ASSESSMENT OF ENGLISH SOUNDS PRODUCTION

OF MONOLINGUAL AND BILINGUAL IRAQI

LEARNERS OF ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE COUNCIL OF THE COLLEGE OF EDUCATION - UNIVERSITY OF DIYALA IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS IN METHODS OF TEACHING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE
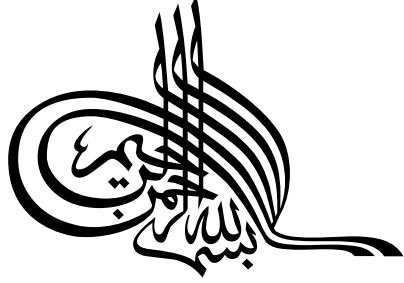
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2004   **1425**

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

وَأَنْزَلَ اللَّهُ عَلَيْكَ الْكِتَابَ وَالْحِكْمَةَ وَعَلَّمَكَ مَا لَمْ تَكُنْ تَعْلَمُ وَكَانَ فَضْلُ اللَّهِ عَلَيْكَ عَظِيماً

صدق الله العظيم

(النساء: من الآية ١١٣)

We certify that this thesis was prepared under our supervision at the University of Diyala / College of Education as a partial requirement for the degree of Master of Arts in Methods of Teaching English as a Foreign Language.

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We certify that we have read this thesis and as Examining Committee, examined the student in its content and that in our opinion it is adequate as a thesis for the degree of Master of Arts in the Methods of Teaching English as a Foreign Language .

Signature: Signature:

Name: Name:

   Member   Member

   Signature:

   Name:

     Chairman

Approved by the Council of the College of Education

    Signature:

    Name: Dr. Muthar khalil Al-Umar

      Dean of the College of Education

    Date:

To My Parents:

My Grandfather, My Father, My Mother ,

My Sisters, My Brother and My Aunts

With Love and Respect

DALIA

LIST Of ABBREVIATIONS

SLA	Second Language Acquisition
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
M	Monolingualism
B	Bilingualism
BE	Bilingual Education
CBT	Computer Based Training
OJT	On the Job Training
IA	Iraqi Arabic
SE	Standard English
NL	Native Language
NECI	New English Course in lraq
EA	Error Analysis
NNSs	Non- Native speakers
NSs	Native Speakers
PL	Production Level
RP	Received Pronunciation
SSE	Standard Southern English

Diyala University
College of Education
Dept. of English
Higher Studies

Dear Sir.

The researcher intends to carry out M.A research entitled "Assessment of English Sounds Production of Mono-lingual and Bilingual Iraqi Learners of English as a Foreign Language".

The present study aims at:

1. Identifying the difficulties faced by both monolinguals and bilinguals in learning phonological aspects of English, and

2. Finding out whether the third language has any influence, positive or negative, on the learners' performance in the foreign language.

The study is limited to the:

1- Third-Stage Students at the Dept. of Eng. - College of Education – Diyala University who are native speakers of Arabic and those whose native language is Turkoman; a regional dialect of Turkish, with Arabic as their second language during the academic year 2002-2003.

2. The pronunciation material is limited to the segmental phonemes included in:

1- Oconnor's **Better English Pronunciation.**

2- Roach's **English Phonetics and phonology.**

You are kindly requested to go through the test and give your opinion and comments on the suitability of the test items for the purpose of achieving the study objectives.

1-   The test that follows is

  a.   suitable and valid.

  b.   somehow suitable and valid.

  c.   not suitable and not valid for the following reasons:

    1-

    2-

    3-

    2- I suggest

    1-

    2-

    3-

Dalia Hussein Yahya

M.A Student

<div align="center">

((Production Level))

</div>

* Pronounce the Following:

1-   English Consonants

1.1   Stops

1.1.1 / p/and / b /

initial		medial	
peak	beak	happy	shabby
pack	back	supper	rubber
port	bought	paper	labour

final

rip	rib
tap	tab
cap	cab

1.1   Stops

1.1.2 / t / and / d /

initial		medial	
two	do	writer	rider
ten	den	latter	ladder
ton	done	water	warder

final

late	laid
heart	hard
sight	side

1.1 Stops

1.1.3 / k / and / g /

initial		medial	
cave	gave	licking	digging
class	glass	market	target
could	good	thicker	bigger

final	
back	bag
dock	dog
pick	pig

1.2 Fricatives

1.2.1 / f / and / v /

initial		medial	
fast	vast	suffer	cover
feel	veal	deafer	never
few	view	rougher	lover

final	
leaf	leave
proof	prove
life	live

1.2 Fricatives

1.2. 2 / / and / /

initial		medial	
think	this	author	other
thief	these	earthy	worthy
thank	that	Arthur	rather

final

tooth	smooth
both	clothe
faith	bathe

1.2 Fricatives
1.2.3 / s / and / z /

initial		medial	
said	Zed	looser	loser
Sue	zoo	lacy	lazy
seal	zeal	racing	raising

final

place	plays
loose	lose
price	prize

1.2 Fricatives
1.2.4 / /

initial	medial	final
she	ocean	finish
shop	nation	wash
ship	condition	push

1.2 Fricatives

1.2.5 / /

initial	medial	final
…….	explosion	garage
…….	invasion	beige
…….	decision	rouge

1.2 Fricatives

1.2.6 / h /

initial	medial	final
hat	behind	…….
he	anyhow	…….
who	re-house	…….

1.3 Affricates

1.3.1 / t / and / d /

initial		medial	
chin	gin	riches	ridges
cheer	jeer	catching	cadging
chain	Jane	watching	lodging

final	
rich	ridge
H	age
search	surge

1.4 Nasals

1.4.1 / m /

initial	medial	final
me	among	from
move	simple	seem
make	summer	him

1.4   Nasals

1.4.2   / n /

initial	medial	final
know	many	green
night	manner	learn
name	dinner	down

1.4   Nasals

1.4.3   / /

initial	medial	final
……	singer	ring.
…….	hungry	long
……..	anger	strong

1.4   Nasals

1.4.4   / n / and /   /

sin	sing
ran	rang

1.5 Liquids

1.5.1 / l /

initial	medial	final
lady	already	all
land	cold	beautiful
language	help	people

1.5 Liquids

1.5.2 / r /

initial	medial	final
red	carry	……..
write	very	……..
rain	brother	……..

1.6 Glides

1.6.1   / w /

initial	medial	final
we	between	…….
word	quit	…….
why	away	…….

1.6 Glides

1.6.2   / j /

initial	medial	final
yet	beyond	…….
young	few	…….
your	duty	…….

English Vowels

2.1 / i: /

initial	medial	final
eat	meat	see
east	thief	me
even	been	tea

2.2 / i /

initial	medial	final
in	hit	busy
ink	thick	happy
ill	rich	dirty

2.3   / i: / and / i /

lead	lid
wheat	wit
been	bin

2.4   / e /

initial	medial	final
end	met	……
any	bread	……..
engine	said	……..

2.5   / i / and / e /

did	dead
tin	ten
big	beg

2.6   / a /

initial	medial	final
and	hand	…….
act	fact	…….
action	sad	…….

2.7 **/ a: /**

initial	medial	final
art	father	car
arm	cart	star
after	last	bar

2.8 **/ a / and / a: /**

pat	part
lack	lark
match	march

2.9 **/ /**

initial	medial	final
up	bus	…….
under	some	…….
uncle	much	……..

2.10 **/ a / and / /**

tan	ton
bat	but
pan	pun

2.11 **/ a: / and / /**

carp	cup
last	lust
lark	luck

2.12   **/ o /**

initial	medial	final
on	dog	…….
orange	hot	…….
office	box	……..

2.13   **/ o: /**

initial	medial	final
order	tall	store
ought	north	nor
autumn	small	draw

2.14   **/ o / and / o: /**

cot	court
spot	sport
shot	short

2.15   **/ u /**

initial	medial	final
…….	push	…….
…….	look	…….
…….	should	…….

2.16   **/ u: /**

initial	medial	final
ooze	spoon	two
……	prove	who
……	juice	true

2.17 **/ u / and / u: /**

should	shoed
could	cooed
would	wooed

2.18 **/ : /**

initial	medial	final
earn	work	her
earth	first	sir
early	girl	stir

2.19 **/ : / and / a: /**

heard	hard
burn	barn
firm	farm

2.20 **/ /**

initial	medial	final
agree	understand	sailor
aside	ignorant	China
achieve	contain	measure

3. English Diphthongs

3.1 **/ ei /**

initial	medial	final
aim	wait	may
age	game	way
aid	place	they

3.2 **/ ai /**

initial	medial	final
item	time	buy
ice	type	high
eyes	light	die

3.3 **/ ai / and / ei /**

white	wait
rice	race
like	lake

3.4 **/ ou /**

initial	medial	final
own	home	go
only	don't	know
open	hold	show

3.5 **/ au /**

initial	medial	final
out	loud	how
outcome	house	now
outdoors	south	cow

3.6 **/ au / and / ou /**

now	know
loud	load
found	phoned

3.7 **/ i /**

initial	medial	final
ears	real	near
earmark	theatre	here
ear-ring	yearly	clear

3.8 **/ e /**

initial	medial	final
aired	stairs	where
airway	chairs	dare
area	cares	hair

3.9 **/ i / and / e /**

ears	airs
here	hair
beer	bare

3.10 **/u /**

initial	medial	final
…….	surely	poor
…….	purely	pure
…….	tourist	sure

3.11 **/ i / and / u /**

year	you're
tear	tour

3.12 **/ oi /**

initial	medial	final
oil	noise	joy
ointment	point	boy
oyster	join	enjoy

3.13 **/ ou / and / oi /**

nose	noise
soul	soil

English Triphthongs

4.1 / **ai** /   **4.2 / ei /**

iron   greyer

trial   player

4.3 / au /   **4.4 / ou /**

ours   lower

towel   slower

4.5 **/ oi /**

loyal

employer

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1   Statement and Significance of the Problem

Ellis (1986:19) states that second language acquisition (henceforth, SLA) is influenced by the learner's first language (henceforth, L_1) and the role of the L_1 in SLA is a negative one. That is, the L_1 gets in the way or interferes with the learning of the L_2, such that features of the L_1, especially the phonological ones, are transferred into the L_2. The Learner's L_1 also affects the other levels – vocabulary and grammar.

Studies conducted, namely, (Shwaysh (2000) and Al- Taee (2000)) reveal that Iraqi learners face certain problems in learning English as a foreign language (henceforth EFL) especially in the area of pronunciation due to a number of factors among which is the interference between the sound system of L_1 and L_2.

The influence of the mother tongue on the learning of the foreign language, especially on the phonological level, has been extensively studied and documented (cf. Jackobovits (1971), James (1980), Flege (1990), Chaudhary (1997)).

The interference can be ascribed to more than one factor, such as, the native language, i.e., Arabic; duality or even complexity of linguistic background. In a monolingual situation, the only previous linguistic knowledge the learner can draw upon is that of

his mother tongue while in the other situation, the learner's knowledge is more sophisticated for that he/ she has already learned more than one language, i.e. he/ she has become so to say "a professional language learner."

A lot of studies have been conducted resulting in adopting the English language programme in Iraq in such away that the differences in the sound system are focused upon. However, there has been no such study of the effect of language minorities ((Turkoman)) on the achievement of their speakers in their learning of English .

Since investigating all the factors and difficulties that the learners face in pronunciation is a task that is so extensive as it needs agreat deal of time and effort to carry out within a limited period of time, to the researcher's best knowledge, the assessment of English sounds production of monolingual and bilingual Iraqi college learners has not been fully investigated .

Thus, the investigation of the effect of the sound system of the[1] third language on the learning of the sound system of the second one is still a problem to be investigated. The present study is an attempt to bridge this gap in the literature.

1.2 Aims

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[1] "Third" here is not intended to indicate the order in which the language under investigation are learned. Actually "the third language" here is really the first language and Arabic the second. However, "third" is preferred here because of the well – known status of Arabic and English as being the first and second/ foreign languages respectively.

The study aims at:

1. Identifying the difficulties faced by both monolinguals and bilinguals in learning phonological aspects of English, and

2.   Finding out whether the third language has any influence, positive or negative, on the learners' performance in the foreign language.

1.3 Hypothesis

It is hypothesized that there is no statistically significant difference between the achievement of both monolingual and bilingual Iraqi learners of English in the area of English pronunciation .

1.4 Limits

The study is limited to the:

1.   Third – Stage Students at the Dept. of Eng. – College of Education – Diyala University who are native speakers of Arabic and those whose native language is Turkoman; a regional dialect of Turkish, with Arabic as their second language during the academic year 2002-2003.

2. The pronunciation material is limited to the segmental phonemes included in:

1.   O Connor's **Better English Pronunciation**.

2.   Roach's **English Phonetics and Phonology.**

1.5 Procedures

In carrying out this study, the following procedures are to be followed :

1. Investigating the relevant literature involving learning strategies of monolingual and bilingual learners.

2. Presenting a list of the features of the sound system of Arabic, English and Turkoman.

3. Constructing a test at the production level. (the test focuses on the points of similarities and differences in the three languages involved).

1.6 Value of the Study:

This study will be of value to all those concerned in the teaching/ learning process especially teachers of English, syllabus designers and material writers as it is going to highlight the problematic areas for Iraqi learners of English as a foreign language in the aspect of language .

The study will be valuable to linguists and students of linguistics .

1.7 Definition of Basic Terms:

1. Assessment

Assessment is a process of determining and passing judgements on students' learning potential and performance (White, 1988: 40)

Al – Juboury (1999:1) states that assessment for a language teacher includes any means of checking what students can do with the language .It also includes what they can not do, but proper assessment gives due weight to the positive side of their achievement.

On the basis of what has been mentioned, the operational definition of the present study is "Assessment is a developed process aimed at improving student learning."

2. Monolingual

A person who has an active knowledge of only one language, though perhaps a passive knowledge of others. (Richards et al., 1992:235)

In so for as the present study is concerned, the operational definition is that "Monolingualism is the possession of one language as opposed to bilingual."

3. Bilingual

Lado (1964: 214) defines bilingualism as the ability to speak two languages equally or almost equally well, it is used

technically to refer to any degree of knowledge of two languages by the same person.

According to the present study, the operational definition is that "Bilingualism is the ability to perform aptly two languages on a regular basis."

4. Foreign Language

Stern (1983:10) defines foreign language as a language which is not the L_1 , or a language which has no legal status within the national boundaries .

According to the present study, the operational definition is that "Foreign Language is not the language of the country or community in which that language is being learned .e.g. English learned in Iraq.

CHAPTER TWO
THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2.1 Language Contact

Under the concept of la   ntact Weinreich (1974: 1) considers first the linguistic   lage contact, interlingual interference, i.e., the influence of one language, dialect, or other linguistic variety upon another, its phonology, grammar, and vocabulary. The key concept is interference defined as those instances of deviation from the norms of either language which occur in the speech of bilinguals as a result of their familiarity with more than one language. Interference can happen in all the systems of language knowledge.

Bell (1977: 116) believes that for most individuals, the mother tongue is a primary medium of communication and the second language tend to be 'secondary' in terms of use-auxiliary languages. He adds that there are cases in language contact situations-in which the mother tongue loses its importance, e.g., immigrants.

Kess (1976: 222) maintains that the differential uses of the bilingual's two languages may be the result of preference or pressure. He may wish to use the choice between his two languages as an expression of solidarity and perhaps familiarity with the

addressee. The same applies to situations, for the bilingual may wish to affirm his status by his choice of language.

Mackey (1968: 545) points out that it is important not to confuse bilingualism with the more general concept of 'language contact' which deals with direct or indirect influence of one language on another. The amount of influence of any area of contact on the bilingualism of the individual depends on the duration of the contact.

2.2 Multiple Language Contact

Nickel (1971: 111) believes that the theory of interference as well as the methodology of studying this theory can profit substantially from investigations of multiple language contact, i.e., of cases in which the same language has been in contact with the structure of that one language constant.

White (1985: 43) asserts the idea that one needs not only to acknowledge multiple linguistic influences on L_2 acquisition such as known to the learner and of universal factors but also to provide a theoretical base that can account for all these influences and other variability.

2.3 Bilingualism and Multilingualism

When people hear the term bilingual many imagine an individual who speaks two languages perfectly. They imagine that

such a person can speak, understand, read, and write in two languages.

In so far as the present study is concerned, bilingualism is the ability to perform aptly two languages on a regular basis. It could be said here that bilinguals have very high levels of proficiency in both languages in written and spoken skills. Others have high levels of proficiency in comprehension and / or speaking skills. Bilingual individuals can understand or produce written or spoken skills in more than one language. Thus, persons who are able to read in a second language (e.g. English) but unable to function in the spoken language are considered bilinguals of a certain type. Such persons have receptive competence in a second language and such persons are considered to be more skillfull than monolinguals who have neither receptive nor productive abilities. So monolinguals have a minor degree of ability to understand a second language.

2.3.1 Bilingualism

Archibald (1996: 503) points out that the interesting phenomenon of children simultaneously acquiring two languages is generally investigated in the field known as bilingualism.

According to Lyons (1987: 281), Bilingualism is "a full range of competence in two languages that native monolingual speaker has in one".

Mcarthur and Mcarthur (1992: 127) define bilingualism as "the capacity to make alternate use of two languages, in contrast to 'monolingualism' or 'unlingualism' and 'multilingualism'."

Concerning the defining characteristics of bilingualism, the most crucial element to consider is the fact that bilingualism is a relative rather than absolute phenomenon. Consequently, the most accurate measure in this connection would include the question of degree (Suleiman, 1981:5). Crystal (1997: 42) believes that definitions of bilingualism reflect assumptions about the degree of proficiency people must achieve before they qualify as bilingual (whether comparable to a monolingual, native-speaker or something less than this, even to the extent of minimal knowledge of a second language).

Dulay et al. (1982: 10) refer to Neurolinguistic research which further indicate that people who know more than one language make use of more of the brain than monolinguals do (Albert and Obler, 1978). It appears that the part of the brain that is used in second language functioning remains underdeveloped in monolingual brains.

Psycholinguistic studies indicate that people who control more than one language are verbally more skillful than monolinguals, and they mature earlier with respect to linguistic abstraction skills. Lerea and Laporta (1971) and Palmer (1972) report, for example, that bilinguals have better auditory memory

than monolinguals, and Slobin (1968) found that bilinguals are better at intuiting meaning from unknown words. Feldman and Shen (1971) discovered that low-income bilingual children were better at learning new labels than low-income monolinguals, and Peal and Lambert (1962) concluded that ten-year-olds who spoke both French and English demonstrated higher skill in linguistic abstraction than their monolingual counterparts. Expanding mental abilities, therefore, maybe reason enough to learn a second language. (Ibid)

2.3.2 Bilingual Education (BE)

According to Paulston (1980: 11) BE refers to programmes where equal emphasis is placed on learning the native language as well as English. Tarish (1984: 13) also adds that bilingual education is a program where the students learn the subjects in both English and the native language (e.g. Spanish, Russian, etc), usually with the idea of maintaining the native language and culture (maintenance) or as a stage teaching to concentration on the target language (transitional).

Ferguson, Houghton and Wells (1977) as cited in Garcia (2000: 408) have identified ten different aims of bilingual education, some having to do with the enrichment of the elite through bilingualism, others with the assimilation or the preservation of language minorities, yet others with societal

integration, increased world communication, understanding, and pluralism.

Concerning types of bilingual education, Garcia (lbid) finds out that some types of bilingual education encourage additive bilingualism. In additive bilingualism students come into school speaking their mother tongue, and a second language is added. The result is clearly an individual who is bilingual. Other types of bilingual education are involved in subtractive bilingualism. In situations of subtractive bilingualism students are instructed in both their mother tongue and a second language. Finally, instruction in the mother tongue ceases, with the second language becoming the sole medium of instruction and finally the only language of student.

2.3.3 Multilingualism

Crystal (1997: 253) defines multilingualism as "a term used in socioliguistics to refer, in the first instance, to a speech community which makes use of two or more languages, and then to the individual speakers who have multilingual ability."

According to Mcarthur and Mcarthur (1992: 673) multilingualism is "the ability to use three or more languages, either separately or in various degrees of code mixing."

Aitchison (1987: 115) finds out that multiple languages are used for language planning, a situation in which a government or education authority attempts to manipulate the linguistic situation in a particular direction.

Thus, multilingual societies in which all the speakers are proficient in all the languages spoken are something of a varity.Quite often, one language, or simplified language, is adopted as a common means of communication. This can happen either naturally, or as a result of language planning. A common language of this type is sometimes known as a lingua franca. In India today, English tends to be a lingua franca: Hindi speakers from the north are likely to communicate in English with people from the south who mostly speak one of the Dravidian Languages. (Ibid)

2.3.4 Advantages of Bilingualism

Garcia (2000: 409) considers bilingualism and multilingualism important for both language majorities and minorities for cognitive, social, and psychological reasons.

Students who are bilingual and biliterat have been shown to have increased cognitive advantages, such as more divergent and creative thinking, greater metalinguistic awareness, cognitive control of linguistic processes and increased communicative sensitivity.

In addition to cognitive advantages, bilingualism and bilit-eracy can bring about greater understanding among groups and incr-eased knowledge of each other.

To the cognitive and social advantages of bilingualism and biliteracy, one can add the psychological benefits, important especially to language minorities who lack self-esteem. Bilingual education in this sense is empowerment pedagogy, enabling the incorporation of the home language and culture in school, the participation of the community, the use of the home language in assessment.

2.4 Strategies of Learning

2.4.1 Process, Style and Strategy

Before looking at some processes of second language learning, the differences among process, style, and strategy must be explained as the terms used in the literature on L_2 acquisition. Brown (1987: 78) points out that there has been a good deal of confusion in the use of these three terms. One can find instances of transfer and interference being referred to as strategies (Taylor 1975, for example). Sometimes process and strategy are synon-ymous (Tarone etal. 1976, for example). And style and strategies are often similarity interchanged.

Process is defined by Brown (1987: 78) as "the most general of the three concepts.'' All human beings engage in certain universal processes". Just as we need air, water and food for our

survival so do all humans of normal intelligence engage in certain levels or types of learning. He also believes that we universally use principles of transfer in the process of learning and retention. Process, then, is characteristic of every human being.

Styles are defined as "those general characteristics of intellectual functioning (and personality type, as well) that especially pertain to you as an individual, that differentiate you from someone else" (Ibid: 79). For example, you might be more visually oriented, more tolerant of ambiguity, or more reflective than someone else-these would be styles that characterize a general pattern in your thinking or feeling.

Brown (lbid: 79) defines a strategy as "a particular methods of approaching a problem or task, modes of operation for achieving a particular end, planned designs for controlling and manipulating certain information". They are contextualized battle plans that might vary from moment to moment or day to day or year to year. Strategies vary intraindividually; each of us has a whole host of possible ways to solve a particular problem and we choose one-or several of those in sequence-for a given problem.

2.4.2 Learning Strategies

Corder (1977: 89) defines learning / acquisition strategies as "those referring to mental processes whereby a learner creates for

himself or discovers a language system underlying the data he is exposed to."

Bloom (1964) as cited in Clark (2000: 1) states that "learning strategies," or "instructional strategies" are the various methodologies used to involve the learners in the training program, such as questioning during lectures, simulation with CBT, reflection after reading, etc. They are used to obtain the "learning objectives" which are the new behaviors that we want our learners to use when they return to their jobs.

The learning objectives, in turn, point us towards the major media, in which we will present our instruction, such as through the use of CBT (Computer Based Training), self study, classroom, OJT (On the Job Training), etc.

Although many people use the terms interchangeably, objectives, media, and strategies all have separate meanings. For example, our learning objective might be "Pull the correct items for a customer order." Our media might OJT. Our instructional strategies is to have the learners watch a demonstration in order to get an overall view of the customer order process, have a question and answer period, observe small group demonstrations, and then receive hands-on practice by actually performing the job. (Ibid)

The Instructional Strategy Selection Chart shown below is a general guideline for selecting the learning strategy for changing the present behavior to the desired behavior. It is based on Bloo-

m's Taxonomy (learning Domains). The matrix runs from the passive learning methods (the top left column) to the more active participation methods (the bottom left column). While Bloom's Taxonomy (the right three columns) runs from top to bottom, with the lower level behaviors being on top and the higher behaviors being on the bottom. That is, there is a direct correlation in learning:

*Lower levels of behavior can be taught using the more passive learning methods.

*Higher levels of behavior require some sort of action or involvement by the learners. (Ibid)

Table (1)
Instructional Strategy Selection Chart

Instructional Strategy	Cognitive	Affective	Psychomotor
Lecture, reading, audio\visual, demonstration, or guided, observations, question and answer period	1-Knowledge	1-Receiving phenomena	1-Perception 2-Set
Discussions, multimedia CBT, Socratic didactic method, reflection. Activities such as surveys, role playing, case studies, fishbowls, etc.	2-comprehension 3-Application	2-Responding to phenomena	3-Guided response 4-Mechanism
On-the-Job-Training (OJT), practice by doing (some direction or coaching is required), simulated job settings	4-Analysis	3-Valuing	5-Complex response

(to include CBT simulations)			
Use in real situations. Also may be trained by using a several high level activities coupled with OJT.	5-Synthesis	4-Organize values into priorities	6-Adaptation
High interest (hard to train to these levels because they take more time than normal classroom periods allow). Normally developed on own through self-study or learning through mist-akes, but mentoring and coaching can speed the process.	6-Evaluation	5-Internalizing values	7-Origination

(adapted from Clark, 2000: 2)

Higher level media are used to instruct lower level behaviors, but normally lower level strategies are not used to instruct high level behaviors. For example, in the second column under "Cognitive", all the media from "Lecture" to "Use in Real Situations" are used to instruct "knowledge", but when instructing "Analysis", the following strategies are used "On The Job Training", "Practice By Doing" or "Use In Real Situation" stra-tegies. The highest level "High interest" requires that the learner has a high interest in the subject and wants to become an expert in it. (Ibid)

According to Brown (1987: 81), there are three terms in language learning processes: transfer, interference, and overgen-

eralization. Interference and overgeneralization are the negative counterparts of the facilitating processes of transfer and generalization.

2.4.3 Types of Errors

There are some types of errors which are related to the types of learning processes or strategies, such as a- Interlingual transfer b- Intralingual transfer c- Induced errors.

2.4.3.1 Interlingual Transfer

Corder (1973 a: 132) states that learners transfer what they already know about performing one task to performing another and similar task. But the learner does not know what the full nature of the new task is, until he has learnt in what way the two tasks are different he will perform the second task in the only way he knows, that is, as if it were the same as the first task. He will continue to apply the old rules where new ones are needed. And he will make mistakes of course. Making errors in the second language can be explained by the notion of transfer. It is sometimes called 'negative transfer' or interference. Where the nature of the two tasks happens to be the same, of course, this tendency to transfer is an advantage. This is called 'positive transfer' or facilitation.

Lado (1957:2) as cited in Littewood (1984:17) sums up the learner's problem in awell - Known formulation: Those elements

that are similar to his native language will be simple for him, and those elements that are different will be difficult.' This has strong implications for second language instruction:

1. The learner's first language can be compared with the second one he is trying to learn (This activity is called 'contrastive analysis') .

2. This analysis will be valuable to predict the language items that will cause difficulty and the errors that the learner will be prone to make (a belief which is usually called contrastive analysis hypothesis').

3. These predictions will be of value to decide which items need to be given special treatment in the courses that the teachers teach or the materials that the writers write and then, the intensive techniques such as repetition or drills are used for these items to overcome the interference and establish the necessary new habits (such techniques are called ' audio -lingual' or 'audio – visual' courses).

2.4.3.2 Intralingual Transfer (Overgeneralization) .

The majority of intralingual errors are instances of the same process of overgeneralization that has been observed in first language acquisition . (Littlewood, 1984: 23).

Crystal (1997: 165) defines generalization as "a term used in language acquisition studies, referring to the process whereby a

child extends his initial use of a linguistic feature to a class of items, as when, having learned to use an – ing ending on a VERB, the feature is 'generally' applied to the class of verbs."

On the other hand, the term overgeneralization means that a child extends his use of a grammatical feature to contexts beyond those found in the adult language . 'overgeneralizing' , the regular past tense form in such items as * *goed*, **wented*, * *goned*. (lbid: 273).

Richards (1983: 199) states that overgeneralization covers instances where the learner creates a deviant structure on the basis of his experience of other structures in the target language. For example he can sings, we are hope, it is occurs, he come from.

Certain types of teaching techniques increase the frequency of overgeneralized structures. Many pattern drills and transform exercises are made up of utterances that can interfere with each other to produce a hybrid structure:

Teacher	Instruction	Student
He walks quickly .	change to contin - uous form	*He is walks quickly*.

This has been described as overlearning of a structure (Wolfe 1967, p. 180) as cited in Richards (1983: 200). At other times, he walks may be contrasted with he is walking, he sings with he can sing, and a week later, without any teaching of the forms, the learner produces he can sings, he is walks.

According to Littlewood (1984: 25) transfer and overgeneralization are not distinct processes. They represent aspects of the same underlying learning strategy. Both result from the fact that the learner uses what he already knows a bout language, in order to make sense of new experience. In the case of overgeneralization, it is his previous knowledge of the second language that the learner uses. In the case of transfer, the learner uses his previous mother – tongue experience as a means of organising the second language data.

2.4.3.3 Induced Errors / Context of Learning.

Brown (1987: 179) defines context of learning as that referring to the classroom with its teacher and its materials in the case of school learning, or the social situation in the case of untutored second language learning. In a classroom context the teacher or the textbook can lead the learner to make faulty hypotheses a bout the language because of a misleading explanation from the teacher, faulty presentation of a structure or word in a textbook, or even because of a pattern that was rotely memorized in a drill but not properly contextualized .

Stenson (1983:256) believes that the teacher may inadvertently mislead students by the way he defines a lexical item, or by the order in which he presents material. For example, given *worship* as a general word for pray, the students immediately attach

to the new word the same preposition that they knew to be required with the familiar one, and begin speaking of *worshipping to God* .

Stenson (lbid: 259), however, reports that grammatical errors happen when the students misunderstand the meaning or the usage and when the teacher presents faulty explanation . Students in one advanced class were asked if they knew the meaning of any, and when all said Yes, to give some examples, with the following result*: In this class there are any students who speak German* (= not any, no students).

In reading textbook exercises to rote mechanical repetition, students produce some strange semantic errors that would be unlikely to appear in read speech. An intermediate level drill gave students the choice of several phrases as possible responses a Yes – No Question

No, but I ⎡ — hope to — ⎤
         | ought to |
         | must |
         | expect to |
         | have to |
         ⎣ etc .   ⎦

Thus, "*Do you want to study* ?'' "*No, but I have to*". Some of the students responded with No apparent regard for any semantic relationship between the question and their choice of response. (lbid: 260).

2.5 English Segmental Phonemes

Todd (1987:26) points out that all human beings are alike, yet every human being has a unique set of finger prints . ln a similar way ،all languages make use of consonants and vowels yet no two languages have the same set of distinct sounds or phonemes . Consonants and vowels can be defined in terms of phonetics and phonology and to avoid mixing up these two terms, i.e, consonants and vowels, it is necessary then to explain these terms alone to make them clear from a phonetic and phonological point of view .

2.5.1 Consonants

Consonants are the sounds that are produced when the air passage is obstructed . (Al-Hamash 1984:16).

English consonant phonemes are described and classified in terms of three main variables :-

1-   point of articulation .

2-   manner of articulation, and

3-   voicing (Gimson ،1970:149; Roach, 1983:52).

2.5 .1.1 Description.

1-   Plosives (Stops) :

English stops are produced by some form of complete stopping of the air stream and then letting it go abruptly (Yule ، 1985: 39; Abercrombie ،1967:148) In the production of a stop consonant the velum seals off the nasal cavity so that no air can pass through the nose. English has six plosives: /p/,/b/,/t/,/d/,/k/ and /g/. The stops /b/,/d/ and /g/ are voiced, whereas /p/,/t/ and /k/ are voiceless. As regard their phonemic distribution, they occur in different positions of the word, i.e initial ،medial and final . ln ini-tial position, the distinction between the two series /p/،/t/،/k/ and /b/، /d/، /g/ depends mainly on the presence or absence of aspiration and marginally on voicing (Ibid) .

As regards the tensity of the sounds /p،t،k/ are tense ،whereas /b،d،g/ are lax .(Roach ،1983:31). Gimson (1975:19) gives important cues to the plosive . Long vowels and diphthongs are shorter before /p،t،k/ than before /b،d،g/ . /n/ is also shorter before /t/ than before /d/. /m/ is also shorter before /p/ than before /b/.

2- Affricates :

An affricate as defined by Ladefoged (1993:63) is "simply a sequence of a stop followed by homorganic fricative" Thus,

affricates begin like stops and end like fricatives . The affricate phonemes exist in standard English are/ ts/ and /dʒ / . they occur in all positions of the word .

* /ts/ : It is voiceless palatal affricate .

* /dʒ / It is voiced palatal affricate .

3. **Nasals :**

The sounds /mˌnˌ / are called nasals or nasal stops. For a nasal sound ˌthe velum is lowered ˌallowing air to pass out through the nasal passage .(Rogers ˌ2000 : 24)

4. **Fricatives :**

Dobrovolsky and katamba (1996:28) define fricatives as "consonants produced with a continuous airflow through the mouth". "Fricatives are accompanied by a continuous audible noise because the air used in their production passes through a very narrow opening. the English fricatives are: /f/,/v/,/ /,/ /,s/,/z/,/ /, / / and/h/.

5. **Lateral :**

A lateral sound is articulated by the air passing through both sides of the tongue while its tip touching the alveolar ridge . The only English lateral sound is /1/ It is described as a picoalveolar lateral . /1/ in *look* is a light /1/while in *old* or *all* it is a dark /1/ . The difference between the two is a simple difference in resonance (Jones ˌ1969:176) .

6. **Approximants :**

In SE, there are four Approximant: /I/,/r/,/w/ and /j/. The first of these sounds is a lateral approximant and the last three are central approximants . These four approximants share the possibility of appearing in similar positions in consonant clusters with stop consonants (Ladefoged, 1993: 64). They become fully devoiced and show considerable frication when preceded by voiceless stops . The voiceless is a manifestation of the aspiration that occurs after voiceless stops (Ibid).

Table (2) illustrates the classification of English consonants according to manner and point of articulation .

Table (2)

SE Consonant Phonemes

Manner of Articulation	Voicing	Place of Articulation								
		Bilabial	Labio-dental	Dental	Alveolar	Post-alveolar	Palato-alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Stops (plosives)	Voiced	b			d				g	
	Voiceless	P			t				k	
Fricatives	Voiced		v		z					
	Voiceless		f		s		S			
Affricates	Voiced						d			
	Voiceless						t			
Nasals	Voiced	m			n					
	Voiceless									
Lateral Approximants	Voiced				l					
	Voiceless									
Central Approximants	Voiced	w				r		j		
	Voiceless									

After Roach (1983: 52)

2.5.2 Vowels

Vowels are produced by the air expelled from the lungs flowing through the vocal cords and then passing freely through the mouth . If the vocal cords are stretched with the right tension, they vibrate as the air passes through them، causing sound waves . These sound waves are modified primarily by the tongue and the lips to form the different vowels (Devilliers and Devilliers ، 1978:99) . Thus ،The quality of the vowels depends on the shape of the oral cavity as modified by the tongue and the lips positions.

According to many phoneticians such as Gimson (1970)،Haycraft (1971) ،Lass (1984) ،knowles (1987) ،English vowels are classified in terms of four factors :

1-   The height of the tongue in the mouth .

2-   Tongue position or the degree of retraction of the highest point of the tongue arch .

3-   The length of the vowel.

4-   The shape of the lips ،whether rounded or unrounded .

There are twelve pure (simple) vowels in SE،five of these pure vowels have a remarkably longer duration than that of the remaining seven vowels when they occur in similar phonetic contexts،i.e.،when surrounded by the same sound . However, these long vowels have their length considerably reduced when they occur in syllable closed by /p،t،k،t ،f، ، s،S/as in *soup ،meet*

peak,watch٬half٬earth٬loose٬leash(Gimson٬1975:9)This shortening

of the vowel is of great importance in distinguishing a word such

as *seat* from *seed* (Ibid) .

2.5.2.1 Description .

A detailed description of each vowel phoneme follows:

1- /i:/   lt is a long ٬close ٬front ٬unrounded vowel sound. It

occurs   in all positions, *eat* /i:t/ ٬*meat* /mi:t/ ٬*see*/si:/.

2- /i/ It is a short ٬just above the half-close position ٬front٬un-

rounded vowel . It occurs in all positions, *in* /in/٬*hit*/hit/

happy /hapi/.

3- /e/ It is a short ٬between half – close and half – open

positions٬ front and unrounded vowel .It occurs only in

initial and medial positions٬ *end* /end/٬*said* /sed/.

4- /a/ lt is a short ٬a little above the open position, front and un-

rounded vowel . It occurs only initially and medially٬*and*

/and/٬*hand*/hand/.

5- /a:/ It is a long open ٬back ٬unrounded vowel sound. lt

occurs

in all positions٬*art*/a:t/٬*cart* /ka:t/ , *car* /ka:/.

6- /o/ It is a short ، open ، back ، rounded vowel. It occurs only in initial and medial positions ، *on* /on/ ، *hot*/hot/.

7- /o:/It is a long ، between half-open and half-close positions ، back rounded vowel. It occurs in all positions, *order* /'o:ds/, ، *tall*/to:l/ ، *door* /do:/.

8- /u/ It is a short ، just above the half – close position ، back, rounded vowel. It occurs only in medial position, *look* /luk/ ، *should* /Sud/ .

9- /u:/ It is a long ، close ، back, rounded vowel. It occurs initially (only in *ooze* /u:z/ ، medially (*spoon* /spu:n/) and finally (*two*/tu:/).

10- / / It is a short, a little below the half – open position ، central ، unrounded vowel. It occurs only in initial and medial positions, *up* / p/ ، *some* /s m/.

11- / :/ It is a long ، between half-close and half- open positions ، central ، unrounded vowel. It occurs in all positions ، *earth*   / : / ، *girl* /g :l/ ، *her*/h :/.

12- / /It is a short ، between half – close and half- open positions, central ، unrounded vowel .It occurs in all

positions *above* / b v/ *second* /'sek nd / *teacher* /'ti:t

/ . (cf.Jones(1969), Gimson (1970), O'Connor(1980),

Roach (1983)).

Figure No. (1) below is a simplified chart of English pure vowels.

| front | central | back |

Close

.i: u: .

i.   .u

Half – close

e .   . :

Half – open .   . o:

. o

a .

Open

a:
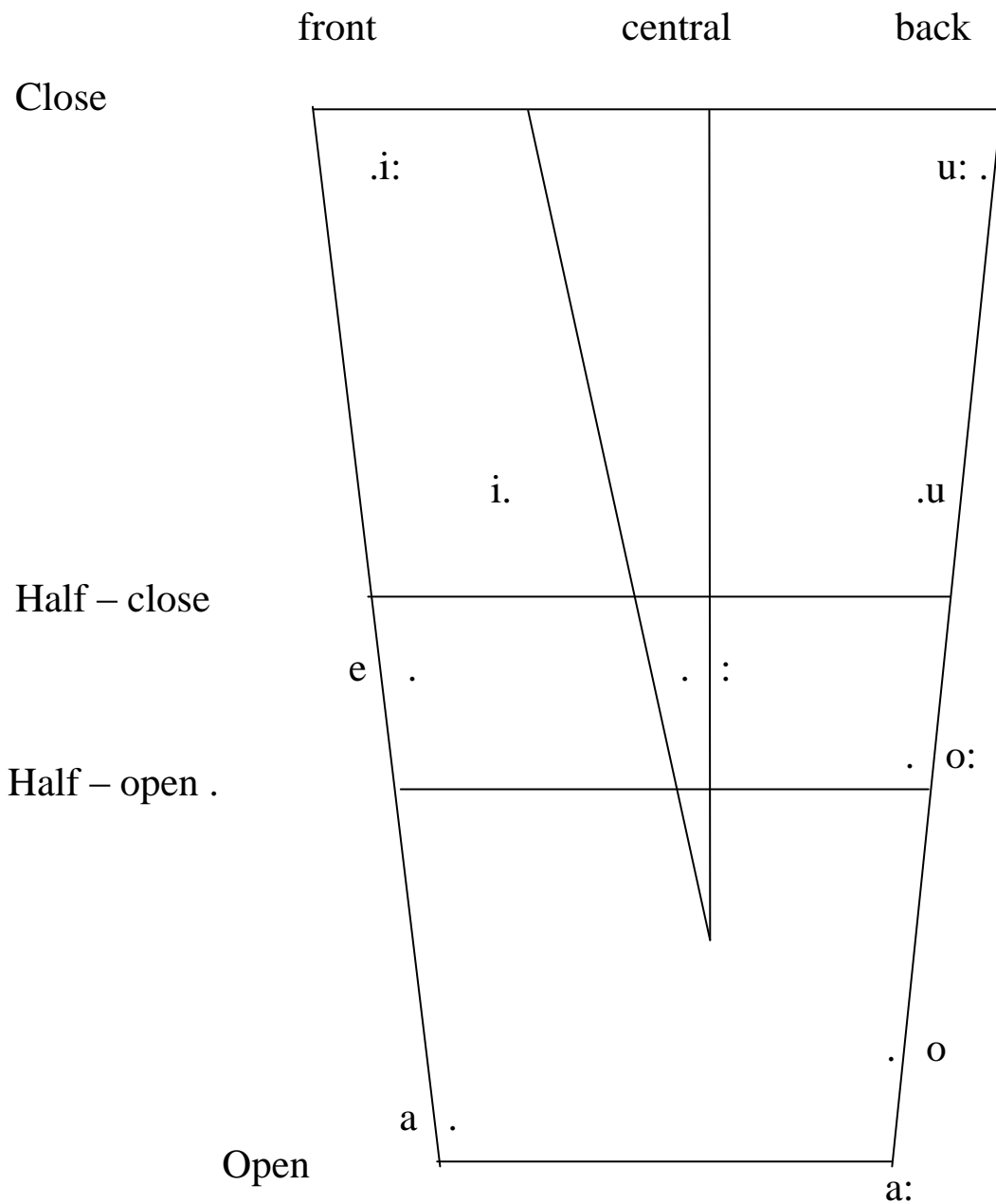
Figure (1) A Chart of English Pure Vowels (adopted from El – Shayib and Hassan, 1997: 71)

2.5.3 Diphthongs

A diphthong is defined as "a smooth glide from one vowel position to another، the whole glide acting like one of the long simple vowels (O'Connor،1980:149).

Al-Hamash and Abdulla (1968:28) state that in pronouncing a diphthong ،the speech organs start in the position of one vowel and then move in the direction of another . For purposes of simplicity ،it is convenient to treat diphthongs as combinations or sequences of two vowels each .

The total number of diphthongs in English is eight and the simplest way to remember them in terms of three groups divided as in the following :

1.   those which end in/u/ :/ou/ and /au/ as in /sou/ *so* and /taun/ *town*.

2.   those which end in /i/ :/ei/ ،/ai/ and /oi/ as in /mein/*main,*/fain/ *fine* and /d oi/*joy*.

3.   those which end in / / :/ /,/ / and /u / as in /ni / *near*, /he z/ *hairs*/ and /pu / *poor* .

2.5.4 Triphthongs

A triphthong is a glide from one vowel to another and then to a third ،all produced rapidly and without interruption . The triphthongs can be looked on as being composed of the five closing diphthongs ،with   added on the end .

ei+   = ei   as in *sayer ، player* .

ai+   = ai   as in *higher ، liar* .

au+   = au   as in *power ، nour*

ou+   = ou   as in *grower، lower* .

oi+   = oi   as in *royal ،loyal* .(Roach،1983:22)

2.6 Iraqi Arabic Segments

2.6.1 Consonants

    Al-Hamash (1969:12) in his book **A Contrastive Study of the Sound Systems of Iraqi Arabic and Standard English** depends chiefly on Wallace M. Erwin's description of Iraqi Arabic consonants ،in **A Short Reference Grammar of Iraqi Arabic** (1963:3-17)

The following is a list of Iraqi Arabic Consonants with their most important allophones .

1-   [b] A voiced bilabial stop .

[b] occurs before front vowels and before voiced non-emphatic consonants.

[beeš]*how much*

[**b**]occurs next to emphatic consonants and before non– front vowels .

[burgi] *screw.*

[**p**]occurs before voiceless emphatic consonants and non – front vowels .

[psaat] *carpet*

[p '] occurs before front vowels in afew loan words .

[p'arda] *curtain* .

[P] occurs elsewhere in a few loan words.

[Plaaw] *rice* .

2- /q / A voiceless post- velar stop. It occurs in all positions.

/qaamuus/   *dictionary*

/maqsad/   *aim*

/saayiq/   *driver*

3- / ?/ [*]a voiceless glottal stop. It occurs in all positions.
/mas?ala/ *question*
4- /f/ A voiceless labiodental spirant. It occurs in all positions.

[f]   occurs before back vowels and in positions adjacent to:

(a)   the emphatic consonants /t, d, s/,

---

[*]   IA / ? / is stable in word –medial and word – find positions . In word – initial positions it is stable when followed by a consonant, bwt when followed by a vowel it freely varies with zero.
e.g.

you   [? inta]

and you   [winta]

(b)   velars /x, g, k, g/ , or (c) /r/ or

(d)   a combination of those.

[foog] *above*, [furaat] *the Euphrates*.

[fuut] *enter* [afxar] *better.*

[afkaar] *thoughts,* ['atuf]*sympathy.*

[**f**]   occurs elsewhere

[fiil] *elephant*, [flaan] *somebody*.

[v]   is in free variation with [f] and [**f**] in positions preceding

voiced stops, voiced spirants (other than /'/ and /j/).

[? avdal]   *better*

[? avdiik] *I sacrifice myself for you*

5- /r/ A voiced dental flap. It occurs in all positions.

[r]   occurs before front high vowels.

[ribih] *profit*, [? ariid] *I want*

[**r**]   occurs elsewhere.

[mur] *bitter*, [? ard] *earth*

6- /**d**/ A voiced interdental emphatic spirant. It occurs in all
positions.

[**d**aabut]   *officer*

[mu**d**ir]   *Harmful*

[? ar**d**]   *Earth*

7- /s̟/ A voiceless dental emphatic spirant. It occurs in all positions.

 [suuf]   *wool*

 [busal]   *onion*

 [gas]   *choked*

8- /ʿ/ A voiced pharyngeal[*] spirant. It occurs in all positions.

[ʿála] *on*

[ta ʿaal] *come* (imperative)

[šraaʿ] *a sail*

9- /h/ A voiceless glottal spirant. It occurs in all positions.

[hadaf] *target*

[šaahid] *witness*

[? ishaam] *contribution*

10- /č/ A voiceless palatal affricate. It occurs in all positions.

[čibiir]*big*

[simča] *fish*

11- / / A voiceless interdental spirant. It occurs in all positions.

[aani]   *second*

[a ar]   *affected*

[? ili]   *one third*

---

*   "A pharyngeal articulation is one in which the root of the tongue assumes the shape of a bulge and is drawn back toward the vertical back wall of the pharynx to form a stricture". (Delattre, 1971: 129).

12- /*d*/ A voiced interdental spirant. It occurs in all positions.

[*d*aab]   *melted*

[ka*dd*aab]   *liar*

[fuulaa*d*]   *steel*

13- /s/ A voiceless dental spirant. It occurs in all positions.

[saafar]   *he travelled*

[aswad]   *black*

[rufas]   *he kicked*

14- /z/ A voiced dental spirant. It occurs in all positions.

[zeen]   *good*

[bziim]   *buckle*

[meez]   *table*

15- /š/ A voiceless palatal spirant.

[z]   occurs before voiced consonants.

[ruzdi] *name of a person.*

[š] occurs elsewhere.

[maši] *walking.*

16- /x/ A voiceless velar spirant. It occurs in all positions.

[xeema] *tent* [buxuur] *spices*

[aduux] *I get confused*

17- /g/ A voiced velar spirant. It occurs in all positions.

[geer] *different*

[luga] *language*

[faraag] *space*

18- /h/ A voiceless pharyngeal spirant. It occurs in all positions.

[huuta] *whale*

[laham]*meat*

[milih] *salt*

19- /j/ A voiced palatal affricate.

[ž] occurs before voiced stops.

[yižbur] *he forces*

[š]   occurs before /t/

[? istihaad] *hard work*

[i]   occurs elesewhere

[jaar] *neighbour*

[?ija] *he came*

20- /m/ A bilabial nasal

[m] occurs next to emphatic consonants or non- front vowels.

[tamur] *dates*

[m.] occurs finally.

[kalaam.] *speech*

[m]   occurs elsewhere.

[minu] *who*

21- /n/ A dental nasal.

[N]   occurs next to /g/, /k/ or / q/.

[Nguul] *we say*

[n.]   occurs finally.

[burhaan.] *proof*

[n]   occurs elsewhere.

[naam] *he slept*

22- /w/ A bilabial semivowel. It occurs in prevocalic positions.

[walaad] *boy*

23- /y/ palatal semivowel.

[Yam] *near*

24- /l/ A dental lateral.

[**l**]   occurs next to an emphatic or non- front vowel and in the

word [? a**ll**a] *God*, [t**l**aaba] *problem*

[I]   occurs elsewhere.

[leeš] *why*, [waali] *governor*

lt is worth noting that the difference between the two sounds may

differentiate words.

/xaali/ *empty*

/xaa**l**i/ *my maternal uncle*

25- /t/ A voiceless dental stop.

[t']   occurs in prevocalic positions and finally as in [t'uut'] *berry.*

[t]   occurs elsewhere, as in [triid] *you want*

26- /d/ A voiced dental stop. It occurs in all positions.

[diin] *religion*

[madrasa] *school*

[walad] *boy*

27- /t/ A voiceless dental emphatic stop. It occurs in all positions.

[tiin] *mud*

[watan] *homeland*

[batt] *duck*

28- /k/ A voiceless velar stop.

[k'] occurs initially before stressed vowels and finally as in

[k'aamil] *complete* and ['arraak'] *fighter.*

[k]   occurs elsewhere as in [kwaam] *heaps*

29- /g/ A voiced velar stop. It occurs in all positions.

[gaal] *he said*

[liga] *he found*

[foog] *above*

Table (3) illustrates a description of IA consonant phonemes.

Table (3)

IA Consonant Phonemes.

Manner of Articulation	Voicing	Place of Articulation								
		Bilabial	Labio-dental	Inter-dental	Dental	Palatal	Velar	Unvular (post- velar)	Pharyngeal	Glottal
Stops (plosives)	Voiceless				t t		k	q		?
	Voiced	b			d		g			
Spirants (fricatives)	Voiceless		f		ss	s	x		h	h
	Voiced			**d**_d_	z		g		‘	
Affricates	Voiceless					č				
	Voiced					j				
Nasals	Voiceless									
	Voiced	m			n					
Laterals	Voiceless									
	Voiced				l					
Flaps	Voiceless									
	Voiced				r					
Semi-vomels	Voiceless									
	Voiced	w				y				

After Al- Hamash (1969: 29)

2.6.2 Vowels

Arabic vowels are divided into (a) short vowels and (b) long vowels. The latter are usually treated as geminates, i.e., each long vowel consists of two short vowels in a sequence. However, from the phonetic point of view, IA short vowels are not only shorter in actual time duration than long vowels, but they are also different in quality.

The following is a list of Iraqi Arabic vowels with their major allophones:

1- /ii/ A long high front unrounded glide. (all positions)

[tiin.] *mud*

[tiin] *figs*

[?iidi] *my hand*

2- /i/ A short high front unrounded vowel. (all positions)

[i]   [?uxti.] *my sister*

[i]   [tib] *medicine.*

[e]   [sehab] *he pulled*

[i]   [mi il] *like*

3- /ee/ A long mid front unrounded glide. (all positions)

[e.]   [buqe.t] *I stayed,* [te.r] *bird*

[ee] [leeš] *why*

4- /aa/ A long low central unrounded glide. (all positions)

It has the following allophones:

[a:] [?a: ni] I *(am),* [ka: fi] *enough*, [la:] *no*

[aa]   [gaar] *hole*

[risaas] *bullets*

5- /u/ A short high back rounded vowel. (all positions)

[u.]   [mu.fiid] *useful*

[u]   [gurfa] *room*

6- /oo/ A long mid back rounded glide. (all positions)

[o.]   [durbo.] *they hit him*

[oo]   [soom] *fasting*

7- /a/ A short low central vowel. (all positions)

[a.]   [saaha.] *yard*

[ax]   [saxff] *class*

[a]   [beeta] *his house.*

8- /ay/ A mid close front unrounded glide. (all positions)

[?ay] *which*

2.6.3 Diphthongs

1-   /aw/ is "similar to the vowel sound in English *how*, but shorter and with a more marked oo- like element (as in *boot*)". (all positions)

/mawt/ *death*

/raahaw/ *they went*

2-   /aaw/ is "like aw but held longer before the oo- like element". (all positions)

/haawlat/ *she tried*

/klaaw/ *head dress*

3- /aay/ is "like the long vowel aa followed quickly by an ee-like element (as in *feet*)". It occurs in all positions.

When /aay/ occupies a final position as in /*čaay*/, the glide /y/ is slightly prolonged.

When /aay/ occurs medially it has occupy one of the following positions:

a- /- aay V/

/ma 'aaya/ *with me*

b- /-aay CV/

/šaayfa/ *seeing (F.)*

c- /-aayi C/

/ šaayif/ *seeing (MS.)*

4- /eew/ is "like the Iraqi long ee followed quickly by the vowel of english *boot*". (It occurs medially and finally).

/meewa/ *fruit*

5- /ooy/ It is like IA /oo/ followed by the vowel /ee/. It occurs in all positions but mostly in foreign loan words. When it occurs finally the /y/ is slightly prolonged as in:/booy/ *waiter*

when /ooy/ occurs medially it is usually in one of the following sequences:

a- /-ooy V (C) as in

/booya/ *paint*

b- /- ooy CV/ as in

/ooyna/ *our paint*

/booyna/ *our waiter*

c-   /-ooyi C/ as in

/kooyil/ *coil*

2.7 History of Iraqi Turkoman Dialect

The inhabiting center of Iraqi Turkomen begins from the town of Tellafer, which is 60 km. to the north- west of Mosul. The Turkomen settlement gradually widens around kerkuk after including the Bayat tribe and this settlement reaches the town of Bedre. (Haydar, 1979: 585).

This dialect is very important for modern Turkish and Turkish dialects as it belongs to the eastern dialect groups which can be seen in Azeri Turkish. (Ibid).

Haydar is the first one who studied and introduced to the Turcology field for the first time. He has chosen Turkoman dialect as it is his mother tongue. The dialect of Iraqi Turkoman is spoken in various areas in Iraq especially in Kerkuk, Tiseen area, Erbil, Jalawla, Saadiyah, Khanaqeen, Mendali, the villages of Be-şir, Bayat, Bastamli, Abbut Zengili, Mosul, Altinkopru, Tazehur-mati, Kifri, Imam Zeynelabdin and Karatepe Turkomen.

The linguistic characteristics of Turkoman dialect can be summarized in the following points:

a-   one of the characteristics of Turkoman dialect is that there are so many long vowels.

b- we can see a covered "e" besides the normal "e" in Turkoman dialect.

c- There is not "ğ" in Turkoman dialect.

d- The existance of "mı, mi" in modern Turkish and disappears in Turkoman dialect.

e- There are "-mah,- meh" verbal suffix in Turkoman dialect.

f- "ile= with" in modern Turkish became "-dan, - den, - tan, -ten, - nan, - nen" in Turkoman dialect.

g- The personal pronouns are "men, sen, biz, siz, onlar". Accordingly, we can see these changes as "biley, bileyiz" among the Bayats.

ğ- "b" in "bu" becomes "m" in demostrative pronoun of the Turkoman dialect. In some cases "b" remains in its original position.

h- simple present suffix is "-r, - ar, -er".

i- we can see "-p" in present perfect tense suffix and their second and third personal in Turkoman dialect.

j. The present tense suffix are "-ır, -ir,-ur,-ür". Among the Bayat dialect "- yır, - yir" can be seen.

k- "al-"verb among the order form becomes "el- a" in the second person.

l- "bit" can be used as a negative form with a supporting verb.

2.7.1 Turkoman Sound System

2.7.1.1 Consonants (konsonantlar)

There are twenty- five consonants in Turkoman dialect as stated by [*1]Haydar (1979) in his dissertation (Doktora Tezi) entitled "Irak Türkmen Ağizlari". The description of Turkoman dialect consonants is given below as follows:

1.　　B 　: normal　　　　b (e.g. *buz, Bursa* and *Burdur*).

2.　　C 　: normal　　　　c (e.g. *can, cumhuriyet* and *cam*).

3.　　Ç 　: normal　　　　ç (e.g. *çatal, çay* and *çarşaf*).

4.　　D 　: normal　　　　d (e.g. *defter, doktor* and *duş*).

5.　　F 　: normal　　　　f (e.g. *fekat, fizik* and *fare*).

6.　　G 　: normal　　　　g (e.g. *güz, gün* and *gül*).

7.　　Ğ 　: art damak　　g' sı (e.g. ğezeb, etmeğ and gördüğ).

8.　　H 　: normal　　　　h (e.g. *hafta, hak* and *han*).

9.　　H 　: hırıltılı　　　h (e.g. *hānçĭnĭ, hāt n* and *baharam*).

10.　　H 　: art damak　　h'si (e.g. *helvēçĭ, heftēl h* and *hiddet*).

11.　　J 　: normal　　　　j (e.g. *Japan, jandarma* and *Jale*).

12.　　K 　: normal　　　　k (e.g. *Kabul, kat* and *kap*).

13.　　K 　: art damak　　k' sı (e.g. *kardaş, kār nça* and *kaşka*).

14.　　L 　: normal　　　　l (e.g. *lamba, lütfen* and *limaon*).

15.　　M 　: normal　　　　m (e.g. *mart, masa* and *mayis*).

16.　　N 　: normal　　　　n (e.g. *nezle, nikah* and *nokta*).

17.　　P 　: normal　　　　p (e.g. *polis, park* and *perde*).

18.　　P. bulanık p, b-p　neither/b/nor/p/(e.g.*bırāh n p.*and *apār pt*).

19.　　R 　: normal　　　　r (e.g. *radyo, raf* and *rahmet*).

| 0. | S | : normal | s (e.g. *sabah, saf* and *sakin*). |

0.   S   : normal   s (e.g. *sabah, saf* and *sakin*).

1.   Ş   : normal   ş (e.g. *şafak, şekil* and *şiir*).

2.   T   : normal   t (e.g. *taksi, tan* and *top*).

3.   V   : açık   v (e.g. *vazo, vali* and *vah*).

4.   Y   : normal   y (e.g. *yan, yaka* and *yol*).

5.   Z   : normal   z (e.g. *zor, zil* and *zafer*).

2.7.1.2 Vowels (Vokaller)

Haydar (Ibid) states that one of the main characteristics of Turkoman dialect is that there are so many long vowels (uzun vokaller). Below is a description of the twenty- two vowels:

l.   A   : normal   a (e.g. *at, adam* and *hayat*).

2.   Ā   : uzun   a, i.e., long a (e.g. *ās ld* and *kāvutu*).

3.   A   :bulanık a,a-e   neither /a/ nor/e/ (e.g. *alem* and *baz*).

4.   E   : normal   e (e.g. *evet, şeker* and *deve*).

5.   Ē   : uzun   e, i.e., long e (e.g. *bezēkli* and *gēzdiriller*).

6.   Ė   : kapalı   e (e.g. *kėçel* and *kėşke*).

7.   Ė   : kapalı uzun e   (e.g. *gėv le* and *ėyl ğ*).

8.   Ě   Kisa   e, i.e., short e (e.g. *hěç*).

9.   ı   : normal   ı (e.g. *ırak, ırk* and *ısı*).

10.   Ĭ   : Kısa   ı, i.e., short ı (e.g. *bāl h* and *b tav*).

11.   I   : normal   i(e.g. *imza, isim* and *işaret*).

12.   I   : Kısa   i, i.e., short i (e.g. *gēlin* and *ciger*).

3.	O	: normal	o (*e.g. otombil, kontorol and oda*).
4.	Ō	: uzun	o , i.e., long o (e.g. *ōyun* and *ōturmāğ m*).
5.	Ö	: normal	ö (e.g. *ön, çöl* and *böyle*).
6.	Ȫ	: uzun	ö, i.e., long ö (e.g. *ötŭr* and *örtŭg*)
7.	U	: normal	u (e.g. *us, ufuk* and *uzun*).
8.	Ū	: uzun	u, i.e., long u (e.g. *hū hū*)
9.	Ŭ	: Kısa	u, i.e., short u (e.g. *burnŭnŭn* and *bŭğāz na*).
0.	U	:bulanɪk u, u- ü	neither /u/ nor /ü/ (e.g. *ruh*).
1.	Ü	: normal	ü (e.g. *ümit, ürdün* and *ütü*).
2.	Ŭ̈	: Kısa	ü, i.e., short ü (e.g. *ŭ̈stine* and *üçŭ̈ncŭ̈*)

NOTE TO CHAPTER TWO

* 1. Dr. Choban Haydar is a native speaker of Turkoman dialect and the researcher makes use of his dissertation (Doktora Tezi) entitled "Irak Türkmen Ağizlari", particulary the exam-ples given in his study and his book entitled **Okuma kitabı Birinci Sınıf Türkce BöLümü** which is taught at the College of Languages, Department of Turkish.

CHAPTER THREE
REVIEW OF PREVIOUS STUDIES

3.1 Introductory Note

This chapter deals with some previous studies that investigated the comparison between the sound systems of different languages, the difficulties in pronunciation and errors made by learners of L_2 phonology with identification of the causes behind such errors. It also deals with studies of bilingualism on intelligence, creative functioning, cognitive development, and concept formation.

The purpose of this chapter is to present an overview of the procedures followed in these studies and to establish a theoretical basis for the present study.

The studies will be presented in a chronological order.

3.2   Description of Studies Reviewed

3.2.1 Al-Hamash (1969)

In this study, Al-Hamash (1969) analyses the sound systems of standard English (henceforth,SE) and Iraqi Arabic (henceforth,IA).The aim behind the contrastive analysis of the different aspects of the sound systems in the two languages is to find out the areas of difficulty that IA speakers are expected to

face when they learn SE. This study, to a certain extent, is comp-rehensive since it has taken into consideration almost all the important aspects relevant to the sound systems in the two languages. However, concentration is primarily given to the points where the sound system of English differs from its IA counterparts.

The researcher, in his analysis of the sound systems of IA and SE, depends mainly on the available linguistic studies. In certain cases, the researcher himself, analyses the speech of native speakers of Iraqi Arabic, American English and British English. He has relied heavily on the theory of interference.

One of the crucial conclusions arrived at in this study, is that the greatest difficulty arises when the learner wants to make distinctions that do not exist in his native language (henceforth,NL) and in the process of rendering foreign utterances he confuses phonemes and features which ought to be apart.

The study points out, in detail the similarities and differences in the two systems contrasted. The possible points of difficulty for Iraqi learners of English are predicted besides the pedagogical implications that are provided.

3.2.2 Al-Haeri (1973)

The objectives of this study are:

1-   discovering areas of errors in pronunciation which are

common among teachers of girls' primary schools;

2-   analysing those errors and classifying them according to the categories of segmental phonemes of English;

3-   interpreting the results to find out possible factors behind such errors;

4-   suggesting ways of treating them in classroom situation and in textbook writing.

It is hypothesized that primary school teachers of English manifest more difficulties in:

1-   vowels and diphthongs.

2-   consonants which have no exact counterparts in their mother tongue;

3-   vowels and diphthongs that have no counterparts in their mother tongue.

The sample of this study is selected randomly from sixty schools in Baghdad area, half from Al-Kark and half from Al-Rusafa. Each teacher selected for the study represents one school. The researcher states that the majority of teachers of primary schools in Iraq have no specialty in English.

After a brief interview with each teacher, mainly to explain the purpose of the study and the test to the examinees, participants are requested to have a quick look at a list of items and then to read them a loud in order to have them taped.

The test consists of the six categories of segmental aspects

of pronunciation of English, (42) items represent English consonant clusters, (12) items represent vowels, (6) items represent diphthongs, (2) triphthongs, and (7) items represent assimilation. The test items are limited to the material of two primary textbooks, Book1 and Book2 of the New English Course in Iraq (NECI).

The following statistical methods are used for the purposes of the study: the percentage, the mean, and the z-test.

The major findings of this study are as follows:

1- primary school teachers manifest more problems in the vocalic elements of the English sound system (vowels, diphthongs, and triphthongs) than in pronunciation of consonantal elements.

2- primary school teachers manifest more problems in the pronunciation of those aspects of the English sound system that have no counterparts in Arabic than in the pronunciation of the elements that have such counterparts. The findings confirm the hypothesis of the study.

3.2.3 Altenberg and Vago (1983)

The main objectives of this study are: -

1- a consideration of the constraints on transfer in L_2 phonology,

2- investigating certain factors other than transfer,

3- describing those factors that may contribute to second

language phonology in order to define "foreign accent" and to clarify the notion of a "better" or "worse" foreign accent, and

4- comparing the error analysis (henceforth EA) approach and its findings with the autonomous system analysis approach.

The subjects of the study include two groups of native speakers of Hungarian who speak English as L_2: Group (A) includes (56) females who have had no formal education in the United States. Group (B) includes (29) males who have had eight years of higher education in the United States.

The subjects of this study are asked to read a passage taken from Fairbanks (1940). This passage is selected because it has a wide variety of sounds in different phonological environments.

The readings are tape recorded, subsequently transcribed into broad phonetic notations, and compared with educated New York American English pronunciation.

Errors in this study are classified into four categories:

1- transfer errors

2- the application of unmarked rules

3- spelling pronunciation errors

4- idiosyncratic pronunciation errors

It has been found out that comparison of the EA approach and the autonomous system analysis approach reveals that both approaches provide unique information about the acquisition of English phonology and helps to arrive at a more complete unde-

rstanding of the factors that influence the learning of L_2 phonology.

3.2.4 Martinez (1983)

The purpose of the study is to determine to what extent the attitudes of native Spanish speaking children in a bilingual setting differ from those of Mexican children in a monolingual English classroom.

The study assesses possible differences in attitudes of Mexican-American and Anglo American children in bilingual and monolingual classrooms toward basic skill subjects; school setting; self; peers-- (same); peers-- (different).

The study is conducted in fourteen third grade classrooms-- seven bilingual and seven monolingual--in four school districts in the Yakima Valley in Washington state. A total population of 209 students composes the population for the study.

Null hypotheses are formulated to determine whether differences exist between children in the two types of classrooms. The hypotheses address children's attitudes toward basic skill subjects; toward school setting; toward self; toward others like themselves (same ethnic background) and toward others different from themselves (different ethnic background).

Data are collected by a student self-reporting questionnaire. The questionnaire is written in both English and Spanish and is

read to the subjects in both languages.

Data are analyzed using a three-way analysis of variance. F tests are computed, at 0.05 level of significance, for differences on each main effect and interaction.

The major conclusions are: there are significant differences in attitudes between Mexican-American children in bilingual classrooms and Mexican-American children in monolingual classrooms toward basic skill subjects; toward school setting; toward self; toward peers (same) and toward peers (different).

3.2.5 Whitaker (1983)

Although there exists a body of literature that suggests negative effects of bilingualism on the educational, intellectual, and academic performance of language minority students, several studies have demonstrated positive correlates of bilingualism on intelligence,creative functioning, cognitive development, and concept formation.

Four dependent measures are selected to test the hypothesis that bilingualism would positively affect cognitive performance. A Piagetion conservation task, (the cartoon conservation scales), and two information processing tasks (a circular recall task and a static imagery task assessing reconstruction and recognitory memory) are administered to two groups of bilingual subjects (high proficient or low proficient) and a monolingual English

group. Results indicate that the highly proficient and balanced bilinguals' performance is significantly higher on three of the four tasks.

3.2.6 Dabaan (1983)

The aim of this study is to point out English phonological errors Arab students in the Central Province in Saudi Arabia commit. A random sample of 60 final-year students from three high schools (20 from a large city, 20 from a small city, and 20 from a village) are chosen.

Recording sessions are held by using an instrument designed by the writer to measure students' oral performance on English consonants, vowels, and syllables. After corrections of students' responses are punched on IBM computer cards, they are fed into a computer by using SPSS. Errors are treated in frequencies according to each individual group and all groups combined on many variables (initial, medial and final consonant and first, second and third words on syllables).

The ANOVA test is conducted to see whether or not the three groups, which represent the three locations, are homogeneous on errors made.

The findings of this study reveal the following high-error frequencies among the groups combined:

(1) On consonants:/r/,/ž/,/p/,/č/,/v/,/ /,/ /,/ /,/g/,/ĵ/,/z/,/s/,/ /and/d/.

(2) On vowels:/e/,/ou/,/o/,/ei/,/u/,/a:/,/au/,/ai/,/ /,/ul/,/o:/,/oi/,/a/,/i:/, and /i/.

(3) On syllables:cccvccc,cvccc,cccvcc,vccc,cccvc,cccv,ccv,cvcc ccvcc

ANOVA tests show similarities among the groups on eleven variables. From the twelve variables tested, final consonants indicate that the students from the big city performed better at the 0.01 level of significance.

The conclusion indicates that the difficulties and the complexity of English orthographic form and the inconsistency in the writing system of the English language compared with that of Arabic is a major cause for the high error frequencies.

The environment in which a certain sound exists also determines the density of errors. The differences between Arabic and English play a role and are viewed as a factor, but not the only factor, in the error increase.

3.2.7 Lehn and Slager (1983)

This paper presents, for the practitioner or nonspecialist, a contrastive study of the segmental phonemes (consonants and vowels) of Egyptian Arabic and American English. The primary materials on which this study is based are (1) recent analyses of English, chiefly the one that has come to be known as Trager-Smith, (2) the analysis of Arabic by Slade-Harrel (1957), and (3) the manual by Twaddell (1956) for Egyptian elementary school teachers of English. All of these have been supplemented by the

observations made in the teaching of English to Egyptian secondary school and university students. Results indicate that the speaker of Arabic has difficulties with the segmental phonemes of English because of (1) differences in the number of contrasts, (2) differences in the permissible sequences, and (3) differences in the phonetic expression of "similar" contrasts.

English has many more vowel contrasts, and more consonant contrasts in the labial to velar regions than Arabic. It also permits much longer sequences of consonants initially, medially, and finally in utterances. Both English and Arabic have consonants which are conventionally symbolized /t,d,s,z/. In English, however, these represent alveolars, whereas in Arabic they represent dentals.

All of these differences constitute a major (although not the only) source of difficulty for the speaker of Arabic learning English.

3.2.8 Wadi (1987)

This study aims at:

1-   identifying the errors made by the second and fourth year college students in the Department of English, College of Education/Ibn Rushd in the pronunciation of the English vocalic system;

2-   comparing the results of the fourth year students to those of

the second year students to identify the difference between the two groups in performance concerning the pronunciation of the English vocalic system.

The sample of the study consists of (195) students who form (67.24%) of the whole population. Out of the (195) students (116) are the fourth year students and (79) students represent the second year. These students are asked to read an oral test constructed by the researcher.

The test comprises three parts and covers all the English vocalic system. Part one consists of isolated words. Part two consists of five short conversations. Part three includes the phonetic system of the English vowels. The test has been validated and piloted then its reliability has been computed.

The results of the test are tabulated and analysed. They are presented in terms of means of achievement scores, frequencies of errors, percentages of errors, ranks and difficulty indexes. For the sake of statistical comparison, t-test and chi-square test are used.

The findings of the study are summarized as follows:

1- Students make errors in all the three areas of the English vocalic system, and in each vowel sound within these areas. The errors are found to be frequent, systematic, and identical for both groups.

2- The English vocalic system in general and diphthongs in particular are problematic to the students of the English

Departments.

3-   There are no significant differences between the mean scores of the achievements of both groups in the whole test.

4-   The most difficult sounds for both groups are /i /, /e /, /ou/, / / and /e/ successively.

3.2.9 Macdonald et al. (1994)

The purpose of this study is to compare the pronunciation of targeted vocabulary items in spontaneous speech. The sample of subjects of this study is (23) NNSs and (23) NSs of English. The NNSs are selected from the international graduate student population enrolled in a spoken American English class at Louisiana State University. The criteria for selection are: Chinese (Mandarin) in L_1 as self-reported, TOEFL scores between (540-583), indicative of high-intermediate to low-advanced English language proficiency; and on identification as having noticeable pronunciation problems in English. The (23) NSs are undergraduates who volunteered to participate as individual audience members for each of the NNSs.

The NNSs are given two mini-lectures on the subject of the metric system, each limited to(16) minutes in length, for audiotaping. The purpose behind choosing the metric system is that the learners are familiar with it. The NSs who have acted as audience members for the second taping(after the first taping and

intervention)are told not to interrupt or question the speaker, and they are provided with a list of words and phrases for which they are to listen during the mini-lecture. There are also four interventions that occur between the first and second tapings. Each reflects some aspect of classroom practices in L_2 teaching.

An ANOVA and Tukey method are conducted using the indi-vidual percentage scores of the second and third tape responses.

It is found that any improvement that may have affected the second taping has been lost by the third taping.

3.2.10 Shwaysh (2000)

This study aims at:

1- investigating the factors that influence the production of English segmental phonemes by Iraqi English foreign language learners.

2- measuring the amount of progress achieved in different stag-es of learning since instability is a characteristic of interlan-guage.

3- arranging the factors that influence the production of English segmental phonemes hierarchically in terms of their level of importance.

It is hypothesized that:

1- Iraqi secondary school pupils learning English as a foreign

language adopt a phonological system with some degree of uniformity because of certain factors.

2- The production of segmental phonemes of the FL learners' interlanguage differs significantly from one stage of seco-ndary school to another as learners develop systems through their continuous study.

3- Interlingual transfer is the most effective factor that influences the production of English segmental phonemes.

To fulfil the aims and verify the hypotheses, a test has been constructed which covers the segmental aspects of the English sound system on the production level. The test contains four areas which have been decided upon in the light of the theoretical background taking into consideration the learners' interlanguage. The test is administered to a sample of(120)subjects at the three different stages, i.e., the second, fourth, and sixth years of secondary school.

The items of the test are limited to words and expressions taken from Book 4 of the New English Course for Iraq, especially that are recycled in Books 6 and 8.

The statistical analysis of the data has yielded results the major of which are:

1- Iraqi secondary school pupils make frequent and systematic errors in segmental phonemes because of, nearly, similar factors though the number of these errors is different from

one stage of the secondary school to another as learners develop systems through their continuous study.

2- Interlingual transfer is the main factor that affects the production of segmental phonemes by Iraqi secondary school pupils since it occupies the first rank among the factors that cause the errors made by them. The native language factor penetrates all aspects of foreign language pronunciation.

3- Context of learning occupies the second rank among the factors that influence pupils' production of standard English segmental phonemes as the statistical analysis revealed. It is a fact that teachers are not highly qualified in the teaching/learning process especially in pronunciation and the improper pronunciation of the insufficient teaching model highly affects the pupils' performance.

4- Iraqi secondary school pupils make a high percentage of errors in producing the items that have consonant clusters. This category occupies the second rank of error occurrence among the four categories involved in the test.

5- The pupils make a high percentage of errors in vocalic nuclei. This category of segmental phonemes occupies the third rank in error occurrence.

3.2.11 Al-Taee (2000)

This study has set itself to investigate the following hypotheses:

1- The learning of the segmental aspects of the first foreign language, i.e., English, will be faciliated by the addition of the second foreign language ,i.e., French.

2- The segmental phonemes of the second foreign language will interfere with the learning of those of the first foreign language.

3- The influence of the second foreign language on the first foreign language is greater at the college level than at the secondary school level.

To investigate the hypotheses of the study, a test of three parts has been conducted. Part one tests the recognition level, and part two and three test the production level. The sample consists of two main groups. The first group which comprises (80) students represent the second and fourth Iraqi college students in the Department of English of the College of Arts who learn English as a first foreign language and French as a second foreign language, and those of the counterpart stages at the college of Education, Ibn Rushd who learn English as the only foreign language. The same number of subjects, i.e., (80) makes up the second group which includes pupils of the fourth and fifth years of the secondary school in Iraq, the preparatory stage. The 30th of Tammuz Preparatory School for Girls, and the Central Prepar-

atory School for Boys are chosen for the purpose of this study. Each provides two types of pupils at each of the two stages chosen,those taking English as a first foreign language and French as a second foreign language, and those taking English as the only foreign language.Both groups are exposed to the same testing techniques that elicit subjects' performance for all parts of the test.

Certain measures have been taken to ensure the best possible homogeneity of subjects at both the inter-and intra-group levels. The t-test technique is used to compare the mean score of the two groups.

The analysis of the data has yielded the following results:

a- At the secondary school level, the mean score of those who take two foreign languages is higher than that of those who take one foreign language. This indicates that facilitation does take place even though it is not strong enough to be statistically significant, so hypothesis No.1 is refuted at least at this level.

b- At the college level, the mean score of the second year of the College of Arts is higher than that of the College of Education, even though the difference is not large enough to be significant. The case with the fourth year is different. The difference between the two groups, i.e., fourth year students of the college of Arts and their counterparts of the College of

Education Ibn Rushd, is significant, in favour of the College of Arts subjects. So hypothesis No.1 is refuted at the second year level and validated at the fourth year level.

c- In the recognition and production of some vocalic consonantal sounds, English learning groups yield better results   than those of English and French learning groups at all levels. This indicates that there is a negative influence of the second foreign language on the first one, therefore hypothesis No.2 is validated

d- The ascending order of the mean scores of those learning two foreign language as we move up the stages of study is a clear indicator that the facilitation process increases as we go up the ladder, so hypothesis No.3 is validated.

3.3 Discussion of the Studies Reviewed

Reviewing previous studies can be seen as a jumping board for the present study since they set the foundation for some aspects of the present research especially those that have to do with the learning of English segmental phonemes by Arabic speaking learners and those that deal with bilingualism and bilingual learning. The contributions may be summarized in the following fields. As far as aims are concerned, Al-Haeri (1973), Wadi (1987) deal with the difficulties in pronunciation and the errors

made by learners of L_2 phonology with identification of the causes behind such errors.

The same is true for Shwaysh (2000) and Al-Taee (2000). These can be said may contribute directly to the present study in providing basic information for the study and a model to check the results against. What makes Al-Taee's more significant is that it involves another language in addition to English.

The contrastive analysis studies, namely, Al-Hamash (1969) and Lehn and Slager (1983) offer essential information about the sound systems of English and Arabic and the points of similarities and differences between the two. This information will be utilized in the present study.

The remaining studies contribute to this research in that they all deal with errors analysis in the area of phonology with Martinez's study involving bilingal learners of English.

Concerning the samples of the studies, some researchers use teachers as a sample of their studies, others use students as a sample. For instance, Al-Haeri (1973) uses teachers as a sample of her study. Most of the others, namely, Al-Hamash (1969), Altenberg and Vago (1983), Martinez (1983), Whitaker (1983), Dabaan (1983), Lehn and Slager (1983), Wadi (1987), Macdonald etal. (1994), Shwaysh (2000) and Al-Taee (2000) deal with the students as samples of these studies. Since the present study uses

students as a sample, the reviewed studies above will certainly contribute to it.

The statistical methods used in the previous studies differ according to their aims and instruments. Some studies use the percentage, the mean and the z-test such as Al-Haeri (1973), others use a three-way analysis of variance and F tests such as Martinez (1983). Some studies use ANOVA tests such as Dabaan (1983), in addition to this mean Macdonald etal. (1994) use Tukey method. Wadi (1987) use t-test and chi-square while Al-Taee (2000) has used only the t-test technique. These statistical techn-iques will be taken into consideration and the most appropriate ones will be selected for the research.

All in all, the studies reviewed above will all contribute to the present study, albeit to different degrees and in all its aspects.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA COLLECTION

4.1 Plan of the Chapter

This chapter is devoted to the description of the data collection procedure (i.e. the test) of the study . It is planned to include statement of the objectives of the test. Validity and reliability are defined as far as the test is concerned.

The rest of the chapter deals with the topics such as the description of the test , the scoring scheme adopted and the main administration of the test .

4.2 The Population

(in statistics) any set of items, individuals, etc. which share some common and observable characteristics and from which a sample can be taken. (Richards et al, 1992: 282).

So the population of the study at the College includes (104) Iraqi students in the English Department, College of Education, University of Diyala for the academic year 2002-2003.

4.3 The Sample

(in statistics and testing) any group of individuals which is selected to represent a population (Ibid, 321).

The sample of the study includes ((15)) students at the Dept. of English, College of Education, Diyala University who are native speakers of Arabic and ((15)) students whose native language is Turkoman; a regional dialect of Turkish, with Arabic as their second language during the academic year 2002-2003.

In this department, a course of English phonetics and phonology is taught during the first two years of the four years at the rate of three hours a week. The programme focuses on textbooks, namely, (1) **Better English Pronunciation** (1980) by J.D. O'Connor in the first year; and (2) **English Phonetics and Phonology** (1983) by Peter Roach in the second year.

Table (4) illustrates the number of the students to whom the test was administered.

Table (4)

The Population and the Sample

College Students	No. of Third Year Students	Participants
rab Students	89	15
rkoman Students	15	15
Total	104	30

4.4　Test Construction

Darwesh and Al. Jarah (1997:7) state that the test is an instrument of measurement. If teachers know exactly how to use it, it can really give very valuable information about the standard of their pupils and about the effectiveness of their teaching . In fact, testing is considered as an invitable step in the process of teaching and learning language in general.

4.4.1 Test Items

In order to gain information about the nature of the learner's interlanguage upon which a picture of the language learner's interlanguage at any particular moment can be painted, an elicitation procedure must be designed to put constraints upon the learners so that he is forced to make choices within a restricted area of his phonological, lexical, or syntactic competence, (Corder, 1973 b:61). An elicitation technique refers to the method of obtaining reliable linguistic data from in formants – either actual utterances or judgements about utterances (Spolsky,1989:72).

Elicitation procedures impose our sampling upon the learner and permit us to sample the learner's language on a systematic basis.

The test items used in this study cover the segmental aspects of the English sound system, namely, consonants, vowels, diphthongs and triphthongs on production level (henceforth PL).

The test items involve words presented in minimal pairs and chosen in such away that they could test various aspects of difference between English,Arabic and Turkoman, (see Appendix 1). Many writers advocate using contrast and con-trasted material within languase notably in teaching. In this regard (Stevick, 1982:54) "The use of minimal pairs is perhaps the most primitive technique for the teaching of pronunciation. Minimal pairs sharpen students' hearing of some of the sounds and they dramatize the importance of learning to control the sounds they illustrate.

4.5 Objectives of the Test

The first step in constructing a test is to specify its objectives . In other words, the test serves as a means for achieving certain ends. The objectives of the test are divided into: general objectives and specific objectives.

4.5.1 General Objectives

The test undertaken in this study is constructed to check the validity of the hypotheses already mentioned in chapter one.

4.5.2 Specific Objectives

Specification usually breaks down general objectives in terms of specific aspects of content and behaviour. It is necessary

to develop a table of specifications containing content and behaviour (see table 5).

4.6 Test Validity

Al. Jarah (1991:4) states that validity has to do with how well a test actually measures what it purports to measure. For example, a dictation or a composition test would not be valid for the purpose of testing pronunciation .

Lado (1961:30) argues that "validity can be achieved and verified by correlating the scores of a test with those of another test or criterion which is valid". Two types of validity are considered important: content validity and face validity. Therefore, both typ-es have been adopted for the purpose of the study. Below is a brief explanation of the major features of both.

4.6.1 Content Validity

Al- Juboury (1999: 25) states that the most important for the practicing teacher is the extent to which a test adequately covers the syllabus to be tested. A valid test must be based upon a careful analysis of the subject or skill we are testing. It must also be constructed as to represent a dequately each portion of this analysis. Mehrans and Lehmann (1973: 290) state that content validity is particularly important for achievement tests.

Therefore, a survey was made by the researcher of the test items covered in pronunciation test. The choice of the items of the test is in the light of the following criteria:

1. Importance, which as Mackey (1969: 182) explains "A word that is found everywhere is more important than one that can be found in one particular text or situation only, even though its frequency there may be very high."

2. Coverage, i.e., much material included in the textbooks. Mackey (Ibid) defines the coverage as "the number of items which it displace."

3. Problematic areas, as indicated by Brown (1987), Corder (1967), Al- Hamash (1969) and El- Bettar (1965) are those encountered by EFL students when the patterns learnt are completely different from equivalent in the native language; interference of the mother – tongue and the fossilization of the articulators, etc. One commonly recognizes that this type of validity is achieved by the adoption of the table of specif-ication. It contains detailed specifications of the objective of each area, the number of items used to test each objective, and the weight of each area. The weight is given according to the number of items included in the test. Al- Hamash, et al (1982) point out that teble of specification is used as a guide for test construction.

Table (5)

Specification of Behaviours and Content

Content Area	*Weight	No.of Test Items	Behaviour Production	Note
Segmental English consonants Stops 1.1.1/p/ and/b/		9	P.	Producing the problematic initial, medial and final /p/ and /b/.
1.1 Stops 1.1.2 /t/ and/d/		9	P.	Producing the problematic initial, medial and final /t/ and /d/
1.1 Stops 1.1.3 /k/ and/g/		9	P.	Producing the problematic initial,medial and final /k/ and /g/
1.2 Fricatives 1.2.1 /f/ and/v/		9	P.	Producing the problematic initial,medial and final /f/ and /v/
1.2 Fricatives 1.2.2 / / and/ /		9	P.	Producing the problematic initial, medial and final / / and / /

Content Area	*Weight	No.of Test ltems	Behaviour	Note
1.2 Fricatives 1.2.3 /s/ and/z/		9	P.	Producing the problematic initial, medial and final /s/ and /z/
1.2 Fricatives 1.2.4 / /		9	P.	Producing the problematic initial, medial and final / /.
1.2 Fricatives 1.2.5/ /		6	P.	Producing the problematic medial and final / /.
1.2 Fricatives 1.2.6 /h/		6	P.	Producing the problematic initial,and medial /h/
1.3 Affricates 1.3.1/t / and/d /		9	P.	Producing the problematic initial, medial and final /t / and /d /.
1.4 Nasals 1.4.1/m/		9	P.	Producing the problematic initial, medial and final /m/ .
1.4 Nasals 1.4.2/n/		9	P.	Producing the problematic initial, medial and final /n/.

Content Area	*Weight	No.of Test ltems	Behaviour	Note
1.4 Nasals 1.4.3/ /		6	P.	Producing the problem-atic, medial and final / /
1.4 Nasals 1.4.4/n/ and / /		2	P.	Producing the problem-atic minimal pairs /n/ and / /.
1.5 Liquids 1.5.1 /l/		9	P.	Producing the problem-atic initial, medial and final /l/.
1.5 Liquids 1.5.2 /r/		6	P.	Producing the problem-atic initial, and medial /r/.
1.6 Glides 1.6.1 /w/		6	P.	Producing the problem-atic initial, and medial /w/.
1.6 Glides 1.6.2 /j/		6	P.	Producing the problem-atic initial, and medial /j/.
2.English Vowels 2.1 /i:/		9	P.	Producing the problem-atic initial, medial and final /i:/.
Content Area	*Weight	No.of	Behaviour	Note

Content Area	*Weight	No.of Test ltems	Behaviour	Note
		Test ltems		
2.2 /i/		9	P.	Producing the problematic initial, medial and final /i/.
2.3 /I:/and /i/		3	P.	Producing the problematic minimal pairs /i:/ and /i/.
2.4 /e/		6	P.	Producing the problematic initial,and medial /e/.
2.5 /i/and /e/		3	P.	Producing the problematic minimal pairs/i/ and /e/.
2.6 /a/		6	P.	Producing the problematic initial,and medial /a/.
2.7 /a:/		9	P.	Producing the problematic initial, medial and final /a:/.
2.8 /a/and /a:/		3	P.	Producing the problematic minimal pairs /a/and /a:/.

Content Area	*Weight	No.of Test ltems	Behaviour	Note
2.9 / /		6	p.	Producing the problematic initial, and medial / /.
2.10 /a/ and/ /		3	p.	Producing the problematic minimal pairs /a/and / /.
2.11 /a:/and/ /		3	p	Producing the problematic minimal pairs /a:/and / /.
2.12 /o/		6	p.	Producing the problematic initial, and medial /o/.
2.13 /o:/		9	p.	Producing the problematic initial, medial and final /o:/.
2.14 /o/ and /o:/		3	p.	Producing the problematic minimal pairs /o/and/o:/.
2.15 /u/		3	p.	Producing the problematic medial /u/.

Content Area	*Weight	No.of Test Items	Behaviour	Note
2.16 /u:/		7	p.	Producing the problematic initial, medial and final /u:/.
2.17/u/and /u:/		3	p.	Producing the problematic minimal pairs /u/and/u:/.
2.18 / :/		9	p.	Producing the problematic initial, medial and final / /.
2.19/ :/and/a:/		3	p.	Producing the problematic minimal pairs / / and/a:/.
2.20 / /		9	p.	Producing the problematic initial, medial and final / /.
3.English Diphthongs 3.1 /ei/		9	P.	Producing the problematic initial, medial and final /ei/.
3.2 /ai/		9	P.	Producing the problematic initial, medial and final /ai/.

3.3 /ai/and /ei/		3	P.	Producing the problematic minimal pairs /ai/and/e:/.
3.4 /ou/		9	P.	Producing the problematic initial, medial and final /ou/.
3.5 / au/		9	P.	Producing the problematic initial, medial and final /au/.
3.6 /au/and /ou/		3	P.	Producing the problematic minimal pairs /au/and/ou/.
3.7 /i /		9	P.	Producing the problematic initial, medial and final /i /.
3.8 /e /		9	P.	Producing the problematic initial, medial and final /e /.
3.9 /i /and /e /		3	P.	Producing the problematic minimal pairs/i / and/e /.

Content Area	*Weight	No.of Test ltems	Behaviour	Note
3.10 /u /		6	P.	Producing the problem-

				atic medial and final /u/.
3.11 /i/ and /u/		2	P.	Producing the problematic minimal pairs /i/ and/u/.
3.12 /oi/		9	P.	Producing the problematic initial, medial and final/oi/.
3.13 /ou/and /oi/		2	P.	Producing the problematic minimal pairs /ou/and/oi/.
4.English Triphthongs 4.1 /ai/		2	P.	Producing the problematic/ai/.
4.2 /ei/		2	P.	Producing the problematic/ei/.
4.3 /au/		2	P.	Producing the problematic/au/.
4.4 /ou/		2	P.	Producing the problematic/ou/.
4.5 /oi/		2	P.	Producing the problematic/oi/.

* Area weight depends on the number of items that are included in the test.

This, in turn, depends on the following criteria 1. Importance. 2.Coverage .

3. Problem.

4.6.2 Face Validity

Face validity refers, not to what the test actually measures, but to what it appears to be superficially measuring. Face validity

pertains to whether the test "look valid" to the examinee, who takes it, the administrative personnel who decide on its use, and other technically untrained observers (Harris, 1969: 21; Anastasi, 1976: 139).

To ensure face validity, the test has been exposed to a jury of experts in the field of English language*[1] . Each member has been requested to point out his/ her remarks and suggestions about the suitability of the test items for achieving the objectives of this study .

Remarks concerning the suitability of the items have been analyzed and the items that scored a higher percentage of agreement of the jury members have been retained, while the items that scored a relatively low percentage have been excluded. The majority of jury members have verified the validity of the test items .

4.7 Reliability of the Test

Valette (1967: 30) states that reliability of a test is the consistency of the examination scores. In other words, reliability is concerned with the accuracy of the test. While Oller (1979:4) believes that reliability of a test is "a matter of how consistently it produces similar results on different occasions under similar circumstances."

According to this study, a sample of ten students was chosen randomly from Diyala University – College of Education – Dept.

of English. The test papers are distributed among the students who are told to read the items carefully in a normal speed. Their answers were recorded by the researcher and one of the study supervisor . All students smoothly auswered all items within the time allotted. Then, the researcher and the supervisor listened to the tapes and gave each student his mark. The researcher kindly requested *[2] a jury of two members to listen and give marks to the members of the sample. The reliability coefficient is obtained through the agreement between the two experts in giving the degrees. Using spearman rank correlation coefficient, the result obtained is (0.95) which is considered a very high one (cf. Caroll and Hall, 1985: 118) Thus the reliability of the test is established.

4.8 Scoring Scheme

The scoring of each student's responses is done by the researcher and one of the study supervisor. It is done item by item on the basis of correct or incorrect answers. According to the present study, one mark is given for the correct answer and zero for the incorrect one. Concerning the test items that are answered, each item is listened to carefully many times before discriminating whether the response is correct or not. While the items that are left unanswered, the answer in this case is considered wrong .

4.9   Final Administration of the Test

The administration is carried out during the second term of the academic year 2002-2003 .

After handing out the test to the testees the instructions that accompanied each question, were explained in order to clarify the ambiguity that the testees may face when answering the questions. In the words of Carroll, (1980:16) a good test is expected to "provide as much information as is required with the minimun expenditure of time, effort and resources." The test papers are distributed amony the students who are told to read the items carefully in a normal speed. Their answers were recorded by the researcher and one of the study supervisor. All students smoothly answered all items within the time allotted.

4.10 Statistical Methods

*The following statistical methods are used in the present study:

1.   Spearman Rank Order Correlation Coefficient Formula has been used to estimate the reliability of the test.

$$r = 1 - \frac{6\ d^2}{n(n^2-1)}$$

r = Spearman rank order correlation coefficient formula.

d^2 = The sum of the squares among the differences.

n = The size of the sample (Al- Tikriti and Al- Obidi, 1999: 218)

2.　　　　T-test of significant differences among percentages is used to test significant differences among test items. The following formula is used:

$$t = \dfrac{P_1 - P_2}{\sqrt{\left(\dfrac{1}{n_1} + \dfrac{1}{n_2}\right) p\,\hat{g}}}$$

$$\hat{g} = 1\text{-}P$$

$$\textbf{P}\quad \dfrac{n_1 p_1 + n_2 p_2}{n_1 + n_2}$$

$p_1 - p_2$ = The difference between two rates. (Ibid: 286)

3.　　　　Mann- Whitney Formula is used to test significant differences between the two groups, the M- group and B- group. The following formula is used:

$$u = n_1 \times n_2 + \dfrac{n_1(n_1 + _1)}{2} - r_1$$

$$u = n_1 \times n_2 + \frac{n_2(n_2 + 1)}{2} - r_2$$

u= The value of Mann- Whitney test.

n_1= The size of the first sample.

n_2= The size of the second sample.

r_1= The summation of ranks concerning the degrees of the first sample.

r_2= The summation of ranks concerning the degrees of the second sample. (Tawfik, 1983: 160)

4.   Percentages of errors of each segment have been used in order to find out the distribution of error and trying to figure out factors behind most common types of errors.

NOTES TO CHAPTER FOUR

*   The following are names of the members of the jury arranged alphabetically:

*1

1.   Dr. Abdul Hameed Nasar, College of Languages, University of Baghdad.

2.   Dr. Abdul Jabbar Darwish, College of Teachers, Al-Mustansiriyah University.

3.   Dr. Ahmed Mustafa, College of Education, Ibn- Rushd, University of Baghdad.

4.   Mrs.Bushra Mustafa, College of Arts, Al- Mustansiriyah University.

5.   Dr. Kadhim Al- Jawadi, College of Arts, University of Baghdad.

6.   Dr. May R. Astifan, College of Languages, University of Baghdad.

*2

1.   Mrs. Bushra Mustafa, College of Arts, Al- Mustansiriyah University.

2.   Dr. May R. Astifan, College of Languages, University of Baghdad.

*   The statistical methods have been suggested by the following two experts:

1.   Dr. Ihsan Al- Dulaimi, College of Education, University of Diyala.

2.   Dr. Nadhim Kadhim, College of Teachers, University of Diyala.
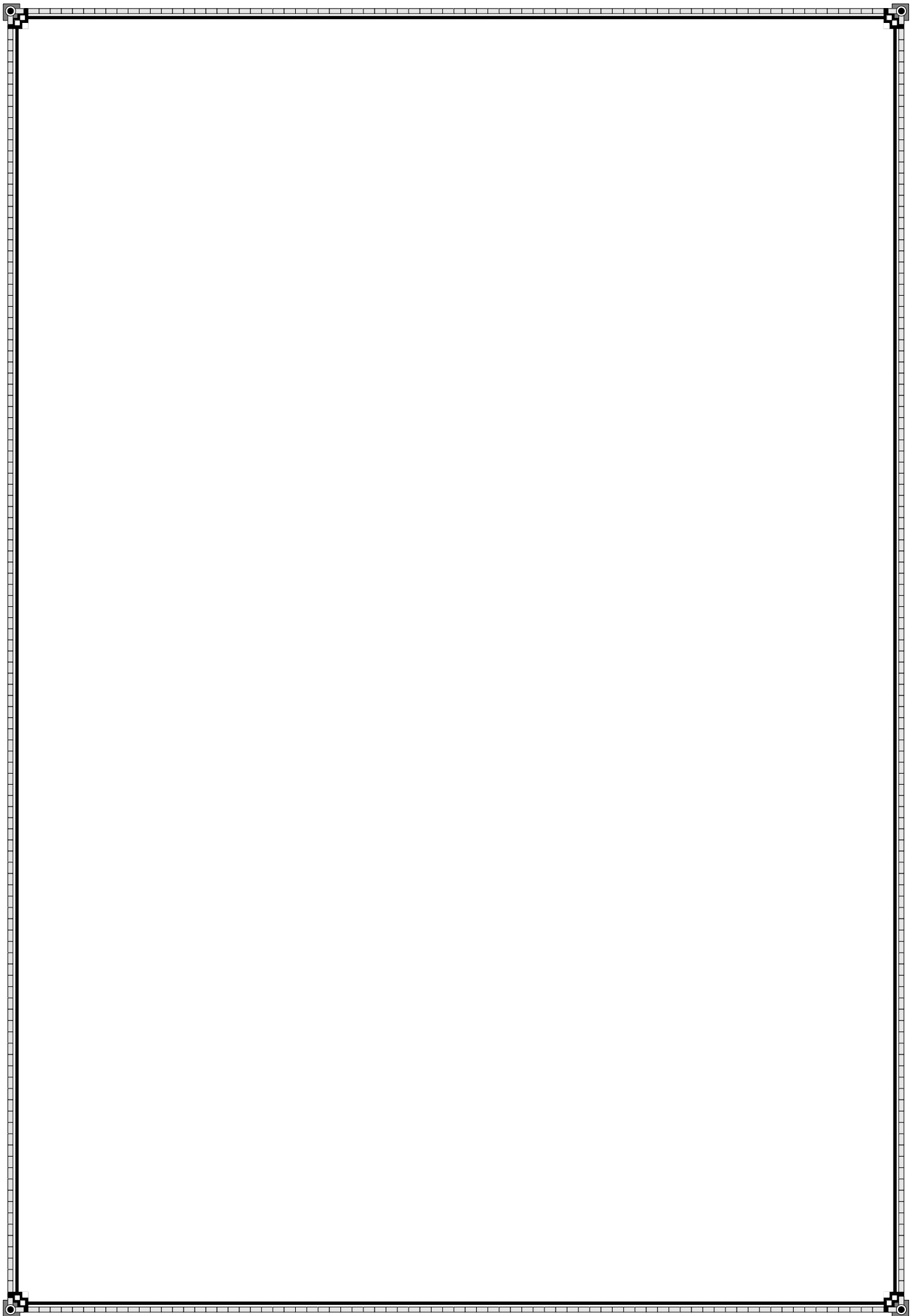
CHAPTER FIVE
DATA ANALYSIS

5.1 lntroductory Note

This chapter concerns itself with the presentation and the discussion of the results obtained by testing (15) Bilingual (L_1 Turkoman) and (15) Monolingual students in Diyala University, College of Education in the production of English segmental phonemes. The subjects are asked to pronounce a certain category of segmental phonology, namely, consonants and vocalic nuclei. To fulfil the objectives and to investigate the hypothesis of the study, a test has been administered to test the following aspects of English pronunciation:

1- Identifying the difficulties faced by both monolinguals and bilinguals in learning phonological aspects of English, and

2. Finding out whether the third language has any influence, positive or negative, on the learners' performance in the foreign language.

The above mentioned points are going to be broken down into relevant components (Consonants, Vowels, Diphthongs and Triphthongs) at the production level.

5.2 Overall Performance of Both Groups

In order to investigate the hypothesis of the research which reads as follows:

"It is hypothesized that there is no statistically significant difference between the achievement of both monolingual and bilingual Iraqi learners of English in the area of English pronunciation".

The subjects' performance in the English segments at the production level is assessed. The statistical analysis yields the following results as presented in Table (6). A comparison of the results of the B group and that of M group reveals that although there is apparently a huge gap in the performance of the two groups, this difference is not statistically significant. According to the Mann- Whitney formula, the smaller calculated value (89.5) must be taken and then compared with the tabulated value (64) at the 0.05 level of significance, it has been found that the calculated value (89.5) is larger than the tabulated value (64) so there is no statistically significant difference between both groups. (Abdul Haleem, 1986: 405).

This means that both groups make significant errors in their performance, in general, in the pronunciation of the English segmental phonemes.

This leads to the acceptation of the hypothesis of the research as stated above.

Table (6)

Mann - Whitney Results

Subjects	Calculated Value	Tabulated Value	Level of Significance
B- Group	89.5	64	0.05
M- Group	135.5		

5.3 The Production of Consonant Sounds

The investigation of English consonants at the production level has shown the following results which are presented in terms of percentages of misproduced sounds. These percentages are classified in descending order to indicate the difficulty level for each item as expressed by the members of the sample of the study with their rank order. Table (7) shows that the difficulty level of M group ranges between (% 18.40- %0) while for B group, it ranges between (% 12.49- %0).

Table (7)

Table (7)

Ranks of Errors of the Consonants Pronounced by Both

M- Group and B- Group

.	English Consonant Sounds	M- Group			B-Group		
		Frequency of Errors	Percentage	Rank	Frequency of Errors	Percentage	Rank
2.	Initial /p/,/b/	23	%5.721		18	%3.947	
	Medial	30	%7.462		18	%3.947	
	Final	21	%5.223		21	%4.605	
3.		74	%18.406	1	57	%12.499	3
4.	Initial/t /,/d /	22	%5.472		28	%6.140	
	Medial	16	%3.980		24	%5.263	
	Final	27	%6.716		30	%6.578	
5.		65	%16.168	2	82	%17.981	1
6.	Initial / /,/ /	0	%0		2	%0.438	
	Mediak	19	%4.726		24	%5.263	
	Final	34	%8.457		38	%8.333	
7.		53	%13.183	3	64	%14.034	2
8.	Initial /s/,/z/	10	%2.487		12	%2.631	
	Medial	23	%5.721		22	%4.824	
	Final	10	%2.487		16	%3.508	
9.		43	%10.695	4	50	%10.963	4
0.	Initial /t/,/d/	4	%0.995		7	%1.535	
	Medial	14	%3.482		19	%4.166	
	Final	10	%2.487		8	%1.754	

#		Count	%	Rank	Count	%	Rank
1.		28	%6.964	5	34	%7.455	5
2.	Initial /k/,/g/	2	%0.497		7	%1.535	
	Medial	17	%4.228		17	%3.728	
	Final	7	%1.741		9	%1.973	
3.		26	%6.466	6	33	%7.236	6
4.	Initial /j/	10	%2.487		12	%2.631	
	Medial	12	%2.985		13	%2.850	
5.		22	%5.472	7	25	%5.481	7
6.	Medial / /	5	%1.243		2	%0.438	
	Final	16	%3.980		19	%4.166	
7.		21	%5.223	8	21	%4.604	8
8.	Initial /w/	1	%0.248		0	%0	
	Medial	13	%3.233		16	%3.508	
9.		14	%3.481	9	16	%3.508	10
0.	Initial / /	1	%0.248		0	%0	
	Medial	4	%0.995		1	%0.219	
	Final	7	%1.741		7	%1.535	
1.		12	%2.984	10	8	%1.754	13
2.	Initial /f/,/v/	0	%0		5	%1.096	
	Medial	1	%0.248		7	%1.535	
	Final	7	%1.741		6	%1.315	
3.		8	%1.989	11.5	18	%3.946	9
4.	Initial /n/	7	%1.741		6	%1.315	
	Medial	0	%0		3	%0.657	
	Final	1	%0.248		1	%0.219	
5.		8	%1.989	11.5	10	%2.191	12

6.	/n/, / /					
7.		7	%1.741	13.5	7	%1.535	14
8.	Initial /r/	7	%1.741		6	%1.315	
	Medial	0	%0		0	%0	
9.		7	%1.741	13.5	6	%1.315	15.5
0.	Initial /l/	0	%0		0	%0	
	Medial	0	%0		2	%0.438	
	Final	6	%1.492		4	%0.877	
1.		6	%1.492	15	6	%1.315	15.5
2.	Medial / /	3	%0.746		3	%0.657	
	Final	1	%0.248		3	%0.657	
3.		4	%0.994	16.5	6	%1.314	17
4.	Initial /h/	3	%0.746		9	%1.973	
	Medial	1	%0.248		4	%0.877	
5.		4	%0.994	16.5	13	%2.850	11
6.	Initial /m/	0	%0		0	%0	
	Medial	0	%0		0	%0	
	Final	0	%0		0	%0	
7.		0	%0	18	0	%0	18

In the general performance on the consonant sounds as Table (7), illustrates, the most difficult sound to the M group is the /p/ and the discrimination between it and the /b/ occupies the first rank of difficulty, whereas this sound occupies the third rank of difficulty for the B group. This area makes the greatest difference in the performance of the two groups, with the M

group making (74) errors with a percentage of (18.40) compared to (57) errors with a percentage of (12.49) by the B group. This is due to the fact that the B group have this sound in the native language while M group do not. It is interesting to note that the problem of the pronunciation of the /p/ extends even to cases where the sound exists in words frequently used in the Iraqi vernacular. The sound /p/ is pronounced as /f/ in some areas in Diyala in the words: برتقال/برتقالة orange (s) resulting into فرتقال /فرتقالة

.

The second difficulty is the discrimination between /t / and /d /. This has proved difficult for both groups, albeit for different reasons. Most of the errors made in pronouncing the items that include /d / are due to intralingual transfer (overgeneralization) induced by the different realization of the sound as noticed in the words *ri_dges_*, *g_in_*, *j_eer_* etc,. The fact that this sound is in the repertoire of both Arabic and Turkoman lends support to the conclusion just mentioned. A close look at the /t / sound reveals that the M group do not have its counterpart in their standard NL. They tend to confuse it with /d /. However, the subjects' vernacular is abundant with this sound, therefore such a difficulty can not be attributed to its absence in the standard language. The fact that the B group who also have this sound in their native language as represented in / / جامور face greater difficulty in pronouncing it (It occupies the first rank with (82) errors and the

percentage of (%17.98). This lends weight to the conclusion that mispronunciation of this item may result from the fact that its realizations are of different graphic combinations. This makes it difficult for the subjects to pronounce, especially since their languages have mainly one letter for one sound.

Regarding the errors made in pronouncing the items that include / / and / /. The study subjects (M group) make (53) errors with the percentage of (%13.18) and occuping the third rank of difficulty while the B group make (64) errors with the percentage of (%14.03) which takes the second rank of difficulty. / / and / / have their counterparts in both Arabic and Turkoman and it is expected that the subjects would not face difficulty in pronouncing them. However, the difficulty does exist and it is found that a large number of these errors are made in pronouncing final / / and / /as compared to medial and initial position of / / and / /. / / in Turkoman dialect is pronounced /s/ as in

ثَروت ◄——— سِروت   مِيراث ◄——— مِيراس

while / / is pronounced (ز)as in

اذربايجان ◄——— ازربايجان   ذليل ◄——— زليل

In Arabic, some uneducated people, as is the case in English, confuse the / / with /f/. Thus in spoken Arabic ثَلـِج is pronounced فَلـِج as in English the / / in bathroom is changed into /f/. Another

cause for confusion of / / and / / lies in the fact that orthographically the two sounds ae realized in the same way.

The errors make in pronouncing /s/ and /z/ are (43) for the M group with the percentage of (%10.69) and (50) for the B group with the percentage of (%10.96). These two sounds occupy the same rank of difficulty, i.e., the fourth rank with both groups. These two sounds have their counterparts in both Arabic and Turkoman but the /s/ is sometimes pronounced by the B group as a $\begin{bmatrix} \text{dark} \\ \text{heavy} \end{bmatrix}$ sound as in *aslan* /s̱ / اصلان(ص) in Arabic.

/t/ and /d/ have similar counterparts in both Arabic and Turkoman, therefore, discriminating them considered as problematic to our subjects when pronouncing initial and final /t/ and /d/. Most errors committed by M group and B group are in pronouncing medial /t/ and /d/ as in *la<u>tt</u>er, la<u>dd</u>er* and *war<u>d</u>er*. Although in English orthographic doubling of consonants is frequent, the doubled letter is pronounced as a single consonant sound. Doubling, however, as a feature of Arabic pronunciation leads to the lengthening of the sound involved and this tends to make Iraqi learners do the same with the English consonants, especially when they are realized in double letters written English. Thus, the subjects lengthen the sounds /d/ and /t/. *war<u>d</u>er* is not pronounced as a single word by the subjects. It is pronounced as two separate syllables *<u>war</u> <u>der</u>*.

The consonants /k/ and /g/ occupy the same rank of difficulty in both groups, i.e., the sixth rank although they have their counterparts in Arabic and Turkoman. Most errors are made when pronouncing the items that include medial /k/ and /g/. It is worth mentioning that in Turkoman dialect, there are two different pronunciations of the /k/: /k/ is pronounced as normal /k/ as in Arabic and English and /k/ but it is pronounced (ق) by Turkomen as in _kardas_ اخ- قرداش and also there are two different pronunciations of the /g/: /g/ is pronounced as normal /g/ as in Arabic and English and /ǧ/ but it is pronounced (غ) as in _ǧezeb_.

As far as the rest of the consonant sounds are concerned, the performance of both groups is almost identical. It is interesting to note that the performance of both groups on the / / sound which does not exist in both native languages is identical which attaining the same rank of difficulty. Errors are made when pronouncing final / / with the tendency to produce the final ge in _garage_, _beige_ and _rouge_ as /d /.

The B group face less difficulty in the production of the /r/ since it is trilled in ⎰Turkoman dialect⎱ almost all the time.
⎰Turkish⎱

/f/ and /v/, as for /f/, it has its counterpart in both Arabic and Turkoman. The /v/, however, is not found in Arabic but although its orthographic counterpart exists in Turkoman dialects, it is

pronounced /w/ (و) as in *vali* والي, *arvad* ارواد and *babav* باباو. Thus, it is safe to say that this sound does not exist in any of the NLs of the subjects.

/ / occupies nearly the same rank of difficulty for both groups who show a fairly acceptable standard of performance in producing this sound.

In the pronunciation of nasal sounds /m/, /n/ and / /, /m/ and /n/ have their counterparts in Arabic and Turkoman. / / has no counterpart in both languages. It is interesting to note that the pronunciation of /n/ by the B group differs a lot from that of the M group and /n/ in English since the subjects of the B group try to lengthen the /n/ more than those of the M group. In *ring, long* and *strong*, / / is replaced by /n / which sounds as two separate phonemes by both M group and B group.

/w/ has its counterpart in Arabic since it occurs in initial and medial positions and no final position. In Turkoman /w/ is pronounced /v/ as in *vāhit* وخت – وقت.

5.4 The Production of Vowel Sounds

This component includes the production of vowel sounds. These sounds are presented in initial, medial and final positions in the test (wherever possible). A technique of contrasting minimal pairs is also used to elicit information about the subjects' ability to distinguish these sounds.

It has been found out that the subjects of both groups make errors in the production of vowel sounds. The ranking order of errors' occurrence is shown in Table (8) and arranged in a descending order.

Table (8)

Ranks of Errors of the Vowels Pronounced by Both M- Group and B- Group

	English Vowels Sounds	M- Group			B-Group		
		Frequency of Errors	Percentage	Rank	Frequency of Errors	Percentage	Rank
.	/a/,/ /						

		29	%16.111	1	30	%12.605	1
2.	/i:/,/i/						
		23	%12.777	2	14	%5.882	9
3.	Initial /u:/	9	%5		10	%4.201	
	Medial	9	%5		14	%5.882	
	Final	0	%0		2	%0.840	
		18	%10	3.5	26	%10.923	2
4.	/u/,/u:/						
		18	%10	3.5	25	%10.504	3
5.	Initial /e/	5	%2.777		9	%3.781	
	Medial	11	%6.111		14	%5.882	
		16	%8.888	5	23	%9.663	4.5
6.	/i/,/e/						
		13	%7.222	6	17	%7.142	7.5
7.	Initial /o:/	4	%2.222		8	%3.361	
	Medial	2	%1.111		4	%1.680	
	Final	5	%2.777		10	%4.201	
		11	%6.110	7	22	%9.242	6
8.	/a:/, / /						
		10	%5.555	8	17	%7.142	7.5
9.	Initial/ /	3	%1.666		6	%2.521	
	Medial	3	%1.666		8	%3.361	
	Final	4	%2.222		9	%3.781	
		10	%5.554	9	23	%9.663	4.5

0.	/ /, /a:/						
		9	%5	10	13	%5.462	10
1.	Initial /i:/	4	%2.222		6	%2.521	
	Medial	4	%2.222		3	%1.260	
	Final	0	%0		0	%0	
		8	%4.444	11	9	%3.781	11
2.	Initial /a/	2	%1.111		1	%0.420	
	Medial	2	%1.111		1	%0.420	
		4	%2.222	12.5	2	%0.840	16
3.	/a/, /a:/						
		4	%2.222	12.5	1	%0.420	17
4.	Initial / /	0	%0		0	%0	
	Medial	0	%0		1	%0.420	
	Final	2	%1.111		3	%1.260	
		2	%1.111	14.5	4	%1.680	13.5
5.	Initial /i/	0	%0		0	%0	
	Medial	0	%0		0	%0	
	Final	2	%1.111		5	%2.1008	
		2	%1.111	14.5	5	%2.1008	12
6.	Initial /o/	1	%0.555		3	%1.260	
	Medial	1	%0.555		1	%0.420	
		2	%1.110	16	4	%1.680	13.5
7.	/o/, /o:/						
		1	%0.555	17	3	%1.260	15

No.	Item						
8.	Medial /u/						
		0	%0	19	0	%0	19
9.	Initial/ /	0	%0		0	%0	
	Medial	0	%0		0	%0	
		0	%0	19	0	%0	19
0.	Initial /a:/	0	%0		0	%0	
	Medial	0	%0		0	%0	
	Final	0	%0		0	%0	
		0	%0	19	0	%0	19

Percentages of errors indicate that most of the M group and the B group fail to produce the correct pronunciation, i.e., they are incompetent in producing English vowel sounds. In other words, they are unaware of the distinction made between short and long vowels.

The results show that the subjects of the two groups fail to produce /a/, / / as these two sounds occupied the first rank of difficulty with the percentage of (% 16.11) for the M group and (%12.60) for the B group.

/i:/ and /i/ as in *lead, lid; wheat, wit and been, bin* are mispronounced by the subjects of the two groups. For the M group, they pronounce the word *lead* as /led/ instead of /li:d/ as this item occupies the second rank of difficulty with the

percentage of (%12.77) making (23) errors by the M group. While the B group, most of them pronounce it in a proper way since this sound has its counterpart in Turkoman dialect. It is interesting to say that one of the main characteristics of Turkoman dialect is that there are many long vowels. The existence of a long vowel similar to this in Arabic makes the results seem the more unexpected. The only possible explanation is that the difficulty lies in the word itself, since the word *lead* is pronounced /led/ in two occasions, one as a noun meaning "a certain metal" and second as the past tense of the verb "lead". Why such a realization was not reached by the B group needs some investigation.

In the production of /u/, /u:/ and the distinction between /u/ and /u:/, the subjects tend to confuse these two sounds although these sounds have counterparts in both native languages. The results of the B group in this respect support the conclusion above that the Turkoman's tendency to lengthen vowels is reflected in its speakers' pronunciation of the English vowels.

/e/ occupies nearly the same rank of difficulty for the M group and the B group although they have their counterparts in Arabic and Turkoman. Most errors are made when pronouncing the items that include medial /e/. Similarly, /i/ and /e/ are almost equally ranked for both groups. The words are wrongly pronou-nced by the subjects especially *dead, ten and beg*. The irre-

gularity of the orthographic realizations of sounds is a major source of difficulty for our subjects.

The long vowel /o:/ takes nearly the same rank of difficulty for both groups although it has its counterpart in Arabic and Turkoman. Most errors are made when pronouncing the items that include final and initial /o:/. The difficulty in the pronunciation of final /o:/ for Arabic speakers is a well- known. The pronunciation of loan words, especially from English, that end with /o:/ is evidence of this difficulty. A word like راديو or بانيو is never pronounced with an /o:/ sound. Rather, the sound is either chan-ged into some kind of /u/ or kept with the addition of nasal /n/ making the word راديون. In the case بانيو both changes are made resulting in بانِئُن.

In the production of /a:/, / /, the subjects tend to confuse these two sounds although the second one is short. Here again, vowel length pauses a great difficulty for our subjects.

/ / occupies a higher rank of difficulty for the B group because it has no counterpart in Turkoman dialect.

/i:/ is almost equally ranked for both groups. Most errors are made when pronouncing the items that include initial and medial /i:/. This shows that longer vowels are easier for both group than shorter ones.

/a/ and /a/- /a:/ take nearly the same rank of difficulty for both groups. Almost the same difficulty is faced by our subjects in the pronunciation of / / and /i/. Most errors are made when pronouncing the items that include final / / and /i/.

/o/ and /o/- /o:/ occupy the lowest rank of difficulty. This indicates that even though /o:/ alone is difficult to pronounce, our subjects can easily distinguish it from its shorter version.

/u/, / / and /a:/ prove to be the least problematic for both groups.

5.5 The Production of Diphthong Sounds

this component includes the production of diphthong sounds. It has been found out that the subjects of both groups make errors in the production of diphthong sounds. These errors can be ascribed to the context of situation.

Table (9) shows the performance of our subjects in the production of diphthongs.

Table (9)

Ranks of Errors of the Diphthongs Pronounced by Both M-Group and B- Group

	English Diphthong Sounds	M- Group			B-Group		
		Frequency of Errors	Percentage	Rank	Frequency of Errors	Percentage	Rank
1	Medial/u /	37	%15.546		38	%14.843	
	Final	26	%10.924		30	%11.718	

		63	%26.470	1	68	%26.561	1
2	/i /, /e /						
		37	%15.546	2	36	%14.062	2
3	Initial /e /	14	%5.882		9	%3.515	
	Medial	17	%7.142		12	%4.687	
	Final	2	%0.840		2	%0.781	
		33	%13.864	3	23	%8.983	4
4	/i /, /u /						
		24	%10.084	4	20	%7.812	5
5	/ou/, /oi/						
		15	%6.302	5	11	%4.296	8
6	/au/, /ou/						
		14	%5.882	6	26	%10.156	3
7	Initial /i /	3	%1.260		1	%0.390	
	Medial	8	%3.361		9	%3.515	
	Final	1	%0.420		0	%0	
		12	%5.041	7	10	%3.905	10
8	/ai/, /ei/						
		8	%3.361	8	14	%5.468	7
9	Initial /au/	3	%1.260		0	%0	
	Medial	4	%1.680		2	%0.781	
	Final	1	%0.420		3	%1.171	
		8	%3.360	9.5	5	%1.952	13
10	Initial /oi/	4	%1.680		6	%2.343	
	Medial	4	%1.680		1	%0.390	
	Final	0	%0		0	%0	
		8	%3.360	9.5	7	%2.734	12
11	Initial /ai/	6	%2.521		7	%2.734	

	Medial	0	%0		1	%0.390	
	Final	0	%0		2	%0.781	
		6	%2.521	11	10	%3.905	10
12	Initial /ou/	2	%0.840		3	%1.171	
	Medial	1	%0.420		2	%0.781	
	Final	3	%1.260		5	%1.953	
		6	%2.520	12	10	%3.905	10
13	Initial /ei/	1	%0.420		7	%2.734	
	Medial	2	%0.840		2	%0.781	
	Final	1	%0.420		7	%2.734	
		4	%1.680	13	16	%6.249	6

As the table shows, our subjects fail to pronounce /u / as it is replaced by the pure vowel /u:/, /u/- it occupies the first rank of difficulty by both groups.

poor ⟶ /pu:r/

Such a result is highly expected due to what Ellis (1986) calls the context of situation. These are errors induced by the teaching process, the teacher, the materials or the method of teaching. Since very few teachers pronounce this sound correctly as has been document by Shwaysh (2000) and since the teacher is the only model for the pupils to follow in their pronunciation no one expects the teachers to produce what they have not been taught.

The distinction between /i / and /e / comes in the second rank of difficulty. The subjects tend to confuse between these two

sounds. The same factor as the one just mentioned is at work here, i.e., the context of situation.

/e / occupies the third rank of difficulty for the M group with the percentage of (% 13.86) while it occupies the fourth rank of difficulty for the B group. The words are wrongly pronounced by the subjects of the study and this can be ascribed to context of situation as stated above.

The distinction between /i / and /u / comes in the fourth and fifth ranks of difficulty. The word *tour* is mispronounced by the subjects as /tu:r/ and this is due in both cases to the context of situation as mentioned above.

The distinction between /ou/ and /oi/ comes in the fifth rank for the M group and eighth rank for the B group. It has been found that our subjects fail to pronounce /ou/ as it is replaced by the pure vowel /o / and /o:/

nose⟶/no: z/

Avoidance of diphthongs is a common strategy by Iraqi native speakers of Arabic. The standard Arabic diphthongs are almost changed into long vowels in the vernacular. Thus ثَوب /aw/ becomes ثوب with /ō/ and سَيْف /ay/ becomes سيف with /ee/. Note also that the distinction is more difficult for the M group than it is for the B group.

The distinction between /au/ and /ou/ comes in the third and sixth ranks of difficulty for the M and B group respectively. The

subjects tend to confuse between these two sounds. The difficulty lies more with the /ou/ because an equivalent to it, albeit a longer one, exists in Arabic in words such as طاولي.

The seventh rank is occupied by the M group in the pronunciation of /i / with the percentage of (%5.04) while the tenth rank is occupied by the B group. Most errors are made in the pronunciation of the items that include medial /i /.

The distinction between /ai/ and /ei/ comes in the eighth and seventh rank of difficulty for the M and B groups respectively.

/au/ and /oi/ prove to be the same rank of difficulty for the M group whereas /au/ proves to be the least difficult for the B group and /oi/ is the second least difficult. Most errors are made by the M group when pronouncing initial and medial /au/ and /oi/.

/ai/ and /ou/ occupy the tenth rank of difficulty by the B group while /ai/ occupies the eleventh rank of difficulty by the M group and /ou/ occupies the twelfth rank of difficulty by the same group. While /ei/ proves to be the least problematic for the M group, it is fairly difficult for the B grop. The fact that a similar diphthong does exist in standard Arabic, the NL of the M group may have inhanced the learning of this sound. The somewhat poor performance on the part of the B group on this diphthong lends weight to this claim.

5.6 The Production of Triphthong Sounds

This component includes the production of triphthong sounds. It has been found out that the results of English tripthong sounds may be unexpected. Our subjects have shown a fairly acceptable

standard of performance in this area. The ranking order of errors occurrence is shown in Table (10) and arranged in a descending order.

Table (10)

Ranks of Errors of the Triphthongs Pronounced by Both M-Group and B- Group

	English Triphthong Sounds	M- Group			B-Group		
		Frequency of Errors	Percentage	Rank	Frequency of Errors	Percentage	Rank
1.	/au /						
		9	%40.90	1	4	%21.052	3
2.	/ai /						
		7	%31.818	2	7	%36.844	1
3.	/ei /						
		3	%13.63	3.5	4	%21.052	3
4.	/ou /						
		3	%13.63	3.5	4	%21.052	3
5.	/oi /						
		0	%0	5	0	%0	5

As the table shows, /ou / takes the first rank of difficulty by the M group with the percentage of (%40.90) while it takes the

third rank of difficulty by the B group. The word *towel* is mispronounced by the subjects as /tou l/

/ai / as in *trial* is mispronounced by both groups as (tri: l/. For the B group; this item occupies the first rank of difficulty whereas for the M group it occupies the second rank of difficulty.

/ei / and /ou / occupy the third rank of difficulty by the M group and the fourth rank of difficulty by the B group whereas /oi / proves to be the least problematic for both groups.

5.7 Results Pertaining to the Second Aim

As regards the second aim of the study, which is: Finding out whether the third language has any influence, positive or negative, on the learners' performance in the foreign language, t-test of significance difference among percentages has been used in order to determine whether there is any significant difference among the percentages of the subjects' performance concerning the influence of the third language on the subjects' performance. Appendix 2 (Tables 1,2,3) reveal that there are no statistically significant differences between the calculated t- value and tabulated value when comparing the production of B group to that of M group since the calculated t- value is less than the tabulated one. However, it has been found out that 8 items are statistically significant at 0.05 level of significance with 28 df.

The figures in Table (11) show that the computed t- test value is higher than the tabulated t- value at the level of 0.05 significance with 28 df, which means that the difference is significant in favour of the M group. This indicates that M group perform better in the production of /f/, /v/ and /h/ sounds although /v/ is not found in their mother tongue.

Table (11)

Frequency of Errors, T- Test (English Consonant Sounds)

English Consonant Sounds	Frequency of Errors for M- Group	Frequency of Errors for B- Group	Calculated T	Tabulated T	Level of Significance
1- /f/, /v/	8	18	2.127	2.05	Significant at 0.05
2- /h/	4	13	2.922	2.05	Significant at 0.05

The figures in Table (12) and (13) indicate that M group are more proficient in the production of the English vowel sounds /i/, /o-o:/, / / and the English diphthong sound /ei/.

Table (12)

Frequency of Errors, T- Test (English Vowel Sounds)

English Vowel Sounds	Frequency of Errors for M- Group	Frequency of Errors for B- Group	Calculated T	Tabulated T	Level of Significance
1- /i/	2	5	2.370	2.05	Significant at 0.05
2- /o/,/o:/	1	3	2.77	2.05	Significant at 0.05
3- / /	10	23	2.16	2.05	Significant at 0.05

Table (13)

Frequency of Errors, T- Test (English Diphthong Sound)

English Diphthong Sound	Frequency of Erros for M- Group	Frequency of Errors for B- Group	Calculated T	Tabulated T	Level of Significance
1- /ei/	4	16	3.33	2.05	Significa

					nt at 0.05

Significant difference in favour of the B- group is displayed in Tables (14) and (15) below. According to the results, the B-group find the vowel sounds /a-a:/ and the triphthong /au / easier to produce than their M- group counterparts.

Table (14)

Frequency of Errors, T- Test (English Vowel Sounds)

English Vowel Sounds	Frequency of Errors for M- Group	Frequency of Errors for B- Group	Calculated T	Tabulated T	Level of Significance
1- /a/, /a:/	4	1	3.33	2.05	Significant at 0.05

Table (15)

Frequency of Errors, T- Test (English Triphthong Sound)

English Triphthong Sound	Frequency of Errors for M- Group	Frequency of Errors for B – Group	Calculated T	Tabulated T	Level of Sig-nificance
1- /au /	9	4	2.127	2.05	Significant at 0.05

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSIONS, PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS , RECOMMENDATIONS , AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

6.1 Conclusions

      The analysis of the data in the previous chapter has led to the following conclusions:

1. Iraqi learners, i.e., monolingual and bilingual groups make frequent and systematic errors in segmental phonemes because of, nearly, similar factors. The number of these errors is different from one stage to another as learners develop systems through their continuous study.

2. Intralingual transfer (overgeneralization) is the main factor that affects the production of consonant sounds by monolingual and bilingual groups since it occupies the first rank among the factors that cause the errors made by them.

3. Percentages of errors indicate that most of the monolingual and bilingual groups fail to produce English vowel sounds. In other wo-rds, they are unaware of the distinction made between short and long vowels, which may be ascribed to mother tongue interference since vowel length is mostly non-phonemic in the subjects' native languages.

4- The subjects of both groups make errors in the production of diphthong sounds.

5. The results concerning English triphthong sounds may be said to be unexpected since both groups have shown a fairly acceptable standard of performance in this area.

6. Instances of the influence of the native language on the production of single segmental phonemes are not statistically significant enough to be considered effective in the overall performance of the two groups whether negative or positive .

7. Results of Iraqi EFL learners' performance in the area of the English sound system remain undecisive and undependable in the absence of the model for the learners to follow. The generally poor pronunciation of the teachers, as this and other studies have documented, makes it impossible to measure the subject's performance against the recom-mended norm, namely RP and Standard Southern English (SSE). This factor, which is referred to "teaching transfer" (Richards, 1974) and "context of learning" (Ellis, 1986) is, to us, the most decisive factor in the pronunciation of EFL learners since it shapes their production of the various sounds. A more just assessment of subjects' performance in such cases is to measure it against the model, i.e., the teacher's performance Such success, of course, will not indicate better performance in English, but rather more successful learning.

8. Another very important conclusion has to do with bilingualism and even multilingualism, ln the case of our subjects, it has been found out that it has been mostly very difficult to decide, on the basis of the pronunciation of Arabic, whether the subject's native language is Arabic or Turkoman. This is due to the fact that both languages have been learnt during the critical period and in a natural learning situation. Arabic also is the medium in the educational sys-tem and the language that all the learners learn as their first language. The result is that Arabic is pronounced without a detectable accent or at least with one that is difficult to detect. Such a phenomenon , which has been recognized by psycholinguists (cf. Scovel, 2000, for instance) leads to the learners' having almost identical proficiency in both languages, a result which makes discrimination in the influence of any or both of the languages almost impossible.

6.2 Pedagogical Implications and Recommendations

On the basis of the conclusions drawn above, a number of pedagogical implications and recommendations can be put forward.

1. It is believed that differences and similarities between languages on the phonological level at least, whether great or small must be stated for the students in advance. This need

not be explicitly stated in theoretical phraseology, but drilling on the double pronunciation of monographs will be a good basis for better achievement at the pronunciation of the languages.

2. Testing aural - oral skills should be given more attention than that it gets at present. The unwarranted weight allotted to the reading and writing skills results in poor performance in the oral skills on the part of the learner.

3. It is pedagogically advisable by most linguists that the students be helped to develop awareness of the new sounds when starting to learn English as a FL, and drawing relations to their L_1, i.e., Arabic language at least on the phonological level. In other words, a short phonemic phase should precede the learning of dialogues, provided that the learner is not frustrated by sounds he cannot discern and imitate.

4- Standard models of pronunciation should be provided for both teachers and pupils and intensive training should be started as soon as possible and from earliest stage.

6.3 Suggestions for Further Study

In the current situation of the pronunciation of English in our schools, the following suggestions are found to be suitable for further investigation:

1. A study can be conducted to investigate the mutual interference when learning more than one language.

2. An empirical study which investigates the effect of the third language on the foreign language at all levels of knowledge.

3- A similar study is needed to investigate the phonological achievement of the students with reference to sex.

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