Line 11

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8				
l'	aider	a	récupérer	les	fruits.	**Puis**	**euh**...				
Him	To help	To	Recover	The	Fruits.	Then	uh				
To helpm him collect the fruits. Then uh...											

B10 Line 12

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10			
il	est	parti...	**Oui**,	la	gentillesse	de	ces	gens	avant			
He	Is	Left	Yes	The	Goodness	Of	These	People	before			
He left. Yes, the goodness of these people before												

B10 Line 13

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10			
de	partir	**donc**,	ca	c'	est	après	la	partie	de...			
Of	To leave	So	That	It	Is	After	The	Leaving	of			
He left...so, that is after he left..												

B10 Line 14

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9			
après	le	départ	de	ce	mec	avec	*le*	bicyclette.			
After	The	Departure	Of	His	Guy	With	The	bicycle			
After the leaving of the guy with the bicycle											

B10 Line 15

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11		
Ils	ont	vu	un	chapeau	**donc**,	il	a	pris	le	chapeau		
They	Have	Seen	A	Hat	So	He	Has	Taken	The	hat		
They saw a hat so he [they] took the hat												

B10 Line 16

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10			
et	**puis**	il	appelle	le	monsieur	et	*l'*	a	donné.			
And	Then	He	Calls	The	Gentleman	And	Him	Has	given			
And then he call [they call] the gentleman and him gave [gave it to him]												

B10 Line 17

1	2	3	4	5	6	7							
Donc	c'	est	l'	aspect	de	gentillesse.							
So	It	Is	The	Aspect	Of	goodness							

So it is the aspect of kindness

B10 Line 18

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9					
Donc	**c'**	**est**	**tout**	ce	que	je	peux	dire.					
So	It	Is	All	That	Which	I	Can	To say					

So that's all that I can say

B10 Line 19

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
En	**fait**	je	ne	peux	pas	dire	s'	il	a	volé..			
In	Fact	I	Not	Can	Not	To say	If	He	Has	stolen			

In fact I cant tell if he stole

B10 Line 20

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
Ben…	**en**	**faite**	**ce**	**que**	**je**	**peux**	**dire**	c'	est	que			
Well	In	Fact	That	Which	I	Can	To say	It	Is	that			

Ell. In fact, what I can say is that

B10 Line 21

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8						
les	trois	garçons	qui	sont	venus	l'	aider…						
The	Three	Boys	Who	Are	Came	Him	To help						

The three boys who came to help him

B10 Line 22

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
donc	c'est	l'	aspect	de	gentillesse,	respect
So	It's	The	Aspect	Of	Goodness	respect

So, its kindness...respect

Data transcription and translation- C1

C1 Line 1

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Oui…	**euhm**…	il	s'	agit	d'	un	film,	**aah**..	sur…				
Yes	Uhm	It	Itself	Concerns	Of	A	Film	Uh	on				

Yes, uh, its about a film uh..on

C1 Line 2

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
le	moisson.	**Je**	**dirais**	il	y	avait	le	thème	moisson.				
the	harvest	i	would say	it	there	was	the	theme	harvest				

Harvesting. I'd say [that] there was the harvest theme

C1 Line 3

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
J'	ai	vu	quelqu'	un	qui	a	grimpé...	il	a				
I	Have	Seen	Some	One	Who	Has	Climbed	He	has				

I saw someone who climbed ...he

C1 Line 4

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
grimpé	un	un	arbre.	Ca	doit	était	un	poirier	et				
Climbed	A	A	Tree	That	Should	Was	A	Pear tree	and				

Climbed a... a tree. That should have was [been] a pear tree and

C1 Line 5

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
euh	qu'	est-	ce	qu'	il	voulait	faire	sur	l'	arbre?'			
Uh	What	Is	It	That	He	Wanted	To do	On	The	tree			

Uh...what did he want to do on the tree?

C1 Line 6

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
il	voulait	ahh	ramasser	les	poires	de	l'	arbre.					
He	Wanted	Uh	To gather	The	Pears	From	The	tree					

He wanted uh...to collect the pears from the tree

C1 Line 7

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Bon,	après	avoir	fini	a	ramasser	les	poires						
Well	After	To have	Finished	To	Collect	The	pears						

Well' after having finished collecting the pears

C1 Line 8

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
de	l'	arbre	**malheureusement**…	**bon,**	il	est..							
From	The	Tree	Unfortunately	Well	He	is							

From the tree, unfortunately, well, he ...

C1 Line 9

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Il	est	descend,	il	a	il	a	mis	tous	les	poires			
He	Is	Descend	He	Has	He	Has	Put	All	The	pears			

He came down. He ...he put all the pears

C1 Line 10

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
dans	un	panier,	et	après	ça	il	est	parti..					
In	A	Basket	And	After	That	He	Is	left					

In a basket and after that he left

C1 Line 11

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
je	pense	qu'	il	est	allé	a	la	maison.	**Malheureusement,**				
i	think	that	he	is	gone	to	the	house	unfortunately				

I think went to the house. Unfortunately,

C1 Line 12

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
en	route	il	est	tombé	*du*	bicyclette	et	tous	les	poires			
On	Road	He	Is	Fallen	From the	Bicycle	And	All	The	pears			

On the way, he fell from the bicycle and all the pears

C1 Line 13

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
étaient	sur	terre...	**ok..**	**aah..**	ses	collègues	sont	arrivées
were	on	ground	okay	uh	his	colleagues	are	arrived

Were on the ground... okek...uh...his friends came

C1 Line 14

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
très	vite,	euh	ils	ont	ramassé	tous	les	poires.					
Very	Fast	Uh	They	Have	Gathered	All	The	pears					

Very fast uh....they gathered all the pears

C1 Line 15

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Ils	ont	remis	dans	le	panier	et	il	a	recommencé	son			
they	have	put back	in	the	basket	and	he	has	restarted	his			

They put them back in the basket and he restarted his

C1 Line 16

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
trajet	d'	aller	a	la	maison.	**Oui,**	c'	était	une	zone	rurale.		
Path	For	To go	To	The	House	Yes	It	Was	A	Zone	rural		

Journey to the house. Yes, it was a rural area

C1 Line 17

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
C'	était	une	zone	rurale,	ca	peut	être	c'	était	à			
It	Was	A	Zone	Rural	That	Can	Be	It	Was	at			

It was a rural area that was maybe

C1 Line 18

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
la	champagne	**je**	**sais**	**pas.**	Ce	n'	est	pas	une	zone			
The	Countryside	**I**	**Know**	**not**	That	Not	Is	Not	A	zone			

in the countryside. I don't know. It's not an

C1 Line 19

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
urbaine	ca	doit	être	à	la	campagne	quelque	part					
urban	it	should	to be	at	the	countryside	some	part					

Urban area. It should be somewhere in the countryside.

C1 Line 20

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
où	il	y	a	les	fermes	peut	être	**et**	**puis**	**oui**			
Where	It	There	Has	The	Farms	Can	To be	And	Then	yes			

Maybe where there are farms and the yes,

C1 Line 21

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
grâce	**à**	l'	esprit	et	a	la	présence	de	ses	camarades,			
Grace	To	The	Spirit	And	To	The	Presence	Of	His	peers			

Thanks to the presence and the spirit of his friends,

C1 Line 22

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
ils	sont	venus	tout	de	suite	**et**	**puis**	ils	ont	continué.			
they	have	come	all	of	follow	and	then	they	have	continued			

They came immediately and then they continued.

C1 Line 23

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Le	garçon	qui	avait	un	bicyclette…	je	n'	avais	pas				
The	Boy	Who	Had	A	Bicycle	I	Not	Had	not				

The boy who had a bicycle, I had not

C1 Line 24

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
imageant	qu'	il	était	un	voleur…	moi	j'	ai	pensé				
Imagining	That	He	Was	A	Thief	Me	I	Have	thought				

Imagined that he was a thief. As for me, I'd thought

C1 Line 25

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
qu'	il	etait	un…	**aah**	qu'	il	faisait	partie	de	la			
That	He	Was	A	Uh	That	He	Did	Part	Of	the			

That he was a....uh... that he was part of the

C1 Line 26

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Famille,	**mais**	pour	**quoi**	il	est	tombé	de	la					
Family	But	For	What	He	Is	Fallen	From	the					

Family. But the reason why he fell from the

C1 Line 27

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
bicyclette…	je	n'	ai	pas	bien	compris.							
Bicycle	I	Not	Have	Not	Well	understood							

Bicycle, I didn't understand well

C1 Line 28

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Mais	**si**	**vraiment**	il	était	voleur,	**bon**	**quand**	la					
But	If	Truly	He	Was	Thief	Well	When	the					

But if he was really a thief, well, when the

C1 Line 29

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
bicyclette	est	tombé	les	autres	sont	arrivés	**mais**						
Bicycle	Has	Fallen	The	Others	Are	Arrived	but						

Bicycle fell, the others arrived but

C1 Line 30

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
ils	ne	l'	ont	pas	attaqués.	Tous	ces	personnes,					
they	not	him	have	not	attacked	all	these	people					

| They did not attack him. They all |

C1 Line 31

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	14
ils	ont	travaillé	ensemble.	Ils	ont	ramassé	les	poiriers,	
they	have	worked	together	they	have	gathered	the	pears	

| Worked together. They gathered the pears, |

C1 Line 32

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
ils	ont	remis	dans	le	panier…	Je	n'	ai	pas	vu			
They	Have	Returned	In	The	Basket	I	Not	Have	Not	seen			

| They put them back in the basket. I did not see |

C1 Line 33

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
une	situation	ou	ils	se	disputaient	qui	a	volé,
a	situation	where	they	themselves	disputed	who	has	stolen

| Any instance where they quarrelled about who had stolen, |

C1 Line 34

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
qui	es-	tu,	d'	ou	viens-	tu…	J'	ai	vu	une	assemble
who	are	you	from	where	come	you	i	have	seen	a	gathering

| [or] Who are you, where are you from... I saw a gather |

C1 Line 35

1	2	3	4	5	6
une	assemble	(une assemblage de personnes)…	c'	est	ça.
A	Gathering		That	Is	it

| A gather... a gathering of people... That's it. |

Data transcription and translation C3

C3 Line 1

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Eeah...	j'	ai	vu	un	homme	qui	ramasse	des	des	poires			
	i	have	seen	a	man	who	gathers	some	some	pears			

| Uh, I saw a man collecting some...some pears |

C3 Line 2

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
d'	un	arbre…	d'	un	arbre	**et**	**puis**	il	y	a...	un		
From	A	Tree	Of	A	Tree	And	Then	It	There	Has	a		

| From a tree, from a tree and then there is a |

C3 Line 3

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
gamant	qui	vient	et	il	vole	les	fruits	et	puis	il	est		
Boy	Who	Comes	And	He	Steals	The	Fruits	And	Then	He	is		

Boy who comes and he steals the fruits and then he is

C3 Line 4

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
en	velo.	**Donc**	**quand**	il	part	il	rencontre	une	fille	qui...			
On	Bike	So	When	He	Leaves	He	Meets	A	Girl	who			

On abike. So when he leaves he meets a girl who....

C3 Line 5

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
et	il	a...	il (rire).	Il.	rencontre	une	fille	et	il ..	il..	la	regarde	
And	He	Has	He		He	Meets	A	Girl	And	He	He	Her	looks

And he has...he (laughs). He meets a girl and he…he looks at her

C3 Line 6

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Et	**quand**	il	la	regarde	fixement	il…	chute.						
And	When	He	Her	Looks	Fixedly	He	falls						

And when he looks at her keenly, he falls.

C3 Line 7

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Il	est	distrait,	et	**quand**	il	tombe	y	a	des	autres			
He	Is	Distracted	And	When	He	Falls	There	Has	Some	others			

He is distracted and when he falld, there are other

C3 Line 8

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
gammas	là	bas	qui...	*lui*	aide	a	ramasser	les	poires
boys	there	below	who	to him	help	to	to collect	the	pears

Boys over there who help *to him* in collecting the pears

C3 Line 9

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
et	il…	j'	ai	vu	qu'	il	oublie	son	chapeau	**donc**			
And	He	I	Have	Seen	That	Ie	Forgets	His	Hat	so			

Anh he...I saw that he forgot his hat so

C3 Line 10

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
un	gamma	Lui…	**il**	**fait**	**quoi**	c'est	(l'étudiant siffle).						

A guy ...does what....its (whistles)

C3 Line 11

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Il	siffle	et	lui	donne	son	chapeau...	et...	le	gamma				
he	whistles	and	to him	give	his	hat		and	the	boy			

He whistles and gives him his hat, and the guy

C3 Line 12

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
qui	est	en	vélo,	il	donne	chaque	gamma	un	fruit..	pour			
Who	Is	On	Bike	He	Gives	Each	Gouy	A	Fruit	for			

On the bike gives to each guy a fruit to

C3 Line 13

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
dire	merci.	**Et**	**donc** ...	je	pense	que	c'	est	tout!				
To say	Thanks	Ans	So	I	Think	That	It	Is	all				

Thank them. And so , I think that's all

C3 Line14

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Oh!	**oui!**	**donc,**	l'	homme	**quand**	il	descend	de	l'	arbre			
oh	yes	so	the	man	when	he	descends	from	the	tree			

Oh ! yes ! so, that man, when he gets off the tree

C3 Line 15

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
il	ne	vu	pas…	il	ne	voit	pas	les	poires...	dans	le	panier,	
He	Not	Seen	Not	He	Not	See	Not	The	Pears	In	The	basket	

He does not seen... he does not see the pears in the basket

C3 Line 16

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
donc	il	est	choqué.	**Où**	sont	mes	poires?						
So	He	Is	Shocked.	Where	Are	My	Pears?						

So he is shocked. Where are my pears?

C3 Line 17

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
et	**donc**	les	garçons	qui	eeh...	qui	rencontre	le	gamma				
and	so	the	boys	who	eh	who	meet	the	guy				

And so the boys who uh, who meet the guy

C3 Line 18

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
qui	était	en	vélo	il	marchent	la	bas	et	l'	homme...	mm…
who	was	on	bike	he	walks	there	below	and	the	man	mm

Who was on the bike walks over there and the man mm…

C3 Line 19

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
il	est	choqué	parce	que	la	gamma	**euh**...						
He	Is	Shocked	By	That	The	Goy	Uh...						

Is shocked since the guy uh...

C3 Line 20

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
les	gammas	mangent	les	poires	là.								
The	Boys	Eat	The	Pears	there								

The guys are eating those pears

C3 Line 21

1	2	3	4	5	6	7							
(Tu as très bien raconté l'histoire)	**Oh,**	merci.	**Oui**,	j'	ai	compris							
(you narrated the story so well)	Oh	Thanks	Yes	I	Have	understood							
(you narrated the story so well). Oh, thanks. Yes, I understood													

C3 Line 22

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
mais	l'	oral	c'	est	un	peu	difficile,	**tu**	**sais**.				
But	The	Oral	It	Is	A	Bit	Difficult	You	know				
But oral is a little difficult, you know.													

Data Transcription and translation C10

C10 Line 1

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Ah..	je	j'	ai	vu	mmm…	ahhm..	un	personne	qui
Ah..	i	i	have	seen	mm...	Ah mm	a	person	who
Uh, I...i saw mm... uh someone who									

C10 Line 2

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
qui	ahhm..	collectait	les	les	les	poires	de	l'	arbre
who	Ah mm	collected	the	the	the	pears	from	the	tree
Who uh was collecting the, the, the pears from the tree									

C10 Line 3

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
et	un	un	garçon	a	volé	vole	les	les	poires	..et	et	et
and	a	a	boy	has	stolen	steals	the	the	pears	and	and	and
And a. A boy stole the, the pears and, and, and												

C10 Line 4

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
quand	le	le	garçon	voit	un	un	fruit	il	tom..	il	tombe…
when	the	the	boy	sees	a	a	fruit	he	Fal..	he	falls
When the, the boy sees a, a fruit he fall, he falls											

C10 Line 5

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
et	**puis**	il	tombe	et	les	poires.
and	**then**	he	falls	and	the	Pears.
And then he falls and the pears						

C10 Line 6

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
C'	Est	un	autre	garçon	aide	aide	pour	aide	pour	ramasser	les	fruits.
it	Is	a	other	boy	helps	helpd	for	helps	for	To collect	the	fruits
Its another boy [who] helpsm, helps to…helps to collect the fruits												

C10 Line 7

1	2	3	4
C'	Est	les	poires…
it	Is	the	Pears...
Its pears.			

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Oui	. il	est	tombé,	**et**	**après**	**ça**	il	y	a	un	groupe
yes	he	has	Fallen,	**and**	**after**	**that**	it	ther	has	a	group
Yes, he fell and after that there is a group											

Data Transcription and Translation-D2

D2 Line 1

1	2	3	4								
oui	oui	biensur	(je peux raaconter l'histoire)								
yes	yes	sure	(I can to narrate the story)								
Yes, yes, I can narrate the story											

D2 Line 2

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Il	y	a	un	homme.	Il	est	il	est	dans	un	arbre,
it	ther	has	a	Man.	he	is	he	is	in	a	Tree,
Thre is a man. He is, he is in a tree											

D2 Line 3

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
sur	le	point	de	*racolter*	des	fruits.
on	the	point	of	To harvest	some	fruits
At the point of harvesting fruits						

D2 Line 4

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Peut	etre	des	avocats	ou	quelque	chose	là.
cam	To be	some	avocadoes	or	some	thing	there
Maybe avocadoes or something there							

D2 Line 5

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
A	la	même	fois	il	*a*	*collectionné*	les	fruits,					
at	the	same	time	he	has	collected	the	friuts					
At the same time he was collecting the fruits													

D2 Line 6

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
il	y	a	un	autre	homme	qui…	qui	a	passé	là	bas
it	There	has	a	other	man	who	who	has	passed	there	below
There is another man who...who passed over there											

D2 Line 7

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
avec	un	chèvre	**..oui**	**et..**	**après**	**ça**	il	y	a	..il	y	a
with	a	goat	**yes**	**and**	**after**	**that**	it	there	has	it	there	has

With agoat. Yes, and after that there is, there is

D2 Line 8

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
un	petit	garçon	qui	vient	avec	un	bicyclette
a	small	boy	who	comes	with	A	bicycle

A little boy who comes with a bicycle

D2 Line 9

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
et	a	la	même	fois	il	*collectionnait*	un	sac	des	fruits
and	at	The	Same	time	he	collected	a	bag	of	fruits

And at the same time he was collecting a bag of fruits

D2 Line 10

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Oui…	Et…	(il a vole le sac?)	…peut	être	il	a	volé						
Yes…	and…	(did he steal the bag)	…can	To be	He	Has	stolen						

Yes, and (he stole the bag?)...maybe he stole

D2 Line 10

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
parce	que	l'	homme	était	*haut*	*de*	*l'*	*arbre*
by	that	the	man	was	up	from	the	tree

Because the man was up [on] the tree

D2 Line 12

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
a	**la**	**même**	**fois**	il	a	volé	Peut	être	il	a	volé.		
at	the	same	time	he	has	stolen	can	Be	he	has	stolen		

At the same time he stole. Maybe he stole.

D2 Line 13

1	2	3	4	5	6	7 peut	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
il	a	volé	les	fruits.	**Oui..**	**Et**	**Oui…**	donc,					
he	has	stolen	the	Fruits.	**Yes..**	**and**	yes	so					

He stole the fruits. Yes, and yes, so

D2 Line 14

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
cet	Garçon	ehh…	est	sur	sa	route..	*yeah…*	et	il	rencontre			
this	boy	Eh	is	on	his	way	*Yaeh…*	and	he	meets			

This boy is uh. Is on his way…yeah..and he meets

D2 Line 15

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
un	autre	garçon	ou	un	autre	enfant	sur	un	bicyclette.				
a	other	boy	or	a	other	child	on	a	bicycle				
Another boy or another child on a bike													

D2 Line 16

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Et	il	re..	il	regarde	a	la	**meme**	fois	et	il	perd		
and	he	loo	he	looks	at	the	same	time	and	he	looes		
And he loo...he looks [at the child] as well and he looes													

D2 Line 17

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
l'	attention	et	**malheureusement**	*elle..*	*elle*	*a*	*tombée.*
the	attention	and	unfortunately	*she*	*she*	has	fallen
Attention. Unfortunately, *she* fell							

D2 Line 18

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Oui	. il	est	tombé,	**et**	**après**	**ça**	il	y	a	un	groupe
yes	he	has	Fallen,	**and**	**after**	**that**	it	ther	has	a	group
Yes, he fell and after that there is a group											

D2 Line 19

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
de	trios	garçons	qui	le	aide	à	collectionner	les	fruits.
of	three	boys	who	him	help	to	To collect	the	friuts
Of three boys who help in collecting the fruits.									

D2 Line 20

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Après	**ça**	ils	le	aide…	ils	le	aide	a	installer	le	sac		
After	**that**	they	him	help	they	him	help	to	To install	the	bag		
After taht they help him to put back the bag													

D2 Line 21

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
sur	la	bicyclette…	*yeah*	..et	le	le	garçon						
on	the	bicycle	*yeah*	and	the	the	boy						
On the bicycle. Yeah, and the...the boy													

D2 Line 22

1	2	3	4	5	6
ne	semble	qu'	il	était	blessé
not	seems	not	hr	was	hurt
Does not seem to have been hurt					

Data transcription and translation -D8

D8 Line 1

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Dans	la	vidéo	je	vois	une	homme	récolter	les	fruits				
In	The	Video	I	Think	A	Man	Harvesting	The	fruits				
In the video, I see a man harvesting fruits													

D8 Line 2

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
dans	un	arbre..	ah..	et	les	autres	hommes	passaient
In	A	Tree	Ah	And	The	Others	Men	Were passing
In a tree, uh, and other men were passing								

D8 Line 3

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
avec	le	chev..mouton	Quelque	chose..	*yeah,*	et							
With	The	Goa...sheep	Some	Thing	*yeah,*	and							
With a goa...sheep…something. Yeah, and													

D8 Line 4

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
autres	*hommes*	*passait*	*et*	*cuillère*	*les*	*fruits*
Others	Men	Were passing	And	To pick	The	fruits
And other men were passing and picked the fruits						

D8 Line 5

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
et	*dans*	*dans*	*elle*	*partit,*	*elle*	*tombait*	*avec*	*le*	*voleur..*				
And	In	In	She	Left	She	Was falling	With	The	thief				
And in...in..she left and fell with the thief													

D8 Line 6

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
oui...	**yaeh,**	**oui,**	le	petit	garçon	aidait	le	garçon	qui	*tomber*
Yes	Yeah	Yes	The	Little	Boy	Helped	The	Boy	Who	fell
Yes, yeah, yes, the samll boy helped the boy who fell										

D8 Line 7

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
C'	**est**	**tout.**											
That	Is	all											
That's all													

Data transcription and translation- E2

E2 Line 1

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Au	debut	il	y	a …	je	vois	quelqu'	un …	un	homme			
At the	Start	It	There	Has	I	See	Some	One	A	man			
At the star, ther is...i see a man													

E2 Line 2

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
dans	peut	être	il	était	cultive…	cultivateur…	**oui**,						
In	Can	Be	He	Was	Cultiv...	Cultivator	yes						
In...maybe he was a cultiva... cultivator...yes													

E2 Line 3

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
il	prend	des	fruits	de	l'	arbre	et	il…	il	mis	les	fruits …	
He	Takes	Some	Fruits	Of	The	Tree	And	He	He	Put	The	fruits	
He takes fruits from the tree and he...he put the fruits													

E2 Line 4

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
il	mets	les	fruits	dans	un…	une	sac…	ah…	**donc**…	ah…	il	y	
He	Puts	The	Fruits	In	A	A	Bag	Ah	So	Ah	It	There	
He puts the fruits in a...a bag...uh...so...ah...there is													

E2 Line 5

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
ah	un…	un	vélo	il	a	un	vélo	le	fils	prend	le	sac	et	il…
ah	A	A	Bike	He	Has	A	Bike	The	Son	Takes	The	Bag	And	he
Uh...a... a bike. He has a bike, the son takes the bag and he…														

E2 Line 6

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
il	quitte…	ah…	**donc**	**après**	**ca…**	ah...	il	rencontre	une	fille			
He	Leaves	Ah	So	Aftre	that	Ah	He	Meets	A	girl			
He leaves...ah...so after that , uh, he meets a girl													

E2 Line 7

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
où	c'	est	un	garçon,	je	ne	sais	pas…	ah…	il			
Or	It	Is	A	Boy	I	Not	Know	Not	Ah	he			
Ou is it a boy? I don't know. Uh, he													

E2 Line 8

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
tombe	avec	son	vélo	et	les	fruits	tombent	**aussi**.					
Falls	With	His	Bike	And	The	Fruits	Fall	also					
Falls with his and the fruits also fall													

E2 Line 9

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
ah…	le	garçon	ou	**peut**	**etre**	la	fille	elle	quitte	**donc**			
Ah	The	Boy	Or	Can	To be	The	Gilr	She	Leaves	so			
Ah...the boy or maybe the girl, she leaves so													

E2 Line 10

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
il	y	autres	gens…	le s	garçons…	plus	un	*d'*	*eux…*				
There are other people...the boys plus one of them													

E2 Line 11

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
il	vient	et	il	lui	aide	avec	aah…						
He	Comes	And	He	Him	Helps	With	ah						
He comes and helps *to him* [him]													

E2 Line 12

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
la	collecte	des	fruits	dans	la	terre …	de	la	terre.
there	Collect	Some	Fruits	In	The	Ground	From	The	ground
Collect the fruits on the ground...from the ground.									

E2 Line 13

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Apres	**ca**	il	quitte	et	les	garcons	quittent	**mais**	après	ca
After	That	he	Leaves	And	The	Boys	Leave	But	After	that
He leaves and the boys leave but after that										

E2 Line 14

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
les	garçons	qui	l'	aident	a…	il	voit	*que*	*il*	aah	…il		
The	Boys	Who	Him	Help	Ah	He	Sees	That	He	Ah	he		
The boys helping him uh... he sees that he uh…he													

E2 Line 15

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
a	laissé	son…	son	chapeau	aah…	un	chapeau...	*son.*					
Has	Left	His	His	Hat	Ah	A	Hat	his					

Left his hat uh...a hat...his.

E2 Line 16

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Ils	sont	très	gentils	**donc**	il…	il	*a*	*prendre*	le	chapeau
They	Are	Very	Good	So	He	He	Has	To take	The	hat

They are very kind so he [they]…hr [they] has to take [took] the hat

E2 Line 17

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
et	il	*a*	*lui*	donné	le	chapeau	cet	homme	et	après	ca
And	He	Has	To him	Given	The	Hat	This	Man	And	After	that

And he [they] gave him the hat, that man. And after that

E2 Line 18

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
le	garçon	est	très	gentil	et	le	cultivateur						
The	Boy	Is	Very	Good	And	The	cultivator						

The boy is very kind and the farmer

E2 Line 19

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
est	très	gentil	**aussi**.	Il	donne	à	ces	garçons	les	fruits.			
Ans	Very	Nice	Also	He	Gives	To	These	Boys	The	fruits			

Is very kind too. He give these boys the fruits

E2 Line 20

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Chaque.	garçon	un	fruit.	Il	partage								
Each	Boy	A	Fruit	He	shares								

Each boy a fruit. He shares

E2 Line 21

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
c'	est	un	acte	de	gentillesse	dans	le	film	et	**aussi**			
It	Is	An	Act	Of	Goodness	In	The	Film	And	also			

Its an act of kindness in this film and also

E2 Line 22

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
dans	la	situation	ou	le	film	ou	le	garçon	qui	a	cassé ..		
In	The	Situation	Or	The	Film	Or	The	Boy	Who	Has	broken		

In context, or in the film, where [when] the boy who broke …

E2 Line 23

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
le	garçon	a	tombé.	C'	est	un	acte	de …					
The	Boy	Has	Fallen	It	Is	An	Act	of					

The boy fell. Its an act of

E2 Line 24

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
ce	n'	est	pas	gentil	là	**mais**	c'	est	comme	la	vie.		
This	Not	Is	Not	Nice	There	But	It	Is	Like	The	life		
Its not nice there, but that's how life													

E2 Line 25

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Dans	la	vie	il	y	a	les	gens	qui	sont	tres …			
In	The	Life	It	Thre	Has	The	People	Who	Are	very			
In life ther are people who are very...													

E2 Line 26

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
qui	ne	sont	pas	bons	a	vous	**mais**	**aussi**	dans	le	chemin		
Who	Not	Are	Not	Good	To	You	But	Also	In	The	way		
Who are not good to you but also on the way													

E2 Line 27

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
on	rencontre	les	gens	qui	sont	gentils	qui	peuvent	vous	aider.
One	To meet	The	Boy	Who	Are	Nice	Who	Can	You	To help
We meet people who are kind, who can help us										

Data trasnsctiption and translation F1

F1 Line 1

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Aah,	**premièrement**,	j'	ai	vu...	un	garçon…							
Ah	Firstly	I	Have	Seen	A	boy							
Uh, to begin with, i saw a boy													

F1 Line 2

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
et	j'	ai	vu...	il	y	quelqu'	un	qui	est	a	l'	arbre,	
And	I	Have	Seen	It	There	Some	One	Who	Is	Has	The	tree	
An di saw there is someone who is at the tree													

F1 Line 2

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
qui	je ne	connais	pas	comment…	yeah…	il	y	a					
Who	I not	Know	Not	How	Yeah	It	There	has					
Who i dont know how...yeah...there are													

F1 Line 3

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
les	fruits,	qui	prendre	les	fruits…	**mais**	quelqu'	un	vient
The	Fruits	Who	To take	The	Fruits	but	Some	One	comes
Fruits. Who to take [takes] the fruits...but someone comes									

F1 Line 4

1	2	3		4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
avec	le	bicyclette.		Il	vole.	Il	vole	les,	les…	les				
With	The	Bicycle		He	Steals	He	Steals	The	The	The				

Witha bicycle. He steals. He steals the...the...the…

F1 Line 5

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Il	y	a	Quelqu	un	qui	vient	et	il	vole	partie	de	les	fruits.
It	Ther	Has	Some	One	Who	Comes	And	He	Steals	Part	Of	The	fruits

There is someone who comes and he steals some of the fruits

F1 Line 6

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Apres	*il*	*vient*	*arriver*	*avec*	*un*	*bicyclette…*	*et*	*en*	*train*	*d'*	*aller*	*il*
After	He	Comes	To arrive	With	A	Bicycle	And	In	Process	Of	To go	he

After coming with a bike, while going he

F1 Line 7

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
est	un	accident.	Il	a	un	accident	et	les	les	fruits,			
And	An	Accident	He	Has	An	Accident	And	The	The	fruits			

Is [has] an accident. He has an accident and the...the fruits,

F1 Line 8

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
après	ca	il	y	a	quelqu'	un	qui	vient	avec	la	bicyclette
Aftre	That	It	There	Has	Some	One	Who	Comes	With	The	bicycle

After that, ther eis someone who comes with a bicycle

F1 Line 9

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
et	c'	est	la r	voleur.	Pendant	la…	en	train	d'	arrive			
and	this	is	the	Thief	during	the	in	process	of	arrive			

And it is the thief. As he came

F1 Line 10

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
en	train	de…	de…	bouger	de	la	l'	arbre					
In	Process	Of	Of	Moving	From	The	The	tree					

While moving from...from the tree

F1 Line 11

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
qui	est…	ou	est	les	fruits,	et	vouleur	et	sont	volé			
Who	Is	Where	Is	The	Fruits	And	Thief	Ah	Are	stolen			

That is where the fruits are, and the thief, and are stolen

F1 Line 12

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
il	est	l'	accident	là.	Apres	ça	il	y	les	autres	qui	viennent
He	Is	The	Accident	There	After	That	It	There	The	Others	Who	come

He is the accident there. After that, there are others who come

F1 Line 13

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
et	l'	aider.	Apres	l'	aider,	il	y	a	les	autres	qui	viennent
And	Him	To help	After	Him	To help	It	There	Has	The	Others	Who	come
And to help him [help him]. After helping him, there are others who come

F1 Line 14

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
l'	aider,	ils	sont	aah…	les	gens	qui…	qui	l'	aideer	je	pense
Him	To help	They	Are	Ah	The	People	Who	Who	Him	To help	I	think
Help him. They are uh...the people who ...who help him, I think

F1 Line 15

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
aah,	ils	sont	aah,	ils	ont	3.	**Yeah...**	**apres**	**ca,**				
Ah	They	Are	Ah	They	Are	Three	**Yeah**	After	that				
Uh, they are uh...three. **yeah**...after that

F1 Line 16

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
moi	je	ne	connais	pas	que	parce	que						
Me	I	Not	Know	Not	That	By this	that						
Me i dont know because

F1 Line 17

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
après	l'	aider ..	il	se	donne…	il	se	donne	trois	fruits	seulement
After	Him	To help	Hee	Himself	Gives	He	Himslef	Gives	three	Fruits	only
After the help, he give himself [them] only three fruits.

F1 Line 18

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Moi	je	sais	qui	il	est	volee	**et**	il	donne	trois	seulement.		
Me	I	Know	Who	He	Is	Stolen	And	He	Gives	Three	only		
Me, i know who he has stolen and he gives three only

F1 Line 19

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Apres	**ca**	il	y	a	les	deux…	les	trois..	les	trois	qui..	qui…
After	That	It	There	Has	The	Two	The	Three	The	Three	Who	who
After that there are the two...the three...the three who...who

F1 Line 20

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
il	aider	**et**	la	voler	vient. ..	vient	a	cote	de…	de	l'	arbre	
He	To help	And	The	Thief	Comes	Comes	To	Next	Of	Of	The	tree	
Help[him] and the thief comes...comes near the tree

F1 Line 21

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
qui	qui	les	fruits	a	volee.	Et	il	finit... (c'est fini comme ca)…					
Who	Who	The	Fruits	Has	Stolen	And	he	Finishes (it is finished like that)					
Who…who the fruits has stolen, and it ends. (it is end like that)													

F1 Line 22

1	2	3
C'	est	fini.
It	Is	finished
It ends		

Appendix V: RST Analysis Sample

7t translation 9 all again.rs3

File   Structurer   Options   Help

RST File:
Relations File: C:/Users/USER/Downloads/RSTTool345/Relation-Sets/ClassicMT.rel

| Text | **Structurer** | Relations | Statistics |

Modes

Link

Unlink

Collapse/Expand

Actions

Add Span

Add MultiNuc

Add Schema

Save PS

Save PDX

Print Canvas

Undo

Redo

Orientation

1 - Span — Uh ...

2 - Span — I saw an agriculture [farmer] picking pear fruits

3 - Span — and a man was passing by with a goat

4 - Span — and then a boy was coming with

5 - Span — .. ahh ...

6 - Span — a theft.

7 - Span — And he stopped

8 - Span — and he's been on a bus [bike] ever since, he fell

9 - Span — and three boys were helping him pick the fruit

10 - Span - ...

11 - Span - and ... he is rewarded as he is given his hat

12 - Span - and... hat.

13 - Span - The basket went up and found his missing fruit,

14 - Span - and then he saw three boys eating similar fruit ...

15 - Span - After the farmer went up and he was

16 - Span - ..

17 - Span - he was shocked because he saw boys eating fruits.

Data Excerpt C9 Span Analysis

7⅙ translation 9 all again.rs3

File   Structurer   Options   Help

RST File:
Relations File: C:/Users/USER/Downloads/RSTTool345/Relation-Sets/ClassicMT.rel

| Text | **Structurer** | Relations | Statistics |

Modes

Link

Unlink

Collapse/Expand

Actions

Add Span

Add MultiNuc

Add Schema

Save PS

Save PDX

Print Canvas

Undo

Redo

Orientation

1 - Span — Uh ...

2 - Span — I saw an agriculture [farmer] picking pear fruits

3 - Span — and a man was passing by with a goat

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5 - Span — .. ahh ...

6 - Span — a theft.

7 - Span — And he stopped

8 - Span — and he's been on a bus [bike] ever since, he fell

9 - Span — and three boys were helping him pick the fruit

10 - Span – ...

11 - Span – and ... he is rewarded as he is given his hat

12 - Span – and... hat.

13 - Span – The basket went up and found his missing fruit,

14 - Span – and then he saw three boys eating similar fruit ...

15 - Span – After the farmer went up and he was

16 - Span – ..

17 - Span – he was shocked because he saw boys eating fruits.

Data Excerpt C9 Span Orientation

Data Excerpt C9 Coherence Relations Analysis (1)

Data Excerpt C9 Coherence Relations Analysis (2)

Data Excerpt C9 Rst Statistical Analysis


```
translation 9 all again.rs3
File   Structurer   Options   Help

                                    RST File:
Text | Structurer | Relations | Statistics    Relations File:    C:/Users/USER/Downloads/RSTTool345/Relation-Sets/ClassicMT.rel

   Type:  Descriptive            Show Results

   Include:  RST Only            Save Results

   Count Multinuclear Nodes:  Once Only


   Relation                    N      Mean      S^N:N^S

Total Relations: 22 (RST Only, Counting Multinucs: Once Only)
   Background                  1      4.5%        1:0
   Disjunction                 5     22.7%
   Evaluation                  1      4.5%        0:1
   Evidence                    1      4.5%        0:1
   Justify                     1      4.5%        0:1
   Sequence                    1      4.5%
   top                        12     54.5%
   ----------------------------------------
```

Appendix VI: Research Authorisation Document I
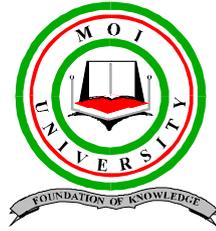
MOI UNIVERSITY

(ISO 9001:2008 CERTIFIED)

School of Arts and Social Sciences

Department of Linguistics and Foreign Languages

P.O. Box 3100-0100, Eldoret

April 9, 2018

The Permanent Secretary

Ministry of Science and Technology, Nairobi, Kenya

Dear Sir/Madam,

Re: **Letter of Support in Application for a Research Permit – Opiyo Marianne Martha Mambo**

We hereby acknowledge that Opiyo M. Martha Mambo-SASS/D.PHIL/LIN/06/15 is a graduate student enrolled in the PhD program at the department of Linguistics and Foreign languages. Martha has successfully completed her course work, and proposal presentation ready to commence her field work on her proposed research title: *Investigating Discourse Marker Use in Oral Communication among Learners of French in Kenya*. We kindly request that you issue her a research permit to enable her proceed to the field for data collection will be highly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Dr Justin Sikuku, Head of Department

Appendix VII: Research Authorisation Document II
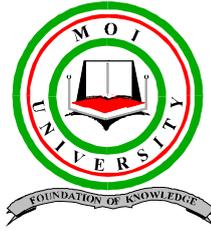
MOI UNIVERSITY

(ISO 9001:2008 CERTIFIED)

School of Arts and Social Sciences

Department of Linguistics and Foreign Languages

P.O. Box 3100-0100, Eldoret

April 9, 2018

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Dear Sir/Madam,

Re: **Introducing Opiyo Marianne Martha Mambo**

We hereby acknowledge that Opiyo M. Martha Mambo-SASS/D.PHIL/LIN/06/15 is a graduate student enrolled in the PhD program at the department of Linguistics and Foreign languages. Martha has successfully completed her course work, and proposal presentation ready to commence her field work on her proposed research title: *Investigating Discourse Marker Use in Oral Communication among Learners of French in Kenya.* Any form of support accorded her to enable her collect data for the proposed research is highly appreciated. .

Sincerely,

Dr Justin Sikuku,

Head of Department

Appendix VIII: Research Authorisation Document III

NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE,
TECHNOLOGY AND INNOVATION

Telephone:+254-20-2213471,
2241349,3310571,2219420
Fax:+254-20-318245,318249
Email: dg@nacosti.go.ke
Website : www.nacosti.go.ke
When replying please quote

NACOSTI Upper Kabete
Off Waiyaki Way
P.O. Box 30623-00100
NAIROBI-KENYA

Ref No. **NACOSTI/P/18/35429/23218**   Date **20th June, 2018**

Marianne Martha Opiyo
Moi University
P.O Box 3900-30100
ELDORET

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Following your application for authority to carry out research on *"Investigating discourse marker use in oral communication among learners of French in Kenya"* I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to undertake research in **Uasin Gishu, Nairobi, Kakamega and Kisumu Counties** for the period ending **8th June, 2019.**

You are advised to report to **the County Commissioners and the County Directors of Education, Uasin Gishu, Nairobi, Kakamega and Kisumu Counties** before embarking on the research project.

Kindly note that, as an applicant who has been licensed under the Science, Technology and Innovation Act, 2013 to conduct research in Kenya, you shall deposit **a copy** of the final research report to the Commission within **one year** of completion. The soft copy of the same should be submitted through the Online Research Information System.
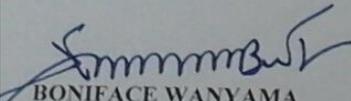
BONIFACE WANYAMA
FOR: DIRECTOR-GENERAL/CEO

Copy to:

The County Commissioner
Uasin Gishu County.

The County Director of Education
Uasin Gishu County.

National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation is ISO9001:2008 Certified

Appendix IX: Research Authorisation Document IV

CONDITIONS

1. The License is valid for the proposed research, research site specified period.
2. Both the Licence and any rights thereunder are non-transferable.
3. Upon request of the Commission, the Licensee shall submit a progress report.
4. The Licensee shall report to the County Director of Education and County Governor in the area of research before commencement of the research.
5. Excavation, filming and collection of specimens are subject to further permissions from relevant Government agencies.
6. This Licence does not give authority to transfer research materials.
7. The Licensee shall submit two (2) hard copies and upload a soft copy of their final report.
8. The Commission reserves the right to modify the conditions of this Licence including its cancellation without prior notice.

REPUBLIC OF KENYA

NACOSTI
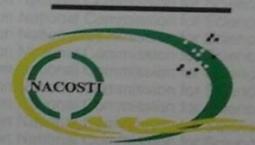
National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation

RESEARCH CLEARANCE PERMIT

Serial No.A 19029

CONDITIONS: see back page

THIS IS TO CERTIFY THAT:
MS. MARIANNE MARTHA OPIYO of MOI UNIVERSITY, 0-30100 Eldoret, has been permitted to conduct research in Uasin-Gishu, Nairobi, Kakamega, and Kisumu Counties

on the topic: INVESTIGATING DISCOURSE MARKER USE IN ORAL COMMUNICATION AMONG LEARNERS OF FRENCH IN KENYA

for the period ending:
8th June, 2019

Permit No : NACOSTI/P/18/35429/23218
Date Of Issue : 20th June,2018
Fee Recieved :Ksh 2000
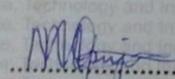
Applicant's Signature

Director General
National Commission for Science, Technology & Innovation