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Emerging Forms of Communication in Contemporary Advertising Discourse

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Abstract:

The slogan represents the most important linguistic element in advertising texts. In that, an advertising slogan serves to persuade the target receiver to purchase the product that is advertised. The present paper focuses on advertising slogans promoting international products in the Arab Gulf. The researcher compiled a corpus consisting of 100 parallel pairs of English and Arabic magazine advertisements promoting luxury and non-luxury products. The objective of the study is to detect whether English or Arabic is predominantly used to formulate contemporary international advertising slogans in Arabic magazines. Comprehensive statistical operations including frequency distribution, descriptive statistics and inferential statistics were conducted. The quantitative study revealed that English is the most commonly used language to formulate advertising slogans promoting international products in Arabic periodicals. The predominance of the English language in Arabic print advertising may be due to the phenomenon of globalization. Advertisers may intentionally keep advertising slogans in English in Arabic magazines to reflect the foreignness and high quality of the products that are advertised.

Key Words: advertising, advertising slogan, international advertising, standardisation, adaptation, localisation, globalization

1. The Emergence of international advertising

According to Guidère (2008), international advertising is a contemporary phenomenon which results from "globalization" (p.29). He further asserts that the opening of international borders facilitated the exchange of international products and gave rise to international advertising (Guidère, 2008.p 29). In this respect, Vandal-Sirois (2011) highlights that the expansion of the Internet, electronic commerce and different social networks have created diverse occasions and needs of intercultural communication and commercial exchanges (p.3).

2. International advertising and multilingual marketing communication

According to Guidère (2008), the promotion of goods and services in international markets can be carried out using different marketing strategies (p.27). As Guidère (2008: 27) explains, such strategies aim at stimulating and influencing the target culture **(TC)** customers in the most possible efficient way. In this respect, Guidère (2008) examines the characteristics of marketing strategies employed in the context of international advertising (p.27). Guidère (2008) classifies such international marketing strategies into three categories namely standardisation, adaptation and localisation (p.27). With regard to the present paper, the review of the marketing strategies used in international advertising is useful to detect the advertising strategy that is adopted to promote international products in the Arab Gulf.

2.1 Standardisation

Guidère (2008) defines standardisation as the use of the same advertising campaign in different cultures (p. 28). In this respect, De Mooij (2004) highlights that the owners of international companies who believe in the homogeneity of consumers' needs and tastes across the globe require importers to faithfully translate the source advertising text into the target language **(TL)** copy (p.179). As De Mooij (2004) clarifies, the idea of globalised advertising is rooted in the presumed universality of human emotions such as happiness, fear, and anger (p. 191). De Mooij (2004) contradicts such a view by stressing that the

expressions and words that are used to express such emotions differ from one culture to another (p. 191). Likewise, De Mooij and Hofstede (2011) state that the strength and meanings of emotions differ from one culture to another (p.186).

The standardisation of an international advertising campaign consists in a faithful transfer of the same advertising message into different target languages. With regard to the present paper, the faithful transfer of an original advertising slogan may consist in either the transference of the source language **(SL)** advertising slogan into the target advertisement or a literal translation of the original slogan into the **TL**. Guidère (2008) states that there are two types of standardisation (p.28). First, he explains that the proponents of global standardisation advocate the use of a unique advertising campaign in all the markets of the world (Guidère, 2008.p.28). For instance, the *'Coca Cola'* company used a standardised advertising slogan in the 1990s in all over the world. The message of the original English advertising slogan was faithfully transferred into different languages of the world as is illustrated in example 2.1.

Example 2.1: A standardised advertising slogan promoting a *'Coca Cola'* coke in the 1990s

- The original English version: **"Always Coca Cola"**
- The Arabic version: **"دائما كوكا كولا"** *(Dayman Coca Cola)*
- The French version: **"Toujours Coca Cola"**
- The Italian version: **"Sempre Coca Cola"**
- The German version: **"Immer Coca Cola"**

According to Guidère (2008), the strategy of standardisation was successful by the end of the 1990s because it reflected the absence of international borders which divided the world into segments (p.28). As he further highlights, some critics criticize the strategy of standardisation because of the mono-cultural model that is imposed on the countries of the globe without the consideration of linguistic and cultural differences. In response to such criticisms, the proponents of standardisation assert that they aim at creating a uniform world image and aspire to maximize profits by reducing costs (Guidère, 2008, p. 28).

De Mooij (2004) states that the holders of some international companies who previously believed in the homogeneity of people's needs and tastes across the world have

changed their global marketing strategy into a local one because they have become aware of cultural differences and the heterogeneity of target customers' needs and tastes across different cultures (p.179). Consequently, the holders of some international companies decided to study the characteristics of the **TC** to detect the needs, purchasing reasons, and cultural values of local consumers. In this respect, De Mooij (2004) states that the ***'Coca Cola'*** company, which used to standardise its advertising campaigns across the globe, currently broadcasts advertisements which are adapted to the linguistic and cultural characteristics of the **TC** consumers (p. 180)

2.2 Adaptation

In the context of multilingual communication, Guidère (2008) defines adaptation as the process whereby advertisers create a target advertisement that is adequate to each target country and its respective cultural characteristics, life styles, and legal and regulatory rules (p. 27). As he concludes, adaptation enables advertisers to address the **TC** audience adequately (Guidère, 2008. p.27). In this respect, he clarifies that the local language, the prevailing advertising style, and the customs of the **TC** can be used in order to ensure the best adaptation and satisfy the expectations of the **TC** consumers (Guidère, 2008. p. 27).

As Guidère (2008) highlights, one disadvantage of adaptation is that it does not enable the holders of international companies to make profits due to the high costs of adapting an advertising message to the different characteristics of various cultures (p. 27). Despite its expensive costs, adaptation may be an effective marketing strategy for the creation of linguistically and culturally appropriate target advertising messages. The high costs of adaptation may lead the holders of international companies to resort to the standardisation of advertising messages across the globe.

2.3 Localisation

As Guidère (2008) states, localisation consists in the adaptation of advertising communication to the characteristics of a particular locus such as a country or a region (p. 28). As he asserts, in practice localisation consists in the adaptation of products and their respective promotion to the characteristics of the **TC** to fit the linguistic and cultural expectations of the **TC** audience (Guidère, 2008. p.28). As he clarifies, the holders of

international companies may require advertisers to design a localised advertising message that is specific to each target market (Guidère, 2008. p.28). The proponents of localised advertising adopt the prevailing communication style in the **TC** and adapt visuals to the **TC** norms in order to ensure a maximum degree of relevance to the **TC** customers (Guidère, 2008. p.28).

According to Guidère (2008), localisation represents an intermediary strategy between local adaptation and global standardisation (p.28). Localisation enables advertisers to create an advertising campaign that is global at the level of spirit and local at the level of form (Guidère, 2008. p. 28). Accordingly, some scholars name such a strategy as "glocalisation". For instance, the localisation of an international coke namely *'Coca Cola'* may lead Tunisian target customers to notice that such an international product is promoted in the same way as national coke brands. As a result, Tunisian target consumers may unconsciously perceive and treat the international brand as a national product. Lately, the *'Coca Cola'* company has launched a localised advertising campaign targeting every Tunisian target consumer using diminutive Tunisian names such as "علولو" *(Aloulou)*, "حمّه" *(Hammah)*, "ندّو" *(Naddou),* etc. The use of diminutive names is intended to spoil the target customer and address him or her by diminishing social distance. Advertisers try to enhance the positive face of the addressee. Such a strategy may be intended to increase the number of coke sales by targeting every target customer individually.

3. The main study

As a first step, the researcher compiled a corpus consisting of 100 parallel pairs of English and Arabic magazine advertisements promoting a variety of international products and brand names. The magazines which were used to compile the corpus include periodicals (see the lists of periodicals, p. 123, 127) which are widely circulating in English-speaking countries and the Arab Gulf. Then, a quantitative study was conducted to detect whether English or Arabic is predominantly used to formulate contemporary international advertising slogans in the Arab Gulf. The quantitative study includes frequency distribution, descriptive statistics and inferential statistics namely a Fisher Anova Test. The ultimate objective of the study is to find out whether the holders of international companies mainly

aim to standardise or adapt advertising slogans promoting international products in the Arab Gulf. Throughout the present paper, the **SL** is English and the **TL** is Arabic.

3.1 Method

The first step of the quantitative analysis consisted in conducting a frequency distribution including the relative frequency and percentage of English and Arabic advertising slogans. The second step of the quantitative analysis consisted in conducting descriptive statistics. The third step consisted in conducting inferential statistics to draw generalizable conclusions. The diagram in figure 3.1 illustrates the different steps of analysis.
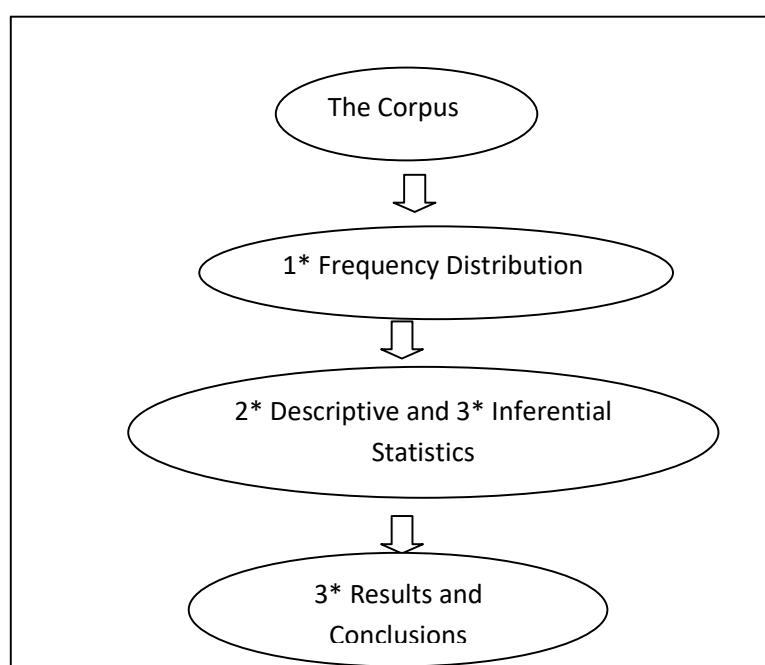

Figure 3.1 A diagram showing the steps of the quantitative study

3.1.1 Frequency distribution

The first step of the quantitative analysis consisted in conducting a frequency distribution. According to Larry. J. Stephens (2006), a frequency distribution displays all classes and the number of elements in each class (p.14). Stephens (2006) defines the term "relative frequency" as follows:

The relative frequency of a category is obtained by dividing the frequency for a category by the sum of all the frequencies. (Stephens, 2006, p. 15)

Relative Frequency =	$\dfrac{\text{The frequency of a category}}{\text{The sum of frequencies of all the categories}}$

According to Stephens (2006), the percentage of a particular category can be found by multiplying the relative frequency of that category by 100 (p. 15).

$$\textbf{Percentage =}\quad \text{Relative Frequency} \times 100$$

The relative frequency and percentage of each type of advertising slogan in the corpus was calculated by means of the computer software *'Microsoft Excel'*. The relative frequency and percentage of each of the four subcategories of advertising slogans was calculated and graphically represented (see figure 3.2, p. 13).

3.1.2 Descriptive statistics

The second step of the quantitative analysis consisted in conducting descriptive statistics. In this respect, Antonius (2003) defines descriptive statistics as follows (p. 9):

The methods and techniques of descriptive statistics aim at summarizing large quantities of data by a few numbers, in a way that highlights the most important numerical features of the data. (Antonius, 2003: 9)

Descriptive statistics summarized the measures that described the characteristics of the distribution of values relating to the six variables namely **T** (transferred English advertising slogans), **L** (literally translated advertising slogans), **A** (adapted advertising slogans), **R** (Rewritten advertising slogans), **SLO** (Source-language oriented) and **TLO** (Target-language oriented) advertising slogans. Descriptive statistics include measures of central tendency or statistical averages namely 'mean', and 'median', and measures of dispersion or variability namely 'Standard Deviation' **(SD)** and 'Coefficient of Variation' **(C_v)**.

With regard to the study, the symbols *xi_T, xi_L, xi_A, xi_R, xi_{SLO}* and *xi_{TLO}* stand for the six dependent variables namely the occurrences of **T, L, A, R, SLO** and **TLO** advertising slogans.

Antonius (2003: 69) defines measures of central tendency as follows:

Measures of central tendency, also called measures of the center, tell us the values around which most of the data is found. They give us an order of magnitude of the data, allowing comparisons across populations and subgroups within a population. (Antonius, 2003: 69)

The measures of central tendency which were calculated include the *'mean'* and the *'median'* of the six variables. That is to say, the *'mean'* and the *'median'* represent measures of central tendency of the distribution of the six variables.

Kothari (2004) defines the term *'mean'* as an "arithmetic average" (p.132). He states that *'mean'* is a central tendency measure that is very commonly used by researchers (Kothari, 2004. p 132). According to Kothari (2004), the *'mean'* of a particular variable summarises the main characteristics of a series and allows the researcher to compare data (p.132). The *'mean'* of a particular advertising slogan can be calculated by summing all the observed values of that advertising slogan in the corpus and dividing them by **N** which represents the number of observations. **N** corresponds to **12** years of observation. The researcher observes the number of occurrences of each category of advertising slogan for each year. The '*mean'* is symbolised either by the symbol $\overline{X}$ or the symbol **μ.** The 'mean' of each category of advertising slogan can be calculated as is illustrated in the following mathematical notation.

$$\textbf{Mean}: \overline{X} = \frac{\sum xi}{N}$$

Where:

$\overline{X}$ **:** The symbol used for mean (pronounced as X bar)

$\sum xi$ **:** The total number of occurrences of each category of advertising slogan in the corpus.

N **=** the number of observations (**N**=12)

$$\textbf{Example: Mean (Transference):} \ \overline{X}(T) = \frac{\sum xiT}{N}$$

The 'median' is another measure of central tendency for quantitative variables. Kothari (2004: 132) defines the 'median' as the value of the element that exists in the middle of all the data entries of a series which is ordered in an ascending order.

Figure 3.9 The graphical representation of the median

For example, the 'median' of each quantitative variable x_i is the middle value when the observed values of a particular category of advertising slogans are arranged from the lowest to the highest**.**

$$(x_1 \leq x_2 \leq \cdots \leq x_n).$$

The number of observations is **12**. In other words, the number of data entries is even. In such a situation, two data entries exist in the middle namely **xi_6** and **xi_7**. So, the 'median' of each variable x_i is the average of the two middle numbers.

$$\text{Median (M)} = \frac{n}{2}$$

Where **n** = the value of the two middle values in each series

Measures of dispersion or variability indicate how the data are spread out in the sample. The dispersion of values inside variables is particularly significant in the current study since the distribution of advertising slogans and variation in their use are what the researcher aspires to explain. In order to obtain a statistical value which represents a measure of the distribution of each variable around its measures of central tendency, the researcher needs to subsequently apply two statistical techniques including 'Standard Deviation' and 'Coefficient of Variation'. The statistical techniques will be explained one at a time.

'Standard Deviation' is an effective measure of dispersion for quantitative data because it is the average distance of the value of each item in a series from the 'mean'. In this respect, Kothari (2004) states that 'Standard Deviation' is the most commonly used measure of dispersion (p.135). 'Standard Deviation' is represented by the symbol '⌷' which is pronounced as sigma. Standard Deviation is calculated as follows:

$$\textbf{Standard Deviation (⌷⌷} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum(xi - \bar{x})2}{N}}$$

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Such an equation can be explained as follows. For each individual data entry **x_i** in a series, the deviation from the 'mean' is the distance that separates the data entry from the 'mean'. Such a distance is represented as follows:

$$(\boldsymbol{xi} \; - \; \overline{\boldsymbol{x}})$$

In order to explain how equation (x_i - $\bar{x}$) is calculated, the following example illustrates the distribution of rewritten advertising slogans over **12** years.

The 'mean' of the rewritten advertising slogans (R) can be calculated as follows:

$$\textbf{Mean}\textit{:} \; \overline{X}_{(R)} = \frac{\sum xi \; R}{N}$$

Where

$\sum xi \; R$ **:** The total occurrences of rewritten advertising slogans in the corpus.

N = 12 years of advertisement publication

Table 3.1 Calculation of the deviations from the Mean (Antonius, 2003: 49)

Data entry $x_{i\,R}$	Deviation from the mean: ($x_{i\,R}$ - $\overline{X}_R$)
$xi_{1\,R}$	$xi_{1\,R} - \overline{X} \; = \quad -$
$xi_{2\,R}$	$xi_{2\,R} - \overline{X} \; = \quad -$
$xi_{3\,R}$	$xi_{3\,R} - \overline{X} \; = \quad -$
$xi_{4\,R}$	$xi_{4\,R} - \overline{X} \; = \quad -$
$xi_{5\,R}$	$xi_{5\,R} - \overline{X} \; = \quad -$
$xi_{6\,R}$	$xi_{6\,R} - \overline{X} \; = \quad -$
$xi_{7\,R}$	$xi_{7\,R} - \overline{X} \; = \quad -$
$xi_{8\,R}$	$xi_{8\,R} - \overline{X} \; = \quad -$
$xi_{9\,R}$	$xi_{9\,R} - \overline{X} \; = \quad -$
$xi_{10\,R}$	$xi_{10\,R} - \overline{X} \; = \quad -$
$xi_{11\,R}$	$xi_{11\,R} - \overline{X} \; = \quad -$
$xi_{12\,R}$	$xi_{12\,R} - \overline{X} \; = \quad -$

Afterwards, the deviations from the 'mean' were calculated as is illustrated in the preceding table. Once the deviations from the 'mean' have been obtained, every deviation was squared. After that, the sum of all the squared deviations was divided by the total number of observations **N = 12**. The obtained result is called the variance value of each variable. The variance value is then square rooted in order to measure the 'Standard Deviation' relating to each variable. A low 'Standard Deviation' shows that the data points have a tendency to be very close to the 'mean'. However, a high 'Standard Deviation' shows that the data points have a tendency to be spread out above the 'mean'.

According to Kothari (2004), when the 'Standard Deviation' is divided by the 'mean' (**μ**) of the series of data entries, the resulting value is called 'Coefficient of Standard Deviation' (136). Kothari (2004) explains that such a value represents a relative measure that is used for comparison with analogous measures of other series (136). The 'Coefficient of Standard Deviation' can be calculated as follows:

$$\textbf{Coefficient of Standard Deviation} = \frac{\sigma}{\mu}$$

According to Kothari (2004), when the 'Coefficient of Standard Deviation' is multiplied by 100, the resulting value is called 'Coefficient of Variation' (**C_v**). The 'Coefficient of Variation' is a relative measure of dispersion that is used to compare the degree of variation of different series of observations relating to different variables (136). The 'Coefficient of Variation' (**C_v**) is the ratio of 'Standard Deviation' to the 'mean'. The 'Coefficient of Variation' (**C_v**) can be calculated as follows:

$$\textbf{C}_v = \frac{\sigma}{\mu} \times 100$$

The 'Coefficient of Variation' is practical because the 'Standard Deviation' of data needs to be understood in the context of the 'mean' of the data. The advantage of the 'Coefficient of Variation' is that it is unitless. In other words, the 'Coefficient of Variation' is a quantity without any physical units and hence is a pure number. The 'Coefficient of Variation' can be expressed as a percentage. The nonexistence of a particular specified unit for the measurement of the 'Coefficient of Variation' enables the researcher to compare the 'Coefficients of Variation' of different quantitative variables in a manner that other measures such as 'Standard Deviation' and 'mean' cannot be compared. This makes the coefficient of variation much simpler to use than the other measures of dispersion. The higher the 'Coefficient of Variation', the greater the level of dispersion of the variable around the 'mean' and the lower the coefficient of variation, the less dispersed the variable.

3.1.3 Inferential statistics

The third step of the quantitative analysis consists in conducting inferential statistics. According to Kothari (2004), inferential statistics enable the researcher to test the

study hypotheses and draw generalizable conclusions (131). Antonius (2003) defines inferential statistics as follows (p. 9):

> Inferential statistics aim at generalizing a measure taken on a small number of cases that have been observed, to a larger set of cases that have not been observed. (Antonius, 2003: 9)

Inferential statistics are useful because they enable the researcher to study linguistic choice of advertising slogans in the sample of 100 and Arabic advertisements in order to learn further about the use of advertising slogans in the larger population Arabic advertisements.

The objective of inferential statistics is to draw conclusions about the most commonly used language between the years **2001** and **2012**. Inferential statistics enable the researcher to draw inferences and build generalizations about the sample on the basis of the results obtained from the calculated values of the variables.

Before drawing any conclusions concerning the most commonly used language, the hypotheses of the main study were tested for significance. In this respect, Kothari (2004) defines hypothesis testing as follows (p.184):

> Hypothesis testing enables us to make probability statements about population parameter(s). The hypothesis may not be proved absolutely, but in practice it is accepted if it has withstood a critical testing. (Kothari, 2004: 184)

It is useful to clarify the basic steps in testing the hypotheses. As is stated by Privitera (2011), hypothesis testing includes four steps namely stating the hypotheses, setting the criteria for making a decision, working out the test statistic and making the decision regarding which hypotheses will be confirmed and which ones will be rejected. As a first step, the researcher states the hypotheses relating to the study. The researcher begins by stating the null hypothesis. In this respect, Privitera (2011) defines the null hypothesis as follows (p. 228):

> The null hypothesis (H_0), stated as the null, is a statement about a population parameter, such as the population mean, that is assumed to be true. The null hypothesis is a starting point. We will test whether the value stated in the null hypothesis is likely to be true. (Privitera, 2011: 228)

According to Privitera (2011), the researcher carries out research and gathers evidence to prove that the null hypothesis is improbable to be true (p. 228). After stating the null hypothesis, the researcher stipulates the alternative hypothesis H_1 or H_a which states the opposite of what is claimed in the null hypothesis H_0. In this respect, Privitera (2011) defines an alternative hypothesis as follows (p.228):

> An alternative hypothesis (H1) is a statement that directly contradicts a null hypothesis by stating that that *[sic]* the actual value of a population parameter is less than, greater than, or not equal to the value stated in the null hypothesis. The alternative hypothesis states what we think is wrong about the null hypothesis. (Privitera, 2011: 228)

After stating the null and alternative hypotheses which relate to the main study, the researcher gathers evidence to nullify the null hypotheses instead of supporting the alternative hypotheses. In other words, if the researcher demonstrates that a particular null hypothesis is nullified, the related alternative hypothesis is therefore confirmed.

Table 3.2 The null hypotheses and alternative hypotheses of the quantitative study

The Null Hypothesis (H_0)	The Alternative Hypothesis (H_a)
$H_0 1$: The four subcategories of advertising slogans **T, L, A** and **R** have the same frequencies on average.	$H_a 1$: The four subcategories of advertising slogans **T, L, A** and **R** do not have the same frequencies on average.
$H_0 2$: The two main categories of advertising slogans namely **SLO** and **TLO** have the same frequencies on average.	$H_a 2$: The two main categories of advertising slogans namely **SLO** and **TLO** do not have the same frequencies on average.

As a second step, the researcher set the criteria for a decision in advance before carrying out hypothesis-testing. In order to set the criteria for a decision, the researcher states a significance level that is appropriate to the discipline of linguistics. According to Privitera (2011), the significance level is a "criterion of judgement" upon which the researcher makes a decision relating to the value specified in a particular null hypothesis (p.229). Sellami-Baklouti (2002) states that in linguistics and social sciences in which measurements are less precise than measurements conducted in scientific studies, the level

of significance p ≤0.05 is fairly common (p. 56). Sellami-Baklouti (2002) who conducted a **PhD** (Doctor of Philosophy) thesis on "causativity" states that the level of significance which is commonly used in linguistics is p ≤0.05. With regard to the current study, the level of significance which was adopted is **p ≤0.05.**

As a third step, the researcher computed the test statistic that is appropriate to the study. The statistician decided the test statistic which is suitable to the study namely Fisher (Anova) test. In this respect, Privitera (2011) defines a test statistic as follows (p. 230):

> "The test statistic is a mathematical formula that allows researchers to determine the likelihood of obtaining sample outcomes if the null hypothesis were true. The value of the test statistic is used to make a decision regarding the null hypothesis." (Privitera, 2011: 230)

The expert in statistics decided to conduct one type of test statistic namely Fisher (Anova) in order to test the hypotheses of the study. First, the expert in statistics conducted a Fisher (Anova) test using **'*Excel'*** statistical package to draw inferences about the most commonly used language to formulate advertising slogans. Fisher (Anova) test is a useful statistical measure for the analysis of variance. According to the expert in statistics, the advantage of the Fisher (Anova) test is that the statistician does not have to pre-specify which profiles are to be compared and does not need to adjust for conducting various comparisons.

The statistician studied the effect of six different levels of profile specifically x_T, x_L, x_A, x_R, x_{SLO} and x_{TLO} which correspond to the six categories of advertising slogans namely Transferred Original English Advertising Slogans **(T)**, Literally translated slogans **(L)** Adapted Advertising Slogans **(A)**, Rewritten Advertising Slogans **(R)**, Source-Language Oriented **(SLO)** Advertising slogans   Target-Language Oriented **(TLO)** Advertising slogans respectively. Each profile includes a data set of **n** observations.

The statistician compared the $F_{statistic}$ to the critical value F_{Critic} specifically $F_{0.05}$ at a significance level of 5 %. If $F_{Statistic} < F_{0.05}$, the null hypotheses $H_0 1$ and $H_0 2$ will be accepted. If $F_{Statistic} > F_{0.05}$, the null hypotheses $H_0 1$ and $H_0 2$ will be rejected. The rejection of the null hypothesis $H_0 1$ indicates that the four profiles which correspond to the four subcategories

of advertising slogans namely **T, L, A** and **R** do not have the same frequencies on average. The statistician will then calculate the $F_{Statistic}$ of each subcategory of advertising slogan to detect the most commonly used one.

The rejection of the null hypothesis H_02 indicates that the two profiles which correspond to the two main categories of advertising slogans **SLO** and **TLO** do not have the same frequencies on average. Then, the statistician calculated the $F_{Statistic}$ of each of the two main categories of advertising slogans to detect the most commonly used one. The last step of hypothesis-testing consisted in drawing conclusions. On the basis of the statistical results of the Fisher (Anova) test, the researcher made decisions concerning which hypotheses to confirm and which ones to reject.

In order to ensure the validity and reliability of the quantitative findings of the study, an expert in statistics conducted all the statistical measures by means of the statistical software 'Excel'. The expert is a full professor specialising in probability and statistics. After conducting all the statistical measures, the quantitative findings were validated by another expert in applied mathematics and statistics.

3.2 Results and discussion

As a first step of the quantitative study, frequency distribution was conducted in order to show the distribution of English and Arabic advertising slogans in the sample and the total number of elements in each category. The table below illustrates the results of frequency distribution.

Table 3.3 The total number of occurrences and percentage of occurrence of each category in the sample

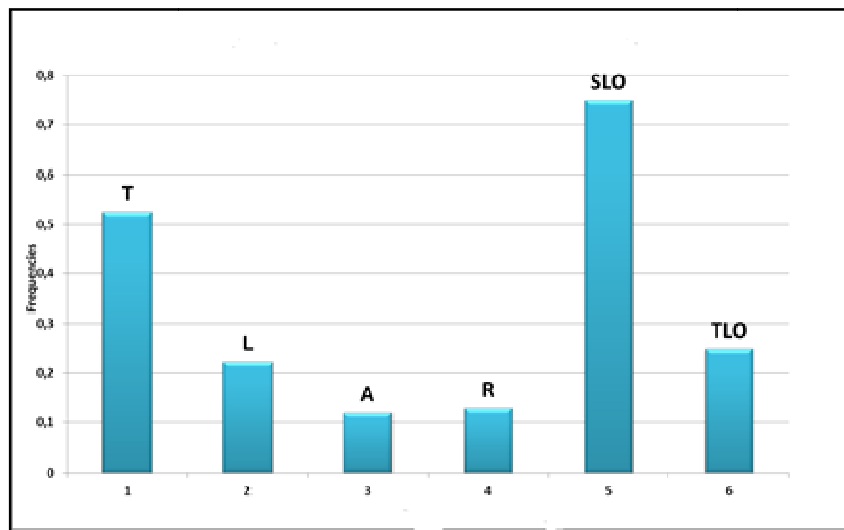| Categories	Original English Advertising Slogans	Literally translated slogans (Arabic)	Adapted Advertising Slogans (Arabic)	Rewritten Advertising Slogans (Arabic	Source-Language Oriented (SLO) Advertising slogans	Target-Language Oriented (TLO) Advertising slogans TLOS
Total Number of Occurrences	61	26	14	15	87	29
Percentage	52.5 %	22.4 %	12 %	12.9 %	75 %	25 %

Figure 3.2 The frequency distribution of advertising slogans in the sample

As is illustrated in table 3.3, the percentage of occurrence of original English advertising slogans corresponds to **52.5 %**. This may indicate that English advertising slogans are the most commonly used in the sample. The percentage of occurrence of literally translated advertising slogans (Arabic) corresponds to **22.4 %**. This may indicate that English advertising slogans are far more frequently used than slogans than are literally translated into Arabic. Adapted and rewritten advertising slogans (i.e. Arabic slogans) nearly have the same percentage of occurrence i.e. **12 %** and **12.9 %** respectively. Likewise, English advertising slogans are far more frequently used than adapted and rewritten advertising slogans.

As is illustrated in table 3.3, source-language oriented advertising slogans may be the most commonly used in the sample in that their percentage of occurrence corresponds to **75%**. It can be inferred that advertisers who advertise in the Arab Gulf mainly tend to standardise advertising slogans using the English language. English may be the most commonly used language to reflect the originality and foreignness of products that are advertised. Therefore, standardization is the marketing strategy that is mainly used to promote international products in the Arab Gulf.

As is shown in table 3.3, target-language oriented advertising slogans are the least frequently used ones in the sample. Accordingly, the marketing strategy of adaptation is rarely used to promote international products in the Arab Gulf. It can be deduced that adapted advertising slogans are the least commonly used because adaptation does not allow company owners to make profits. In other words, adapting an advertisement to the linguistic and cultural idiosyncrasies of the target culture costs a lot of money as Guidère (2008) affirms.

Descriptive Statistics consist of measures of central tendency and measures of dispersion. The following table summarizes the quantitative findings of the six variables xi_T, xi_L, xi_A, xi_R, xi_{SLO} and xi_{TLO} respectively.

Table 3.4 The quantitative findings of descriptive statistics

Advertising Slogans / Statistical Measures	T	L	A	R	SLO	TLO
Mean (μ)	5.083	2.181	1.181	1.181	7.272	2.363
Median (M)	4	1	0	1	5	2
Minimal Value	0	0	0	0	1	0
Maximal Value	14	6	5	3	18	7
Standard Deviation (☐☐	4.440	1.940	1.721	0.981	5.798	2.419
Coefficient of Variation (C_v)	87.35	88.91	145.66	83.06	79.72	102.36

As is illustrated in table 3.4 depicting descriptive statistics, the values corresponding to Transferred advertising slogans T are the highest ones. Except for the Coefficient of variation which means the distribution of the **n** values of T slogans in the sample of Arabic advertisements. Again, transferred original English slogans are the most commonly used. That is English advertising slogans are the most commonly used in the sample. English may be mainly used to reflect the originality and high quality of the products that are advertised.

The third step of the quantitative analysis consists in conducting inferential statistics. As Kothari (2004) states, inferential statistics enable the researcher to test the research hypotheses and draw generalizable conclusions (p. 131). The hypotheses of study were tested for significance to draw inferences concerning the most commonly used language. The first step of hypothesis testing consisted in stating the null and alternative hypotheses. The second step consisted in setting the criteria for making a decision. The researcher decided to adopt the significance level that is appropriate to the discipline of linguistics namely '**p $\leq$ 0.05**'. The third step consisted in computing the test statistics that are appropriate to the study. The expert in statistics decided to conduct two tests namely Fisher (Anova) test and correlation. In the first place, the expert in statistics conducted a Fisher (Anova) test using '***Excel***' statistical package. The following tables illustrate the results of hypothesis testing.

Table 3.5 A detailed report of the results of the Fisher (Anova) Test

Variables	Number of Observations	Total Number of Occurrences	Mean	Variance
x_T	12	61	5.08	19.71
x_L	12	26	2.16	3.42
x_A	12	14	1.16	2.69
x_R	12	15	1.25	0.93
x_{SLO}	12	87	7.25	30.56
x_{TLO}	12	29	2.41	5.35

Table 3. 6 The results of the analysis of variance

Source of variations	Sum of squares	Degree of liberty	Average of squares	$F_{Statistic}$	Probability	F_{Critic} ($F_{0.05}$)
Between Groups	354.777	5	70.955	6.790	3.65993E-05	2.353
Inside Groups	689.666	66	10.449	-	-	-
Totals	1044.444	71	-	-	-	-

As is illustrated in table 3.6, the value of $F_{statistic}$ is **6.790** and the value of F_{Critic} namely $F_{0.05}$ is **2.353.** In other words, $F_{Statistic} > F_{0.05}$. Therefore**,** the null hypotheses H_01 and H_02 respectively are nullified and H_a1 and H_a2 respectively are confirmed. The rejection of the null hypothesis H_01 indicates that the four profiles which correspond to the four subcategories of advertising slogans **T, L, A,** and **R** do not have the same frequencies on average. The rejection of null hypothesis H_02 indicates that the two profiles which

correspond to the two main categories of advertising slogans namely **SLO** and **TLO** advertising slogans do not have the same frequencies on average.

As is illustrated in table 3.5 (see table 3.5, p. 15), the variance of each category of advertising slogan was automatically calculated by means of *'Excel'* package during the computation of the Fisher (Anova) test. Variance values enabled the researcher to detect the most commonly used main category and subcategory of advertising slogans. The last step of hypothesis-testing consisted in drawing conclusions.

On the basis of the statistical results of the Fisher (Anova) test, the following decisions can be made. First, Arab advertisers most commonly use transferred English advertising slogans in Arabic print advertisements. It can be inferred that Arab translators mainly maintain advertising slogans promoting international products in English in Arabic print advertising copies. Second, Arab advertisers most commonly use **SLO** advertising slogans in Arabic print advertisements.

The Fisher Anova test revealed that Arab advertisers most commonly use English advertising slogans in Arabic advertisements. In other words, Arab advertisers mainly maintain advertising slogans promoting international products in English. The following possible reasons may explain Arab advertisers' frequent use of English slogans. First, Arab advertisers may mainly maintain international advertising slogans in English upon demand from the holders of international companies. Such holders may not recommend using literally translated (Arabic) advertising slogans to avoid any potential decrease or loss of the originally intended pragmatic meanings. Alternatively, the owners of international companies may deliberately opt for maintaining advertising slogans in English to preserve the originally intended pragmatic meanings and effects.

Second, the holders of international companies may intentionally require Arab advertisers to maintain advertising slogans in English to reflect the high quality and originality of the international product. In this respect, Smith (2006) states that translators may use transference of the original English slogan to reflect the foreignness of the product

that is advertised (p. 159). The holders of international companies may be aware of Arabs' high trust in products imported from Western countries. From another perspective, Guidère (2000) clarifies that the frequent use of English advertising slogans in **TL** advertisements is a strategic monopoly that hegemonic international companies adopt to reflect the foreignness and high quality of the product that is advertised (p.119).

Guidère (2000) who studied the translation of French advertising slogans into Arabic found out that the strategy of transference is rare (p. 121). In other words, Arab translators rarely transfer French advertising slogans into Arabic magazine print advertisements. This may be due to the dominance of the English language over French in international business communication. In this respect, Hornikx et al. (2010) highlight that a number of researchers including Bhatia (1992), Gerritsen et al., (2007) and Piller (2000) have proved that English is the most commonly used language in advertising discourse.

Unlike Guidère's (2000) findings, the statistics of the current study revealed that Arab advertisers most frequently use transferred English slogans in Arabic advertisements (p. 121). Hornikx et al. (2010) assert that the English language is predominantly used when advertisers address target customers in a standardised manner (p.170). Hornikx et al.'s (2010) assertion may externally validate the quantitative finding indicating that English advertising slogans are the most commonly used to promote international products in the Arab Gulf (p.170).

Third, Arab advertisers may use transferred English advertising slogans in Arabic advertisements because the Arab World is a strong uncertainty avoidance culture where individuals need rules and formalities to follow on different life situations (De Mooij, 2004, p.184). The high uncertainty avoidance among Arabs may lead Arab advertisers to maintain the original English advertising slogan and preserve the original aesthetic advertising effects.

The test statistic revealed that Arab advertisers most commonly use **SLO** advertising slogans promoting international products into Arabic. In the same vein, Smith (2006) who

studied the strategies of translating English advertising headlines into Russian found out that Russian translators most commonly use **SLO** translation strategies to promote international products in Russia (p.174). With regard to the current study, the frequent use of **SLO** advertising slogans coupled with the recurrent use of English slogans in Arabic magazine advertisements may imply that the holders of international companies mainly aim to standardise the message of advertising slogans in the Arab Gulf.

The following motives may account for the standardisation of advertising messages in non-English speaking countries. According to Hornikx et al. (2010), international companies standardise advertising messages because of the numerous advantages it brings about. In the first place, Hornikx et al. (2010) explain that the standardisation of an advertising campaign across different cultures enables international companies to make "economies of scale" (p. 170). In other words, standardisation enables international companies to form huge financial capitals. In the second place, Hornikx et al. (2010) state that standardisation enables international companies to have further control over business transactions across different cultures and fully take advantage of aesthetic and sophisticated English advertising messages. According to Hornikx et al. (2010), the third advantage of standardisation is that it enables international companies to build and maintain a worldwide "corporate brand image" (p. 170)

As is illustrated in table 3.3 (see table 3.3 p. 13), the percentage of occurrence of the adapted advertising slogans corresponds to **12 %**. It can be inferred that adapted advertising slogans are the least commonly used in Arabic print advertisements. The percentage of occurrence of the rewritten advertising slogans corresponds to **12.9 %**. The rare use of both adapted and rewritten advertising slogans coupled with the low frequency of **TLO** advertising slogans may indicate that the holders of international companies attribute greater importance to standardisation rather than adaptation.

Though standardised advertising messages may have many benefits for international companies, standardisation has been criticized by a number of critics. According to Guidère (2008: 28), a number of critics have criticized the standardised mono-cultural model that is

imposed on different nations of the world without considering cultural differences. For instance, De Mooij (2004) stresses the importance of taking cultural differences into account to ensure successful international advertising campaigns. Based on Hofstede's (1991) model of national culture, De Mooij (2004) highlights that target customers' needs, purposes, intentions and purchasing reasons vary across different cultures (p. 184). Moreover, De Mooij (2004: 184) stresses that language is an instrument that conveys such cross-cultural differences. For that reason, De Mooij (2004) believes that a mere translation of the source advertising message into the **TL** may not result into a culturally appropriate **TT** (p.179). As Guidère (2008) highlights, in response to many criticisms, the advocates of standardisation assert that they aspire to create a uniform worldwide brand image and aim at maximizing profits by reducing costs (p. 28).

The statistical results of the Fisher (Anova) test revealed that English advertising slogans **T** are the most commonly used in Arabic advertising copies. It can be inferred that Arab advertisers mainly maintain advertising slogans promoting international products in English in Arabic magazine advertisements. Advertisers may mainly maintain advertising slogans promoting international products in English for the following possible reasons. First, advertisers may mainly maintain international advertising slogans in English upon demand from the owners of international companies. Such holders may deliberately opt for maintaining advertising slogans in English to preserve the originally intended pragmatic meanings and effects. Second, the holders of international companies may intentionally require advertisers to maintain advertising slogans in English to reflect the high quality and originality of the international product that is advertised. In this respect, Smith (2006: 159) and Guidère (2000: 119) state that advertisers frequently use English in advertising discourse to reflect the foreignness of the product that is advertised.

Bhatia and Ritchie (2013) assert that English represents the language choice of international traders and advertisers (p.566). As Bhatia and Ritchie (2013) further clarify, English has defeated such languages as Russian and French (p. 556). Bhatia and Ritchie (2013) may imply that English has conquered the French and Russian languages in international advertising discourse in France and Russia (p. 556). As Bhatia and Ritchie

(2013) conclude, English has become the leading language of globalization (p. 556). This may be the reason for which advertising slogans which symbolise the global brand images of international companies are mainly maintained in English in Arabic print advertisements.

The disadvantage of using English to formulate advertising slogans in target Arabic advertisements is that the **TC** receivers who do not have a sufficient command of English may misinterpret the slogan as is highlighted by De Mooij (2004). As a result, such misinterpretation may lead some of the **TC** customers to avoid the purchase of the product that is advertised (p. 185) . Another disadvantage of the use of English advertising slogans in Arabic magazines is that such transferred slogans do not take linguistic and cultural idiosyncrasies into account.

4. Conclusion

The statistics of the present study revealed that contemporary holders of international companies mainly aspire to standardise the message of international advertising slogans in the Arab Gulf. Such standardisation can be explained by the predominant use of English advertising slogans in Arabic magazine advertisements promoting international products. The phenomenon of globalization can account for the recurrent use of English in international advertising discourse. The present study has dealt with the linguistic choice of advertisers who promote international products in the Arab gulf using advertising slogans. Future research can be conducted on English language mixing with the Arabic language at the level of advertising slogans, advertising headlines and/or the body text.

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The Syntax of Sentential Negation in Tunisian Arabic Proverbs

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1. Introduction

Languages behave differently in the way they express negation. For instance, some languages use preverbal negative particles while other languages deploy post verbal negative markers. There are also languages where negation is realised by two negative markers: preverbal and post verbal. Tunisian Arabic (TA) realises negation via preverbal and post verbal markers (Halila, 1992; Bahloul, 1996). The overall objective of this paper is

to provide an overview of the syntactic properties of (dis)-continuous negative markers with respect to verbal and non verbal TA proverbs.

Accordingly, many questions appear on the surface. Where is the location of negation markers in the TA? Are they below Tense Projection (TP) or above it? Do negation markers have their own projections and/or occupy different syntactic positions? What is the grammatical status of /-š/ as a segment of the negation marker, and what is the relationship between negation and other elements such as subjects and Negative Polarity Items (NPI)?

The paper consists of five sections followed by a conclusion. The second section introduces negative markers in TA proverbs. The third section reviews the grammatical status of /-š/. Section four examines the location of NegP in the syntactic representation while the fifth section focuses on the derivation of verbal and non verbal clauses along the lines of recent minimalist framework (Chomsky, 2001, 2004a, 2004b, 2005). The last section presents the conclusion.

2. The Markers of Negation in Ta Proverbs

2.1. Verbal negation in TA proverbs

Verbal negation refers to the finite verb forms of TA (the Perfect, Imperfect, and Imperative) and to one non-finite verb form, the Verbal Prepositional Phrase.

- */ma... š/*

The negation of verbal clauses is expressed by the negative markers */ma-/* and */-š/* being attached to the verb: the former as a proclitic and the latter as an enclitic. This is often referred in syntactic theory as discontinuous negation (Zanuttini 1997, p. 17).

(1) j-jmel   **ma**-iraa-**š**   hədbt-uu
    the-camel **NEG**-see-3MS.**NEG** hump-his
    'The camel does not see his own hump.'

The two negative particles */ma-/* and */-š/* behave like bound affixes. They do not for example receive independent word stress, and nothing may intervene between the negative particles and their host.

(2) ʔəl- ᶜiin **ma**-təᶜle**š**   ᶜal   hajeb.
    The- eye **NEG**-rise-3FS.-**NEG** above eyebrow
    'The eye cannot rise above the eyebrow.'

(3) * ?əl ᶜiin **ma**-təᶜle ᶜal **š** hajeb.
  The- eye **NEG**-rise-3FS. above -**NEG** eyebrow

/*ma… š*/ particles can also negate negative commands though they require a distinctive form of the imperative verb.

(4) **?smaᶜ** li-klem illi baki-k w **ma-tasmaᶜi-š** liklem illi ḏahki-k
  Listen-you the words which cry-you and NEG listen-you-NEG the words which laugh-you
  'The word of a friend makes you cry. The word of an enemy makes you laugh.'

The positive imperative verb '*?smaᶜ* 'listen' has only suffixal inflections which are identical to the suffixal inflections of the imperfect verb and which indicate number and gender. On the other hand, the negative imperative/prohibitive verb *ma-tasmaᶜi-š* 'don't listen' has both prefixal and suffixal inflections, again identical to those of the imperfect verb.

TA, prohibitives can also be formed by using the particle *laa* before the verb. For such negation, *laa* must always subcategorize for an imperfective verb form only and must be adjacent to the verb:

(5) a- laa twaṢi ?itiim ᶜala nweeh.
    Neg ask.IMP.2MS orphan on wailing
    'Do not recommend an orphan to cry'

  b-* laa waṢi ?itiim ᶜala nweeh.
      Neg ask.PER.2MS orphan on wailing

It also should be noted that although /ma-/ is common, /š/ is not employed in some contexts as in the following:

(6) Kil-melh **ma**-yġiib ᶜala ṭᶜaam.
    Like-salt **NEG**-miss-3SM. at meal
    'He is like salt, he is never absent at any meal.'

The replacement of single morpheme /ma-/ with paired morpheme /ma- š/ in this proverb would have no perceptible effect as in the following:

(7) Kil-melh **ma**-yġiib-**š** ᶜala ṭᶜaam.
    Like-salt **NEG**-miss-3SM.**NEG** at meal
    'He is like salt, he is never absent at any meal.'

However, the use of the paired morpheme negation in (8-b) will disturb the structural as well as the phonological balance because the two clauses are approximately parallel in structure.

(8) a-Mili defn-uu-h   **ma**-zar-uuh
    Since bury-3P.MS   **NEG**-visit-3P.MS
    'They have not visited him since his burial'

    b-Mili defn-uu-h   **ma**-zar-uuh-**š**
    Since bury-3P.MS   **NEG**-visit-3P.MS-**NEG**
    'They have not visited him since his burial'

A tendency towards phonological parallelism might explain the preference of the absence of the second morpheme in (8-a).

- **/ ᶜmr… ma/**

Interestingly, when the Negative Polarity Item (NPI) /ᶜmr/ (="ever;" literally="life/age") occurs in pre-negative position in the sentence, the negative particle /ma-/ is stripped of the final /- š/ as in the following example:

 (9) a- ḏhil ?l-kalb   **ᶜumr-uu   ma**- yəstw-a.
    Tail the-dog ever-he NEG-ripen-3MS
    'The tail of the dog never gets straight.'

    b-* ḏhil ?l-kalb   **ᶜumr-uu   ma**- yəstw-a-**š**.
    Tail the-dog ever-he NEG-ripen-3MS-NEG
    'The tail of the dog never gets straight.

The NPI / ᶜmr/ 'ever' has a pronoun suffix /uu/ 'he' that agrees in Case, number and gender with the subject of the verb ḏhil ?l-kalb 'the tail of the dog'.

While in the above example, / ᶜmr/ and its pronoun suffix precede /ma-/, which in turns precedes the verb *yəstw-a* 'ripen', /ma-/ may also precede / ᶜmr/ and its suffix, in which case the entire negative structure precedes the verb as in the following example:

(10) ḏhil ?l-kalb   **ma-ᶜumr-uu   ma**- yəstw-a.
    Tail the-dog NEG-never-he NEG-ripen-3MS
    'The tail of the dog never gets straight.

As the translation of example (10) suggests, the position of /*ma-*/ and/ ᶜ*mr*/ has no effect on meaning. The two structures are synonyms and choice between them is a matter of personal style.

- **/*ma... hatta*/**

Also, mention should be made to NPI *hatta* 'even' which may precede *šay* 'thing' or *had,* 'person'. When it does so, it adds emphasis to the negation, and means something like 'at all' or 'whatsoever'.

(11) ?ddnya **ma**-taqif   ᶜala   **hatta had**.
      Life   NEG-stop-3FS. on   even person
      'Life does not stop for anyone.'

Once again, the negative morpheme /*ma-*/ precedes the verb, while *hatta* precedes the word or phrase it modifies.

- **/*ma...kaan*/**

The negative morpheme /*ma-*/ precedes the verb. The morpheme *kaan* 'only' usually precedes the word or phrase it modifies.

(12) **ma**-?ihis   bil jamra **kaan** illi iᶜafes   ᶜle-ha.
    NEG-feel-3SM. by embers only   who walk-3SM on-3SM.
    'He doesn't feel the embers except the one who walks across them.'

- **/*ma-ᶜnd... š*/**

The verbal prepositional phrase ᶜ*nd* expresses a relation of possession 'have'. It is made up of a preposition ᶜ*nd*, a pronoun suffix whose referent is the possessor and a non NP that refers to the possessed item. Negation of the verbal prepositional phrase is similar to the negation of a finite verb as it follows:

(13) yaᶜt-i   el-fuul   l-illi   **ma**-ᶜ**and-uu-š**   zruus
    give-3SM. the-beans to-who   **NEG**-at-3SM.**NEG** molars
     'He gives beans to the one who doesn't have molars.'

The negative morpheme /*ma-*/ always precedes the possessive preposition while the morpheme /**-š**/ follows the pronoun suffix.

2.2. Non-verbal negation in TA proverbs

Non-verbal negation on the other hand does not involve finite verbs or verbal prepositional phrases. Instead, it includes independent forms, negative pronouns and expletives.

- **/muš/**

The continuous morpheme pair /*muš*/ is the most frequent morpheme occurring in the non verbal negative structures.

(14) ?əl ᶜibra   bil   feᶜl   **muš**   bil   klem.
      The moral with   action **NEG** with words
      "Actions speak louder than words."

The separation between /*mu-*/ and /*-š*/ will lead to the ungrammaticality of the sentence as shown in:

(15) *?əl ᶜibra   bil   feᶜl   **mu** bil   **š**   klem.
      The moral with   action **NEG** with **NEG** words

- **/w-laa/**

(16) ᶜasfuur fil-yed   **w-laa**   ᶜašra fuuk šajra.
      a bird in hand **and-NEG** ten   on   tree
      'A bird in hand is better than ten on a tree.'

In this group of negation the negating morpheme is not the negative /*laa*/ alone, but rather /*w-laa*/. It is a compound of *wa* and *laa*, literally 'and not'. The compound /*w-laa*/ functions as a comparative particle. It is however a particle of absolute comparison rather than one of degree as in the following examples:

(17)?alf xutwa   **w-laa**   tanġiza.
      One thousand pace   and NEG a jump
      'One thousand pace is better than a jump.'

(18) ?alf xutwa   **?ahsen min** tanġiza.
      One thousand pace   better than a jump
      'One thousand pace is better than a jump.'

These two proverbs are identical except that one has a compound /*w-laa*/ and the second has the comparative construction /*ashen min*/ 'better than'.

The continuous morpheme pair /*muš*/ may however be discontinuous in the following two cases:

- **/ma...pron...š/**

When the subject of an equational is an independent pronoun, /*ma-*/ may precede the personal pronoun and /*š*/ follow it. Such pronouns are found only in present tense predicational constructions of the type shown below.

(19) ?illi **ma-huuš** mestanis bil bxuur tethraq   hwayj-uu.
    Who **NEG**-3SM. used   to incense burn-3SF.   clothes-his
    'He who is not used to incense will burn his clothes.'

The agreement marker can alternatively drop, yielding the noninflected /*muš*/.

(20) ?illi **muš**   mestanis bil bxuur tethraq   hwayj-uu.
    Who **NEG**   used   to incense burn-3SF. Clothes-his
    'He who is not used to incense will burn his clothes.'

Discontinuous negation of the independent pronoun subject of an equational sentence does not change the tone or meaning of the utterance; it is simply a stylistic option.

- */Ma-famma š /*

Sentential negation in expletive constructions in the present tense must appear morphologically supported by *famma* 'there' rather than take one of the independent forms found in ordinary verbless sentences.

(21) **Ma-famma-š**   duxaan min ġir naar.
    NEG-there-**NEG** smoke   without fire
    'There is no smoke without fire.'

(22) *Ma-huu-š   famma duxaan   min ġir naar.
    NEG-3MS.-NEG there smoke   without fire

(23) * Muš famma duxaan   min ġir naar.
     NEG there   smoke   without fire

The next sections will be centred mainly on the grammatical status of /–š/, the location of the negative elements in the syntactic representation and the relationship between negation and NPIs.

3. The Grammatical Status of -*Š*

In relation to the status of the enclitic /-*š*/ in TA negatives, Halila (1992) adopts Pollock's (1989) analysis of negation in French in which '*ne*' heads a Negation Projection (NegP) and *'pas'* is its specifier (Spec). This may be because negation in TA is bimorphic in the sense that it resembles that of French in which the verb is surrounded by two negative elements /*ma… š*/ (Shlonsky, 1997, p. 92). Following this analysis, the negative /*ma-*/ is said to occupy the head of NegP and /-*š*/ the Spec of NegP as shown below.

(24)

```
              NegP
           /        \
        Spec         Neg'
         - š        /    \
                  Neg     VP
                  ma      V...
```
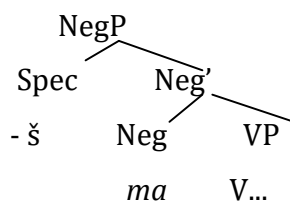
However, this proposal comes upon some empirical problems. As already noted by M. Bahloul (1996), negative particles in French behave differently from their counterparts in TA. For example, while both /*ma-*/ and /*ne-*/ are affixal, only /*–š*/ but not *pas* is affixal to the verbal head.

(25)

ma-tasma^{c}i-**š**
NEG listen-you-NEG

(26)
n'écoute   **pas**
NEG listen-you. NEG

Pas seems to behave typically as a free morpheme. Notice also that the particle /*ne-*/ in French is optional with respect to *pas*, which remains essential as a negative marker. This stands in a sharp contrast with the Tunisian /*ma-*/which under no circumstance can be deleted:

(27)

*tasma^{c}i-**š**
  listen-you-NEG

Finally, the claim that /-š'/ is base generated in Spec, NegP, higher than /*ma-*/ in the clause structure does not account for the cliticisation of /*ma-*/ and /*-š*/ on each other forming the free negation morpheme /*muš*/ used to negate nominal clauses as it gives rise to an undesired word order /*š-ma*/.

Given these limitations, the most plausible analysis is that discontinuous negative markers form a single complex unit in the Neg head position as it follows:

(28)

```
        NegP
       /    \
     Neg     VP
    ma-/-š'   V  ...
```
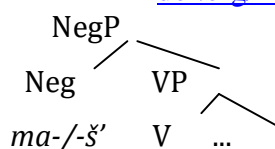
This assumption accounts nicely for the realization of /*mu*š/ as well as for the two-part negative markers.

4. Where Is Neg on The Clausal Hierarchy?

There have been two proposals regarding the placement of the head hosting negation on the clausal hierarchy in Arabic dialects:

- In the low-Neg analysis, Neg is lower than T in the syntactic tree (Benmamoun 2000; Ouhalla 2002; Aoun, Benmamoun and Choueiri 2010) represented as it follows:

(29)

```
          TP
        /    \
      Spec    T'
            /    \
           T      NegP
                 /    \
               Neg     VP
                      /   \
                     V    ...
```
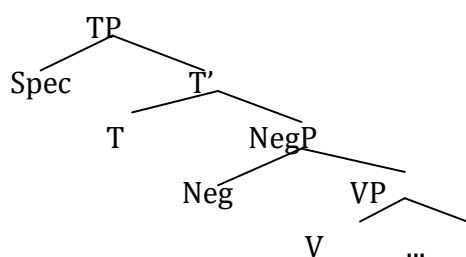
- In the high-Neg analysis, Neg is higher than T in the syntactic tree (Soltan, 2014) as it follows:

(30)

```
         NegP
        /    \
      Neg     TP
            /    \
          Spec    T'
                /    \
               T      VP
                     /   \
                    V    ...
```
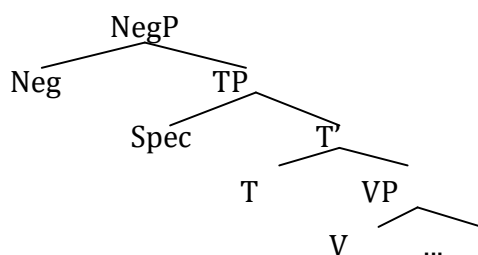
Negation facts from NPIs and existential expletives in TA will provide strong evidence that the high assumption is more plausible.

(31) d̲hil ?l-kalb **ᶜumr-uu**   **ma**- yəstw-a.
    Tail the-dog ever-3MS. NEG-ripen-3MS
    'The tail of the dog never gets straight.'

Under the lower Neg analysis, movement of the verb *əstwa* 'ripen' to T for present tense features across NegP is ungrammatical as it follows:

(32)
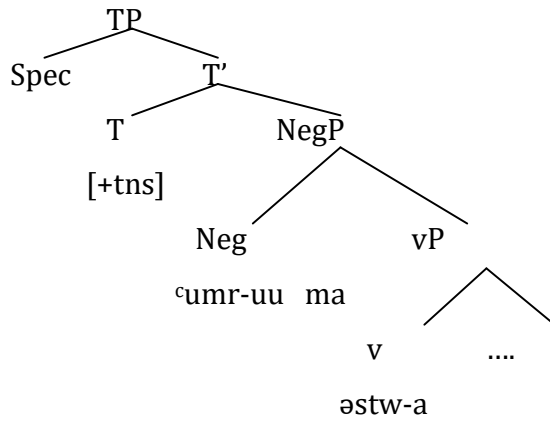
Since NPI *ᶜumr-uu* merges with the negative particle */-ma/* and since negation precedes TP, the licensing of the NPI *ʕmr* must take place within a NegP that is higher than TP as it follows:

(33)
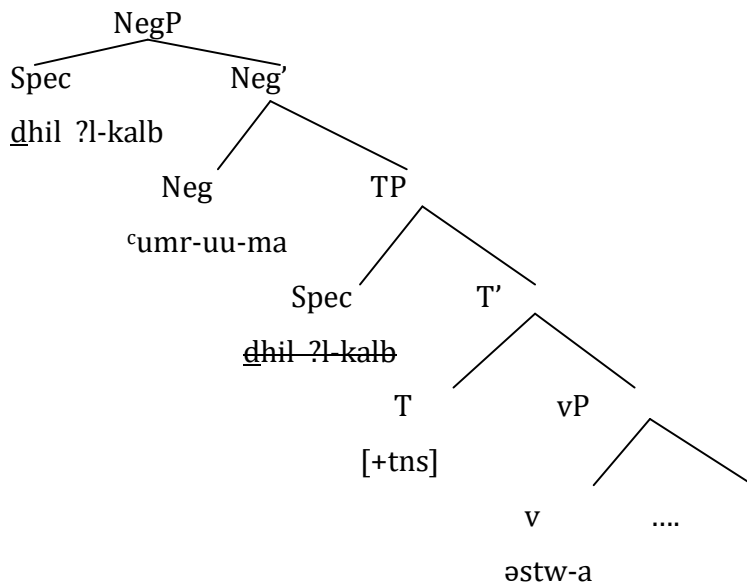
Likewise, negation precedes existential expletives in (34):

(34) **Ma-famma-š**   duxaan min ġir naar.
   NEG-there-**NEG** smoke   without fire
   'There is no smoke without fire.'

As is well known, expletives are generated in Spec, TP in order to satisfy the Extended Projection Principle (EPP) of T. Again the fact that the expletive is merged with negation can be captured only if NegP is placed higher than TP.

Based on the evidence presented above, the study proceeds with the assumption that NegP is higher than TP in TA.

5. Deriving Negation Patterns

Pursuing the proposal that NegP is higher than TP along the lines of phase-based minimalism, two issues are raised; one about the position to which the subject moves and another about the motivation for this movement.

For the first question, the fact that the subject precedes the negative and the predicate in SV sentences as well as in verbless sentences indicates that the subject has moved from Spec, TP to a higher position. The most likely available position is the spec position of NegP.

As for the second question, it can be then argued, in line with the recent extensions of the EPP (Chomsky 2001) to become a property of all core functional categories including Complementizer (C), T and v, that movement of the subject to Spec, NegP is motivated by the need to satisfy the EPP requirement of the negative head. Accordingly, the EPP property of Neg is satisfied by Internal Merge which involves movement of the agreeing subject to Spec, NegP.

(35)

NegP

```
Spec            Neg'
subject
              Neg      TP

                    Spec      T'
INTERNAL MERGE      s̶u̶b̶j̶e̶c̶t̶
                            T     vP
```
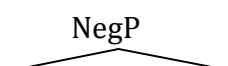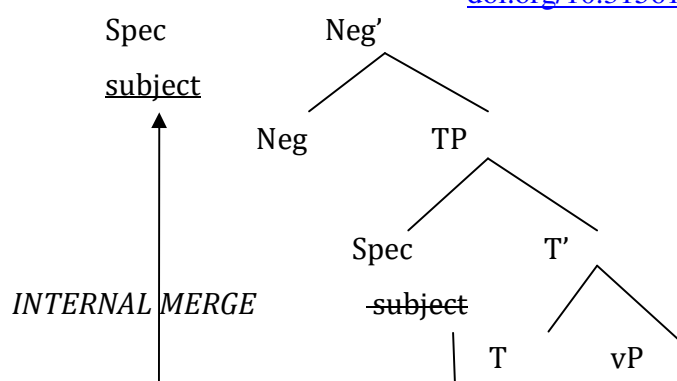
The view that the subject moves to Spec, NegP gains extra support from negative verbless sentences as in the following examples:

(36) ?əl ᶜibra   bil   feᶜl   **muš**   bil   klem.
      The moral with   action **NEG**   with   words
      "Actions speak louder than words."

(37) ?alf xutwa   **w-laa**   tanġiza.
      One thousand pace   and **NEG** a jump
      'One thousand pace is better than a jump.'

As can be noticed, TA verbless proverbs have a fixed word order in which the subject comes first, followed by the negative particle and the predicate. In (36), *?əl ᶜibra bil feᶜl* is followed by a prepositional phrase predicate *bil klem*; while in (37) ?alf xutwa is followed by a nominal phrase predicate *tanġiza*. To account for word order facts in these sentences, the subject is in the specifier position of NegP after its movement from the lower specifier position of TP. Note that in spite of the absence of a verbal predicate, these sentences are marked for present tense that therefore contains a TP in their structure.

(38)

```
              NegP
      Spec            Neg'
    ?alf  xutwa     Neg        TP
                    w-laa    Spec       T'
                          ?̶a̶l̶f̶ ̶x̶u̶t̶w̶a̶   T    NP
                                      [+Pr]  tanġiza
```
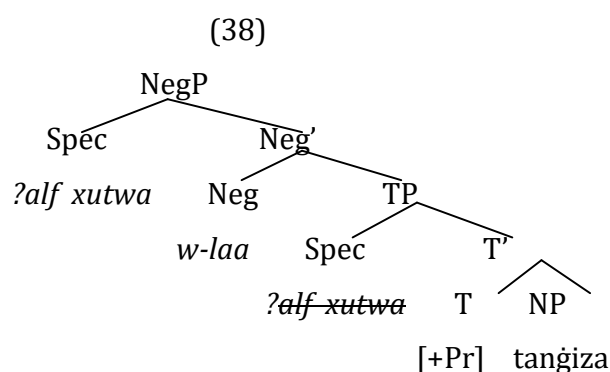
As for negative pronoun constructions, the pronoun merges with the negative particles /ma- *š*/ in the pattern NEG-PRON-NEG as in the following:

(39) ?illi **ma-huuš** mestanis bil bxuur tethraq hwayj-uu.
Who **NEG**-3SM. used to incense burn-3SF. Clothes-his
'He who is not used to incense will burn his clothes.'

One issue is how such merger takes place. This study opts for the incorporation analysis along the lines of Aoun *et al.* (2010). Accordingly, since negative pronoun *ma-huuš* carries full agreement with the DP subject and merges with negation in a way similar to verbs in verbal sentences, it is a subject pronoun, i.e., maximal projections, merged with the negative head.

Syntactically, *ma-huuš* occurs in verbless clause like (39) above where there is no verbal predicate to merge with negation and tense. Since the subject pronoun is in the spec position of TP which is, in turn, dominated by NegP, the subject cliticizes into the negative head in the post syntactic component. Linear adjacency between the pronoun in Spec, TP and Neg results in incorporation of the pronoun into the negative head.

6. Conclusion

The significance of this paper springs from the fact that the research on TA, in general, and on negatives, in particular, is very minimal. This paper attempted to shed some light upon continuous and discontinuous negative particles according to their occurrences in TA proverbs, i.e., verbal and non verbal sentences and according to their syntactic positions in these sentences. The types of negation discussed here are not comprehensive because this paper does not cover all the strategies of negation. Further research may work on correlative negative constructions.

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Hybridity in J. M. Coetzee's *Waiting for the Barbarians*: the Ethical Turn

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Abstract

The atmosphere of violence and oppression overshadowing the Self/Other encounter inCoetzee's *Waiting for the Barbarians* (2000) may suggest a lingering disparity and confrontation between Self and Other that would dash any hope for a possible reconciliation between them. However, the process of moral transformation that the Magistrate, thecentral protagonist in the novel, undergoes reveals the possibility of Self/Other hybridization and, thus, paves the way for a conceivable harmonization between different ethnicities and cultures. Being located in the "interstitial space" (Bhabha, 1994, p. 2) between two cultures, it becomes the fate of the Magistrate to articulate and negotiate the possibility of a hybrid inter-relationship between 'Empire' and 'Barbarians.' Eventually, being the narrator and thus the enunciator of discourse in the novel, it is also he who has to carry out the burden of (re)writing the history of the outpost and probably that of the Empire.

Introduction

The hybridity process in the novel is examined in the light of three main axes in the Magistrate's development as a character, which take the form of three important trips he makes along the narrative. His first trip to the granary as a dutiful official in the service of Empire unexpectedly exposes him to the institutionalized acts of torture undertaken by the

Third Bureau officers. Then, his trip to the across the border to barbarian lands changes his attitude towards the barbarian girl and her tribe. Finally, his second trip to the granary as a prisoner accused of "treacherously consorting with the enemy" (p. 85) makes him face the ugly side of the Empire. These three trips are, indeed, decisive in triggering the Magistrate's process of ethical awakening as well as allowing him to dwell in an in-between space. More importantly, they mark a radical transformation in the Magistrate's character that takes the form of dissidence from the mainstream ideology of the Empire. After enduring humiliation and torture, the Magistrate shows enough courage and determination not only to stand up against Col. Joll to denounce torture publicly but also to speak,albeit vicariously, for the silenced Other when has the opportunity to translate the barbarian texts imprinted on wooden slips.

I. Hybridity as an Ethical Space of Self/Other Intersubjectivity

In his conceptualization of cultural differences, Homi Bhabha (1994) seeks to review the claims of originality and fixity of cultural identity. He contends that the hybrid identity emerges from the negotiation and interaction between Self and Other. It challenges "essentialist claims for the inherent authenticity or purity of cultures" (p. 58). In the hybrid encounter between the Self and the Other, the notion of cultural boundaries is redefined. It no longer suggests the limit and the end of the cultural identity of the Self. Rather, it announces the beginning, or in Bhabha's words, a "presencing" (p. 5)of the Other. Bhabha tends not only to revise the rigid and established demarcations of cultural identity but also to propose a fluid and flexible paradigm of subjectivity that operates beyond the fixed contours of essentialist discourses.

The relation between cultural identities, Bhabha maintains,is not a corollary of an ontological encounter that engenders and sustains power hierarchization between Self and Other; it rather proceeds from the "discursive strategy of a moment of interrogation [...] [that] *splits the difference*[italics in the original]between Self and Other so that both positions are partial; neither is sufficient unto itself" (pp. 49-50). For Bhabha, the process of cultural hybridization enhances inclusion and "negotiation" between cultural identities instead of exclusion and "negation" (p. 25) of one another. The advantage of negotiation, Bhabha advances, lies in its emphasis on the heterogeneity of discourse as opposed to the

homogeneous and monolithic colonial discourse. In this regard, the claims of integrity and unity of identityare subverted by the emergence and proliferation of discourses from the margin that challenge any attempt to either monopolize or standardize the process of discourse enunciation.

Through advocating the concept of hybridity, Bhabha aspires that "[i]t is in this space that we will find those words with which we can speak of Ourselves and Others. And by exploring this hybridity, this 'Third Space,' we may elude the politics of polarity and emerge as the others of ourselves" (p. 209). Cultural hybridity, then, creates a space of interaction that is capable ofnot only subverting the antagonism characterizing Self/Other relationship but also reinscribing the Other as an active agent in the articulation of discourse.

The Levinasian conception of 'ethical subjectivity,'[1]which presupposes an interrelationship between Self and Other a priori to ontology, can serve as an ethical prism from which this article attempts to explore the postcolonial perception of post-binary hybrid identity[2] as a constructive space of becoming which has the potential to overcome the binary discourse predicating on Cartesian mind/body dichotomy according to which the mind is deemed as the seat of consciousness and subjectivity, whereas the body serves only as a mechanical apparatus and container for that consciousness.

Defining what he designates as an ethical subjectivity, Emmanuel Levinas(1998) points out that "this identity is pre-original, anarchic, older than every beginning. It is […] the extreme exposure to the assignation by the other […]. *The assignation is entry into me by burglary*[emphasis added], that is, without showing itself" (p. 145). The concurrence between the 'assignation' of the Self by the Other and the act of 'burglary' insinuates that the "irruption of the other" (Attridge,2004, p. 138) is not so much an act of visitation as it is an unexpected and, probably, disturbing penetration into the subject's consciousness. The disruptive appearance of the Other, or 'neighbor' as Levinas prefers to call, takes a form of an overwhelming incursion into the Self which leads to the "negation of the present and of representation [and] finds its positive form in proximity, responsibility and substitution" (Levinas, 1998, p. 151). The moral responsibility engendered by the presence of the uninvited Other exceeds any attempt by the Self to assimilate the Other or recognize its

alterity because it is in this recognition that the Self tends to transform the Other from incommensurability to intelligibility.

The Other resists any process of containment attempted by discourse because, as Levinasputs it forward, it "cannot be reduced to anymodality of distance or geometrical contiguity." The ethical responsibility for the Other is then a "substitution of one for the other, and the condition [...] of being hostage" (p. 6). The moral obligation for the Other cannot occur without producing a sense of disruption of the Self by alterity. Entering into the process of self-substitution for the Other, the Self sacrifices its own sameness by undergoing a process of erasure that ends up with the loss of its unitary identity the moment it engages with otherness. The mere presence of the Other, as an irreducible and thus unintelligible entity, disrupts the boundaries between identities and subverts presumptions of purity and originality.

II.The First Trip to the Granary: the Wrong Turn

In *Waiting for the Barbarians*, the Magistrate seems to be the only character in the novel endowed with the moral capability to change and transform into an understanding and compassionate person. He reveals a tendency to deal with what he has to escape. The Magistrate becomes more able to admit the inevitability of recognizing and assuming the responsibility for the historical crimes that his compatriots have committed. His trip to the granary, where Colonel Joll interrogates and tortures the innocent indigenous barbarians, initiates his sense of guilt and acknowledgement of shared responsibility for the regime's crimes against them. He confesses:

> It is the knowledge of how contingent my unease is, how dependent on a baby that wails beneath my window [...] that brings the worst shame to me [...]. I know too much; and from that knowledge, once one has been infected, there seems to be no recovering. I ought never to have taken my lantern to see what was going on in the hut by the granary [...]. There was no way, once I had picked up the lantern, for me to put it down again." (pp. 22-23)

The Magistrate appears to be less willing to accept his destiny to be an accomplice and sometimes an active participant in state-condoned acts of torture. It is out of moral obligation that he opts for a much more painful destiny in which he has to carry the burden of recognizing the crimes as a way to attain not only self-reformation and salvation, but above all reconciliation with the Other. The Magistrate finds it inevitable to traverse a transitory space between the Self and the Other. He has to abandon the Empire's self-centered view, which tends to contain the Other through erasing its alterity, and instead acquire a more inclusive view that respects and accepts the Other as it really is and not as it is supposed to be.

The transformation of the Magistrate's moral attitude is reflected in the metaphorical act of "trespassing" from "holy" to "unholy" (pp. 6-7) territories. He makes a journey from a detached and tranquil mode of existence to a more disrupted one in which he has to endure agony and humiliation. Therefore, his act of trespassing can be read as a sort of direct involvement in the Third Bureau's business of torture, which will later develop into an open confrontation with Colonel Joll. However, the crossing from the holy to the unholy, which indicates a reversal in the Magistrate's life, is not smooth and straightforward. Rather, his decision to take the lantern to the granary and "see for [him]self" (p. 10) marks, indeed, a beginning of a long and painful process of moral transformation that demands sacrifices such as losing his old Self, his old habits, and his political authority as a representative of the Empire in the remote outpost.

Before his moral transformation, the Magistrate identifies himself with the Empire's mainstream ideology that denigrates and dehumanizes the barbarians. From the outset, the Magistrate's words and deeds reflect his affiliation to the Empire's ethnocentric assumptions that promote the idea that since the Empire is the center of civilization, innovation, and progress, its people, therefore, are presumed to be a superior race compared to the barbarians, who are systematically referred to as an uncivilized and inferior people. When Colonel Joll is making his preparations for the second military expedition, the Magistrate asks him about the itinerary: "if you get lost it becomes our task to find you and bring you back to civilization" (p. 13). Although the outpost is viewed by the dwellers of the capital as a remote and marginalized settlement that is situated on the

fringe of the Empire, it represents for the Magistrate a center of civilization compared to the barbarian territories. Just before that, when the Magistrate tries to deter Colonel Joll from starting his campaign inside the barbarian lands as he alludes to them as "inhospitable parts," he reminds Col. Joll of the fact that: "You and I are strangers – you even more than I. I earnestly advise you not to go" (p. 12). The Magistrate tries to emphasize the fact that he and Joll belong to the same identity despite the distance. The Magistrate is aware that in spite of his marginalized position vis-a-vis Colonel Joll, as he is situated away from the metropolitan center, he still belongs to the Self.

As he associates himself with the civilized center, the Magistrate adopts and echoes the same racial prejudices and stereotypes encapsulated in the imperial discourse. Blinded by the ethnocentric ideology of the Empire, the Magistrate reiterates the same stereotypical images engendered by imperial discourse that depicts the barbarians as an inferior race endowed with bestial traits. Once, while observing them, he notices that "one corner of the yard has become a latrine where men and women squat openly and where a cloud of flies buzzes all day" (p. 21). When Colonel Joll sends back to the outpost some fishermen and nomads he misconceives as conspirators against Empire, it has become the responsibility of the Magistrate to keep them under his custody till interrogation begins.

During this time, he starts observing these barbarians through the Empire's colonial eye: "in a day or two these savages seem to forget they ever had another home. Seduced utterly by the free and plentiful food […] doze and wake, grow excited as mealtimes approach" (pp. 20-21). The Magistrate seems to have overlooked the fact that these barbarians have not come to the settlement as immigrants or intruders; rather, they have already been abducted from their native homeland and brought in the outpost as captives. As a group of prisoners enclosed into the courtyard like a herd of cattle, it becomes somehow understandable that they may behave as such since they have to adapt to the strange environment imposed on them.

At this stage of the narrative, the Magistrate is still part of the Self as he is entangled within the colonial process of othering and stereotyping. Accordingly, despite the few signs of sympathy he has shown earlier towards the first barbarian prisoners, the old man and the young boy, he still undervalues the newly-captured barbarians who according to him

are so wretched and animal-like that they do not deserve any decent human treatment. However, shocked at and shaken by the horrible and wretched state in which he finds the barbarian prisoners, after being interrogated and tortured by Colonel Joll, the Magistrate starts describing them not according to the Empire's standards but rather according to human standards: "I last saw them five days ago (if I can claim ever to have seen them, if I ever did ever more than pass my gaze over their surface absently, with reluctance) [...]. They stand in a hopeless little knot in the corner of the yard, nomad and fisherfolk together, sick, famished, damaged, terrified" (p. 26). This can be considered as a slight but significant shift in the Magistrate's attitude towards the barbarians. He becomes more skeptical about his affiliation to the imperial ruthless indifference to the barbarians' human suffering.

Although the Magistrate reveals feelings of sympathy and compassion for the barbarians, his changed attitude towards them is not enough to stir him to stand up andopenly condemn the atrocious acts of torture meted out upon the barbarian captives. The Magistrate remains somewhat passive in expressing his unfulfilled wish, which is expressed in the mood shift from the indicative to the subjunctive, to bury the shameful history of colonialism: "It would be best if this obscure chapter in the history of the world were terminated at once, if these ugly people were obliterated from the face of the earth and we swore to make a new start, to run an empire in which there would be no more injustice, no more pain" (p. 26). In order to discharge himself of the shame of Empire, which fails to establish a more humane system, the Magistrate thinks:

> It would cost little to march out into the desert (having put a meal in them first, perhaps, to make the march possible), to have them dig [...] a pit large enough for all of them to lie in, and leaving them buried forever and forever, to come back to the walled town full of new intentions, new resolutions. (p. 26)

The Magistrate seems to have lost faith in the Empire and, thus, the possibility of reforming it. The only course for the Empire to maintain its dominion is to erase the obscure and shameful pages of its colonial history and hope to start "new chapters and clean pages." Nonetheless, the Magistrate is aware that he has no place in the new order, as "that will not be [his] way. The new men of Empire are the ones who believe in fresh starts." For the Magistrate, who belongs to the old order, it is a different course that he has to take and a

different territory he has to traverse: "I struggle on with the old story, hoping that before it is finished it will reveal to me why it was that I thought it worth the trouble" (p. 26). The idea of making new starts and creating new histories through effacing the past is only an illusion on which the Empire feeds. Inventing an alternative history can hardly erase or replace the real and shameful colonial history. The Magistrate wants to tell the people in power (the Third Bureau) that creating new histories would imply the destruction and annihilation of both the Other as well as the Self. The Magistrate sees to it that he does not have to turn his back to that history.Instead, he has to face it even if it costs him humiliation, degradation, and pain. The moment he decides to take his lantern to the granary, where Colonel Joll imprisons the barbarians for interrogation, is indeed a point of no return in the Magistrate's process of moral transformation.

Therefore, torture in the novel plays a central role in the Magistrate's ethical awakening. It stirs his sense of human suffering insofar as it becomes his mission not only to redeem the colonial history of the Empire through becoming more involved and caring towards the barbarians, which takes the form of the nightly rituals of washing and cleansing of the barbarian girl, but above all to reconcile with the Other through breaking the wall of separation between Self and Other.

III. Border-Crossing Trip: 'Deficient' Vs. 'Whole' Other

At a crucial moment in the narrative, the Magistrate decides to cross the border to take the girl back to her people. This can be considered as a landmark in the development of the Self/Other relationship in the novel. Indeed, the process of moral transformation that the Magistrate goes through would not have been fulfilled, had he had not encountered the barbarian girl, the figure of otherness in the story. It is through his probing and deciphering of the marks of mutilation engraved on the girl's body, which correlates with Joll's violent process of interrogation, that the Magistrate discovers his complicity not only with the latter, but also with the Empire's colonial project that tends to inscribe its colonial statement upon the Other's body.Contemplating his hidden motives, he wonders:

> I tell myself that she submits because of her barbarian upbringing. But what do I know of barbarian upbringings? What I call submission may be nothing but

indifference [...]. While I have not ceased to see her as a body maimed, scarred, harmed, she has perhaps by now grown into and become that new deficient body. (pp. 60-61)

From the moment he fall upon the barbarian girl, the Magistrate starts sensing and then confronting his complicity with Joll's inhuman treatment of the barbarian prisoners. Hence, his decision to "take [his] distance from Colonel Joll" (p. 48). The Magistrate's relationship with the barbarian girl makes him realize that he can never understand the agony of the oppressed barbarians while he is taking the position of the oppressor. He decides to face it through conceding the subject position of the Self and occupying instead the abject position of the Other, the position of the oppressed.

From the outset, the Magistrate imagines that it would be relevant to interpret and understand the marks of torture on the barbarian girl's body, once he takes her in his apartments. Nevertheless, unlike the wooden slips through which the Magistrate manages to produce, though provisionally, some meaning that may represent the terrible experience of the colonized, the barbarian girl constitutes a challenging riddle for him:

> But with this woman it is as if there is no interior, only a surface across which I hunt back and forth seeking entry. Is this how her torturers felt hunting their secret [...]. For the first time I feel a dry pity for them: how natural a mistake to believe that you can burn or tear or hack your way into the secret body of the other. (p. 46)

Throughout the narrative, the girl remains a surface "without aperture" (p. 45), entirely evasiveto the Magistrate's process of deciphering. During her stay with the Magistrate, she does not provide much information about herself nor her culture.As she resorts to silence as a form of resistance to the process of probing for the truth deployed by both Col. Joll and the Magistrate, her body becomes a site of interpretation and speculation. Therefore, the Magistrate ends up desperate in the face of the girl's blankness.He fails to comprehend the Other's history through digging deep into the Other's body.

His reconsideration of his attitude towards the barbarian girl, however, unveils his feelings of concern about and sympathy for the Other. His sense of moral obligationsteers him to take the girl back to her people. Officially, the journey is taken in order to "repair

some of the damage wrought by the forays of the Third Bureau[…] and to restore some of the goodwill that previously existed" (p. 62). However, it is more significant to regard the Magistrate's decision to take such a trip as a pivotal step in the process of his moral transformation.

The Magistrate's trip to return the girl to her clan leads him into an alien and unchartered territory in which he realizes the limits of his knowledge of the Other. Being situated away from the Empire,the Magistrate finally becomes able to observe for the first time some of the girl's human qualities heearlier failed to notice. It is only now that he becomes able to see the girl's skillfulness to survive the harsh and severe natural conditions. Along the journey, the Magistrate observes that she is the only one who does not get sick from the salty tea made with the melted ice-water from the marsh.She sleeps as soundly as a baby in the bitter, cold, and dusty weather. Most notably, she always looks happy, smiling, joking, and especially articulate as she is "at no loss for words" (p. 68).

The strength, endurance, and the joy of life that the girl reveals during the trip urgesthe Magistrate to see her not so much a maimed and deficient body as she is "a witty, attractive young woman" (p. 68). He realizes that instead of "giving her a good time [he] oppressed her with gloom" (p. 68) and inconsiderate imposition of his selfish desire. Feeling disillusioned with the high value that he has ascribed to civilization, he starts sensing the impotence of the Empire to communicate authentic and sincere human feelings for the Other. The girl at first seems to be indecipherable when she is regarded as a mere object of scrutiny that bears witness, through the marks of torture on her body, to the atrocity of the colonial history of the Empire. However, the Magistrate's act of turning to "embrace her, draw her tight against [him]" (p. 70) reveals his wish to reach out to her as a human beingwith whom he can reciprocate feelings of love and tenderness.

The Magistrate's hybrid position takes shape in the act of crossing the border: the interval space that bridges the gap between the Self and the Other. This act can be interpreted as both an interruption in the linear and teleological course of history that the Empire tries to impose on its subjects. Living in the here and now suggests articulating heterogeneous versions of history that can encompass different histories and dissimilar cultural identities. Moreover, the border becomes a space of encounter and negotiation that

is capable of articulating new signs of hybrid identity germinating on the fringe of the Empire. Having physically and metaphorically entered this space, the Magistrate is, indeed, released and somewhat liberated from the heavy spell of the Empire's colonial ideology. It is only now that he becomes able to view the barbarian girl as a whole being, a "whole woman" (p. 70), rather than seeing her as a fragmented entity, impersonal discrete parts of a deformed body.

As culmination of the Magistrate's moral awakening, the trip across the border to the barbarian land lasts for twelve days, a numberthat usually indicates a "completed cycle" (Cirlot, 1971, p. 234)[3]and can be described as "symbolic of cosmic order and salvation"(p. 234) because of its association with the number of the Zodiac signs. Theaccomplishmentof the Magistrate's journey across the borderis symbolically represented by the "purification ceremony" exercised on the twelfth day of the journey: "I draw a line in the sand, lead her across it, wash her hands and mine, then lead her back across the line into the camp" (Coetzee, 2000,p. 76). This ritual of purification symbolizes the cleansing of the Magistrate's from the guilt and shame of serving the Empire.

The crossing of the line may be interpreted as a metaphorical transition from an old identity, affiliating to the Empire's nationalist identity, to a much reformed and purified one that is capable of tolerating and, above all, accepting the Other's difference. As the Magistrate points out: "in twelve days on the road we have grown closer than in months of living in the same rooms" (p. 76). The improved interaction between them unveils the Magistrate's changed attitude towards the Other. On the other hand, the ritual may suggest a physical union between him and the girl, whose monthly bleeding indicates the ripeness of her womanhood. It may signify a fulfillmentin their relationship not only as two lovers, but also as two equal human beings regardless of their ethnic or cultural differences. The consummation of their relationship is reflected in their full sexual intercourse. The Magistrate describes the girl as "warm, swollen, ready for [him]; in a minute five months of senseless hesitancy are wiped out" (p. 69). The lovemaking takes place only when the Magistrate recognizes the Other, despite its difference, its deficiency, as a human counterpart.

The encounter with the girl's clan,"mountain barbarians" by the end of the journey spurs the Magistrateto condemn the Empire's hegemonic political and economic

expansionist policy which has resulted in the displacement of the native population, who have been "pushed off the plains into the mountains by the spread of Empire" (p. 78). He expresses both his regret and shame for never having tried enough to conceive of them as human beings but just as a *barbarian*s. He admits:

> I have never before met northerners on their own ground on equal terms: the barbarians I am familiar with are those who visit the oasis to barter, and the few who make their camp along the river, and Joll's miserable captives. What an occasion and what a shame too to be here today. (p. 78)

The Magistrate eventually realizes that it is civilization that corrupts the natives' lives and souls by turning them into "lazy, immoral, filthy, stupid" (p. 41)people. He also has a guilty conscience about having never made a sufficient effort to know the natives deeply enough to respect them as a race endowed with ethos, culture and language equal to the people of the Empire. He even expresses his deep regret for not having learnt the barbarian language: "What a waste […], she could have spent those long empty evenings teaching me her tongue! Too late now" (p. 78). The recognition that he is no different from his compatriots in sharing the same stereotypical images that dehumanize the natives leads to theawareness of hisduplicityas a representative of the Empire: "I am patching up relations between the men of the future and the men of the past, returning, with apologies, a body we have sucked dry— a go-between, a jackal of Empire in sheep's clothing" (p. 79). His use of "we" allies him with the "torturers," whom he earlier claimed that "there is nothing to link [him] with," and whom he "must assert [his] distance from" (p. 48). The use of "we" also implies his involvement in the crime of cultural hegemony and economic exploitation committed by Empire. Significantly, it indicates his acknowledgement and acceptance of the shared responsibility and guilt that he has so far feared to face.

IV. The Second Trip to the Granary: Rehumanizing the Other

The Magistrate's capacity for self-examination is triggered after seeing the marks of torture on the prisoners' bodies. Such a potential for change and self-awareness suggests his readiness for moral transformation, even though it would cost him the endurance of the same acts of torture and humiliation the barbarian captives have been through. The journey

the Magistrate makes in order to return the barbarian girl to her people is a process of evolution from an ego-centered indifference to moral responsibility and empathy for the Other. However, the recognition of his demerits and misconceptions marks only the beginning of his moral awakening, In fact, his ethical maturity does not become complete until he reenters the granary as a prisoner this time.

The Magistrate's imprisonment in the granary does not only enable him to experience the suffering and pain that the barbarian captives have endured, but it also arouses his sympathy for and identification with the Other. It also exhorts him to take his fateful decision to end his "alliance with the guardians of the Empire," as well as to "set [him]self in opposition" (p. 85) to their authority. Undergoing torture for the first time, the Magistrate faces the mysteries of the torture chamber he was once obsessed with:

> In my suffering there is nothing ennobling. Little of what I call suffering is even pain […]. When Warrant Officer Mandel and his man first brought me back here and lit the lamp and closed the door, I wondered how much pain a plump comfortable old man would be able to endure in the name of his eccentric notions of how the Empire should conduct itself. But my torturers were not interested in degrees of pain […]. They did not come to force the story out of me […]. They came to my cell to show me the meaning of humanity, and in the space of an hour they showed me a great deal. (p. 126)

In the above passage, Coetzee does not provide the reader with a great deal of details concerning the acts of torture. However, he discloses the narrator's and most probably his own attitude towards torture through invoking the 'meaning of humanity' which is ironically used by the Magistrate to denounce the inhumanity of those in power. Regardless of the nature of the acts of torture, whether they are physical or psychological, they always lead to the debasement, humiliation, and dehumanization of the tortured person.

The solitude of confinement makes the Magistrate experience self-effacement; it even forces him to turn to "the evocation of the ghosts" (pp. 87-88) of the former prisoners as a desperate attempt to spiritually communicate with them and sense what it was like when they were tortured and murdered by Colonel Joll and his men. Dressed in "a woman's

calico smock," he realizes that Joll is "deal[ing] with [his] soul" through the same kind of dehumanizing treatment that he has applied to the other prisoners (pp. 128-29). This experience symbolically stands for a radical metamorphosis in his identity which is suggested by the gender reversal. That is, the Magistrate is probably on the verge of disavowing the Empire's identity, as it is indicated by his having "a crust like a fat caterpillar" (p. 125) on his wounded cheek similar to the girl's as well as by his roaring and shouting in the "barbarian language" that he uses for "calling his barbarian friends" (p. 133). The fact of being hung upside down from a tree suggests that his former stance on the barbarians and the Empire has been subverted, reinforcing the idea that his old Self is lost, that he has "already died one death, on that tree" (p. 138). This mock hanging can probably be compared to the crucifixion of Jesus Christ, which suggests, in addition to the possibility of resurrection and renewal, the ideas of self-sacrifice and martyrdom.The Magistrate's dissent from the racist and oppressive rule of the Empire can be seen asreversal of the Self/Other dichotomy as he ends up in prison like a barbarians/Other,

After his return to the outpost wishing to regain his former position, the Magistrate faces disgrace and incarceration as he is accused of "treasonously consorting with the enemy" (p. 85). It may be true that the journey across the border has literally resulted in the complete ruin and defamation of the Magistrate as far as his reputation and career are concerned. Nonetheless, the same journey has also led to the moral awakening and self-reformation of the Magistrate. Instead of averting his eyes from the crimes committed by the Third Bureau officers, he seems to have gained courage to overwrite the Empire's self-image of being the beacon of civilization and order by describing it as "the black flower of civilization" (p. 86) as well as to refer to Joll and Mandel as the real "enemy" (p. 125).

The Magistrate's attempts at subvertingthe central dichotomies, civilized Self (Empire) *vs.* barbaric Other (enemy), underpinning the colonial/imperialist discourse of the Empire fall within the Foucauldian conceptualization of the notion of parrhesia. In *Discourse and Truth: the Problematization of Parrhesia* (1999), Foucault relates the concept of parrhesia to moral obligation:

> In parrhesia, telling the truth is regarded as a duty. The orator who speaks the truth
> to those who cannot accept his truth, for instance, and who may be exiled, or

punished in some way, is free to keep silent. No one forces him to speak; but he feels

that it is his duty to do so. (…). (I)f he voluntarily confesses his crime to someone else

out of a sense of moral obligation, then he performs a parrhesiastic act. (pp. 5-6)

The Magistrate's open condemnation of torture and genocide crimes committed against unarmed nomads could be described as a 'parrhesiastic' act. His mysterious escape from prison can be regarded as an opportunity to confront Colonel Joll publicly and try to deter him from torturing and mutilating barbarian captives. The Magistrate's decision of standing against the Gestapo-like Third Bureau can be viewed as an embodiment of his unselfishness and self-sacrifice in which he "risks his life because he recognizes truth-telling as a duty"(Foucault, 1999, p. 6).Choking under the heavy blows of the guards, the Magistrate reveals an exceptional degree of audacity and determination, which was less obvious before his journey, to face the Empire at its most oppressive moment in history:

It becomes important to stand up, however difficult the pain makes it. I come to my feet […] 'Not with that!' I shout. The hammer lies cradled in the Colonel's folded arms. […] 'Look!' I shout. I point to the four prisoners who lie docilely on the earth, their lips to the pole, their hands clasped to their faces like monkeys'paws […]. 'We are the great miracle of creation! […] How – !' Words fail me. 'Look at these men!' I recommence. 'Men!' (p. 117)

After enduring many ordeals, the Magistrate is liberated from the racist modes of representations that have dominated colonial discourse. Before that, especially when the first prisoners are brought into the settlement, he adopted the same prejudices that tended to dehumanize the barbarians by representing them as savage and uncivilized creatures unworthy to be treated as equal human beings. Now that he has become a man of conscience who rejects the injustice, even if it is inflicted on the Other, he refers to the barbarians as 'Men' and 'miracle of creation.' They are restored to humanity again. This could be seen as the ultimate reversal of the Empire's ethnocentric ideology that demonizes the barbarians and constructs them as the ultimate "ENEMY" (p. 115).

V.The Surrogate Voice

Through renouncing his complicity with the Empire's oppressive regime, the Magistrate has chosen to take a different course in order to rewrite an alternative version of

the outpost's history, which will not be on the dead bodies of the barbarians as the "new men of Empire" (p. 26) intend to do. Rather, it will be a history of reconciliation in which the Self and the Other, despite their discrepancies or even contradictions, can carry on their co-existence in harmony and mutual toleration. As a sign of his interest in the "old story" (p. 26) of the barbarians is his hobby of excavating and collecting some poplar slips. Through the archaeological activities he performs alternately when he is not with the barbarian girl, the Magistrate tries to dig out the ancient history of the barbarians by deciphering "a cache of wooden slips on which are painted characters in a script [he] ha[s] never seen the like of" (p. 15). The Magistrate finds himself so enthusiastic and highly-motivated to figure out what the characters on the wooden slips mean that he starts "reading the slips in a mirror, or tracing one on top of another, or conflating half of one with half of another" (p. 16).

The Magistrate's preoccupation with the wooden slips is barely limited to the study of their linguistic sign, but it rather extends to examining the cultural signs of the barbarian civilization, which as he expects was no less sophisticated and developed than other civilizations. He imagines that if he can arrange these slips in the right way, they may probably turn to be "a map of the land of the barbarians in olden times, or a representation of a lost pantheon" (p. 16).Earlier the Magistrate did not hide his feelings of disdain and contempt towards the barbarian prisoners. But now he treats their ancient civilization with great reverence and devotion. Nonetheless, he gets gradually filled with despair at his fruitless and futile toiling as he admits that his actions of digging and deciphering are "[v]ain, idle, [and] misguided" (p. 18). The Magistrate is left with a feeling that no matter how long and no matter how deep he excavates, he will not find what he is looking for, as "[t]he signs did not come" (p. 17).

Therefore, he ends up frustrated, unable to find a fixed meaning about the Other: "I pamper my melancholy and try to find in the vacuousness of the desert a special historical poignancy" (p. 18). He eventually fails to access the history and culture of the barbarians as he did with the girl earlier. He understands that his attempt to penetrate the Other is parallel to the imperial representation that tends to control the Other through containing it within its power structure. The Magistrate dramatically discovers his complicity with Joll. Ironically, his probing for the truth is only a softer version of the Joll's acts of torture which

are used to coerce the prisoners to tell the truth. This revelation marks an important shift in the Magistrate's moral transformation as he puts an end the process of deciphering the Other.

Unlike the Magistrate, Colonel Jollis blinded by both his military background and paranoid fear of the barbarians. He fails to recognize that the poplar slips are actually ancient relics that belong to an old civilization. Instead, he considers that they "contain messages passed between [the Magistrate] and other barbarian parties" (p. 121). When the Magistrate is forced by his interrogators to translate the wooden slips, he gets puzzled and confused by the situation. He does not even know "whether to read them from right to left or from left to right" (p. 121). However, he grasps the opportunity to interpret them in his own way; that is, he attempts to create another version of history told, he imagines, from the perspective of the Other.

Before exploring the content of the story he fabricates, it is worth mentioning that this scene has spurred much controversial criticism, most of which centers around the ability of language to represent the world in an objective and accurate way. In his essay "The Presence of Absence" (1985), Lance Olsen adopts a postmodern reading of the novel. He focuses on this particular scene to develop his argument that Coetzee's narrative places "truth under erasure" (p. 47), which is basically instigated by "the frustration, a despair before the arbitrariness of language and its essential defectiveness for depicting the world" (p. 55). Accordingly, the Magistrate's multiple interpretations of the wooden slips reveal the inability of language to establish a stable and congruent relation between the signifier and the signified. As a result, the meaning remains provisional as it "floats free" (p. 53) in a continuous deferral. This is reflected in the Magistrate's failure to reach a conclusive understanding of the barbarian girl, the wooden slips, and the dreams.

Nevertheless, Susan VanZanten Gallagher (1988) expresses her disagreement with Olsen's conclusions concerning the Magistrate's interpretation of the wooden slips. She argues that "the Magistrate gives the language a temporary father-interpreter" (p. 280). Namely, the Magistrate takes advantage of his position as an interpreter to create a story through which he attempts to disclose the cruelty of Empire towards the barbarians. Gallagher maintains that "in the Magistrate's translation of the tiles lies the hope that in

storytelling—important, opaque, and uncertain as it might be—oppression and torture may be unveiled" (p. 281). Therefore, the role of 'father-interpreter' played by the Magistrate has the function to give "temporary presences" (p. 285) for the oppressed barbarians in the narrative.

Although Gallagher's reading of the Magistrate's translation of the wooden slips has managed to provide some stability to the sign through relating the storytelling to the acts of torture, it is less evident that it has succeeded in validating the enunciator of that sign, as the Magistrate's voice, which is that of the Self, interpolates that of the barbarians. In fact, reading the aforementioned scene from a postcolonial perspective would shift the level of emphasis from the problematic of relating language to meaning to the appropriation of the agency producing that meaning. In a colonial situation, where the colonizer/colonized relationship is negotiated, the production and control of meaning, which is part of the colonial representation of the colonized, is of primary importance for the colonizers to maintain their subject position in the enunciation of discourse.

Throughout the narrative, the Other remains speechless and, thus, unable to appropriate agency of self-representation. It is only through the intervention of the Magistrate, who curiously becomes a sort of de facto spokesman, that the barbarian voice could be heard. Forced into translating the wooden slips, then, the Magistrate, who has earlier failed to decipher them, grasps the opportunity to grant a voice to the voiceless Other. Unlike the Empire, which tries to monopolize the agency of representation in order to use it as a hegemonic tool for self-realization, the Magistrate tries to break the silence/censorship imposed on the barbarians through serving as a surrogate voice for them. However, vicariously speaking for the barbarian is the best that the Magistrate can do, especially in a colonial context where the colonizer has to impose his/her own history through exempting, obliterating, and muting the colonized.

Speaking from the perspective of the barbarians, the Magistrate tries to provoke Colonel Joll: "It is the barbarian character war, but it has other senses too. It can stand for vengeance, and if you turn it upside down like this, it can be made to read justice" (p. 122). The Magistrate plays on the polysemy of the barbarian sign to convey the following message: as a warning to Colonel Joll and his countrymen that one day the oppressed

barbarians will come back to start a war in order to seek vengeance or bring about justice. The Magistrate's invention of a range of contradictory meanings leaves the ultimate meaning of the poplar slips "open to interpretation" (p. 123). Rather than allowing these elusive slips, "which can be read in many ways" to "form an allegory" (p. 122), which imposes one single interpretation, the Magistrate refuses to fix them into a unitary version of truth. He, thereby, challenges the Empire's main intention of deciphering the barbarian text according to a schema that meets its official version of the truth: the barbarians are conspiring against the Empire.

In a postcolonial context, the multiplicity of meaning challenges the homogeneity and unidimentionality of colonial discourse that tends to undermine the voices of alterity through mechanisms of containment or obliteration. Therefore, the barbarian polysemous characters in the wooden slips can be regarded as a goldmine for the Magistrate to allow the emergence of the marginalized voices, which are silenced by the dominant discourse of the Empire. More equally, by providing a variety of interpretations to the wooden slips, then, the Magistrate relinquishes, though temporarily and relatively, his identity and adopts that of the Other in order to impugn the Empire's stratagem effected against the barbarians. Through this act of self-effacement, the Magistrate seeks to uncover the crimes and violence of an empire with which he was once complicit, but now he lives within its geographical boundaries but thinking and behaving without its imperial ideology.

At the end of the novel, despite his resumption of "the legal administration that was interrupted a year ago by the arrival of the Civil Guard" (p. 159), the Magistrate seems reluctant to regain his subject-position in the hierarchical structure of the Self. Ashe has abandoned the process of deciphering and representing the Other, he now renounces writing the chronicle of the out postrepresenting dark history of colonialism. In his last dream, he sees some children building a snowman wearing a crown, which is a symbol of a new empire, yet it looks deformed as it "will need arms too" (p. 170). This is a reference to the Other in the novel who is depicted as 'maimed' and 'deficient.' The Magistrate feels "inexplicably joyful," not because his dream finally becomes transparent and discernible, but because he needs no more to understand, probe, and above all impose representation on the Other: "Anxious not to alarm them […] I do not want to interfere" (p. 170).

Therefore, if we interpret the misshapen snowman as a new empire, which is still underway of construction, the Magistrate's final attitude, then, can be considered as an ethical awakening that leads him to challenge the barriers installed by imperialist discourseandto recognize the Other as a different entity that has full rightto (co)exist on its own terms. The final scene of the children building the snowman is, indeed, an announcement of the possibility of (re)constructing a future nation that can not only exist beyond the actual imperial structure of signs, but also offer the opportunity for the future generations to live together in mutuality. By occupying an in-between position, the Magistrate becomes eventually able to articulate new signs of identity in which the toleration and recognition of otherness constitute the cornerstone to build the edifice of a humane and most of all a viable nation.

Conclusion

The Magistrate's three trips, two to the granary and one across the border, were decisive in triggering the process of his moral awakening as he comes face to face with the reality of torture as a practice authorized by the state. Despite his disavowal of the oppressive regime of the Empire, the Magistrate unwillingly becomes involved in the violent history of colonialism. It is only through undergoing a painful process of abjection and humiliation that he becomes able to slough off the imperialist mindset of the Empire and liberate himself from the guilt of being once an accomplice in its policy of oppression and subjugation of the so-called barbarians. Throughout the process of his ethical awakening, the Magistrate has managed to survive the turbulent cycle of paranoia and unprecedented toll of violence brought about by the Third Bureau by adopting an intersubjective and hybrid relationship with the Other. Far from ending up in a mournful and sorrowful state in which he looks back to the history of colonialism with reproachful eyes, the Magistrate ends up as a an ethically-reformed person capable of looking forward to new possibilities, different modes of living, and above all new signs of culture emanating from the margin.

Endnotes

[1] This expression is used by Richard A. Cohen in his "Foreword" (p. xii) to Levinas's*Otherwise Than Being* (1998)to designate the transformation that the Self undergoes from a monadic subjectivity to intersubjectivity.

[2] The Levinasian ethics occupies an important space in postcolonial discourse concerning the Self/Other inter-relationships. Homi Bhabha (1994) regards the Levinasian ethical view of the Other as a pivotal perspective from which to interpret the Self/Other hybridity in postcolonial texts. He states, "For Levinas the 'art-magic' of the contemporary novel lies in its way of 'seeing inwardness from the outside', and it is this ethical-aesthetic positioning that returns us, finally, to the community of the unhomely" (p. 16).

[3] According to *the Dictionary of symbols,* the full definition of number twelve is the following: "symbolic of cosmic order and salvation. It corresponds to the number of the signs of the Zodiac, and is the basis of all dodecanary groups. Linked to it are the notions of space and time, and the wheel or circle" (Cirlot, 1971, p. 234).

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In Response to Hendrickson's (1978) Third Question: Which Learner Errors Should Be Corrected?

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Abstract

Dealing with learners' errors in Foreign Language (FL) classrooms is highly delicate. FL teachers should raise their awareness about correcting students' written output without demotivating them. Therefore choosing the error to be corrected should be strategic and theory-based instead of being random and unfocused. It is exactly what Hendrickson's (1978) drives to when he asks his famous five questions in relation to error correction. Thus, this paper will investigate solely the third question through investigating the judgment of two groups of teachers; experienced and novice in dealing with learners' written errors on the basis of irritation criterion. These errors fall into five major categories which are as follows lexical, syntactic, morphological, mechanical and miscellaneous errors.The results show that the seriousness of errors differs in the two groups, therefore not all errors should be treated equally. Therefore, this piece of research enriches the error gravity research literature which is very scarce in the Tunisian context.

Keywords: Error gravity, feedback, experience, irritation, severity judgment

Introduction

Questioning the effectiveness of error correction is of a great importance in the field of second language research (L2) to improve learners' accuracy (Ferris 1999; Truscott, 2007; Truscott & Hsu, 2008). The literature shows that the need is increasing in addressing the necessity of providing (L2) learners with effective written corrective feedback (WCF) (Chandler, 2003; Bitchener, Young &Cameron, 2005; Bitchener & Knoch, 2010). So, instead of 'asking whether to provide WCF, an essential question is how we help our students write more accurately" Evans et al.(2010:2). This question is echoed in the five fundamental questions proposed by Henrickson (1978) 1. Should errors be corrected? 2. If so, when

should errors be corrected? 3. Which learner errors should be corrected? 4. How should learner errors be corrected? 5. Who should correct learner errors?

Therefore, the concern of this paper will be on the third question through highlighting teachers' prioritization of the learners' written errors. This question is value-laden because it aids practitioners to be more effective and strategic in drawing the red lines in their students' papers as it is questioned by Zayani (2017) in her article's title « Provide your feedback with a priority in mind: Weighing errors before drawing the red line? »

This study, however, concerns itself with investigating variability among teachers in assessing the gravity of language errors found in the written exams of third-year management students.

1. LITERATURE REVIEW

The field of second language (L2) learning is broad and has been a fertile field for researchers. Error analysis, in particular, is one of the aspects of L2 learning processes that have received much attention from researchers, Eun-pyo (2002). In fact, dealing with the writing skill causes many problems for both teachers and learners, Chan (2010). Moreover, the problematic nature of writing is seen in learning, teaching, and assessment.

1.1. Approaching Learners' errors:

The perception of errors has witnessed a shift from considering it as a 'sin' to valorizing it as a 'sine qua non' in the process of learning and teaching in theory and practice(Corder 1967). In addition, Ellis (2003: 17), claims that "errors reflect gaps in a learner's knowledge; they occur because the learner does not know what is correct". In other words, they occur systematically and they reflect the learner's incomplete knowledge. Errors are related to competence, whereas mistakes are related to performance which "reflect occasional lapses in performance".

The distinction between errors and mistakes is important to account for which learner errors should be corrected? In addition, moreover, accounting for which criterion to adopt?

In making this distinction is more problematic. Therefore, James (1998) has opted for three criteria which are self-correctability, consistency, and frequency of occurrence. As a matter of fact, an erroneous utterance which is not self-correctable, consistent and occurs frequently it is considered as an error and therefore it deserves a priority in correction.

1.2. Error Analysis

Error Analysis (EA) is a focused method in dealing with learners' errors. Corder is the founding father of the so-called error analysis Corder (1974:125) highlights the importance of (EA) in the sense that it "... can tell the teacher how far towards the goal the learner has progressed and consequently, what remains for him or her to learn". AbiSamara (2003), approached this process as "a type of linguistic analysis that focuses on errors committed by learners".

1.3. Methodology of error analysis

Corder (1967) identified an EA model that is made up of three stages which are Data collection, Description and Explanation. Accordingly, this model has been adopted in many other pieces of research such as Ellis (1994) and Gass & Selinker (2008). In addition, Keshavarz (2012) crafted a four-step approach model to address learners' errors. These four steps are as follows: 1) Identification of errors, 2) Description of errors,3) Explanation of errors, and 4) Evaluation of error seriousness.

 Recently Zayani (2017), expanded Keshavarz's (2012) blue print to investigate EA in the Tunisian context. She has proposed the following steps :1) Identification of errors, 2) Description of errors, 3) Evaluation of error seriousness and 4) Explanation of error seriousness. For practical reasons, this study duplicated these steps in analyzing errors.

1.4. Prioritizing errors in Error Gravity Research

With the advent of Error gravity (EG) research, errors acquire more attention in correction through error types which need more priority focus. There is a consensus amongst linguists have agreed (Burt 1975, and Valdman 1975) the error seriousness should be given closer attention to teachers' corrective feedback.

Lee's (2003: 164) questions "How can teachers define the gravity of errors? Which errors should teachers mark, and which errors should they leave alone? These are important questions to explore"indicate his raising awareness of error prioritization issue. In the same vein, Hammerly (1991) claims that error treatment becomes more effective if it is provided selectively. Therefore, Burt (1975) maintains that some errors should be prioritized over other ones. As Ferris (2002) puts it: Are all errors equal or some errors are more important than others? Rings the bell to focus on patterns of error, allowing teachers and students to attend to, say, two or three major error types at a time, rather than dozens of disparate errors Ferris (2002: 50). The inconsistency in judging the seriousness of L2 errors poses another question which is related to the criteria upon which the judgments occur.

In reviewing (EG) research the literature indicates the following criteria: (1) those that are relevant to the pedagogical focus, (2) acceptability, (3) intelligibility (4) frequency (5) irritation and (6) comprehensibility. Since this paper focuses on irritation, the next part will tackle this criterion in depth.

1.5. Irritation as a criterion of error seriousness

Irritation is used as a criterion in studies by many linguists as Piazza (1979), Chastain (1980 a), Galloway (1980), and Ensz (1982). Ludwig (1982:275) defines it as "a function of the speaker/writer's erroneous use of language measured against the characteristics and expectations of the interlocutor".He described a continuum that ranges from an "unconcerned, distracted awareness of a communicative trait to a conscious, constant preoccupation with form, to the point that the message is totally obscured or lost".

Santos (1988) conceives it as the "bother" factor. Khalil (1985:336) approaches irritation in as "the thing that causes people to stop and take notice of a textual feature. Other studies (Santos, 1987, Vann et al. 1984) link irritation to the hearer/listener. Khalil (1985:366) asserts that irritation is strongly linked to the affective response to error, "native speakers' emotional reactions to deviant utterances". It is what makes people notice the textual feature.In addition, irritating errors cause stigmatization. Thus, Richards (1973) hypothesized that errors which may cause stigmatization should be prioritized.

2. METHODOLOGY:

To investigate the question of Which learner errors should be corrected? teachers must treat written errors in a hierarchy to facilitate the process of the choice of errors to select in correction. Therefore, this research will be an attempt to investigate teachers' differences in reacting to the study written errors in accounting for irritation criterion. There are three main objectives of this study. First, to investigate how teachers judge learners' written errors. Second, to gauge teachers' tolerance/seriousness dichotomy of learners' errors and finally, to shape error gravity hierarchies that reflect teachers' error treatment priority. As far as the research questions are concerned, the study is guided by two research questions.First, how do experienced and novice teachers react to the written errors in adopting irritation criterion? Second, how will written errors be ranked by these two groups of teachers in the light of teaching experience and criteria selection? The Positive directional hypothesis tests if teachers give different weights to students' written errors.

2.1. Subjects

Fifteen university English teachers contributed to this experimental research and they are male and female. The participants are Tunisian and they speak English as a third language after Arabic and French.

2.2. Task Type

The research errors were collected and identified by the researcher.Then they were arranged in a scale- item questionnaire (ranging from 1 to 5). So the questionnaire was made up of sentences including errors to be evaluated. The errors were categorized into five major categories: morphological, lexical, syntactic, mechanical and miscellaneous errors. In fact, the more the number increases the more serious the error is. For example, in if the first error got 2 and the second error got 5, this means that the second error is more serious than the first one because it is more irritating.

2.3. The rationale behind the selected paradigm

An Error analysis research is carried out following Zayani (2017:5) which is based on Keshavarz's model (2012:168) of EA. This model is a good fit for my research

requirements because it is the most recent one in EA research field.This is Zayani (2017:5) adapted EA model :
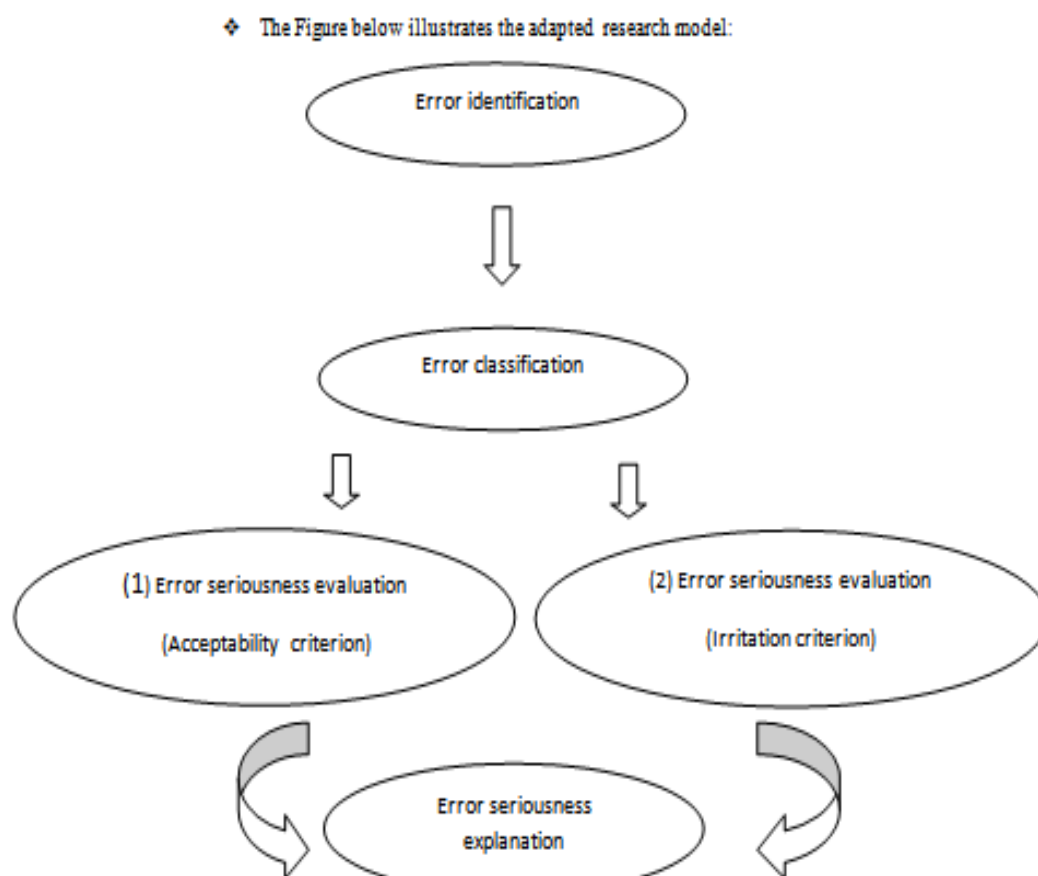
Figure 1: The adapted Error Analysis model on the basis of Keshavarz's (2012) model

2.4. Statistical Tests

The statistics in this study are based on the (SPSS) statistical tool. It is applied to the data of the questionnaire to account for experienced and novice teachers' variation in responding to the study errors. A two-tailed T-test was used to account for teachers' variability in judging the error seriousness. T-test indicates that there is a significant independence of the equality of means if (p) value is less or equal to (0.05).

3. FINDINGS

3.1 Analysis of novice and experienced judgment of error gravity using Irritation criterion :

This part compares the severity scores of novice and experienced teachers' response to the five error categories using the Irritation criterion. An independent Samples T-test indicates that there is no significant independence for equality of means between two groups of teachers in judging the gravity of the five error categories (p=0,083>0.05). So, both groups Scores are close. So, Levene's Test for equality of variances seems to be valid (sig= 0.016<0.05) But, Scores were slightly higher for novice teachers (M=2141, 30 SD=257, 31) than for their experienced counterpart (M=1767, 80, SD=570, 54).Therefore, the analysis will zoom on each error category.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics for scoring severity of error categories in Irritation criterion

Teachers' groups/error categories	Morphological		Lexical		Syntactic		Mechanical		Miscellaneous	
	X	SD	X	SD	X	SD	X	SD	X	SD
Novice	304	47	834	66,39	419	170,16	512,70	101,62	88,30	6,46
Experienced	426,90	152	518	188,90	432	127,63	342,30	115,46	62	15,96

3.1.1. Independence between different Morphological error types and both groups of teachers :

An independent Samples T-test indicates that there is a significant independence for equality of means between two groups of teachers in judging the gravity of Morphological errors (p= 0.025<0.05). For novice teachers (M=304, 10, SD=47) and for experienced teachers (M=426, 90, SD=152).T-test results show that novice teachers are more tolerant to Morphological error types irritation judgment than their experienced teachers. Therefore, the latter group is less lenient in judging the gravity of Morphological error types.

We will fine-tune the analysis by tackling each Morphological error type per se. Therefore, the means of each category are used. Novice teachers' means of severity of these errors are: verb form (M=121,8), noun (M=51,8) adjective (M=40,5) , article (M=37,8), subject-verb agreement (M=36,2) verb tense (M=15,1) and adverb (M=9,6). However, experienced teachers' means of severity of these errors are: verb form(M= 167,9), adjective(M=71,3), noun (M=70), subject-verb agreement (M=48,1), article (M= 45,3), and adverb (M=9,2) verb tense (M=6,4) . These figures show teachers' differences in scoring the morphological error types severity. It seems that both teacher groups give the same error priority to verb form, noun, and adverb. But, they differ in prioritizing the remaining four categories. The latter is judged by novice teachers as follows: adjective, article, subject-verb agreement, and verb tense. However, experienced teachers judge them as follows: verb tense, adjective, subject-verb agreement, article. The analysis of the means of these seven error categories shows the existence of a difference between both groups of teachers.

3.1.2. Independence between different Lexical error types and both groups of teachers :

An independent Samples T-test indicates that there is a significant independence for equality of means between two groups of teachers in judging the gravity of Lexical errors (p= 0.00 <0.05). Scores were significantly higher for novice teachers (M=834, SD=66, 39) than for experienced teachers (M=518, 20, SD=188,90). There is a striking difference between both groups of teachers in the judgment of the gravity of lexical errors in terms of irritation. Thus, the results reflect the high rate of the severity of the group of novice teachers. However, the experienced teachers' severity scores results reflect the leniency of the latter group.

STETs judge the severity of these errors as follows: word choice (M=650,5), word form (M=121,7), pronoun (M=61,8) and collocation (M=46,1). However, Experienced teachers' judge lexical error types as follows: word choice (M=387,5), word form (M=90,1), pronoun (M=40,6) and collocation (M=30,2). There is a significant independence for equality of means between both groups. Therefore there is variability between both groups.

3.1.3. Independence between different Syntactic error types and both groups of teachers

An independent Samples T-test indicates that there is no significant independence for equality of means between two groups of teachers in judging the gravity of Syntactic errors (p= 0.84 >0.05). So, there is no independence and the scores are close to both groups of teachers. For novice teachers (M=419, SD=170, 16) and for experienced teachers (M=432,60, SD=127,63). The results show the dependence of equality of means between the two groups. However, novice teachers are slightly less tolerant than their experienced counterpart.

A comparison of means shows that novice teachers judge the severity of errors as follows: (M=230, 9) sentence structure, (M=119,3), fragmentation (M=48,9) run-ons. Experienced teachers have the same priority to these errors as their novice counterpart, (M=252,5) sentence structure (M=101) run-ons and (M=48,9) fragmentation.

3.1.4. Independence between different Mechanical error types and both groups of teachers :

An independent Samples T-test indicates that there is a significant independence for equality of means between two groups of teachers in judging the gravity of Mechanical errors (p= 0.00 <0.05). Scores were significantly higher for novice teachers (M=512, 70 , SD=101,62) than for experienced teachers (M=342,30 ,SD=115,46). Again, novice teachers show a great deal of severity in their judgment of gravity. However, experienced teachers are much more lenient in responding to the seriousness of Mechanical error types.

Novice teachers judge the severity of these errors as follows (M=46.9) punctuation and (M=465, 8) spelling. Experienced teachers prioritize these errors as (M=268, 9) punctuation and (M=37,4) spelling. T-test indicates a significant independence for equality of means in these two error types (p= 0.00 <0.05). Thus there is an independence between both groups of teachers.

3.1.5. Independence between Miscellaneous errors and both groups of teachers :

An independent Samples T-test indicates that there is a significant independence for equality of means between two groups of teachers in judging the gravity of Miscellaneous errors (p= 0.00 <0.05). Scores were significantly higher for novice teachers (M=88, 30, SD=6.46) than for experienced ones (M=62, SD=15,96). As a result, the scores record high gravity evaluation variability between both groups. In addition, the group of novice teachers is less tolerant in the gravity evaluation of miscellaneous error than the group of experienced teachers.

3.2. Analysis of the hierarchical order of errors as judged by two groups of teachers according to irritation criterion

Novice teachers are less tolerant in the gravity evaluation of the lexical, Mechanical and Miscellaneous error categories than the Experienced teachers who perform more leniency in judging the gravity of these three error categories. Whereas, Morphological and Syntactic error categories are judged as more serious by Novice teachers' group than the Experienced teachers' group. Therefore, we can draw a hierarchy of errors ranging from the most serious error to the least serious error.

Table 2**:** Error gravity hierarchy of novice teachers in Irritation criterion

1	2	3	4	5

Lexical errors	Mechanical errors	Syntactic errors	Morphological errors	Miscellaneous errors
word choice	spelling	sentence structure	verb form	
word form	punctuation	fragmentation	noun	
pronoun		run-ons	adjective	
collocation			article	
			subject verb agreement	
			verb tense	
			adverb	

Table 3: Error gravity hierarchy of experienced teachers in Irritation criterion:

1	2	3	4	5
Lexical errors	**Syntactic errors**	**Morphological errors**	**Mechanical errors**	**Miscellaneous errors**
word choice	sentence structure	verb form	Punctuation	
word form	run-ons	noun	spelling	
pronoun	fragmentation	verb tense		
collocation		adjective		
		subject verb		

agreement

article

adverb

These two Hierarchies show that Novice teachers' group and Experienced teachers' group have similar error gravity judgment preferences of lexical and miscellaneous errors. However, we can draw significant differences with the three remaining error categories. So, While Mechanical errors have the second rank with Novice teachers' group, it is ranked the fourth with Experienced teachers' group. Also, Syntactic errors have the third rank with the first group of teachers, but, it is prioritized with Experienced teachers' group to be ranked the second. Finally, Mechanical errors are ranked the second by Novice teachers' group and the fourth in gravity by Experienced teachers' group.

Concerning the different error types in each category, both groups of teachers differ in prioritizing them in Syntactic, Morphological, and Mechanical error categories. First, with syntactic error types, Novice teachers prioritize fragmentation over run-ons.On the contrary, Experienced teachers', prioritize run-ons over fragmentation. Second, both groups disagree in prioritizing the morphological error types. Thus, Novice teachers give the following priority: verb form, noun, adjective, article, subject-verb agreement, verb tense and, adverb. However, Experienced teachers assign the following priority: verb form, noun, verb tense, adjective, subject-verb agreement, article, and adverb. Finally, mechanical errors are evaluated differently which implies differences in error hierarchies. For example, Novice teachers' perceive spelling as more irritating than punctuation. Experienced teachers' consider punctuation as more irritating than spelling.

The results clarify how two different groups of teachers with different teaching experience differ in the judgment of certain error categories. Examining the role of experience in this study matches with other studies that highlight raters' professional experience effect in teachers' rating of students' writing (Vaughan, 1991). Furthermore, the concern with the impact of experience in error gravity judgment in this study represents a

response to Myford and Wolfe's (2009) call for more research to be conducted on the impact of rater experience on rater effects.

4. Discussion and results:

As far as STETs are concerned, the study results show that there is a positive correlation between teachers' experience and error gravity judgment in accounting for irritation criteria. Thus, this research finding correlates with the findings of Cascio and Valenzi (1977) who found a significant positive job-experience effect on rating errors. Hence, Teachers' professional experience represents a dynamic variable in shaping the judgments of error gravity. So, experience makes the difference in determining STETs beliefs and practice in the evaluation because it has to do with the so-called 'deficient knowledge of English' which is the main factor in determining error treatment practice (Medgyes, 1994, p.63). The findings show that novice teachers are more severe in responding to students' written errors than experienced ones. Medgyes (1994) says that the picture of inexperienced teachers which emerges is one where they are usually preoccupied with accuracy, the formal features of English, the nuts and bolts of grammar, the printed word and formal registers.

Many inexperienced teachers lack fluency, have a limited insight into the intricacies of meaning, are often in doubt about appropriate language use, have poor listening and speaking skills, and are not familiar with colloquial English. It is only logical to deduce that they place the emphasis on those aspects of the language they have a better grasp of (Medgyes, 1994, p.59). Other studies match the findings of the current research, for example, James (1977) concluded that the inexperienced tended to mark more severely. The severity of novice teachers could be explained by their tendency to focus on correctness. In addition, the lack of experience presupposes lack of teachers' exposure to students' written errors. In addition, novice teachers' lack of leniency could be explained by their prior learning experience. Thus, their performance is shaped by the remanent of their learning rather than actual classroom experience. Therefore, their pre-service experience may inform their cognition and act as a filter in teacher education decisions, and affect their subsequent practices as evaluators and judges (S. Borg, 2006).

Furthermore, the results of the current research show that experienced teachers are more tolerant than the novice teachers in the judgment of written errors. Song and Caruso (1996) reported that the more years of experience a rater had in teaching; the more lenient he or she would be in rating ESL essays. The experienced teachers are more tolerant. Therefore, this variation in tolerance dates back to the role of differential language proficiency impact on teachers' judgment. This goes hand in hand with Hughes & Lascaratou (1982) research findings. For them, experienced teacher's tolerance being based on 'better knowledge of the language, particularly of the wide variety of acceptable structures' (Hughes & Lascaratou, 1982, p.180). By the same token, Sheory (1986) concluded that tolerance of errors increases as language proficiency increases. By way of contrast, the research findings contradict the conclusion of Birdsong and Kassen (1988) which shows that as people increase in language proficiency they become harsher in their judgments of error seriousness. They found that French-speaking teachers of French were harsher judges than English-speaking ones.

The leniency of experienced teachers is the result of their familiarity with the erroneous linguistic forms because experienced teachers generally regard language as a means of achieving a communicative goal. Unlike inexperienced teachers who regard English primarily as a school subject to be learned and only secondarily as a communicative medium to be used. This result correlates with the claim of Schwartz, Wolfe, and Cassar (1997). Hughes and Lascaratou (1982) suggest that the greater leniency may be attributed to the superior knowledge of the wide-ranging norms of English. Hence, teachers' sharpened linguistic awareness, and their conscious knowledge about grammar and other aspects of language, potentially provide a sound basis for well – informed error evaluation, and professionally grounded feedback on students' errors. Another explanation of experienced teachers' leniency could be the expectation. It is so because teachers' experience affects their repertoire of linguistic familiarity and therefore evaluative perception.

Teachers' experience affects both groups differently. It is in the light of teaching experience that we decide upon the severity of teachers' judgment. Therefore, we can conclude that like any other type of competence, teachers' have a typical competence

shaped through teaching experience. Teachers shape their practice from a gradual acquisition of cognitive, social, linguistic, and physical skills through experience (Bandura, 1982). These skills craft the so-called the Teachers' Evaluation Competence. This newly coined competence explains the differences among teachers and invites more research on this particular area.

In this research both groups find lexical errors to be prioritized in error treatment. Therefore, the findings corroborate with those of Hamdi, S (2016). In addition, Ellis (1994: 63) confirms that "Researchers who have delt with the evaluation of errors have found out that lexical errors are considered the most serious, above all ..." Focusing on Lexical errors correlates with the findings of (Johansson, 1978 and Khalil, 1985) who focus on the importance of lexical errors. Thus, in our research, the explanation of errors is postponed after evaluation phase, because we are concerned with the explanation of the most serious error category. This focused explanation enriches the findings of this error gravity research because we focus on the most serious errors not only on evaluation but also in the psycholinguistic explanation and therefore in remediation. This finding seems to stand in stark contrast to a host of research findings which hold the mainstream assumption that NN teachers judge lexical errors as the least serious errors (Sheorey 1986, McCretton & Rider 1993). In addition, the study results differ from those of James'(1977) study which noted that both groups of experienced and non-experienced teachers rated lexical error low in significance.

This piece of research studied the impact of teaching experience and criteria selection on teachers' seriousness evaluation of five error categories notably morphological, lexical, syntactic, mechanical and miscellaneous. Therefore, as a main finding is to highlight which error to correct first? according to whom? and in the light of which criterion?

This study has two major implications. The first one is to teach with a hierarchy in mind. That is to say, teachers' prioritization of errors facilitates their job and enables them to prioritize their teaching objectives because they become aware of their students' hierarchies of difficulties. Also, accounting for teachers' areas of severity and tolerance helps learners notice the gap in their learning and know more about their serious errors that bother them in their learning process.   The second implication centers around the importance of

criteria in error judgment. Therefore, Tunisian teachers should be aware that errors are not serious by themselves, but the way we approach them through the choice of our criteria makes the difference in accounting for their gravity. Therefore, teachers' awareness should be drawn to the impact of criteria selection on their teaching practice and self-reflection because "reflecting on corrective feedback serves as a basis both for evaluating and perhaps changing existing corrective feedback practices and, more broadly, for developing teachers' understanding of teaching and of themselves" Ellis (2009: 15).

5. Conclusion :

For future research recommendations, this piece of research paves the way to investigate teachers' self- efficiency in dealing with error gravity evaluation in writing to major the effect of this evaluation on students' progress in writing. Also, as Lee (2011) argues, "there is a need to look beyond the issue of feedback per se to investigate teachers' readiness to implement change as well as the factors that might facilitate or inhibit change" (p. 10). Therefore, we can explain teachers' severity in treating learners' errors. All in all, it seems that answering the question: Which learner errors should be corrected? is not an easy task to do. This question is still begging a clear-cut answer. Indeed, much more efforts should be done to provide a succinct and pungent response to Hendrickson's (1978) third Question.

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The impact of implementing vocabulary learning strategy training on Tunisian EFL learners' vocabulary knowledge

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Abstract

To date, vocabulary learning strategy (VLS) field of research has been attracting the attention of instructors because of their interesting outcomes concerning improving the vocabulary learning process. Research into this area, for instance, has inspired other studies to focus more on teaching these strategies to EFL learners. Thus, this paper introduces the concept of Vocabulary Learning Strategies Instruction/Training (VLSI/T) as a teaching

approach to vocabulary. It aims at investigating the effect of applying VLST on Tunisian EFL learners' vocabulary knowledge. To reach this purpose, 123 EFL learners, enrolled at two high schools in Sfax; Hadi Chaker, and Hay El Habib, were trained in *semantic mapping, word-parts analysis, grouping words into a storyline,* and *testing oneself with word lists.* The sample was divided into sixty-six subjects as the experimental group and fifty-seven as the control group. Pre-post tests' results showed that strategy instruction had a significant impact on learners' vocabulary development. Besides, the vocabulary tests' mean scores of both groups revealed that the experimental group scored higher than the control group. Semi- structured interviews also provided positive feedback about the importance of implementing vocabulary strategy training. This article's findings suggested crucial contributions to vocabulary teaching practices in the Tunisian FEL context.

Keywords: vocabulary learning strategy, vocabulary learning strategies instruction/training, Tunisian EFL learners, instructors, significant, Tunisian context.

1. Introduction

Background to the Study

For many years, vocabulary learning/teaching has been somehow neglected in the field of second language acquisition (Zimmerman, 1997). Thus, teaching was mainly about highlighting grammatical structures, while learners are left with the burden of learning vocabulary on their own, when engaged in activities like communication, grammar, or reading (Lessard-Clouston, 1996; Richards and Renandya, 2002; Abrudan, 2010). Since the 1980s, however vocabulary learning/teaching has emerged remarkably. In fact, vocabulary is regarded as essential since it is closely related to all the four language skills. This, as a matter of fact, requires having sufficient vocabulary knowledge to be able to master the target language. Students need to "learn some words just to be able to understand them when they hear them, while others are needed for speaking or writing. Still other words are learned for reading" (Cohen, Weaver and Li, 1996, pp. 34-35). Despite its crucial role in

Second Language Acquisition (SLA), Oxford and Scarcella (1994) argue that vocabulary learning is supposed to be something the learner should be responsible for, for they are meant to pick up words by themselves without the support of the teacher. It is needless to say that in order to allow learners to know how to deal with vocabulary inside the class, vocabulary instruction should be "at the top of the agenda for language teachers" (Oxford and Crookall, 1990, p. 9). Indeed, this task seems to be very burdensome and challenging for most instructors, as it is almost impossible to cover all the new words in class. To overcome this difficulty, they can provide their learners with guided practice with vocabulary learning strategies, for this would help them to expand their comfort zone, feel more secure in learning new L2 words, and gain more confidence to make conscious choices towards their learning. Hulstijn (2001) points out that "in L2 pedagogy it is important to design tasks which focus learners' attention on vocabulary learning and to make them aware of the importance of efficient vocabulary learning strategies"(p. 273).

It is noteworthy that the importance of vocabulary learning strategies instruction (VLSI) has been influenced by insightful information on language learning strategies instruction's studies (LLSI) conducted by researchers such as O'Malley et al., 1985; Cohen, Weaver, and Li, 1996...Cohen et al., (1996) define strategies-based instruction as " a learner-centered approach to teaching that has two majorcomponents:1) students are explicitly taught how, when and why strategies can be used to facilitate language learning and language use tasks, and 2) strategies are integrated into everyday class materials, and may be explicitly embedded onto the language tasks" (p. 6). It is to be noted that, two major approaches to teaching these strategies have emerged. The first approach is integrated training which aims to include different strategies into the regular learning activities inside the classroom. Whereas the second approach deals basically with teaching strategies as a separate aspect of the learning process, that is teachers would introduce effective strategies to learners outside the normal learning course. Proponents of the first teaching approach (Cohen et., 1996; Oxford, 1990; Richards and Renandya, 2002; O'malley and Chamot, 1990; Graham, 1997) affirm that it is more effective than the second approach. When strategies are integrated in the learning process, learners get to relate strategies taught to different learning tasks. Besides, they would be able to focus on the language content and the strategies introduced at the same time.

Existing literature regarding independent vocabulary learning and strategy training areas has aroused my interest to find out whether implementing vocabulary strategy training in the Tunisian context would be efficient compared to previous EFL vocabulary strategy training research. It is necessary to mention that such idea is basically related to previous results of a study conducted by me on Tunisian EFL learners' strategy repertoire in general (Anonymous, 2014). Interviews with some learners have indicated that most of them find it hard to learn or remember new L2 vocabulary items. They seem to lack the knowledge or the skills to increase their vocabulary repertoire. Thus, vocabulary learning constitutes an interesting issue to shed light on. Moreover, little research regarding the Tunisian context has been done on how to put theoretical endeavors into practice; that is to say including knowledge about the importance of VLST into the real classroom practices. Advances in EFL pedagogy in Tunisia have always overshadowed the cooperative relationship between the teacher and the learner. It means that students don't seem to make enough effort to get the information they need. In the same way, teachers seem to ignore the fact that they have to present new vocabulary tools to make the learning process look more effortless.

These issues have been a motive to conduct the present research on training Tunisian EFL learners to use four vocabulary learning strategies; *semantic mapping*, *word-parts analysis*, *grouping words into a storyline*, and *testing oneself with word lists* (following O'Malley and Chamot's (1986) The Cognitive Language Learning Approach (CALLA) as an instruction model), in order to help them manage the increasing amount of new words met inside/outside the class. Learners who have received vocabulary instruction consisted of High school Tunisian EFL learners; fourth form or Baccalaureate. The rationale behind the choice of this specific learning level has to do with the fact that learners, in this learning stage, are exposed to more vocabulary as opposed to the previous learning levels. So, it becomes urgent to learn how to cope with "what happens in classrooms where vocabulary crops up" (Carter and McCarthy, 1988, p. 51). Similarly, they would need to be equipped with necessary tools when they experience transition from a secondary educational level (high school) to a tertiary educational level (university) where vocabulary learning becomes a crucial element to master when dealing with EFL learning materials.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Vocabulary Learning Strategies Definition

Interest in the concept of vocabulary learning strategies (VLS) has emerged from research in the field of language learning strategies (LLS). Thus, a lot of research has been conducted in this regard to explore EFL learners' vocabulary strategies (Cohen and Aphek, 1980; Nation, 2001; Schmitt, 1997; Abadneh, 2013; Doczi, 2011; Takac, 2008; Gu and Johnson, 1996). According to Schmitt (2000), interest in the issue of VLS has conformed with a shift in focus from a teacher-centered environment to one that stresses the influence of learners' involvement in their own language learning. Catalán (2003) defines VLS as "knowledge about the mechanisms (process, strategies) used in order to learn vocabulary as well as steps or actions taken by students (a) to find out the meaning of unknown words, (b) to retain them in long-term memory, (c) to recall them at will, and (d) to use them in oral or written mode" (p. 56).This quote, in reality, showcases three important   principles that characterize VLS; to solve word meaning problems, to store them in memory, and to retrieve them for practice. Gu and Johnson (1996), on the other hand, define VLS as retention or mnemonic devices, for they have proved to be effective for vocabulary recall. They state "the word *vocabulary* has long connoted word lists, and *vocabulary learning strategies* have been tantamount to techniques that help commit these lists to memory" (p. 644).

Additionally, Vocabulary learning strategies are a useful means for learners to learn and remember a great deal of new words, and for teachers to devote less time and effort to introduce them. Nation and Waring (1997) argue that "Because of the very poor coverage that low frequency words give, it is not worth spending class time on actually teaching these words. It is more efficient to spend class time on the strategies of 1) guessing from context, 2) using word points and mnemonic techniques to remember words, and 3) using vocabulary cards to remember foreign language-first language word pairs" (p. 11).

2.2. Vocabulary Learning Strategies Taxonomy

Schmitt (1997) pertains that though language learning strategies cover vocabulary learning strategies, a comprehensive taxonomy is said to be missing. That said, there are two prominent taxonomies that are worth mentioning. The first one is introduced by

Schmitt (1997). He actually based his classification system on Oxford's (1990) LLSs taxonomy, because it "seemed best able to capture and organize the wide variety of vocabulary learning strategies identified" (p. 205). Schmitt's system consists of fifty-eight vocabulary strategies. They are included in two main categories; discovery strategies that determine the meaning of new words when learners encounter them for the first time, i.e. using cognates, using flash cards, analyzing parts of speech, analyzing pictures or gestures, asking the teacher for paraphrase or L1 translation, and consolidation strategies that help learners retain new words when learned or encountered such as verbal or written repetition, using key word method, spaced word practice, interacting with native speakers.....These two headings are, in turn, divided into five categories; *social* (SOC), *memory* (MEM), *cognitive* (COG), *metacognitive* (MET), and *determination* (DET).

Nation (2001), on the other hand, proposes a taxonomy that "tries to separate aspects of vocabulary knowledge (what is involved in knowing a word) from sources of vocabulary knowledge, and learning processes" (p. 353). His system is actually influenced by other inventories provided by Oxford's (1990), and O'Malley and Chamot's (1990). It consists of three main groupings; 1) *Planning*: choosing what to focus on and when to focus on it; spaced retrieval, using word cards or a computer to review old information, 2) *Sources:* finding information about words; using dictionaries, asking the teacher for information, using L1 or other languages, and 3) *Processes*: establishing vocabulary knowledge; semantic mapping, using vocabulary notebooks, collocations, using new words in a sentence. As far as this piece of research is concerned, Schmitt's (1997) inventory system represents the model adopted to extract the four vocabulary strategies; two memory strategies (semantic mapping and grouping words into a storyline), one determination strategy (word parts analysis), and one metacognitive strategy (testing oneself with word lists). The reason behind this choice is mainly due to the fact that it is regarded as the most comprehensive list since it is based on Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL). It is said to be used in "more than 40 studies, including 12 dissertations and theses" (Green and Oxford, 1995, p.264).

2.3. Previous Research on Vocabulary Language Learning Strategies Instruction/Training: (VLST/I)

Numerous studies have been conducted on the effect of vocabulary learning strategies instruction on EFL learners' vocabulary knowledge. Zhao (2009) researched the implementation of a five-week metacognitive and cognitive training program among 134 Chinese college students, assigned randomly to68 who received both cognitive and metacognitive training (the experimental group), and 66 who received only cognitive training (the control group). T-test results demonstrated a significant difference between the two groups before and after intervention. Furthermore, questionnaires' results found out that metacognitive strategies were not frequently used and planning ranked the lowest. This implied that learners were not aware of the importance of such strategies. In this regard, Zhao affirmed that "the use of learning strategies is more enduring when students are informed of the significance of the strategies and given reasons for their potential effectiveness" (p. 126).

Bornay (2011) examined teaching the memory strategies of "*grouping*" and "*mind-mapping*" to 16 first-year university Spanish learners. Vocabulary tests' results showed that strategy instruction positively influenced learners' ability to recall vocabulary items. Besides, open-ended questionnaires were used to evaluate learners' reaction towards the strategies taught and to raise their metacognitive awareness and self-regulation. Qualitative results indicated that participants reacted to vocabulary strategy training in a positive way. Bornay (2011) concluded that "language learners need to be exposed to a variety of learning strategies so that they can create their own VLS repertoire after continued practice and the evaluation of such strategies" (p. 29).

Rezaei and Karbalaei (2013) investigated the effect of vocabulary strategy training on 80 Iranian EFL autonomous and non-autonomous learners' vocabulary retention. The sample was divided into 32 students as the control group and 35 as the experimental group. The latter, for instance was trained in three memory strategies; word parts analysis, elaboration, and guessing meaning from context. Vocabulary pre-post tests revealed an improvement in mean scores of the experimental group, compared to the scores of the control group. Besides, autonomous questionnaires, which are administered to check if

there is a difference between autonomous and non-autonomous participants in the experimental group after treatment, indicated that there existed a significant difference between both groups' performances. Moreover, autonomous learners showed higher mean scores (M= 6. 80) than non-autonomous ones (M= 5. 20). The researchers drew attention to the importance of using a checklist that determines different vocabulary strategies to help both teachers and learners. They quote "a checklist can provide additional information related to the need to review and re-teach strategies" (p. 47).

Aktekin and Guven (2013) attempted to apply a 10-week vocabulary strategy training among 70 elementary level Turkish EFL learners; 35 students as the study group, and 35 students as the control group. Statistical analysis pertained that experimental group outperformed the control group, regarding their vocabulary pre-post tests. Furthermore, feedback taken from 30 teachers revealed that 90 % of them explained that implementing a strategy training program in their classrooms is a very important step to consider, especially in the language skills of writing, reading, and vocabulary. Both authors admit that "it has become increasingly apparent that "teaching learners how to learn" is crucial as we seek to make the language classroom an effective milieu for learning" (p. 347).

3. Statement of the Problem

With the spread of communicative language teaching approaches, teachers seem to be looking for more opportunities to engage learners in the learning process through different teaching techniques and materials. Similarly, the concept of language learning strategies has caught the attention of many researchers, scholars, instructors and curriculum designers for they were proved to be helpful in promoting one's own language learning. Thus, for many years the ultimate goal has been to encourage EFL learners to be in charge of their own language learning process. However, this view is more complex than it looks at first sight, when it comes to vocabulary learning. Although it has gained more support and interest, **vocabulary** is still considered to be an intricate language skill to cover by both teachers and learners. As far as the Tunisian context is concerned, vocabulary teaching is still pretty much incidental. This means that the focus of attention is directed to given solutions by the teacher, instead of independently learning how to manipulate one's vocabulary learning using new tricks. Furthermore, due to time constraints, vocabulary

learning is not given as much space as the other language skills, which is something that is related to the whole Tunisian educational system where hours dedicated to English learning (concerning this learning level) represent an important issue to take into account in the future. For that reason, new items seem to be presented separately through the use of activities like matching word-definition (synonyms and antonyms). This, in turn might affect their memory span, that is to say learners may find it hard to remember or get the meaning of those words, since they are independent of the context, and are not put into much practice later on. In this regard, Nemati (2013) says: "if students are provided with answers or taught vocabulary in the ordinary way, only their immediate problem is solved, but if the students are taught vocabulary learning strategies, to work out the answers for themselves, they may be empowered to manage their own learning" (p. 8).As it is revealed in the quote, students need to know more about how to employ these problem-solving skills inside the classroom. Equally important is the need to make vocabulary learning and teaching more manageable and accessible than before. Given these facts, it is high time instructors started thinking of making changes concerning developing autonomous vocabulary learning.

4. Research Objectives

This study aims to provide insights concerning vocabulary learning strategy training (VLST) that helps EFL students to learn and remember new vocabulary items. It seeks to raise learners' awareness of the importance of employing such strategies, because vocabulary learning should involve much fun and learners should not feel that the burden of vocabulary learning always falls on them every time a new word appears.

As far as teachers and curriculum designers are concerned, teaching vocabulary strategies as a learning component inside the classroom is a compulsory step to think about. As Nunan (1996) puts it "...language classrooms should have a dual focus –not only on teaching language content, but also on developing learning process" (p. 133). For instance, integrating a vocabulary strategy training model could make the job of the teacher a lot much easier. Furthermore, time would be equally dedicated to other skills as well.

Strategy instruction could also give insights about teaching methodologies which need to be perceived from a new perspective. Due to vocabulary's complex nature, new methodologies should be incorporated in the syllabus in particular and the educational curriculum in general. With regard to the Tunisian context, this study seeks to determine the effectiveness of strategy training; that is how well Tunisian EFL learners would respond to this type of instruction.
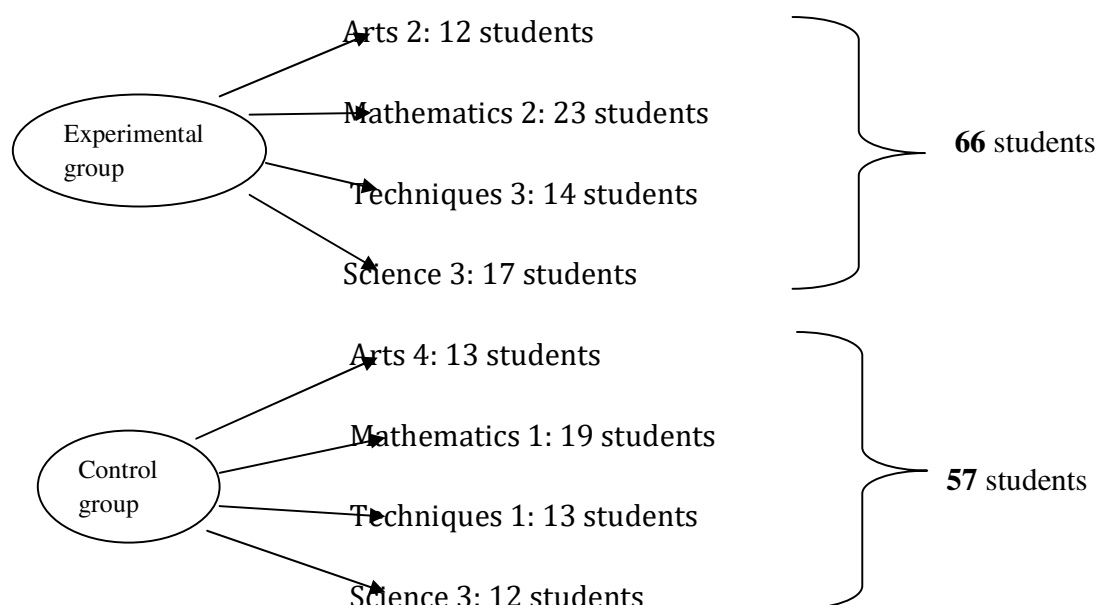
5. Research Questions

The current study is designed to seek answers to the following questions:

1. Do both groups share the same vocabulary proficiency level before receiving strategy instruction?
2. Is there a significant difference between the experimental and control group's vocabulary repertoire before the strategy intervention?
3. Is there a significant difference between the experimental group and control group's vocabulary background after the training?
4. Does vocabulary strategy training have an impact on learners' vocabulary development, according to learners' evaluative comments?

6. Methodology

6.1. Participants

123 EFL high school students from eight intact classes, enrolled at two different high schools; Hadi Chaker and Hay El Habib were selected to participate in this current research. Actually, they belonged to two different learning branches; scientific and literary. In addition, they were randomly divided into **sixty-six** participants in the experimental group (receiving strategy training) and **fifty-seven** in the control group (receiving traditional vocabulary teaching) as the figure below shows. For instance, the first experimental group constitutes four groups (Mathematics 2, Arts 2, Techniques 1, and Science 3). The control group also represents four groups (Mathematics 1, Arts 4, Techniques 3, and Science 3). As far as the semi-structured interviews are concerned, **twenty** students from both groups were voluntarily asked to describe their attitudes at the end of the treatment.

Arts 2: 12 students

Mathematics 2: 23 students

Experimental group

Techniques 3: 14 students

66 students

Science 3: 17 students

Arts 4: 13 students

Mathematics 1: 19 students

Control group

Techniques 1: 13 students

57 students

Science 3: 12 students

Figure 1. The sample size

6.2.   Data Collection Methods

6.2.1.   Vocabulary Pre-Post Tests

In order to examine students' homogeneity in terms of vocabulary proficiency, Nation's (1990) Vocabulary Levels test (VLT) was used. The latter consists of four separate frequency levels (150 items); 2000, 3000, 5000, and 10 000 levels, in addition to another level concerned with academic vocabulary. Schmitt et al., (2001) quote "In this way, it can provide a profile of learners' vocabulary, rather than just a single-figure estimate of overall vocabulary size" (p. 58).The standardized tests were given to teachers for validity and reliability procedures. As a matter of fact, sections and levels that were claimed by the teachers to be difficult according to their proficiency level were omitted from the test. Thus, the 10 000 word level was excluded as it was designed to more advanced level students.

Besides, due to time constraints, each level (consisting of ten sets originally) was reduced to contain only six sets (with three meanings). The final version would, then, represents 72 items. In order to examine the difference between the two groups before and after the training, a vocabulary test was designed by the researcher to test the words already taught during the treatment. That said, examinees were provided with a "fill in the blanks" test that contained 16 sentences, and they were supposed to fill in the blanks with the given target words.

6.2.2. Semi-structured interviews

To gather information concerning participants' views and comments about vocabulary learning strategy training, semi-structured interviews were adopted. Interviewees were encouraged to share their personal journey regarding their participation in the strategy instruction program. Thus, they were given the opportunity to provide details about their points of view regarding the four vocabulary strategies that have been introduced. Questions were also posed to have an idea about the vocabulary strategies they normally use to overcome difficulties of word meaning. In the same way, students from the control group were asked to share their thoughts about learning how to learn vocabulary strategies in general. It is needless to say that exploring participants' way of thinking and perceptions about embarking on their vocabulary learning by themselves is of paramount importance to make this experiment successful.

6.3. Data Analysis Methods

In order to measure the difference between the experimental group and the control group at the beginning of the study; before the experiment, independent- samples t-test was conducted. The mean scores of the two groups were compared in order to capture the difference of the two groups in terms of their vocabulary general proficiency level. T-test procedures and statistical analysis of variance (ANOVA) were also used in order to test the difference between both groups before and after the strategy training. Variance analysis was meant to measure and analyze results obtained from the group that has received training (the experimental group) to see if there is any improvement in its vocabulary performance before and after implementing VLST. Actually, the vocabulary pre-post tests' mean scores were compared as a way to test the effectiveness of vocabulary strategy

instruction. Furthermore, respondents' responses were summarized and then transcribed to be coded later on, in order to make analysis procedures much easier. Important points and themes were extracted in order to come up with final conclusions that would help in suggesting potential solutions for existing pedagogical deficiencies.

6.4.   Procedures

Generally, time devoted to vocabulary instruction ranged between one hour and two hours, given the nature and the duration of the procedures of each activity. Actually, the whole experiment lasted for about six weeks. As a starting point, standardized vocabulary pre-tests (VLT) were distributed to the whole sample before assigning them to two distinctive groups. The test administration and completion took about 45 minutes during class. Participants were, then, divided into two random groups respectively; experimental and control group.

Concerning vocabulary included in the intervention, a list of new items were selected and checked by teachers for novelty purposes. After eliminating difficult and familiar words, sixteen lexical items were suggested to be employed. For the1) *semantic mapping* strategy*, 7 items were to be taught, 2) *word parts analysis*; 5 items to be taught, 3) *grouping words into a story line*; 4 items to be taught, and 4) *testing oneself with word lists;* including all the 16 lexical items. This was followed by the administration of vocabulary pre-tests to the whole sample, as an assessment tool for comparing both groups' vocabulary performances. The whole procedure lasted for about thirty minutes.

During the treatment, vocabulary activities and reading comprehension worksheets were used as the teaching toolkit to present the sixteen target words to both groups. In fact, the topics dealt with in the reading materials shared some similarity with the learning content they were receiving in class. This has to do with making learners more engaged and focused in the teaching procedure. The control group was taught words using traditional teaching methods, i.e. without the introduction of new vocabulary strategies. Additionally, instruction procedures for the aforementioned group did not involve awareness raising about the effectiveness of applying vocabulary learning strategies. As for the experimental

group, on the other hand, they were taught the new vocabulary using the four target vocabulary strategies. It is necessary to note that Chamot and O'Malley's (1986) The Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) as an instructional tool was adopted. It actually presents a simple reference point for instructors to follow in order to provide their learners with the target vocabulary strategies. Moreover, it is flexible in the sense that teachers can go back to previous phases whenever learners need some clarification regarding the different instruction steps, or a certain strategy is not that clear for them to understand and practice. Chamot (1998) admits that in this model, instruction is explicit, as "the teacher discusses the value of learning strategies, gives names to strategies, and explains to students how the strategies can help them and when to use them" (p. 9). CALLA program comprises five steps;

-**<u>Preparation</u>**: this phase explains the role of learning strategies in maintaining effective learning. Learners were supposed to identify the strategies they already use. They were also invited to think about the vocabulary strategies they usually employ in order to remember or find out the meaning of new items. This step is mainly about activating their background knowledge about the use of learning strategies in general, and familiarizing students with the importance of using vocabulary strategies for vocabulary improvement.

-**<u>Presentation</u>**: in this phase, the teacher presents the strategy to be taught by describing its goals and characteristics, and then models it through some examples and activities. Thus, for **1)** *Semantic mapping*, students were given the concept of "holidays", asked to think of other known words that are related to the central theme, and then think of new words to add in the map. **2)** *Word-parts analysis*; students were given a short passage about pollution and then asked to find out the meaning of 4 new words following the teacher's instruction about how to divide the word into parts to get its meaning. They were explained then how each part's meaning contributes to the whole word's meaning.**3)** *Grouping words into a storyline*; students proposed five words related to "package tour" and then tried to imagine a situation where they could put these words into a story, with the support of the teacher. **4)** *Testing oneself with word lists*; students were given the different forms that testing would take, with hints to using flash cards to monitor their progress with new lexis.

-**Practice**: participants were provided with specific learning tasks to apply the target strategies. **1)** *Semantic mapping;* the main topic "school life" was written on the board. First, students were asked to think of related words, and then they were provided with a reading text (that contains seven new words) about school. After reading the text, they were to create categories involving those words and put them in the map.2) *Word-parts analysis;* a reading text about tourism was distributed. Before affixation analysis, learners were given a list of the common English suffixes and prefixes, where the meaning of each part was given to help them with the five new words. They were divided into groups to work out the meaning of the word parts.**3)** *Grouping words into a storyline;* students were provided with a reading passage "brain drain" with four new items. After dealing with their meaning, in groups, they were given pictures and asked to match bubbles (consisting of the target words) with their corresponding picture to come up with the final story. A name for the story was finally proposed.**4)** Testing oneself with word lists; participants were divided into separate groups and were given flash cards that have the 16 unknown vocabulary with their corresponding meaning. Class discussions were held after each strategy introduction.

-**Evaluation**: This stage, actually, involves subjects' voice and opinion about the strategies just taught. Thus, after finishing the practice of each vocabulary strategy, learners were invited to assess their progress, and discuss individually or in groups the appropriateness and usefulness of the given strategies. This phase allows learners to reflect on their own strategy use without relying on their teacher's stance.

-**Expansion**: this phase aims to encourage learners to transfer target strategies to new learning tasks. Hence, participants would try out what they have learned with other expansion vocabulary activities. As an example (for *semantic mapping*), they were asked to focus on the map they have built in the practice phase and think of other words to add. Afterwards, a classroom discussion was initiated, explaining different relationships between all the vocabulary items.

The last session, for instance, was dedicated to distributing vocabulary post-tests to the two groups. Tests lasted for about 45 minutes to complete. Later, twenty participants; ten belonging to the control group, and ten belonging to the experimental group were

volunteered to participate in the interviews procedures. Interviews sessions were held at the end of the English session, and lasted for about 30 minutes for each student.

7. Findings and Discussion

7.1. Statistical Results of Participants' Vocabulary Pre-Post Tests

In response to the first research question which aims to determine the difference between the experimental and the control group's vocabulary knowledge level, before the strategy intervention, table 1 shows that no significant difference is found between variances of both groups; F= 0.01, p= 0.980> 0.05. Besides, there is no statistical difference between the mean scores of the two groups; t= -0.143, p= 0.887> 0.05. This means that both groups are closely similar as well as homogeneous in terms of their vocabulary size, based on Nation's (1990) Vocabulary Levels test (VLT).

Table 1

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	t-test for Equality of Means

		F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
QGPreTG	Equal variances assumed	,001	,980	-,143	121	,887	-,359	2,511	-5,330	4,612
	Equal variances not assumed			-,142	115,938	,887	-,359	2,522	-5,355	4,637

Independent samples Test of the two groups

In order to compare the experimental and the control group's vocabulary performance in the pre-tests before introducing the four vocabulary strategies, independent samples tests were used. As shown in table 2, there exists no significant difference between both groups; t= -0.128, p= 0.899> 0.05.

Table 2

 Independent samples tests of the two groups' pre-tests

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	t-test for Equality of Means

		F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
QGPosTAvG	Equal variances assumed	,428	,514	-,128	121	,899	-,082	,644	-1,357	1,193
	Equal variances not assumed			-,127	114,399	,899	-,082	,648	-1,366	1,202

To examine the difference between the participants of both groups after receiving instruction in the target vocabulary strategies, statistical analyses of variance (ANOVA) were adopted. As it is manifested in table 3, one can deduce that difference between both groups is found to be statistically significant, which again validates the effect of teaching vocabulary strategies on the experimental groups' vocabulary performance; p= 0,029< 0, 05.

Table 3

ANOVA results of both groups' performance in the post-tests

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	58,684	1	58,684	4,900	,029
Within Groups	1449,170	121	11,977		

Total	1507,854	122				

According to the data in table 4, students in the experimental group showed improvement in vocabulary performance on the pre-post tests. Thus, they rated 9, 08 in the vocabulary pre-test, however the mean score in the vocabulary post-test was indeed higher; 10, 23, after being presented to the four vocabulary strategies. Moreover, table 5 also displays that there is a significant difference (p= 0,003 < 0, 05) between the means of the experimental group before and after the intervention. This means that vocabulary strategy training plays an important role in increasing students' vocabulary repertoire.

Table 4

Descriptive statistics of the experimental group before and after training

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	QGPosTAvG1	9,08	66	3,403	,419
	QGPosTApG1	10,23	66	3,525	,434

Table 5

Paired Samples Test of the experimental group

		Paired Differences					T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	QGPosTAvG1 - QGPosTApG1	-1,152	3,070	,378	-1,906	-,397	-3,048	65	,003

On the other hand, when we compare results obtained from the experimental group with the ones of the control group's performance, we can notice that there is no significant difference between the control group's mean scores in the pre-post vocabulary tests. The table below in fact, displays that the significance is equal to 0,424 which is bigger than 0, 05; p= 0, 424 > 0, 05.

Table 6

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences					T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	QGPosTAvG2 - QGPosTApG2	,316	2,959	,392	-,469	1,101	,806	56	,424

7.2.   Participants' Reaction Towards VLST

As far the vocabulary learning strategies they use in class, most of the learners reported that they use the context as a manageable resource for new words. They explained that this is the most frequently used strategy whenever a new word is met in a reading passage. They also maintained that the teacher would always ask them to guess the meaning of new words from the context. Some of them however claimed that using contextual clues would not work sometimes, especially when the text contains many difficult messages or lexical terms to grasp. They also stated that they favor the use of social strategies like asking their classmates and their teacher for translation or synonym of a new word. They pointed out

that these are very easy to employ especially if they do not have other options they can resort to.

Concerning learners' stance about vocabulary strategy training, their interviews responses showed a great deal of interest in learning how to use vocabulary learning strategies. Most interviewees reported positive feedback about explicit strategy instruction. Besides, they stated that they enjoyed being part of such project, since it is considered to be something new to experience for the first time. For instance, one of the participants stated that "it is important that teachers support, guide and show us how to use these strategies as it can help us to deal with our vocabulary repertoire more effectively". Other respondents expressed the need to be exposed to vocabulary learning strategies besides other learning features. They argued that they wished they knew about this type of treatment from an early age, for they have been facing problems with vocabulary learning, for so long. However, one student didn't show excitement about strategy training. She explained that she had her own vocabulary learning toolkit that she found useless to opt for other new vocabulary strategies. Interestingly, respondents from the control group were also motivated to apply vocabulary strategy training, as soon as they were explained the way it works, its objectives, and its importance to increase vocabulary size. Some of these students made it clear that their teachers are still using the same old techniques, such as finding synonyms/antonyms through matching exercises, or using the context. However, guessing meaning from the context was claimed not to be very helpful sometimes. According to one of the participants "we should know about various new ways, so that when a strategy doesn't work in this particular task, we look for another one that fits perfectly. Unfortunately, we still lack knowledge concerning this part".

In terms of their views about the four target strategies presented in class, the majority of respondents favored the use of the memory strategy *"semantic mapping"*. This strategy proved to be helpful as it involved "a lot of fun". Besides, it was believed to be much easier to apply on different learning tasks, compared to the other taught strategies. As far as *"testing onself with word lists"* is concerned, participants rated this metacognitive strategy as very useful, because "it is always beneficial to see how well one did in vocabulary performance, at the end of the day", explained one of the subjects. Moreover, it

was perceived as practical especially with the use of flash cards. They also admitted that working with other learners; that is in groups was enjoyable and insightful. *"Grouping words into a storyline"* was also concluded to be somehow efficient as the story involving the new words would quickly trigger their memory and make retrieval for later usage easier. *"Word-parts analysis"*, on the other hand, was regarded by most learners as the most difficult strategy to employ, because they affirmed that they had to know about the meaning of words' roots, as they are borrowed from other languages. They claimed that it would be somehow challenging to apply such strategy in a very short amount of time, especially if it is new to them and they have never tried it out in class before.

7.3.   Discussion

Empirical findings clearly imply that applying vocabulary strategy training is proved to have an effective influence on students' vocabulary background. Pre-post tests' results, for instance revealed that learners who are trained in the four vocabulary strategies performed better on the tests than learners who were taught new words using traditional teaching methods. To explain this result, one might say that vocabulary strategy instruction is indeed proved to be effective for Tunisian EFL learners. This in fact is in conformity with other EFL strategy training studies found in the existing literature (Askari, 2014; Bornay, 2011; Namaghi and Rajaee,2013; Rahimi, 2014; Tassana-Nagam; 2004; Nemati, 2013; Abdelrahman, 2013; Lou and Xu, 2016). One can also note that strategy training as a teaching technique to approach vocabulary is worthy of attention in regard to the Tunisian context, where drastic changes have to be made in ELT methodology.

In addition to statistical results, qualitative results also have demonstrated that interviewees from both groups react in a positive way to VLST. Students, who have undergone the treatment, prefer to use *semantic mapping* and *testing oneself with word lists*. The favourite use of semantic mapping as a memory strategy can be explained by the fact that it involves cooperative work between the teacher and the students. It also means that it is helpful for less proficient and shy learners, for sharing information with the whole class can increase confidence and improve long-term memory and comprehension as well. Moreover, students seem to have metacognitive awareness, as they were excited to track their own progress in vocabulary. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) argue that "students

without metacognitive approaches are essentially learners without direction and ability to review their progress, accomplishments, and future learning directions" (p. 99).

Another possible explanation of this finding may relate to the use of flash cards to review newly-learned vocabulary items. Actually, using cards in the process of monitoring and testing one's progress as soon as the vocabulary learning process is complete could have a positive effect on the act of recalling new information. Schmitt (1997) for instance, has included the use of flash cards as a cognitive strategy for consolidating a new word once met in his classification taxonomy. It should be quite apparent by now that participants have actually tried out two vocabulary strategies at the same time; metacognitive and cognitive strategies. This may entail that combining more than one strategy could influence the way EFL students learn new vocabulary in a positive way. In a study conducted by Brown and Perry (1991), where they aimed to compare three vocabulary strategies; the keyword method, semantic processing method, and a combination of both the keyword and semantic processing technique, positive effect was found out to be related to the keyword-semantic processing strategy.

Mixing both methods was more significant than treating each strategy separately. Finally, they reported that they do not favor the use of *word-parts analysis.* This result entails that dividing new words into separate parts is time-consuming and complicated as well. It can also be perceived as unnecessary and better practiced under the direction and supervision of the teacher only. Although it is found out to be less popular among students, the determination strategy of word-parts analysis is actually believed to be significant in order to determine the meaning of new ideas. Nation (2001, p. 422), for instance admits that applying affixation analysis could have two major advantages. It can help EFL learners with the learning of unknown words when related to familiar words or affixes and roots. It can also help them in the act of verifying whether guessing new words from the context was successful.

When asked about their vocabulary strategy preferences, respondents mentioned the use of context as the most popular strategy for them. The implication here is that this type of strategy can be the only significant strategy available for them when reading. Such use could also mean that they never had the opportunity to know or use other new vocabulary strategies, which is believed to be related to the teaching methods introduced in the class.

The use of social strategies could actually imply that Tunisian EFL learners are still dependent on the support of the teacher. Hence, they are still perceived as passive learners when it comes to vocabulary learning. All the same, finding out the meaning of new items with the help of other classmates can be indicative of feelings of security and comfort, that is to say learners would never feel embarrassed to share what they know with their peers. To look at this result from another perspective, however, it can also mean that they lack knowledge of more deep-processing vocabulary learning strategies like association techniques, the key word method, using previous knowledge to learn new information...

8. Conclusion

Given these findings, the present study has important implications related to EFL teaching and learning. Thus, it suggests that vocabulary strategy instruction needs much focus in the Tunisian context, especially with the wide spread of different studies that provide instances of how VLSI/T can enhance vocabulary learning. By including vocabulary training into the curriculum, teachers can help their learners to become more independent with their vocabulary, through putting more stress on vocabulary learning strategies. This refers, in fact to what Moir and Nation (2008) quoted "teachers need to develop small syllabuses to develop each of the strategies, moving from teacher control and modeling, to the learners taking over the strategies themselves" (pp. 171-172).

Furthermore, examining how some vocabulary strategies are actually practiced using the CALLA model of instruction can be a good reference point to EFL teachers. Hence, they can understand the way strategies are employed in a given task according to learners' proficiency level, and believe in their capacity to apply such training in their class (Graham, 1997).

As for EFL learners, such model can support them to reflect on their own vocabulary learning. It should be recognized, however that learning how to use vocabulary strategies may not lead to instant progress in vocabulary increase. In fact, what is perhaps most crucial to note about vocabulary learning strategy training, is that it can make vocabulary development more efficient in the long run. Cohen and Macaro (2007), for instance, say "VLS instruction has some long-term positive effect even if it only raises consciousness of a

person's own VLS" (p. 268). Investigating the positive effect of teaching vocabulary strategies on vocabulary growth can also influence curriculum designers and material writers to reconsider the integration of effective vocabulary strategies alongside other learning skills and content.

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