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**The Phonological Interlanguage
of the Undergraduate Students at the
Department of English, University of
Mentouri, Constantine**

**Thesis Submitted to the Department of Foreign Languages in
Candidacy for the Degree of 'Doctorat d'Etat' in
Applied Linguistics**

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Dedications

I dedicate this work:

To the person who taught me how to rely on myself: My late father,

To the kindest person: My mother,

To my dearest wife and my beloved children: Iqbal and Souheil,

To my brothers and sisters,

And to all my relatives, colleagues, and friends.

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Abstract

The theoretical contribution of this research work is a description of the phonological interlanguage of the undergraduate students at the department of English, University of Constantine through an error analysis of the common segmental errors and some suprasegmental ones. Its practical contribution can be stated in terms of some recommendations for a more appropriate syllabus for the teaching of oral expression and listening comprehension. Only a full understanding of the phenomenon of phonological transfer, in general, and the strategies of the undergraduate students in learning the pronunciation of English, in particular, can help describe and understand their phonological interlanguage. This would be the basis for selecting a more appropriate and a more explicit theoretical input in order to teach them how to articulate correctly and, as a consequence, to better comprehend the correct articulation of natives. Most of the analysed errors are of an intralingual nature due to a wrong conception of the relationship between the graphemes and the phonemes in English. This is complicated by the interference of a more regular relationship between graphemes and phonemes in French. This complex conception of the English sound system by the learners under investigation makes of French the most important interlingual source of errors though most of them are just average in this language. This state of affairs is caused by an underlying belief that there is a much closer distance between English and French than between English and both Dialectal Arabic and the Standard one. This belief triggers far more errors from French than from the two varieties of Arabic. Because of the persistence of these false assumptions, the resulting phonological interlanguage tends to be stable, systematic, and resistant to so many variables. Any pedagogical effort should drive most of all at correcting these assumptions.

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List of Abbreviations

CA: Contrastive Analysis

IPA: International Phonetic Association

LMD: Licence Master Doctorat

RP: Received Pronunciation

Phonetic Symbols Used

The following phonetic symbols, representing all the sounds that are dealt with in this research, may be used for a quick reference. A detailed description of the sound inventories of the investigated languages and their various spelling representations will be provided in Chapter One. These symbols are part of the International Phonetic Alphabet adopted by the International Phonetic Association, both of which have commonly been abbreviated into IPA. The author has personalized some symbols such as /æ/ and /æ:/ to represent a typical articulation of some countries of the Middle East and North Africa, that is less emphatic and less open than the articulation of /a/ and /a:/ used extensively in some Arab countries of the Middle East and the Arab countries of the Gulf.

1. East Algerian Dialects

Simple Vowels

	Description	Examples	Meaning
i	close, front, unrounded, short	sidi	Master
i:	close, front, unrounded, long	mli:h	good
æ/a ¹	central, front, unrounded, short	mʃæ tabla	to walk, table
æ:/a: ²	central, front, unrounded, long	bæ:n ṭma:ṭam	to appear, tomatoes
u	close, back, rounded, short	ḥlu biru	sweet, office
u:	close, back, rounded, long	ḥu:t mu:t	fish, death
ə	half close, central, unrounded	kəskæs səlu:m	steamer, ladder
o	half open, back, rounded	sorta, soti	hospital leave, jump

¹ This vowel is emphatic and more open in some countries of the Middle East and in the Gulf countries and is closer to the English short vowel /æ/ in 'bat' than in 'hand', whereas in North Africa, it is less open and in most cases, closer to the pronunciation of the latter word than to that of the former one. In the dialects of the East of Algeria, it is like its eastern counterpart only in emphatic surrounding and in most of the words of a French origin.

² What applies to the short /a/ also applies to the long one.

ii. Diphthongs

vowel	Examples	Meaning
ei	meidə feidə	dinner table, benefit
ai	maidə faiðə	ablution place, overflowing
aʊ	braut zaura	wheelbarrows, blanket
əʊ	əʊ kləʊ	I cannot believe it! they ate

Consonants

	Description	Examples	Meaning
b	voiced, bilabial, stop	bæ:b bifi	door, dresser
t	voiceless, alveolar, stop	tlæ:tə ³ sirtu	three, particularly
t ^s	voiceless, denti-alveolar, affricate	t ^s læ:t ^s ə sirtu ⁴	three, particularly
t ^ʃ	voiceless, palato-alveolar, stop	t ^ʃ læ:t ^ʃ ə ⁵	three
ɟ	voiceless, dental, emphatic, stop	ɟri:q ɟablə	road, table
d	voiced, dental, stop	dwə ru:d	medicine, street
ɟ	voiced, dental, emphatic, stop	ɟwa ɟrab	shine, hit
k	voiceless, velar, stop	kælb karta	dog, card
g	voiced, velar, stop	gri:b garaʒ	close, garage
m	voiced, bilabial, nasal, stop	mqa:s mæʃinə	scissors, train
n	voiced, alveolar, nasal, stop	næ:s bæ:n	people, banana
f	voiceless, labiodental, fricative	fælfəl fæmiljə	pepper, family
s	voiceless, alveolar, fricative	sæ:nslə sizi	chain, seizure
ʃ	voiceless, alveolar, emphatic, fricative	ʃha:b ʃalə	friends, room

³ This sound is used by the people descending from the central regions of Algeria.

⁴ The words of French origin are pronounced with the denti-alveolar /t^s/ by people descending from the south east.

⁵ This sound is typical of some regions such as Skikda, Collo, etc ...

θ	voiceless, interdental, fricative	θæm	ʔæθlæ:θ ⁶	there, Tuesday
ð	voiced, interdental, fricative	ðhæb	ða:g ⁷	gold, to taste
ɖ	voiced, interdental, emphatic, fricative	ɖalmə	ɖhar	darkness, back
z	voiced, alveolar, fricative	zei	za:ligu	like, French beans
ʃ	voiceless, palato-alveolar, fricative	ʃam ^ʕ	ʃali	candle, chalet
ʒ	voiced, palato-alveolar, fricative	ʒæ:mæ ^ʕ	ta:ʒ	mosque, floor
ɹ	voiced post alveolar fricative	lla.ɹɖ	ka.ɹlaʒ	land, tiled floor
l	voiced, alveolar, lateral	li:l	fælizə	night, suitcase
j	voiced, palatal, glide	dænjə	tablijə	life, apron
w	voiced, bilabial, velar, glide	wæ:lu	ɹizwar	nothing, razor
h	voiced, glottal, fricative	mæhbu:l	hlæ:l	mad, crescent
ʔ	voiceless, glottal, stop	ʔɹza:r	ʔitim	bed sheet, orphan
ʕ	voiced, pharyngeal, fricative	ʕarbi	ʕijja	Arab, walking stick
χ	voiceless, velar, fricative	χri:f	χmi:ra	autumn, yeast
q	voiceless uvular plosive	qa:di	særqa	judge, theft
ʁ	voiced, uvular, fricative	ʁæ:ba	ʁra:b	forest, crow
ħ	voiceless, pharyngeal, fricative	ħra:m	ħarb	prohibited, war

⁶ This is pronounced as such by the people descending from the Chaoui regions. Many other regions pronounce these words with the denti-alveolar stop as /t^sæm/ and /ʔət^slæt^sə/.

⁷ This pronunciation is also typical of the Chaoui regions; other regions stop this fricative and the fricative that follows in the table to become /d/ and emphatic /d/ instead, and so the four words are pronounced /dhæb/, /da:q/, /ɖalma/ and /ɖhar/ respectively.

2. Standard Arabic

i. Simple Vowels

	Description	Examples	Transcription	Meaning
i	close, front, unrounded, short	شَهِدَ	ʃahida	to witness
i:	close, front, unrounded, long	سَبِيلٌ	sabi:l	way
a ⁸	Central, front, unrounded, short	ضَرَبَ	ḍaraba	hit
a:	Central, front, unrounded, long	مَنَى	muna:	wishes
u	close, back, rounded, short	يَأْكُلُ	jaʔkulu	to eat
u:	close, back, rounded, long	جُنُونٌ	dʒunu:n	madness

ii. Diphthongs

	Examples	Transcription	Meaning
aj	سَيِّدٌ	sajjid	master
aw	حَوَّلَ	ḥawwala	changed

iii. Consonants

	Description	Examples	Transcription	Meaning
b	voiced, bilabial, stop	تَابَ	ta:ba	repent
t	voiceless, alveolar, stop	فَتَاةٌ	fata:tun	girl
ṭ	voiceless, dental, emphatic, stop	مَطَرٌ	maṭarun	rain

⁸ When this short vowel as well as the long one is not in an emphatic consonantal context, it is realised by North African Arabs as /æ/ and /æ:/ respectively.

d	voiced, dental, stop	بلد	baladun	country
d̥	voiced, dental, emphatic, stop	أرض	ʔardun	land
k	voiceless, velar, stop	ذلك	ða:lika	this
m	voiced, bilabial, nasal, stop	فم	famun	mouth
n	voiced, alveolar, nasal, stop	نعم	naʕam	yes
f	voiceless, labiodental, fricative	فيل	fi:lun	elephant
s	voiceless, alveolar, fricative	شمس	ʃamsun	sun
ʂ	voiceless, alveolar, emphatic, fricative	صفر	ʂifrun	zero
θ	voiceless, interdental, fricative	إثم	ʔiθmun	sin
ð	voiced, interdental, fricative	ذهب	ðahaba	went
d̥ʰ	voiced, interdental, emphatic, fricative	نظيف	nadi:fun	clean
z	voiced, alveolar, fricative	أزرق	ʔazraqun	blue
ʃ	voiceless, palato-alveolar, fricative	فراش	fira:ʃun	bed
ʒ	voiced, palato-alveolar, fricative	عاج	ʕa:ʒun	ivory
r	voiced post alveolar fricative	رجل	rajulun	man
l	voiced, alveolar, lateral	نبيل	nabi:lun	noble
j	voiced, palatal, glide	يمنى	jumna:	right
w	voiced, bilabial, velar, glide	ورق	waraqun	paper
h	voiced, glottal, fricative	الله	ʔalla:hu	Allah
ʔ	voiceless, glottal, stop	إن	ʔm	if
ʕ	voiced, pharyngeal, fricative	عذر	ʕuðrun	excuse
χ	voiceless, velar, fricative	خبز	χubzun	bread
q	voiceless uvular plosive	مرق	maraqun	sauce
ʁ	voiced, uvular, fricative	غريب	ʁari:bun	strange

h. voiceless, pharyngeal, fricative حبر hɪbrun ink

3. Standard French

i. Vowels

	Description	Examples	Transcription	Meaning
i	close, front, unrounded	ami	ami	friend
y	close, front, rounded	lune	lyn	crescent
e	half close, front, unrounded	et	e	and
ø	half close, front rounded	ceux	sø	those
ɛ	half open, front, unrounded	maître	mɛtr	master
ẽ	half open, front, unrounded, nasal	vin	vẽ	wine
œ	half open, front, rounded	club	klœb	club
õe	half open, front, rounded, nasal	un	õe	one
a/ɑ	open, front, unrounded	la	la/lɑ	the
ã	open, front, unrounded nasal	exemple	ɛgzãpl	example
u	close, back, rounded	tous	tus	all
o	half close, back, rounded	dos	do	back
ɔ	half open, back, rounded	alors	alɔr	so
õ	half open, back rounded, nasal	ton	tõ	your
ə	half close, central, unrounded	regard	rɛgɑrd	look

ii. Consonants

	Description	Examples	Transcription	Meaning
p	voiceless, bilabial, stop	petit	pəti	small
b	voiced, bilabial, stop	belle	bel	beautiful,
t	voiceless, dental, stop	ta	ta	your
d	voiced, dental, stop	dormir	dɔrmir	to sleep
k	voiceless, velar, stop	cas	kɑ	case
g	voiced, velar, stop	garde	gard	keep
m	voiced, bilabial, nasal, stop	matin	matɛ̃	morn
n	voiced, dental, nasal, stop	ne	nə	not
ŋ	voiced, velar, nasal, stop	footing	futiŋ	jogging
ɲ	voiced, palatal, nasal, stop	vigne	viɲ	vine
f	voiceless, labiodental, fricative	fille	fij	girl
v	voiced, labiodental, fricative	vite	vit	quick
s	voiceless, dental, fricative	son	sɔ̃	sound
z	voiced, dental, fricative	raser	ʀazɛ	shave
ʃ	voiceless, palato-alveolar, fricative	chat	ʃa	cat
ʒ	voiced, palato-alveolar fricative	gène	ʒɛn	disturb
ʀ	voiced velar fricative	reste	ʀɛst	remain
l	voiced, dental, lateral	le	lə	the
j	voiced, palatal, glide	oeil	œj	eye
ɥ	voiced, bilabial, glide	lui	lɥi	him
w	voiced, bilabial, velar, glide	doigt	dwa	finger
tʃ	voiceless, palato-alveolar, affricated	match	matʃ	match

dʒ	voiced, palato-alveolar, affricated	adjoint	adʒwɛ̃	assistant
h	voiced, glottal, fricative	hop!	hop	-

4. Standard English (British Variety)

i. Simple Vowels

	Description	Examples	Transcription
ɪ	close, front, unrounded	hit	hɪt
i:	close, front, unrounded, long	heat	hi:t
e	half close, front, unrounded	let	let
æ	half open, front, unrounded	add	æd
ə	half close, central, unrounded	listener	'lɪsnə
ɜ:	half close, central, unrounded, long	burn	bɜ:n
ʌ	open, central, unrounded, short	cut	kʌt
ʊ	close, back, rounded	put	pʊt
u:	close, back, rounded, long	too	tu:
ɒ	open, back, rounded	lot	lɒt
ɔ:	open, back, rounded, long	horse	hɔ:s
ɑ:	open, back, unrounded, long	art	ɑ:t

ii. Diphthongs

	Examples	Transcription	Vowel	Examples	Transcription
ɪə	near	nɪə	aʊ	loud	laʊd
eə	care	keə	əʊ	low	ləʊ

eɪ	date	deɪt	ʊə	poor	pʊə
aɪ	bite	baɪt	ɔɪ	boil	bɔɪl

iii. Triphthongs

	Examples	Transcription	Vowel	Examples	Transcription
eɪə	layer	leɪə	əʊə	lower	ləʊə
aɪə	fire	faɪə	ɔɪə	lawyer	ləɪə
aʊə	our	aʊə			

iv. Consonants (including allophones)

	Description	Examples	Transcription
p	voiceless, bilabial, unaspirated, stop	tip	tɪp
p ^h	voiceless, bilabial, aspirated, stop	pit	p ^h ɪt
b	voiced, bilabial, stop	brief	bri:f
t	voiceless, alveolar, unaspirated, stop	but	bʌt
t ^h	voiceless, alveolar, aspirated, stop	take	t ^h eɪk
d	voiced, alveolar, stop	dear	dɪə
k	voiceless, velar, unaspirated, stop	act	ækt
k ^h	voiceless, velar, aspirated stop	keen	k ^h i:n
g	voiced velar, stop	good	gʊd
f	voiceless, labiodental fricative	fine	fai:n
v	voiced, labiodental, fricative	vine	vai:n
θ	voiceless, interdental, fricative	wealth	welθ

ð	voiced, interdental, fricative	they	ðeɪ
ʃ	voiceless, palato-alveolar, fricative	she	ʃi:
ʒ	voiced, palato-alveolar, fricative	pleasure	'pleʒə
s	voiceless, alveolar, fricative	us	ʌs
z	voiced, alveolar, fricative	zoo	zu:
h	voiceless, glottal, fricative	here	hɪə
r	voiced, alveolar, retroflex	rat	ræt
l	voiced, alveolar, lateral	late	leɪt
ɫ	voiced, alveolar, lateral, velarised	little	lɪɫl
m	voiced, bilabial, nasal	me	mi:
n	voiced, alveolar, nasal	name	neɪm
ŋ	voiced, velar, nasal	king	kɪŋ
w	voiced, bilabial, glide	we	wi:
j	voiced, velar, glide	yes	jes
tʃ	voiceless, palato-alveolar, affricate	church	tʃɜ:tʃ
dʒ	voiced, palato-alveolar, affricate	judge	dʒʌdʒ

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Introduction

1. Statement of the Problem

The interlanguage phenomenon, disregarding the language level in question, is assumed in the literature to be idiosyncratic and constantly moving forward towards the target language norms because of the changing variables affecting it both internally and externally. The analysis of the phonological interlanguage of a sample of students, and that of a sample of teachers for confirmation, at the department of English, University of Mentouri, Constantine, shows that it is rather of a collective nature, more stable, more systematic, and rather resistant to external variables. This state of affairs is caused by some misleading internal variables such as some wrong assumptions as to the nature of the English phonological system as well as its relationship to other linguistic systems interacting with it. As a consequence the pedagogical means, as external variables, tend to be without great effect. Understanding the phonological interlanguage of these students is of crucial importance in order to render these variables efficient in moving this interlanguage towards the target language norms of pronunciation.

2. Aim of the Study

The purpose of the following research work is both theoretical and practical. First, it attempts to describe the phonological interlanguage of the BA students at the Department of English, University of Constantine, concentrating on the common errors in the use of segments and suprasegments, and to find out how stable, systematic and resistant this interlanguage can be. Second, it makes some recommendations for a more appropriate syllabus for the teaching of pronunciation within two crucial skills, namely oral expression and listening comprehension. Surveying and assessing the various approaches to the study of interlanguage, language transfer, and some related fields will

be the theoretical aspect of this research work. Analysing the common segmental errors and some suprasegmental ones made by the undergraduate students of the Department of English, University of Constantine, as well as outlining how phonological transfer operates in their learning strategies, will constitute the practical aspect of it.

3. Hypotheses

There are three hypotheses behind this investigation: First, even though most of the learners are average in Standard French, it would bear its mark on their interlanguage and its influence would be much more significant than their mother tongue. Second, phonological transfer in the case of these undergraduate students would be linguistically selective and more of a cognitive process than a mechanistic act; this trait would make them rely mostly on the target language itself by generalising its tokens and instances, and on their second standard language, namely French, by applying its graphemic patterns in their performance . Third, and last, the resulting phonological interlanguage from this learning strategy would be systematic, stable, and resistant to most of the external variables such as time, the teaching setting and context, study level, and exposure.

4. Research Questions

The questions that this research works aims at answering are: what is the nature of the phonological interlanguage of the students of English at the University of Constantine? Has it got the same characteristics that are of a universal nature as postulated by researchers in the area of second language research? Is it of an idiosyncratic nature or a collective one? Is it constantly moving towards the target language or is it of a more stable nature because resisting to external variables such as pedagogical means? What are the assumptions of the students about the sound system of English and their beliefs about the distance between this system and the other

phonological systems surrounding it? What are the roles of all of the mother tongue, i.e. dialectal Arabic, Standard Arabic, and Standard French in shaping this interlanguage and can these systems co work in order to determine the learners phonological output? How can teaching oral expression and listening comprehension improve their performance taking into consideration all these characteristics?

5. Research Tools

To verify these hypotheses, the interlanguage of two groups of advanced students (third year and fourth year) is analyzed. This is achieved by recording their oral performance over one year regular study sessions for each group. A comparative study is made between the results obtained from the third year group and the fourth year one taking into consideration the time elapsed between recording and analysing the first group and doing it for the second one. The phonological interlanguage pattern resulting from the first and second recordings is systematically tested on a representative sample of the BA four years of study for more reliable findings. As the outcome of the research will serve to suggesting an alternative to the way pronunciation, within oral expression and listening comprehension, is taught, a group of teachers is also included in this test. Furthermore, the performance of four senior lecturers during a videotaped doctoral viva is analysed. This is, on the one hand, to further confirm the interlanguage stability, systematicity, and resistance to some external variables and, on the other hand, to determine the teacher's role in the shaping of this interlanguage. In order to draw the necessary conclusions about the pedagogical implications, three sessions of oral expression and listening comprehension, one from each of the three first years of the BA teaching programme, are videotaped and analyzed. This is supported by a questionnaire administered to a group of teachers in order to elicit the way

pronunciation, within oral expression and listening comprehension, is taught and the various attitudes and approaches to teaching it from a larger population of teachers.

6. Structure of the Thesis

This research work is divided as follows:

In chapter one, a general survey of the main contributions to the areas of Contrastive Analysis (in both its strong version and its weak one), Error Analysis, Transfer Theory, and Markedness Theory is undertaken. It is shown that although contrastive analysts, error analysts, transfer theorists, and markedness theorists have had different attitudes to some key notions such as transfer, error, easiness and difficulty in learning, they have never really been able to utterly depart from these notions. This is because of the fact that all those notions are inevitably inherent in any approach to these fields of research. The old behaviourist marked view that transfer is a rigid and one-dimensional phenomenon has been now entirely replaced by a view of transfer as very flexible and multi-dimensional. It is one that fully takes into consideration individual differences and sociolinguistic variations throughout the two stages of the learner's conception and performance.

In chapter two, the sound inventories and stress of the two varieties of Arabic known to the learners investigated in this study are briefly described along with the various spelling representations of the written variety, which is Standard Arabic.

In chapter three, the sound inventories and stress of the two foreign languages known to these learners, namely Standard French and Standard English, are briefly described with the corresponding spelling representations of each of these two languages.

In chapter four, three groups of third year students are analysed. The analysis of their phonological interlanguage is based on a series of tapes recording their

performance during the laboratory session of oral expression and listening comprehension over one academic year. An interlanguage sample is provided for each of the regional dialects that are spoken by the informants. The findings of the error analysis are, then, systematically tested for confirmation on another group of third year students at the end of that academic year.

In chapter five, the segmental and suprasegmental performance of five groups of fourth year students, while orally presenting their assignments over one academic year, is analysed taking into consideration, again, the segmental level and some aspects of the suprasegmental one. The second error analysis is based on a series of videotapes recording the performance of the fourth year groups, some years after audio recording the first third year groups. A comparison is, then, made between the errors of the first group of students and those of the second one. The objective of such a comparison is to see whether the change in some external variables such as time, the academic level, and the linguistic one, will considerably affect the interlanguage of the learners as opposed to some internal variables such as the hypotheses and assumptions learners make about the nature of the target language norm and its relationship with the norms of the linguistic systems already known to them. Induced by the findings reached through analysing the advanced students' oral performance in the classroom and the laboratory, a test is carried out on a group of students representing all four years of the BA and a group of teachers. For further confirmation, the performance of four senior lecturers during a doctoral viva is analyzed. Those findings are examined in order to measure in a more systematic way the impact of the external variables compared to the internal ones, and to see how systematic, stable, and resistant the phonological interlanguage is across these variables such as time, learning and teaching experience, linguistic and educational levels, age, context of learning and so forth. It is also in order to see

whether these can overcome the internal ones such as the beliefs and assumptions about the target language norm and its relationship to the norms of the linguistic systems known to the informants. The conclusion reached is that the phonological interlanguage tends to be stable and characteristic of most of these informants despite the difference in all these external variables. This is because the informants hold more or less the same beliefs and assumptions about the nature of the target norm and its relationship with the norms of the other linguistic systems known to them.

In line with the modern trend, transfer is shown, through this error analysis, to operate more as a learning strategy than as an unconscious process. Indeed, although the majority of the undergraduates, in both the first study and the second one, are weak or just average in French, it considerably affects their transfer. Dialectal Arabic, as a native tongue, has its share of influence, but the standard form of Arabic seems to have extremely little influence, though a great number of students excel in it. Such a contrast shows that it is the conception of the language distance that determines transfer and not so much the similarities and differences between the phonological segments and structures or the level of achievement by the learners in the mother tongue or in any other linguistic system. Some of the students' phonological errors in their performance of Arabic and French provide evidence that transfer may sometimes not be utterly mechanistic, but it is rather a strategy in learning.

A key segment that is so often misused and substituted by many other segments from both English and French is the central half close unrounded vowel /ə/. This misuse contributes enormously to making the students performance uneconomical and highly arrhythmic. This is reinforced by a failure to master the main devices of connected speech. What causes the misuse of this key segment is mainly the influence of the spelling of both English and French.

In chapter six, a brief survey of syllabus design in the area of pronunciation teaching within teaching oral and listening skills will be introduced. Then, how oral expression and listening comprehension are supposed to be taught at the department, according to the official syllabus, and how they are, more or less, taught in reality are briefly outlined and evaluated. To support the theoretical aspect, three sessions of oral expression and listening comprehension of each of the three first years of the BA in English are videotaped. The main weakness is that teachers seem to give much more credit to the intellectual aspects of these two skills at the expense of the form. This emphasis contributes to making pronunciation and comprehension problematic even for advanced students. Some general recommendations are, then, suggested for a syllabus that would give equal importance to the three components that are crucial for mastering these two skills, namely the linguistic, the intellectual and the psychological components with special emphasis on the first one. This is because it is, first, limited, teachable, and so much neglected throughout the various stages of the pre-university English curricula, and, second, it is at this level that the wrong conceptions and beliefs about the target norm may be positively altered.

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CHAPTER I

Interlanguage Studies: Literature Review

Introduction

The study of Interlanguage (the intermediate system that is neither the mother tongue nor the second language but that includes some features of both), whether for theoretical purposes or applied ones, necessitates an error analysis, since errors, whether of competence or performance, are part of the approximate system of the student. Identifying, describing, and explaining performance or competence deviancies as part of a built-in system implies contrasting two linguistic systems or more. These systems might be the mother tongue and the second language or two systems neither of which is the mother tongue. The comparison might be an intralingual one, i.e. comparing some set of rules within the same system. It might also be between the approximate system (interlanguage) of the learner and some universal tendencies in languages or what has been termed as Universal Grammar (Chomsky, 1965; White 2003). Since contrasting is inherent to any such undertaking, it is worth knowing the part of Error Analysis in Contrastive Analysis and vice-versa. Such an interrelationship can best be understood through a historical survey of these two fields of analysis, their interactions, their main figures, and their relevance to both language research and language teaching.

A historical survey of such studies might be divided into three main phases: Contrastive Analysis, Error Analysis, and transfer theory.

I.1 Contrastive Analysis

This phase started, roughly speaking, with the works of Fries (1945) on the structure of the English sentence, Haugen (1953) on the Norwegian language in America, Weinreich (1953) on language contact in Switzerland, and, finally, with the

famous work of Lado (1957) 'Linguistics Across Cultures'. The latter is considered by many to be the first systematic statement of Contrastive Analysis as a theory in contrastive linguistics, a discipline that had been prevalent in Europe notably in what had been known as comparative philology. This theory held that the major problem for any second language learner is the transfer of his mother tongue items or habits to the new language. Lado (1957:2) wrote, "Those elements that are similar to his native language will be simple for him, and those elements that are different will be difficult." Fries (1945:5) had earlier demanded for the teaching of foreign languages "an adequate descriptive analysis of both the language to be studied and the native language of the student".

This was the starting point of the whole procedure of Contrastive Analysis. Many pairs of languages were compared, especially at the syntactic level, in order to locate those areas where learning would be difficult as well as those where it would be easy. Many educational bodies, among which the Center of Applied Linguistics in Washington, founded in 1959, sponsored such undertakings.

All this took place in a period of linguistic research characterised by a structuralist climate and in a period of psychological research coloured by a behaviourist orientation. Structuralism in linguistics implied that the essence of language was to be sought through a description of its internal structure. Behaviourism in psychology implied that human behaviour was merely a response to a stimulus, i.e., an SR mechanism. Skinner, as a behaviourist psychologist, was greatly inspired by Watson's findings to describe the phenomenon of language learning. He maintained in his book 'Verbal Behavior' (1957), of which the title is quite suggestive, that language is yet another pattern of behaviour that obeys to a stimulus response process. Hence, in Skinner's view, a rat learning to press a lever to receive food as a 'reward' is not so

different from a human being learning to use vocal signals as an 'operant' to satisfy some biological needs. The early proponents of Contrastive Analysis in linguistics, inspired by the behaviourists in psychology, believed that language learning was mainly transfer of the mother tongue habits to the foreign language. Hence, Brooks (1960: 49) wrote: "The single paramount fact about language learning is that it concerns, not problem solving, but the formation and performance of habits". Success in learning was attributed to something that was termed 'positive transfer' and was thought to originate from a structural similarity between the mother tongue and the new language; failure was attributed to 'negative transfer' or 'interference' which resulted from a structural discrepancy between the two languages. The key seemed, then, to be a systematic structural comparison between the two linguistic systems in contact. In pedagogy and language teaching, errors were considered a serious hindrance to successful learning, and they had to be eradicated by persistent drills and textbooks based on a structuralist-behaviourist approach and following an audio-lingual method in teaching. Such a method flourished in the USA in the late fifties and early sixties.

1.1.1 Reactions against Contrastive Analysis

The early proponents and their inspirers soon came under severe criticism by many researchers who attempted to prove that Contrastive Analysis was theoretically inconclusive and pedagogically fruitless. Not least of those researchers who refused to share Skinner's anti-mentalist view of learning was Chomsky who managed to destroy not only Skinner's radical stand but also the entire behaviouristic position in contemporary psychology and psycholinguistics. In his review of Skinner's 'Verbal Behavior' as well as in subsequent works, Chomsky (1959:158) was able to find "no support whatsoever for the doctrine of Skinner and others that slow and careful shaping of verbal behavior through differential reinforcement is an absolute necessity".

Chomsky's criticism of the behaviourist conception of language and language learning can be summarised using his own statements:

- Language is not a habit structure. (1966:44)
- Repetition of fixed phrases is a rarity. (1966:46)
- The notion that linguistic behavior consists of 'responses' to 'stimuli' is as much a myth as the idea that it is a matter of habit and generalization. (1966:46)
- Ordinary linguistic behavior characteristically involves innovation, formulation of new sentences and new patterns in accordance with rules of great abstractness and intricacy. (1966:44)
- There are no known principles of association or reinforcement and no known sense of "generalization" that can begin to account for this characteristic "creative" aspect of language use. (1966:44)

So, instead of the behaviourist reinforcement factor in language learning, Chomsky stressed other factors such as the learner's innate mental and cognitive abilities in constructing and generating the grammar of a given language. His ideas gave rise to a new orientation in linguistic and psycholinguistic research, which resulted in much more emphasis on cognitive processes. Linguists set themselves to account for the phenomenon of language learning on the basis of such notions as innateness and creativity.

Contrastive Analysis, which flourished in the fifties and early sixties, found great antipathy from researchers of the late sixties and early seventies. Strongly associated with the 'old fashioned' behaviourist theory in language learning, it was severely condemned by a very 'up to date' cognitive trend in linguistic research. The heart of the debate between contrastive analysts and cognitivists was the notion of transfer and its importance in learning a second language. Researchers such as Dulay and Burt (1974 b) and Corder (1977) did their best to prove that very few errors in learning a second language were due to interference of the native language. Dulay and Burt, for instance, found that out of 513 errors made by 179 children, less than 5%

could be classified as interference errors, while 86% were of the same type as first-language learners make.

So, instead of investigating the role of the mother tongue, these researchers emphasised the similarity between first and second language 'acquisition' (Corder 1967), something that was referred to as the L1=L2 Hypothesis. They shifted from the study of transfer to the study of how a given learner creates hypotheses about the second language rules in the process of learning and how s/he creates his/her own grammar, which is neither that of the native language nor that of the second one. This newly conceived process of learning was called the Creative Construction Hypothesis (Dulay and Burt 1974b). The outcome of the process was referred to by different names. It was referred to as an 'approximative system' by Nemser (1971a), as an 'idiosyncratic dialect' by Corder (1971), as 'an interlanguage' by Selinker (1972), and, finally, as a 'transitional competence' by Corder (1975). The term that has been extensively used is that suggested by Selinker.

1.1.2 Three Major Weaknesses of Contrastive Analysis

Besides questioning the validity of interference from the native language as a major source of errors, the opponents of Contrastive Analysis pointed out three other weaknesses. First, most studies failed to predict all areas of difficulty. Second, similarity in structure did not always mean easiness of learning and vice-versa. Third, there was the theoretical problem of making adequate comparisons between languages, which means the problem of whether there really exists a 'translation equivalent' or a 'tertium comparationis'¹ (C. James 1980) between any two languages.

As a result, since the late sixties, there was an abandonment of the 'strong version' of Contrastive Analysis, which besides explaining the similarities and

¹ From Latin, it means the third part of the comparison. It is the quality that two things which are being compared have in common. It is the point of comparison which prompted the author of the comparison in question to liken someone or something to someone or something else in the first place.

differences between the contrasted languages, attempted to predict the areas of learning easiness and learning difficulty. Researchers in the field started to content themselves with the 'weak version', which consisted only of explaining the differences and similarities in order to contribute in setting a language typology and locating some language universals. Such a state of affairs was summarised by R. Wardhaugh (1974:181) as follows:

In contrast to the demand made by the strong version, the weak version requires of the linguist only that he use the best linguistic knowledge available to him in order to account for observed difficulties in second language learning. It does not require what the strong version requires, the prediction of those difficulties and conversely of those learning points which do not create any difficulties at all.

When the strong version was abandoned, Contrastive Analysis started to leave the ground to Error Analysis.

I.1.3 Reactions for Contrastive Analysis

C. James (1983), among many linguists, made reasonable replies to all these criticisms directed to Contrastive Analysis arguing that contrastive analysts had never explicitly made most of the claims that were refuted. As a matter of fact, they had never pretended to predict all the difficulties; they also had never suggested that transfer from the mother tongue was a result of an S. R mechanism. Furthermore, why were Contrastive Analysis and the idea of transfer from the mother tongue so closely related to behaviourism and particularly to structuralism when the latter took quite a different stance? As Corder (1975: 202) pointed out:

Structuralism in linguistics took the view that the structure of every language was *sui generis*, and therefore to be described in its own terms. Consequently, it followed logically that languages could not be compared. It was therefore somewhat paradoxical to attempt to account for learner's difficulties, which were clearly related to features of their mother tongue habits by taking a theoretically impossible task

The fierce criticism of the notion of transfer did not have enough impact on later researchers to discard it. Dulay and Burt's research (1972, 1973) was probably the most attractive in trying to refute the *a priori* Contrastive Analysis (strong version) and the value of transfer. However, in their studies carried on Spanish children what were termed developmental 'goofs'² constituted the highest percentage in the investigated data, while 'ambiguous' goofs and 'unique goofs' were left unexplained. The last two categories might be covert interference 'goofs', and if added to the overtly 'interference' ones, the whole number might largely exceed the developmental 'goofs' on the basis of which the whole argument is made. Besides, their research was carried on children, and children are less subject to interference errors because of the limitation of their linguistic and cultural backgrounds. As Corder (1975: 207) states:

It is clear that many factors play a part in causing transfer errors: age of learner being the principal one but also the formality of the learning situation and the method of teaching.

Despite all such replies to the opponents of Contrastive Analysis, it lost its value for some time until the early eighties when there were attempts to revitalise it. As a result of the setback of Contrastive Analysis, there was a much more flexible attitude to errors in teaching, which were seen more and more as inevitable in the development of second language proficiency. It was believed, as Dulay and Burt (1974:95) put it, that "you can't learn without goofing".

1.1.4 Major Contributions of Contrastive Analysis

The early contrastive analysts, stimulated by a structuralist and behaviourist spirit, were, perhaps, too enthusiastic in suggesting a key to the language learner's difficulties. Nonetheless, they contributed considerably in that period to spreading linguistic research to a lot of world languages after being confined to only a few ones. They also succeeded to a great extent in merging two disciplines that had remained for

² Dulay and Burt used the slang word 'goof' to stand for the academic one 'error'.

so long apart: language teaching and linguistics. The behaviourists also achieved a similar and no less important connection. As Halliday (1971:178) pointed out, "Skinner's intervention brought together more closely than had been achieved during the previous fifty years the disciplines of psychology and linguistics".

I.2 Error Analysis

I.2.1 Six Assumptions behind Error Analysis

Error Analysis, as a procedure in applied linguistics and as a substitute to Contrastive Analysis, was developed after the abandonment of the *a priori* Contrastive Analysis. The purpose was to gain access to the 'transitional competence', 'interlanguage', or whatever it was called, of the second language learner for two main objectives: its description and the explanation of its systematic nature. Behind this procedure, S. Pit Corder (1981) put forward six assumptions:

- a. Interlanguage utterances have a communicative purpose and are systematic. This implies that deviant utterances are part of the overall system, and, thus, ought to be of equal importance to the investigator.
- b. Interlanguage is a code, which is neither the first language nor the full second language but includes features of both and even some features which belong to neither system.
- c. The learner possesses a degree of competence in the second language, Corder called 'transitional competence', which can be described in more or less the same way as his competence in the first language.
- d. Not all utterances produced by the second language learner are indicators of an underlying system or, as Corder called it, a built-in system. Some utterances in interlanguage might be isomorphic with those of the second language, i.e., correct by the second language norms, but occur only by chance. In order to be part of the built-in

system both the deviant and the non-deviant forms have to occur with a minimum of regularity.

e. Interlanguage is described as an autonomous system just like any other linguistic system.

f. The errors are not to be considered harmful for the learner but ought to be viewed as indicators that the learner is in the process of making hypotheses and testing them to find out the nature of the second language rules.

I.2.2 Procedure of Error Analysis

Corder (1973:276) suggested as a procedure in Error Analysis, three stages:

I.2.2.1 Stage One: Recognition of the Error

At this stage the error analyst has to distinguish and separate between errors which show a breach in the code; i.e., errors of competence, and those which are accidental, i.e., errors of performance. According to Corder, errors of performance (lapses and mistakes) are not important since they are common even among native speakers themselves. As Chomsky (1965:4) put it, "A record of natural speech will show numerous false starts, deviations from the rules, changes of plan in mid course and so on". For Corder, it is the second category, errors of competence, which is of value to the error analyst because it shows him how far the learner has gone in his mastery of the second language rules.

Prior to Corder, errors had been divided according to the different levels of structural analysis: phonology, morphology, lexis, and syntax. After Del Hymes (1972:269) introduced the notion of communicative competence to complete Chomsky's linguistic competence and with the spread and development of sociolinguistic research, the pragmatic level was added to the classification of errors. Therefore, besides grammaticality errors in the broadest sense of grammar, which

include errors of phonology, morphology, lexis, and syntax; Corder, inspired by Del Hymes, added appropriateness, feasibility, and probability. The four criteria for judging learners' errors became:

i. Grammaticality: this is referred to by Del Hymes as acceptability. An utterance is grammatical or acceptable when it is possible in formal code terms. When a learner produces *'He goed to school', the breach is in grammaticality.

ii. Appropriateness: An utterance may be grammatical but not necessarily appropriate. It is not so when it does not conform to the sociocultural norms of a given language. *'Where is the bus station, mate?' is an utterance which is grammatically not erroneous, but when addressed to an English policeman, it demonstrates ignorance of the status relationship between the speaker and the hearer.

iii. Feasibility: Sometimes an utterance may be both grammatical and appropriate without being feasible. Not being feasible means that it is not easily understandable or, as Chomsky (1965:10) put it, it is not "perfectly natural and immediately comprehensible without paper and pencil analysis, and in no way bizarre or outlandish." An utterance like " I know that you believe you understand what I said, but I am not sure you realise that what you heard is not what I meant" may be both grammatical and appropriate but is still very unlikely to be accepted by a native speaker unless it happens to be in a transformational grammar class!

iv. Probability: Finally an utterance may be grammatical, appropriate, and feasible but not probable. If a second language learner utters 'I saw him five cigarettes ago', it is grammatical, appropriate, feasible, but, it just happens to be out of the sphere of common usage and, so, not probable. Such an utterance can be tolerated only from a famous writer or poet.

So, an utterance is correct only if it is in line with both Chomsky's linguistic competence, which implies the underlying knowledge of the linguistic rules, but also with Del Hymes's communicative one, which also includes knowledge of the sociolinguistic norms.

Another distinction Corder makes is between overt and covert errors. An overt error is one that is readily interpretable as part of the learner's idiosyncratic dialect such as *'He goed to school'. Here the error is clearly observed in the use of the tense. However, when a French learner of English utters 'I want to know English', it may be a covert error if what he means is 'I want to know the English people' and not 'I want to learn English'.

I.2.2.2 Stage Two: Description of the Error

At this stage, the error analyst describes the process through which the learner goes in order to end up with a 'deviant' item or idiosyncrasy. This implies a reconstruction of the utterance according to the second language norm, which means a description of what the learner actually intends. This might appear an easier task compared to the previous one, but, in reality, it represents no fewer problems. To illustrate this, let us take again an example of Corder. When a second language learner utters *'He did not know the words so, he asked a dictionary', the error is clearly in the choice of a lexical item, but what s/he actually intends is open to several possibilities, two of which might be 'consulted' or 'looked for'...

I.2.2.3 Stage Three: Explanation of the Error

The explanation of the error is more of a psycholinguistic process. The error analyst, at this stage, attempts to trace the origin of the error. Hence, s/he might see it as interference from the native language or any other linguistic system, drawing parallels between the erroneous forms and those of the source language. S/he might end up

concluding that the source of the error is one of the developmental processes in learning such as overgeneralization of the second language rules. It quite frequently happens that some errors are not readily interpretable and defy all explanations. This last stage in Error Analysis is definitely the most delicate one because of the extremely wide range of possibilities open to the error analyst. It also enormously depends on the investigator's attitudes and views as to what language and language learning are.

I.2.3 Problems in Undertaking Error Analysis

Error Analysis, as a procedure in applied linguistics, ran into many difficulties and was subject to a great deal of criticism. A lot of researchers abandoned it as a completely impractical if not impossible procedure. One of them was Bell (1974), who pointed out to many weaknesses underlying the three stages suggested by Corder. First, although there might be a few disagreements over what is grammatical in a given language, the fact that there are fairly exhaustive and fairly clear references, such as up to date grammar books, for the error analyst to use provides much more room for agreement. However, when the three remaining levels of analysis are considered, i.e. appropriateness, feasibility, and probability, the picture is reversed, and there may be much more room for conflicting attitudes as to what concords with the norms and what does not. It is merely due to the fact that research in those areas of language is relatively limited and quite recent. A second, and not least serious, problem at the stage of recognition of the errors is when to decide that an idiosyncratic utterance is an error. This means how many times should it occur before it can be decided that it is regular and characteristic of the transitional competence of the learner? Here lies a vast ground for disagreements among error analysts. Besides, a second language learner may correctly produce an utterance several times and, suddenly, fails to do it, or fails to do it on many occasions and then does it right in the same context as if by a sudden

inspiration. Furthermore, so many erroneous utterances are of no clear origin and have to be left out, and sometimes the learner may be right with respect to all of acceptability, appropriateness, feasibility, and probability just by chance. Since error frequency presents problems, Johansson (1973:102) suggested a qualitative assessment of the idiosyncratic utterance, which would be based not so much on the frequency of the error but on its degree of irritation to the native speaker. Of course, when it is irritation that is at stake, the door is wide open to very subjective considerations. Consequently, the problem of reaching an objective decision concerning the assessment of errors is hardly an easy matter. Third, a thorny question that needs to be answered is 'who is fit enough to decide about what is erroneous and what is correct? Is it the native speaker? Is it the grammar book? It seems that no person's mind and no book are inclusive of absolutely all aspects of a given language. Fourth, another difficulty in conducting an error analysis is the suitability of the data. Most error analysts have relied on a corpus of material produced by a group of informants. Certain heterogeneity in the errors produced by the same type of learners has always hampered the formulation of an objective theory and a reliable prediction of the likely errors to be made by such learners under a given set of circumstances. This has been mainly due to a false assumption that the system of one interlanguage is, in some sense, identical to another one, if the learners in question are at the same stage of learning and have the same native language. In fact, interlanguage being a linguistic system, it is subject to the same heterogeneity and the same variation as a 'normal' language. As there are idiosyncrasies in the use of one's native language, there are no less of such phenomena in the use of a second or third language. Fifth, the interlanguage of a given learner is as dynamic as any other linguistic system, which implies that it is in a constant flux either moving forward towards the target norm or falling back from it. Error Analysis has more than

often run into such a feature in understanding the nature of the system and in providing the necessary pedagogical feedback to the learner by devising an appropriate syllable.

As Bell (1974:48) put it:

Even if a single text, produced by a single informant in a single situation, were by some miracle, typical not only of the whole of an individual's interlanguage but of a group of learners, there would remain the practical problem of conducting the analysis quickly enough to make its findings applicable. The learner moves on faster than our analysis. A text of 1000 words gathered in the course of a 15 minutes interview, itself a learning process, can take up to 300 hours to analyse, providing us with post hoc insights which cannot apply any longer to the original possessor of the system.

However, the phenomenon of language is too 'slippery' a phenomenon to handle with as much accuracy and as much precision as Bell seems to demand. Linguistic generalisations and predictions cannot and will never be of the same precision as those generalisations in other fields of knowledge, especially physical sciences. In generalizing, linguists have to keep a strong sense of realism about human behaviour.

To get around the problem of recognition, description, and explanation, S. Pit Corder suggested relying on the second learner's intuitions. This implies to ask questions to the learner whenever a problem arises concerning the analysis of his utterances. However, to do so would require from the learner to share a metalanguage, i.e., a linguistic jargon, with the error analyst; otherwise, the latter runs the risk of reaching very shaky conclusions.

I.2.4 Error Analysis Vs Contrastive Analysis

Although Error Analysis came as a sort of a 'substitute' to Contrastive Analysis it bore many of its features. The idea of comparing two linguistic systems has always been inherent in the procedure of Error Analysis at all its stages. While the predicting role of Error Analysis has never been explicitly stated, it has always been implicitly adopted. Corder (1967:67) pointed out that Error Analysis is of value to the teacher

because it provides him with feedback on what the learner knows and what is left for him to know. It is of value to the psycholinguist because it reveals to him certain facts as to what underlies language learning. Finally, it is of value to the learner himself, "since the teacher adapts his teaching materials in accordance with the findings of Error Analysis." As a consequence, Error Analysis was not a remedy to the strong version of Contrastive Analysis because, in fact, it implicitly kept the predicting role of the latter. The only obvious difference between the two was that while the strong version of Contrastive Analysis took the mother tongue as the main source of errors, Error Analysis took it as only one source among others. C. James (1990:187) wrote that these two disciplines "... should be viewed as complementing each other rather than as competitors for some procedural pride of place". Selinker (1992:5) wrote:

I now understand much more of all this than before. Particularly, what I have slowly begun to realize over the years is that in studying IL and the influences that shape it, we have never left, and cannot leave, some fundamental insights inherent in CA.

1.2.5 Notion of Error: A Key Concept in Later Developments

The conception of error as inevitable and as a fundamental part of the learning process made many researchers take a different orientation. The objective was no longer the cause and the cure of the error but rather a search for universal principles governing second language learning. Hence, this discipline slipped away from applied linguistics in order to merge with language acquisition research in psycholinguistics. It indulged more and more in comparative studies between first language acquisition and second language learning, digging into problems such as interlanguage varieties, interlanguage fossilisation, and similarities and differences between interlanguage development and other processes such as creolisation, pidginisation, language attrition, and language change. The term 'interlanguage' referred in the beginning to a whole linguistic system and had a journal of its own in the seventies and early eighties (Interlanguage Studies

Bulletin). There is now a fragmented approach in which every grammatical component is dealt with separately, such as interlanguage phonology, interlanguage lexis, interlanguage pragmatics etc. Along this division of the subject matter of interlanguage studies, there is yet another division that is a separation of the knowledge and the output dimensions. Such a division matches the Chomskyan division of competence and performance. Indeed, it is assumed that since interlanguage is like any other variety of language, the learner has an underlying knowledge and an actual performance, which does not necessarily reflect the knowledge dimension in all cases. Another trend in the study of interlanguage is a sociolinguistic one, which is the assumption that interlanguage is subject, like any other linguistic system, to sociolinguistic variation. This means that the interlanguage of the learner changes according to some social variables such as the formality of the learning situation.

I.3 Transfer Theory

Jackobovits (1969:55) defined transfer in a general way as "the hypothesis that the learning of task A will affect the subsequent learning of task B". Restricting transfer to language transfer as such, Odlin (1989:27) defined it as "the influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously (and perhaps imperfectly) acquired." Selinker (1972) cited language transfer as one of the five psycholinguistic processes central to second language learning. They are constituted of language transfer, transfer of training, learning strategies, communication strategies, and strategies of overgeneralization of the target language structures. However, Jackobovits, Selinker, as well as others, while dealing with transfer as a psycholinguistic process did not show precisely in which way it operates. Wode (1981:55) pointed out that the five processes of Selinker have two weaknesses: the first is that they tend to be formulated in such global ways that they do

not show "in which way learning a language agrees with or differs from learning in other domains."; the second one is that there is no reason to assume that transfer from the mother tongue should not be part of a man's natural ability to learn a second language. Therefore, transfer is, in this way, viewed as an inevitable strategy in learning, which implies that it is conscious and cognitive.

I.3.1 Cognitive Transfer

Cognitive transfer was the key issue in Contrastive Analysis studies starting from the late seventies. As J. James (1977:7) put it, "a second language theory which allows for both a cognitive factor and the formation of habits could accommodate the discrepancies surrounding the concept of language transfer"

There was quite an amount of work, which is really of great interest on the subject of cognitive transfer. To name but a few: Taylor (1975), Kellerman (1977), J. James (1977), Sharwood Smith (1979), Jordens (1980), Wode (1981), Kellerman and Sharwood Smith (1986), Ioup and Weinberger (1987), A. R. James (1988), and Weinberger (1994).

All these researchers shared the same goal: a re-establishment of the value of transfer from the mother tongue in Error Analysis and in second language research by seeking cognitive explanations. They all tried to reach that goal by different means ranging from mere speculations to very conclusive experiments on second language learners.

Why transfer was and still is a controversial issue may have been because it has always been either taken for granted or completely rejected without being fully and clearly defined. Selinker (1969:67) pointed out to this:

Questions as to what language transfer consists of, what actually is transfer, how language transfer occurs and what types of language transfer occur have not been adequately treated in a scientific manner.

Starting from the early seventies, transfer grew to be considered a cognitive process in learning and neatly dissociated from behaviourism. Kellerman (1977:1) wrote:

It is one thing to say that young learners don't rely on their native language, but it is quite another to say, as Dulay and Burt do, that if interference phenomena were significant in second language learning, it would substantiate the behaviourist inspired C.A. hypothesis and all that that entails.

Lieberman (1975:12) pointed out that "there is no such distinction between automatised skills and cognitive ability but that all automatised skills have underlying cognitive structures". He added that "language learning involves three interrelated aspects: syntactic encoding and decoding, automatised and cognitive ability".

I.3.2 Investigations of Cognitive Transfer

Cognitive transfer has been investigated through various phenomena, among which are: a. the avoidance phenomenon, b. the transferability phenomenon, c. the language option phenomenon.

I.3.2.1. Avoidance Phenomenon

Schachter (1974:205), to argue against the opponents of the *apriori* Contrastive Analysis (the strong version), first discussed the avoidance phenomenon as a strategy in learning. The avoidance phenomenon is, perhaps, the least relative to cognitive transfer, but it is still one of its aspects. Hence, avoiding the use of an item in the second language may mean, in fact, transferring a habit from the mother tongue. A Middle Eastern Arab learner who avoids the use of English words with the voiceless bilabial stop sound /p/ is, somehow, transferring one of his mother tongue habits, which is using only words with the voiced counterpart /b/ sound. The degree of cognition of such a strategy varies from one speaker to another.

The avoidance phenomenon stirred many reactions from linguists; E. Kleinmann (1977:93) argued:

An individual cannot be said to be avoiding a given syntactic structure, morpheme, or lexical item, which he does not have in his linguistic repertoire, any more than he can be said to be avoiding doing anything which he is unable to do. To be able to avoid ... presupposes being able to choose not to avoid

Later, Kamimoto, Shrimura, and Kelleman (1992:273) criticized this phenomenon stating:

If we take a broader view of avoidance (thus turning it into a technical term) and fudge the already tricky question of appropriate knowledge, we merely turn avoidance into a synonym for underproduction.

I.3.2.2 Transferability Phenomenon

Kellerman (1977) investigated the notions that the learners of a second language have about the transferability of certain items from their mother tongue and the non-transferability of others. He attempted to prove in two successive research works that learners are fully aware of what is transferable from their mother tongues and what is not. This awareness determines the choice of items to be transferred. The learner conceives this transferability following his perception of the distance between the first language and the second one, as well as his perception of what is language specific and what is common to two or more languages. Kellerman described the phenomenon of transfer as occurring in two steps. The first one is the prediction of the transferability of certain items from the native language to the second language, which he called 'projection'. The Second one is the automatic process that actually turns the projected item into a second language representation, which he called 'conversion'. If the conversion is carried out automatically without transiting by 'projection', transfer is unconscious and follows a behaviourist S-R mechanism. However, if the 'conversion' is preceded by a 'projection', transfer is conscious and cognitive. This means: "if the

learner is gradually finding out what he can transfer, he will also find out what he can't." (1977:4)

According to Kellerman, there are three principal interacting factors that control the use of transfer: the learner's psychological structure of the native language, the perception of the native language- second language distance, and the actual knowledge of the second language. As a result, some items from a given language are likely to be more transferable than others. They are transferable following some criteria such as frequency (how frequent is the item in the language use) semantic transparency (how clear is the meaning of the item) and coreness (how concrete is that meaning). Kellerman (1977:13) referred to all such criteria as 'markedness'. He provided in this investigation and in subsequent ones many examples as evidence for his hypothesis. He noticed, for instance, the resistance of Dutch idioms to transfer (idioms are less semantically transparent than ordinary expressions), and concluded that it was due to the belief by his students that they were language specific. He investigated the case of polyemes (words having several meanings and several contexts of use) such as the word 'to break' in English and noticed that learners tended to follow a certain scale of transferability. This scale starts with items that belong to the core meaning (concrete meaning) and extends to the ones that are peripheral (much more abstract). Hence, 'he breaks his leg' is more transferable from Dutch to English than 'a cup breaks', which is even more transferable than 'she broke his heart'. The least transferable use of to break would be 'a game would break the afternoon a bit.' The same would apply to the use of the word 'blue', which refers first of all to 'colour', then to 'depression', 'jazz', and, finally to 'pornographic material'.

Sharwood Smith (1979:26) gave an example of how relexification, i.e., transfer of lexical items, is not a haphazard operation but follows a cognitive path. He stated that

the lexical item 'apple' which, for the English learner of French, equals 'pomme' can be stored for transfer as a free item and as a restricted one. The English learner of French conceives such a word as a free item in the sense that it is available for a large number of syntactic configurations. He conceives it also as a restricted item, i.e., it is available only for a limited set of syntactic configuration:

Free	Restricted
- He has my apple	* - He is the apple of my eye
- This is a bigger apple	* - He is the bigger apple of my eye than you
- How many apples have you got?	* - How many apples of your eyes have you got?
- I have four apples	* - My eye has four apples

Consequently, the English learner of French is very likely to produce the erroneous transfer error '**donne la pomme à moi**' from 'give the apple to me', but rarely or never '**il est la pomme de mon oeil**' from 'he is the apple of my eye'. The second use of 'apple' is thought to be language specific and, so, it is not attempted at all in the second language. So, through their investigations into lexical transfer, Kellerman, Sharwood Smith, along with others showed that errors are indeed inevitable, but they do not always result from an unconscious process. In other words, 'goofing' is, as Dulay and Burt put it, inevitable, but it is not totally blind.

I.3.2.3 Language Option Phenomenon

This phenomenon was debated by many linguists among whom was J. James (1977:12):

One could speculate therefore that someone learning his first language will probably make different types (and possibly produce more interference errors) than someone who has already learnt many languages or is even a trained linguist.

Corder (1981:101) stated that "Other languages known to the learner however imperfectly may in the degree to which they resemble the target language structurally, have a facilitating effect." Kellerman (1977:3) commenting on

Schachter's findings wrote "Four of the ten Arabs were Arab French bilinguals and their response alone skewed the figures." He added, to explain that:

The learner has already noted the structural differences between Arabic and French. His experience of French shows him that the relatedness of English to French is greater than English to Arabic... Hence a suspicion of Arabic like English structures.

Sjohölm (1976:7) found that L1 Finnish learners of English made errors in English that could not be traced to Finnish but rather to Swedish (their second language) or to English itself; while L1 Swedish learners of English made errors that reflected the interference of Swedish or English itself but not Finnish (their second language). Sharwood Smith (1979:74) suggested that "in multilingual systems simulations would be a more complicated business, since they would require some sort of comparator which would match the target language with the most appropriate source language." So, language option implies a decision making which determines the most appropriate language from which to transfer in the case of multilingual learners.

I.3.3 Some Later Developments

I.3.3.1 Crosslinguistic Influence

Researchers in later decades have continued along the cognitive line in handling the phenomenon of transfer. As Kellerman and Sharwood Smith (1986:6) pointed out:

The fact that the early behaviouristic approach to crosslinguistic influence is now generally viewed as invalid has not prevented the whole transfer questions from re-emerging albeit in new and more complex forms.

Note here that Kellerman and Sharwood Smith use the term 'crosslinguistic influence' as synonymous to transfer. This is justified in their collection of articles on transfer by the fact that such a use is, first, theory neutral and, second, it is much more inclusive. It is theory neutral because it excludes certain connotations belonging to the

laboratory parlance when transfer was closely associated to 'interference' and 'facilitation' in the process of learning. As they, further, pointed out (ibid. p.1):

There is simply no reason to entertain value judgements concerning psycholinguistic processes that are being investigated in their own right. The teacher and the layman may view the mixing of different language systems as a regrettable fall from grace; there is no reason why the researcher should think so as well.

According to them (ibid. p.1), the term 'crosslinguistic influence' is more inclusive in the sense that it allows:

... to subsume under one heading such phenomena as 'transfer', 'interference', 'borrowing', and L2-related aspects of language loss and thus permitting discussion of the similarities and differences between these phenomena.

It also includes not only the influence of an L1 on an L2 but also an L2 on an L3 and vice-versa. In this way the term 'crosslinguistic influence' is used irrespective of the direction of influence. Kellerman and Sharwood Smith suggest to retain the terms 'transfer' and 'interference' only when their use implies those processes that lead to the incorporation of elements from one language into another, and to be abandoned in other contexts such as 'borrowing', 'avoidance', 'language attrition' and 'language loss.' As Corder (1983:86) put it earlier the use of only 'transfer' in both a negative and a positive sense, "may perhaps constrain one's freedom of thinking" So, all transfer is crosslinguistic influence but not all crosslinguistic influence is transfer as such.

I.3.3.2 Multidimensional View of Transfer

Why transfer re-emerged in new clothing is because research into second language acquisition later spread to large areas both within and outside syntax. It had been confined in the 1970's and early 80's to the study of the grammatical morpheme and the acquisition of negation and W.H. questions. It was found, later, that the mechanisms underlying transfer in one area such as phonology are not necessarily

similar to those operating in an area like syntax. As interlanguage studies grew more and more specific and specialised, what became known as transfer theory followed the same path; findings were along several dimensions. Wode (1986:174) summarised that new stand by many researchers as regard the question of transfer as follows:

It seems to be established beyond doubt: that transfer does occur in learner language³, that transfer is developmental, i.e., that it is an integral part of how people learn language, that occurrence of transfer is systematic and not random, that transfer is constrained by the formal properties of the linguistic devices of the language involved, that there is variation in the use of transfer along several dimensions: individual variation among transfer- based learner utterances; situational or task specific variation in the sense that certain situations are more prone to trigger transfer based utterances than others; developmental variations as a function of the state of development of the learner's L1 and L2.

There is also strong evidence that transfer is subject to both psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic variation. Major (1987:107), in trying to set a model for interlanguage phonology, finds that:

Many speakers are able to correctly produce sounds and words in isolation, but in running speech they step back into L1 patterns. This suggests that in formal style the speaker is able to suppress interference processes that will reappear in more casual speech. The reason for this seems to be that in casual speech a speaker pays less attention to forms and more attention to content. However, extra linguistic facts may come into effects, such as stress, which may produce poor performance even in formal styles. In this case, interference may actually be greater in formal than in casual styles.

Schmidt (1977:25) showed that L1 Egyptian learners utter more correct 'interdental' English sounds /θ/ and /ð/ as the task and the situation become more formal. He found that there are 54% correct sounds in a reading task and 73% in a word list and in a minimal pair task. This increased 'correctness' matches an equivalent increase in the use of the above sounds as substitutes for the alveolar /s/ and /z/ respectively in comparable Arabic tasks. So, the type of L1 'phonostylistic variation'

³ 'Learner language' is synonymous to 'interlanguage'.

(i.e. the variation in the use of sounds according to style) which applies to Classical Arabic vs. Colloquial Arabic is carried over to the learning of L2.

I.3.3.3 Transfer and the Second Learner's Intuition

Corder, as dealt with earlier, suggested to recourse to the learner's intuition in describing and explaining his 'erroneous' utterances in order to account for his interlanguage. There has been a plea in the recent decades in transfer theory as well for considering the learner in establishing the equivalence between the native language utterance and the target language norm. It is argued that how a learner perceives this equivalence prior to the process of transfer is not necessarily the same as the linguist's or the specialist's perception of this equivalence leading to transfer. Whitman (1970:191) while assessing the procedure of Contrastive Analysis, pointed out; "any structural equivalencies described by the contrastivists must capture the equivalencies established by the learner himself." This discrepancy between the learner's view of transfer and that of the analyst arises mainly in interlanguage phonology because, as Chomsky and Halle (1968:293) stated, what the speaker of a language takes to be the phonetic properties of an utterance is crucially determined by "... his hypothesis as to its surface structure and his knowledge of the rules of the phonological components." Nemser (1971a:134) undertook an experimental study on the English interdental fricatives /θ/ and /ð/ produced by Hungarian learners of English. He showed that they produced these two sounds as labiodental fricatives /f/ and /v/, perceived them as alveolar stops /t/ and /d/, and produced them as alveolar fricatives /s/ and /z/ in an imitation task. He concluded:

There seems to be little reason to believe that the relationships established by bilingual speakers between the units of the two systems are of such regularity as to make their descriptions in a set of formulae feasible.

Along the same line of investigation, Wenk (1979:202) observed what is characteristic of French learners' substitutions for the English interdental fricative /ð/. He found that it is not a categorical voiced alveolar fricative /z/ or an alveolar voiced stop /d/ but a whole range of segmental variants including the alveolar nasal /n/ and the alveolar retroflex liquid /r/ within a longitudinal dimension of acquisition. In dealing with the problem of foreign sound substitution, Yavas (1982:14) also concluded that "speakers and listeners, involved in linguistic events, seem to use phonetic parameters which are not identical to the phonological features." Beebe (1980:443) carried out another study that dug into allophonic variation in the substitution of the phonemes of a second language. He found ten variants in the substitution of the target English initial voiced retroflex liquid /r/ produced by Thai learners of English. They included a voiceless retroflex, a retroflex postalveolar fricative, a retroflex postalveolar lateral, an epicoalveolar flap, and an epicoalveolar trill. These studies show that a precise production of the target sound by the learner depends on a precise perception, which is not always the case. Tropic (1983:82, in A.R. James 1983) reached more or less the same conclusion, countering the assumption that there are identical underlying forms for interlanguages and target languages. Consequently, the tendency among researchers in the area of transfer grew towards a conception of both the native language and the target language as actual manifestations of performance instead of idealising them, as it had been the case in the early days of Contrastive Analysis. Schmidt (1977:80) suggested:

The refinement required in the Contrastive Analysis is the recognition that neither the target language nor the native language can usefully be described as self-contained, homogeneous, and static system, used by an idealised speaker-hearer in a homogeneous speech community.

The above statements seem to mean a rejection of Chomsky's idealisation of the speaker's competence, in the study of transfer or crosslinguistic influence.

I.3.3.4 Markedness Theory

Another aspect of transfer that was accounted for later is the relationship between similarity of structure and easiness of learning, on the one hand, and between the difference of structure and difficulty of learning, on the other. R. Lado and the early contrastivists associated similarity of structure with easiness of learning and the difference of structure with difficulty of learning. In order to undermine the value of the strong version of Contrastive Analysis, many researchers set out in the sixties and seventies to prove that difference in structure is not always synonymous to learning difficulty and similarity not always synonymous to learning easiness. They provided strong evidence from various languages that the picture is sometimes totally reversed, i.e. that similarity may cause difficulty, and difference may cause easiness. In the area of phonology, for instance, Valdman (1976) and, later, Flege (1991), with his Speech Learning Model, suggested that the phones that have no counterpart in the first language are learnt more easily than those which have one or many. This is because the former evade interlanguage identification, and, thus, tend to be produced without previously established patterns of segmental articulation. This might explain why English diphthongs are relatively easy to most learners irrespective of their mother tongues, as Wode (1981) suggested. Eckman (1977:320) came up with a third alternative that has been known as the markedness theory. He defined markedness as:

A phenomenon A in some language is more marked than B if
the presence of A in a language implies the presence of B,
but the presence of B does not imply the presence of A...

In the area of phonology, for instance, there are languages with only voiceless obstruent phonemes like Korean, and there are languages with both voiceless and voiced obstruents like English, but there are apparently no languages with just voiced ones. So, the presence of voiced obstruents implies the presence of voiceless ones but

not vice versa, and, consequently, voiced obstruents are more marked than voiceless ones. Another example, but in the area of syntax, is that there are languages like Arabic, Greek, and Persian that have passive sentences without expressed agents, and there are languages like English, French, and Japanese that have passive sentences with and without expressed agents. However there are, as it seems, no languages that have passives with agents without also having passives without agents. Therefore, the presence of passives with agents implies the presence of passives without agents but not the reverse. In English, then, a sentence like 'The door was closed by the Janitor' is universally more marked than 'The door was closed'. On the basis of such a conception of markedness, Eckman (1977:320) specified the 'Markedness Differential Hypothesis' (MDH) as follows:

The areas of difficulty that a language learner will have can be predicted on the basis of a systematic comparison of the grammars of the native language, the target language, and the markedness relations stated in Universal Grammar, such that, a) those areas of the target language which differ from the native language and are more marked than the native language will be difficult; b) the relative degree of difficulty of the areas of the target language which are more marked than the native language will correspond to the relative degree of markedness; c) those areas of the target language which are different from the native language but are not more marked than the native language will not be difficult.

In the area of phonology, the 'Markedness Differential Hypothesis' can, for instance, account for many of the learners' difficulties. For instance, the difficulty German learners of English face in maintaining a word final voice contrast of obstruents in English and the easiness with which the English learners of French succeed in maintaining an initial voice contrast in French (Gradman 1971). Indeed, German learners of English pronounce both 'league' /li:g/ and 'leak' /li:k/ as /li:k/ while the English learners of French have absolutely no problems in distinguishing 'jet' /ʒɛ/ from 'chez' /ʃe/, despite the fact that in English the sound /ʒ/ never occurs initially and only

the voiceless /f/ does. This difference can be explained by a 'universal hierarchy of markedness in voice contrast'. German differs from English in having only voiceless /k/ word finally; English differs from French in having voiceless /f/ word initially; however, the voice contrast in word final position constitutes the most marked case, and contrast in word initial position the least marked one. Therefore, a word final voice contrast would be much more difficult to learn than a word initial one. Consequently, the difference is sometimes not enough to stir up difficulty; there has to be markedness of the structure as well. Eckman (1984:7) postulated that universal markedness relations observed in 'primary' languages may also be valid for 'interlanguages'. He stated:

Since the Markedness Differential Hypothesis predicts that a Japanese speaker learning English will learn final voiceless obstruents before learning final voiced ones, it follows that the learner's interlanguage will contain word final voiced obstruents only if it also contains voiceless ones. That is, it follows that the learner's interlanguage will conform to the same set of markedness constraints concerning final segments that primary languages obey to.

This implies, of course, that easy items are learnt before difficult ones. Later, Eckman (1991) proposed the Structure Conformity Hypothesis (CSH) which is not based on the areas of difference but rather on a claim that interlanguages obey primary language universals. So, an interlanguage can have initial and medial voice contrast without having the final one because more marked.

I.4 Summary

To sum up, we can say that Contrastive Analysis and Error Analysis have gone through different approaches and different attitudes, as regard the major concepts of these disciplines, namely error and transfer:

a. The Contrastive Analysis approach, in which all speakers' deviations from the target language norm were seen as interference from the native language and attempts were

made to predict where such deviations would occur. Later, the predictive power of Contrastive Analysis fell into discredit and the strong version was abandoned.

b. The Error Analysis approach, by which researchers set out to examine the speaker's second language errors without any pre-conceived notions as to their cause. Error Analysis was soon substituted by studies of interlanguage because of a certain conception of errors as inevitable and part of the learning process. Those who embarked on studying interlanguage cared very little for the pedagogical implications of their findings. What mattered most were the mechanisms that determine the process of learning a second language.

c. A reassessment of the value of transfer in language learning and its conception as a cognitive phenomenon which is subject to a conscious decision making and to the learner's interpretation of the nature of both L1 and L2 and the distance between them. Through this reassessment of the value of transfer, there was the rebirth of the weak version of Contrastive Analysis. Within this approach was tackled the old problem of whether difference and similarity of structure between two languages lead necessarily to difficulty and easiness in learning. It was found that difference is not enough to create difficulty of learning if the structure or the item is not universally marked.

The above approaches and attitudes may be summarised in the following table:

Phase	Attitude to Learning	Attitude to Error	Attitude To Transfer	Main Period (approx.)	Main Contributor (s)
Contrastive Analysis weak And strong version	Behaviouristic	-An obstacle to learning -Must be eradicated	The source of most deviations	Fifties and early sixties	Lado 1957
Error Analysis	Cognitive	Important for learning	Not of central importance	Late sixties and early seventies	Corder 1967
Transfer theory and markedness theory	cognitive	Not of central importance	-A conscious process and a strategy -closely related to universal properties	Late seventies and eighties	Kellerman 1977 Eckman 1977
Crosslinguistic Influence	Cognitive	Important for learning	Transfer is multidirectional and multidimensional	Late eighties and nineties	Kellerman and Sharwood Smith 1986; Odlin 1993
Structural Conformity Hypothesis and Universal Grammar	Cognitive	Important for learning	Transfer is an aspect of some universal tendencies in learning	Nineties and two thousand's	Eckman 1991, Odlin 2003

Table 1: Contrastive Analysis, Error Analysis, and Transfer Theory

It may be noticed from the previous table that transfer has always been given importance in learning by researchers. However, the notion of error ceased to be the point in transfer theory and markedness theory to be revived only later. This has been because, as dealt with previously, the latter two fields of research slipped away from applied linguistics and became part of second language acquisition research, where the pedagogical implications played second fiddle. When research was closely associated with teaching, the notion of error was of a central importance, but the more it focused

on learning, the more this notion was discarded. On the other hand, transfer has always been highly considered, but its influence on teaching stopped to be of interest ever since the strong version of Contrastive Analysis because it was only in that phase that both learning and teaching were at stake. Transfer in that phase was handled as 'negative' when it hampered learning and teaching and as 'positive' when it facilitated both. In later phases of research, those two terms were dismissed as 'value judgements'. Researchers argued that it is utterly unscientific and subjective to qualify a process in learning as 'positive' or 'negative'. However, undertaking an error analysis or an interlanguage study for the sake of contributing to the overall theory of language is one thing and undertaking it also for the sake of devising adequate teaching material might be quite another. Indeed, when someone is investigating the utterances of a learner or a group of learners just to support or refute a given theory, s/he can afford being over enthusiastic in being objective and avoid qualifying transfer as 'negative' and 'positive'. However, when one is doing so to try and improve the methods of teaching, s/he cannot help qualifying as 'negative' all that hampers learning and wastes time, energy, and resources, and as 'positive' all that facilitates learning and saves time, energy, and resources.

As it has been dealt with, the concept of transfer has been handled in a more analytical way and along several dimensions taking into consideration individual differences and sociolinguistic variations (in this way researchers freed themselves from the Chomskyan concept of idealisation in language research). On the other hand, the notion of error has not been subject to such an analytical approach. Had the notion of error remained of central importance, just like the notion of transfer, it would have undergone the same analytical probing. So, in undertaking an error analysis, one has to take into consideration the individual differences along a sociolinguistic scale of variation and ought not to be too meticulous in seeking ideally homogeneous groups of

students. Indeed, handling human language is like handling an eel for it is one of those dynamic phenomena that are ever in a state of flux. Therefore, no matter what is done, it is always difficult to reach very firm conclusions.

Conclusion

All in all, There seems to be many constraints on language transfer that make of it multidirectional and multidimensional (Ellis 1995: 315-335; Larsen-Freeman, Long 1991: 101-107):

- a) Language Level (which level of language and to what extent?)
- b) Sociolinguistic Factors (The nature of the task and the sociolinguistic setting)
- c) Markedness (unmarked forms are transferred, but learners resist transferring marked forms)
- d) Prototypicality (native speakers have an intuition of which lexical items are marked or 'prototypical')
- e) Language Distance and Psychotypology (actual distance between languages, or at least how it is conceived, affects transfer)
- f) Developmental Factors (transfer interacts with natural principles of L2 acquisition).

The error analysis that will be taken in this study will show that language level is not so significant, at least in the learning setting in which it is undertaken. It is one in which three linguistic systems play a role to various degrees in shaping the phonological interlanguage of the learners. The next two chapters will be devoted to describing the sound inventory of these three systems in addition to the target one and detailing the various spelling representations of these sound inventories, as the spelling representations seem to play a central role in many types of errors the learners make.

CHAPTER II

Sound Inventory and Stress of the Varieties of Arabic Known to the Informants

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CHAPTER II

Sound Inventory and Stress of the Varieties of Arabic Known to the Informants

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is a phonetic description of the sound inventory and stress of the informant's mother tongue, Dialectal Arabic, and those of the standard form of Arabic. Each sound of the standard variety is attributed its spelling or spellings, as the kind of relationship between spelling and pronunciation that the learners establish in their minds before moving on to learning a different set of relations in the next system is of central importance to their strategies in phonological learning. Before undertaking this description, it is worth stating the universal criteria or features by which it will be done. Then, it is of importance to situate these two systems within the spectrum of Arabic spoken and used all over the Arab World and elsewhere.

II.1 Criteria for Classifying Sounds

The sounds of the two varieties of Arabic will be described using some universal criteria to describe world languages.

II.1.1 Vowels

They will be classified using the system of Cardinal Vowels suggested by the British phonetician Jones (1917, 1997) to classify the English vowels. This system has been used to classify world languages by the following phonetic features:

- a. The part of the tongue: Whether it is the front, the centre, or the back of the tongue that is raised to the palate or lowered from. The part of the tongue determines whether a vowel is front, central, or back.
- b. The distance between the part of the tongue and the palate: Whether the distance is close, intermediate, or far. This distance determines whether a vowel is close, half-close, half-open, or open. Because the distance is not very distinctive in the case of some vowels, some phoneticians use a less detailed description and opt for three

positions: high, mid, and low. In this way, the half-close and half-open positions are merged into only a medium position.

- c. The shape of the lips: Whether the lips are rounded or spread. The shape determines whether the vowel is rounded or unrounded.

Other criteria of classification have been added considering the specificities of some languages such as orality vs. nasality, i.e. whether, in the production of a given vowel, the air moves out of the oral cavity, in which case the vowel is oral, or out of the nasal cavity, in which case the vowel is nasal.

II.1.2 Consonants

The following criteria have been used by phoneticians and phonologists to classify the consonants of world languages:

- a. The state of the glottis: Whether the vocal cords vibrate or not (voiced vs. voiceless)
- b. The passage of the air: Whether the air goes only through the oral cavity (oral), only through the nasal one (nasal), or through both (nasal).
- c. The place of articulation: It refers to the point of contact between the speech organs in the production of the sound (labial, dental, alveolar, velar, palatal, uvular, pharyngeal, laryngeal etc. with their subdivisions)
- d. The manner of articulation: It is the manner in which the air stream flows out of the oral cavity (continuant or stop with their subdivisions) and whether the articulation is consonantal or vocalic. If it is with a major obstruction to the airflow, it is consonantal. If, on the other hand, it is without a major obstacle, it is vocalic. In the latter case, the consonant may be classified as a semi-vowel, in the sense that it is phonetically produced without a major obstacle to the airflow, but, phonologically (or functionally), it occurs at the margins of syllables, not at the centre.
- e. Syllabicity: Finally, whether the consonant may be syllabic or not, i.e. whether it may phonologically function as a vowel and be the centre of a syllable or not. One

consonant that may be the centre of a syllable, and therefore a syllabic one is the English /l/ as in the word 'battle' [bæ tɫ].

II.2 Delimiting the Phonology of the Algerian Dialects

Crystal (1980) defines dialect as:

A regionally or socially distinctive variety of a language, identified by a particular set of words and grammatical structures. Spoken dialects are usually also associated with a distinctive pronunciation, or accent. Any language with a reasonably large number of speakers will develop dialects, especially if there are geographical barriers separating groups of people from each other, or if there are divisions of social class. One dialect may predominate as the official or standard form of the language, and this is the variety that may come to be written down. (1980:110)

One cannot help noticing what is circular in such a definition. According to him, Languages develop into dialects and dialects may predominate to become languages. In fact, if languages are not dialects, they, then, must be standard ones. Historically speaking, standard languages developed from dialects and any dialect may be standardised. To say, however, that a language may develop dialects is something that is hard to verify. The Quraishi dialect that was standardised and that is supposed to be the ancestor of Modern standard Arabic continued to be used as a medium of everyday life and developed along that line. However, the standardised version, though much similar to the dialect in the very beginning, followed a different path, which is that of a standard form, to become the present *état de langue*. The dialects used nowadays in the Arab World are continuations of the dialects of the Muslim conquerors and not some corruption of the standard form of Arabic, as it is believed mostly out of the academic circle. This is reflected in many features that are now in the Arab dialects and that were alien to the Quraishi one. For instance, some sounds such as the voiced oral velar stop /g/, to which the standard norm is the voiceless oral uvular stop /q/, and the voiceless oral palato-alveolar fricative /tʃ/, to which the standard norm is the voiceless oral velar stop /k/, were used in some dialects of pre-Islamic Arabian Peninsula and are still used.

They spread with the Muslim conquerors to what became the Arab World. These sounds were alien to the Quraishi dialect before standardization and after. To use a zoological analogy, a dialect is like a donkey and a standard language is like a mule: A dialect can give birth to a standard but the latter cannot give birth to anything else but a further state of its system. Both systems co-exist and interact but their different functions determine their different natures.

There also seems to be confusion between some dialectal features of the Algerian dialect and code switching. On the one hand, there are loan words, which, with the passage of time, become part of it and adapt to its phonological, morphological, and syntactic structures. These are used by all its native speakers, regardless of age, class, and degree of literacy. On the other hand, code switching is when some bilingual people deliberately shift between two systems for various purposes, such as filling a semantic gap. Numerous studies concur on some basic characteristics of code switching such as the awareness of the speaker that s/he is handling two systems at a time and the systematic abiding by the structures of both systems (Huerta 1978; Poplack 1980; Gumperz 1982; Bentahila and Davies 1983). The following two dialogues in one of the Algerian dialects might clarify such a difference between the two cases in point.

Dialogue One: Code Switching between Dialectal Arabic and French

a. Speaker A: غدوة جيب معاك **la veilleuse pour la tester.**

/ʁudwa dʒi:b mʕæk la veʝøz pur la teste/

'Bring the night light with you tomorrow to test it'

b. Speaker B: غدوة أن شاء الله **sans problème.**

/ʁudwə ʔanʃa:llah sã prɔblɛm /

'Ok, tomorrow, then. All right'

Dialogue Two: Using only Dialectal Arabic

a. Speaker A: غدوة جيب معاك الفيوزة باش نسيوها

/ʁudwə dʒi:b m^ʕæk ʔəlfæjju:zə bæ:ʃ nsijji:whə/

'Bring the night light with you tomorrow to test it'

b. Speaker B: . غدوة أن شا الله. متهنى.

/ʁudwə ʔənʃa:llæh məthænni /

'Ok, tomorrow, then. All right'

In dialogue one, both speaker A and B code switch from Algerian dialectal Arabic to French. Starting from the object of the verb in the utterance of Speaker A, all becomes in French and abides by its phonological, morphological, and syntactic rules. All that is before the object abides by the rules of the dialect, and the utterance entirely abides by the syntactic rules of both systems. Hence, the order, which applies to both systems, is the adverb of time, the verb, the object and then the complement. Such an utterance can only be produced by someone who has both systems under control, i.e. someone who has the Algerian Dialectal Arabic as a native tongue and is literate in the academic form of French. It cannot be fully understood unless the hearer also controls both systems. In the second dialogue, however, all the utterance abides solely by the phonological, morphological, and syntactic rules of the Algerian Arabic Dialect. The word *الفيوزة* /ʔəlfæjju:zə/ '**la veilleuse**' 'the night light' is not French but only originates from it and has become a lexical element of the dialect. It is not at all different from the word 'café' /kæfe/ originating from French but phonologically adapted to English just like the hundreds of words that English borrowed from French during the Norman rule. It is prefixed with the Arabic definite article 'al' and is inflected with the vowel /ə/ at the end to indicate that it is of a feminine gender and may take the Arabic regular feminine plural to become *فيوزات* /fəjju:zæ:t/ '**veilleuses**' 'night lights'. This lexical item is part of the lexical inventory of all people speaking the dialect no matter what their age, gender, and degree of literacy is. In Pronunciation, the voiced labiodental fricative /v/ has become the voiceless counterpart /f/ to fit the Dialectal Arabic sound

inventory. Some of these loan words may have synonyms originating from Arabic or any other language. Hence, the word الفيوزة /^oɛlfæjju:zə / 'la veilleuse', 'the night light', has no other synonym in the dialect, but a loan word like نسيبوها /nsijji:whə/ 'we will test it', that originates from the French verb 'essayer', has got a synonym that has a full Arabic descent which is نجربوها /nədjærbu:hə/. This is a case of a plain use of the dialect. A literate person in French might pronounce the word الفيوزة as /^oɛlvəjju:zə / and its plural as /^oɛlvəjju:zæ:t/ whereas an illiterate one would always use only the sounds that are possible in his mother tongue, i.e. Dialectal Arabic, where the voiceless labiodental fricative /f/ has no voiced counterpart. Some researchers refer to these loan words, but they tend to use the French pronunciation instead of the dialectal one. Bouhadiba (1988:19), for instance, provides the following examples to illustrate some of the sounds used in the dialect of Oran (a city in the west of Algeria). The use of the punctuation and the transcription is as in the original.

[y]	[by:t]	(sometimes [bunt]) 'goal, point)
[ã]	[mãda]	'cheque'
[œ]	[kwafœ:r]	'hairdresser'
[õ]	[kõʒe]	'leave of absence'
[ɛ̃]	[frɛ̃]	'brakes'
/p/	/pa:sa/	'he succeeded'
(/b/)	/ba:sa/	'he was convicted; he got in trouble'

An Algerian person, who is illiterate in French, can pronounce the above sounds and loan words only as follows:

/y/ as /i/	/bit/	goal (in football)
/ã/ as /an/	/manda/	money order
/œ/ as /i/	/kwæfir/	hairdresser
/õ/ as /u/	/kunʒi/	leave of absence
/ɛ̃/ as /a/	/fræ/	brakes
/p/ as /b/	/ba:sa/	he succeeded (not used in the East)
/b/	/ba:sa/	he was convicted; he got in trouble

The pronunciation suggested by Bouhadiba is that of someone who is literate in Standard French and that cannot be but a case of code switching.

The following dialectal sound inventory is based only on what is dialectal, as illustrated above, and does not take into consideration any case of code switching from the dialect to any other system, be it standard or vernacular. The dialectal varieties that will be considered are only those of Arabic descent. This excludes the dialects that are of Berber descent and that are, unfortunately, incomprehensible to the author. The illustrating examples are divided into the sounds that descend from Arabic or other languages and those that descend from French.

II.3 Sound Inventory and Stress of the East Algerian Dialects

The sound inventory is divided into vowels and consonants. There are more vowels in the dialectal variety than in Standard Arabic.

II.3.1 Vowels

The vowels are divided into simple vowels and diphthongs; there are no obvious triphthongs.

II.3.1.1 Simple Vowels

- i. /i/: it is oral, close, front, and unrounded.

Arabic or Other Descent		French Descent	
/sidi/	/ʕini/	/trisiti/	/lisi/
my master	my eye	electricity	secondary school

- ii. /i:/: it is the long counterpart of the previous vowel with more or less the same place of articulation. The difference in length between the short vowels and the long ones is not as obvious as it is the case in the dialects of the Middle East, that of the Gulf countries or that of Standard Arabic.

Arabic or Other Descent		French Descent	
/mli:h/	/smi:n/	-	-
good	fat		

iii. /æ/a/: it is oral, open, central, and unrounded as in /mæjdə/ 'dinner table' but when in an emphatic surrounding or in some French loan words it is oral, open, front, and unrounded such as in /majɖa/ 'ablution place'.

Arabic or Other Descent		French Descent	
/mʃæ/	/gʻæd/	/siræɖʒ/	/tabla/
to walk	to sit	to polish	table

iv. /æ:/a:/: it is the long counterpart of the previous vowel with more or less the same place of articulation and affected in the same way by the emphatic surrounding and the etymological origin of the lexical item. It is so short that in many cases it is hard to distinguish from the vowel /ə/.

Arabic or Other Descent		French Descent	
/bæ:n/	/ṭma:ṭam/	/siræ:dʒ/	/fira:ʒ/
to appear	tomatoes	shoe polish	road bend

v. /u/: It is oral, close, back, and rounded.

Arabic or Other Descent		French Descent	
/ḥu/	/bnu/	/biru/	/siru/
sweet	his son	office	syrup

vi. /u:/: It is the long counterpart of the previous vowel with more or less the same place of articulation.

Arabic or Other Descent		French Descent	
/ḥu:t/	/mu:t/	-	-
fish	death		

vii. /ə/: It is half-close, central, and unrounded. It is found in many contexts especially in final position and in the definite article /lə/ before words starting with a cluster as in /ləmxæddə/ 'the pillow', the plural of which is /ləmxæ:d/ 'the pillows'. It is rather difficult to distinguish, in many cases, between this vowel and the short vowel /æ/ because of a rather quick rhythm of speech.

Arabic or Other Descent		French Descent	
/kəskæs/	/səllu:m/	-	-
steamer	ladder		

viii. /o/: It is half-open, back, and rounded. Such a vowel is found mainly in French loan words as in /bosta/ 'post office'. The vowel /u/ may also become /o/ in emphatic surrounding even in words of Arabic or other descents than the French one.

Arabic or Other Descent		French Descent	
/ʔəlot/	/mazlot/	/sorta/	/soti/
down	broke	hospital leave	jump

The following table classifies the vowels of the Eastern Algerian Dialects:

Vowel	Oral	front	central	back	close	mid⁴	open	rounded
i	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	-
i:	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	-
æ/a	+	+	+	-	-	-	+	-
a:	+	+	+	-	-	-	+	-
u	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+
u:	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+
ə	+	-	+	-	-	+	-	-
o	+	-	-	+	-	+	-	+

Table 2: Phonetic Features of Vowels in Dialectal Arabic

⁴ A term used by some phoneticians, which includes both half-close and half-open.

II.3.1.2 Diphthongs

An analysis of the Algerian Eastern Dialects reveals that there are four obvious diphthongs. Another analysis could establish, perhaps, a vowel plus a glide consonant instead of a combination of two vowels.

i. /ei/

Arabic or Other Descent		French Descent	
/meidə/	/feidə/	–	–
table	benefit		

ii. /ai/

Arabic or Other Descent		French Descent	
/maidə/	/raib/	–	–
ablution place	yogurt		

iii. /aʊ/

Arabic or Other Descent		French Descent	
/braʊt/	/zaura/	–	–
wheelbarrows	blanket		

iv. /əʊ/

Arabic or Other Descent		French Descent	
	/əʊ/	–	–
I cannot believe it!			

II.3.2 Consonants

i. /b/: It is voiced, oral, bilabial, consonantal, non-syllabic, and stop. This sound has no voiceless counterpart as a phoneme, but there may be some voiceless allophonic variation as when it precedes a voiceless sound such as /k/. An example would be the word /jæbki/ 'he cries', pronounced in connected speech as /jæpki/:

Arabic or Other Descent		French Descent	
/bæ:b/	/shæ:b/	/bifi/	/bata/
door	clouds	dresser	tin

ii. /t/: It is voiceless, oral, consonantal, non-syllabic, and stop. It is a denti-alveolar /t^s/ in some regions such as Jijel, Mila, Constantine, and most of the South East and the South West. It is an interdental /t/ in some North East regions such as Annaba, Guelma, Souk Ahras, Ain Baida, and Khenchla. It is a dental /t/ in most of the regions of Algiers; it is a palato-alveolar /t^l/ in some Eastern regions such as Skikda, Azzaba, and Collo. When it is in words originating from French, the general tendency is to use a dental place of articulation except in the southeastern and the southwestern regions where it is a denti-alveolar even when it occurs in Arabized French words.

Arabic or Other Descent		French Descent	
/tlæ:tə/	/sættə/	/sirtu/	/trikku/
three	six	particularly	sweater

iii. /t̤/: It is the velarised emphatic counterpart of the sound /t/ with a dental articulation. The emphatic consonants also affect the surrounding vowels and consonants in the Algerian dialects, which become also emphatic. Hence, all the sounds of words like /t̤al/ 'to appear', /d̤al/ 'to keep on' or 'shadow' are emphatic, whereas none is in a word such as /mæ/ 'to get fed up' or /bæ/ 'to wet'.

Arabic or Other Descent		French Descent	
/t̤ri:q/	/t̤ma:t̤am/	/t̤abla/	/bart̤ma/
road	tomatoes	table	flat

iv. /d/: It is voiced, oral, dental, consonantal, non-syllabic, and stop.

Arabic or Other Descent		French Descent	
/bærd/	/dwə/	/ru:d/	/lædwæn/
cold	medicine	street	customs

v. /d̥/: It is the velarised emphatic counterpart of the sound /d/.

Arabic or Other Descent		French Descent	
/d̥arb/	/d̥wa/	-	-
hitting	to shine		

vi. /k/: It is voiceless, oral, velar, consonantal, non-syllabic, and stop.

Arabic or Other Descent		French Descent	
/kælb/	/kæmfə/	/brik/	/karta/
dog	handful	brick	card

vii. /g/: It is voiced, oral, velar, consonantal, non-syllabic, and stop.

Arabic or Other Descent		French Descent	
/gri:b/	/mæ:ræg/	/garaʒ/	/garantʃi/
close	bad	garage	guarantee

viii. /m/: It is voiced, nasal, bilabial, consonantal, non-syllabic, and stop.

Arabic or Other Descent		French Descent	
/mqas/	/rmæl/	/mæʃinə/	/masso/
scissors	sand	machine	builder

ix. /n/: It is voiced, nasal, alveolar, consonantal, non-syllabic, and stop.

Arabic or Other Descent		French Descent	
/næmlə/	/nif/	/bænæ:n/	/kuzinə/
ant	pride	banana	kitchen

The nasal /ŋ/ also occurs but only as an allophone resulting from assimilation. This is when the voiced dental nasal stop /n/ occurs before the voiceless velar oral stop /k/, as in /muŋkar/ 'evil act', or before the voiced oral velar stop /g/ as in /fiŋgə/ 'gallows', or before the voiceless uvular oral stop /q/ as in /zæŋqa/ 'street'.

x. /f/: It is voiceless, oral, labio-dental, consonantal, non-syllabic, and continuant. This voiceless fricative has no voiced counterpart.

Arabic or Other Descent		French Descent	
/fælfəl/	/fi:l/	/færməsʒæn/	/fæmiliə/
pepper	elephant	chemist	family

xi. /s/: It is voiceless, oral, alveolar, consonantal, non-syllabic, and continuant.

Arabic or Other Descent		French Descent	
/sænslə/	/ʕæssæ:s/	/sumi/	/sizi/
chain	guard	bed base	seizure

xii. /ʒ/: It is the velarised emphatic counterpart of the sound /s/.

Arabic or Other Descent		French Descent	
/ ʃħa:b/	/rʃa:sə/	/ ʃaʒi/	/ ʃorta/
friends	bullet	bag	hospital leave

xiii. /θ/: It is voiceless, oral, interdental, consonantal, non-syllabic, and continuant. It is used in some regions of the High Plateaus, such as Setif, Guelma, Ain Beida, Khenchla. Elsewhere, it is realized as the voiceless dental stop /t/ and as some of its variants.

Arabic or Other Descent		French Descent	
/ θu:m/	/ʔəθlæ:θ/	-	-
garlic	Tuesday		

xiv. /ð/: It is voiced, oral, interdental, consonantal, non-syllabic, and continuant. It is used in the same regions where the voiceless counterpart /θ/ is used. Elsewhere, it is realized as the voiced dental stop /d/.

Arabic or Other Descent		French Descent	
/ ðhæb/	/ða:g/	-	-
gold	to taste		

xv. /d̥/: It is the velarised emphatic counterpart of the sound /ð/. It is used in the same regions where the non-emphatic /ð/ is used. Elsewhere it is realized as the dental velarised emphatic /d̥/.

Arabic or Other Descent		French Descent	
/d̥almə/	/d̥har/	–	–
darkness	back		

xvi. /ʃ/: It is voiceless, oral, palatal, consonantal, non-syllabic, and continuant.

Arabic or Other Descent		French Descent	
/ʃæms/	/ʃæmʕə/	/ʃæbbu/	/ʃali/
sun	candle	hat	chalet

There are few occurrences of the voiceless palato-alveolar /tʃ/, as in the word /tʃæxtʃuxə/ 'a popular meal' pronounced in some regions as /ʃæxtʃuxə/ or in /tʃi:nə/ 'orange' or the verb /tʃæk/ 'to prick'.

xvii. /ʒ/: It is voiced, oral, palato-alveolar, consonantal, non-syllabic, and fricative. Some regions use the fricative /dʒ/.

Arabic or Other Descent		French Descent	
/ʒæməʕ/	/ʒæmra/	/ta:ʒ/	/farmaz/
mosque	ember	floor	cheese

xviii. /r/: It is voiced, oral, post alveolar, consonantal, non-syllabic, and approximant⁵.

Arabic or Other Descent		French Descent	
/lard/	/qærd/	/rusi/	/rasa/
earth	monkey	receipt	race

xix. /z/: It is voiced, oral, alveolar, consonantal, non-syllabic, and continuant.

⁵ Since this sound tends to be a trill, in the error analysis it is transcribed as /ɹ/.

Arabic or Other Descent		French Descent	
/zin/	/zarbijə/	/zæ:ligu/	/rizwar/
good looking	carpet	French bean	razor blade

xx. /l/: It is voiced, oral, alveolar, consonantal, non-syllabic, and continuant (lateral). In emphatic surroundings, this sound is darkened as in /ɖal/ 'shadow' or 'to keep on' compared to /dæl/ to 'diminish'.

Arabic or Other Descent		French Descent	
/li:l/	/bsal/	/fælizə/	/bulisi/
night	onion	suitcase	policeman

xxi. /j/: It is voiced, oral, palatal, vocalic, non-syllabic, and glide.

Arabic or Other Descent		French Descent	
/mzijə/	/dænjə/	/tablijə/	/jaju:rt/
favour	life	apron	yogurt

xxii. /w/: It is voiced, oral, bilabial and velar, vocalic, non-syllabic, and glide.

Arabic or Other Descent		French Descent	
/wælu/	/qawwə/	/batwa:r/	/binwa:r/
nothing	strength	slaughterhouse	bath tub

xxiii. /h/: It is voiced, oral, glottal, vocalic, non-syllabic, and continuant.

Arabic or Other Descent		French Descent	
/mæhbu:l/	/hlæ:l/	-	-
mad	crescent moon		

xxiv. /ʔ/: It is voiceless, oral, glottal, consonantal, non-syllabic, and sonorant.

Arabic or Other Descent		French Descent	
/ʔiza:r/	/ʔiti:m/	-	-
bed sheet	orphan		

xxv. /ʕ/: It is voiced, oral, pharyngeal, consonantal, non-syllabic, and fricative.

Arabic or Other Descent		French Descent	
/ʕarbi/	/ʕɕijjə/	-	-
Arab	walking stick		

xxvi. /χ/: It is voiceless, oral, velar, consonantal, non-syllabic, and fricative.

Arabic or Other Descent		French Descent	
/xriːf/	/xmi:rə/	-	-
autumn	yeast		

xxvii. /q/: It is voiceless, oral, uvular, consonantal, non-syllabic, and stop.

Arabic or Other Descent		French Descent	
/qaːdʒi/	/sarqə/	-	-
judge	theft		

xxviii. /ʁ/: It is voiced, oral, uvular, consonantal, non-syllabic, and fricative.

Arabic or Other Descent		French Descent	
/ʁæːbəl/	/ʁraːb/	-	-
forest	crow		

xxix. /ħ/: It is voiceless, oral, pharyngeal, consonantal, non-syllabic, and fricative.

Arabic or Other Descent		French Descent	
/ħraːm/	/ħarb/	-	-
prohibited	war		

The following table classifies the consonants of the Algerian Arabic dialect:

	Voiced	Oral	Bi labial	Labio Dental	Dental	Inter- dental	Alveolar	Palato alveolar	Post alveolar
b	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
t	-	+	-	-	+	-	+	+	-
ṭ	-	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	-
d	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	-
ḍ	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	-
k	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
g	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
m	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
n	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
f	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-
s	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
š	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
θ	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-
ḏ	+	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-
ḏʻ	+	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
ʃ	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
ʒ/dʒ	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
r	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
z	+	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
l	+	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
j	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
w	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
h	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
ʔ	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
ʕ	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
x	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
q	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
ɣ	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
ħ	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 3: Phonetic Features of Consonants in Dialectal Arabic (Part I)

	Palatal	Velar	Uvular	glottal	Pharyngeal	Stop	Approximant	Affricated	Glide	Lateral	Consonantal	Syllabic
b	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-
t	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	-	-	+	-
ʈ	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-
d	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-
ɖ	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-
k	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-
g	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-
m	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-
n	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-
f	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
s	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
ʃ	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
θ	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
ð	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
ɸ	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
ʧ	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
ʒ/dʒ	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	+	-
r	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	-
z	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
l	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	-
j	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-
w	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-
h	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
ʔ	-	-	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-
ʕ	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
x	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
q	-	-	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-
ɣ	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
ħ	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	-

Table 3: Phonetic Features of Consonants in Dialectal Arabic (Part II)

II.3.3 Stress

There is more and more interest in the suprasegmental aspects of the North African dialects including the Algerian one. Barkat (2000) attempted an acoustic investigation of the proportion of vocalic intervals and the standard deviation of consonantal intervals in six dialects (Morocco, Algeria, Tunisia, Egypt, Syria and Jordan) using procedures put forth by Ramus & al (1999). The subjects of Barkat who were linguistically naïve native speakers of Arabic from various regions in the Arab world were able to identify successfully speakers as belonging to North Africa or the Middle East in 97% of the time, during a listening task. On the same task, native speakers of French with no knowledge of Arabic were able to discriminate between the two regions in 56% of the time only. The results, however, were reported to be statistically significant. They show that complex syllable and reduced vowels in the Western dialects, and longer vowels in the Eastern dialects seem to be the main factors responsible for differences in rhythmic structures.

In the North African dialects stress falls on the last syllable when it is heavy otherwise the penultimate is stressed. In the Eastern dialects, stress may move to the antepenultimate syllable in forms where the three final syllables are light (CVCVCV(C)). These forms are not found in North African dialects, which do not allow short vowels in open syllable.

In Western dialects, the combination of an iambic stress system together with a tendency to delete unstressed vowels leads to word initial clusters, which are not typically found in Eastern dialects. In Moroccan dialect of Lmnabha 'smin' /smi:n/ (fat) (ElMedlaoui 1995:139) is the cognate of the Cairene 'simin' /simi:n/ and the word for 'outside' is realized as 'brra' /brra/ in Lmnabha (ElMedlaoui 1995:157) but as 'barra' /barra/ in Cairene.

II.4 Standard Arabic

Standard Arabic refers to the written form that is used in the official and academic contexts in the Arab World. Its ancestor is Classical Arabic, a language that was used in pre-Islamic Arabia by the western Hijazi tribe of Quraish in Mecca and later became the language of the Holy Quran. Some say that the version that was written at the time was different from the version that was spoken. Most scholars agree, however, that it was described and canonised in the first century A.H corresponding to the eighth century A.D (Fisher 2002:188) as non Arab Muslims grew in number and had to learn Arabic in order to understand Islam and read the Quran. In theory, there is only one version of Standard Arabic used all over the Arab World, but, in reality, there are some differences especially in pronunciation. The Gulf countries, for instance, pronounce the vowels in **أكل** /akala/ 'to eat' and in **نام** /na:ma/ 'to sleep' as central vowels even though they are not affected by neighbouring emphatic consonants. However, most of the countries of the Middle East and North Africa pronounce them as front ones except when they are affected by neighbouring emphatic consonants. Such a difference makes of the pronunciation of the Middle East and North Africa a less emphatic one than that of the Gulf countries. Other differences are:

- a. The palato-alveolar fricative sound /ʒ/ in **جمال** /ʒamal/ 'camel', which is pronounced as the palato-alveolar affricated /dʒ/ in the Gulf countries and as a velar stop /g/ in most of Egypt.
- b. The two interdental fricatives /θ/, as in **ثلاثة** /θala:θa/ 'three', and /ð/, as in **هذا** /ha:ða/ 'this', which are realized as the dental fricative /s/ and /z/ respectively in both Egypt and Sudan.
- c. The interdental emphatic fricative /d/ as in **ظل** /dʕil/ 'shadow' is realized as a dental emphatic fricative /z/ in most of Egypt, Sudan, and many countries of the Middle East.

- d. The uvular stop /q/, as in 'قليل' /qali:l/ 'little' or 'few', which is pronounced as the velar stop /k/ in some countries of the Middle East and as a uvular fricative /ʁ/ in Sudan.
- e. Finally, there are denti-alveolar and interdental realizations of the alveolar /t/ especially in Algeria and Morocco.

There have always been some differences in the description of the sound inventory of Standard Arabic among researchers both Arabs and non Arabs, a phenomenon to which the author of this thesis already pointed out (Beghoul 1984: 24). One of the main discrepancies concerns which sounds are pharyngalized and which are merely velarised (refer, for instance, to Mace (1996: vii) and Alish (2005: xvi). Such discrepancies might be due to the influence of the local dialects on the pronunciation of the academic form. Hence, these researchers when describing the norm seem to fall on their own performance of the sound system. In what follows is a description of the sounds of Standard Arabic based on the work of El-Imam (2001:357). The choice of El-Imam's version is mainly because his approach is experimental.

II.4.1 Vowels

The vowel system of Standard Arabic is one of the simplest ones compared to many languages such as French or English. It includes six simple vowels and two diphthongs. The simple vowels are divided into three short vowels and three long ones. In most cases of orthography, only long vowels and consonants appear while the short vowels are deduced from the grammatical context. An example would be the word ذهب /ðahaba/ 'to go' which is written /ðhb/ but pronounced /ðahaba/. The short vowels are spelt as diacritic marks above or under the consonants. Writing the previous verb with the short vowels would be ذَهَبَ. The pronunciation of short vowels in word final position to mark grammatical inflections is not compulsory except for the purists. Hence an utterance like 'جاء الولد' 'the child came' may be pronounced as /dʒa:ʔalwaladu/, the

last vowel of which indicates that it is the subject of the verb, or /dʒa:ʔalwalad/ without the inflection, and the grammatical function, in this case, is inferred from the context. Where the short vowels are always orthographically represented is in the Holy Quran editions, children's books, and any cases where there is a need to clear out all grammatical ambiguity. It is said that early Arabic orthography was void of any dots or vowels. Hence, the following words were written in exactly the same way: قيل /qi:la/ 'it was said', قتل /qutila/ 'he/it was killed', فيل /fi:l/ 'elephant' and قبل /qabla/ 'before'. The vowels of Standard Arabic may be classified taking into consideration the phonetic features that have been applied to Dialectal Arabic above.

II.4.1.1 Simple Vowels

i. /i/: it is oral, close, front, and unrounded. In spelling, it is realized as a diacritic mark under the consonant **ـِ**, called 'kasra' or as part of two diacritic marks under the consonant **ـِي**. The second diacritic mark, in the latter case, stands for the sound /n/ to form what is known in Arabic as 'Attanwin'. This has many grammatical functions, one of which is indicating an indefinite article:

ـِ	ـِي
شَهِدَ	فِي مَنْزِلٍ
/ʃahida/	/fi:manzilin/
to witness	in a house

ii. /i:/: it is the long counterpart of the previous vowel with more or less the same place of articulation. In spelling, it is realized as **ـِي** word medial and as **ي** word final:

ـِي	ي
سَبِيلٍ	أَمَامِي
/sabi:l/	/ʔama:mi:/
way	in front of me

iii. /a/⁶: it is oral, open, central or front, and unrounded. In spelling, it is realized as the diacritic mark above the consonant َ 'fatha' or as part of 'Attanwin' ِ.

َ	ِ	ا
ضَرَبَ	شَمْساً	هَذَا
/ɖaraba/	/ʃamsan/	/ha:ða/
to strike	a sun	this

iv. /a:/: it is the long counterpart of the previous vowel with more or less the same place of articulation. In spelling, it is realized as part of َ when word initial, as ِ when word medial, and as ى when word final. It is exceptionally realized as ِ:

as part of َ	ا	ى	ِ
آل محمد	أمام	منى	هَذَا
/ʔa:lumuhammad/	/ʔama:m/	/muna:/	/ha:ða/
Mohammad's family	'In front of'	'wish'	'this'

Just as the diacritic mark above the consonant or 'fatha' may exceptionally stand for /a:/, the letter ا may be silent. The two cases may be exemplified by the word هَذَا 'this' /ha:ða/.

v. /u/: It is oral, close, back, and rounded. In spelling, it is realized as the diacritic mark above the consonant ُ or as part of 'Attanwin' ُو:

ُ	ُو
يَأْكُلُ	شَمْسٌ
/jaʔkul/	/ʃamsun/
'He/it eats'	'a sun'

vi. /u:/: It is the long counterpart of the previous vowel with more or less the same place of articulation. In spelling, it is realized as ُو word medial and as ُوا word final:

⁶ This vowel is mostly not emphatic just like the one of the dialectal forms.

و
جنون
/dzunu:n/
'madness'

وا
رحلوا
/raħalu:/
'they left'

Vowel length is contrastive in standard Arabic. A minimal pair like 'جمال' /dzamal/ and 'جمال' /dzama:l/ mean 'camel' and 'beauty' respectively.

The following table classifies the vowels of Standard Arabic:

Vowel	Oral	front	central	back	close	mid	open	rounded
i	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	-
i:	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	-
a	+	+	+	-	-	-	+	-
a:	+	+	+	-	-	-	+	-
u	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	+
u:	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	+

Table 4: Phonetic Features of Vowels in Standard Arabic

II.4.1.2 Diphthongs

The two closing diphthongs /aj/ and /aw/ in Standard Arabic occur when the two glides /j/ and /w/ are preceded by a vowel (El-Imam 2001:357). The diphthong /aj/ may be found in such words as 'جيد' /dʒajjid/ 'good', and the diphthong /aw/ in such words as 'حوّل' /hawwal/ 'to change'.

i. /aj/

As part of سيّ

سيّد

/sajjid/

'master'

ii. /aw/

As part of **و**

خو

/xawwala/

'to authorize'

II.4.2 Consonants

There are no less than 28 consonants in Standard Arabic. These consonants may be classified taking into consideration the same phonetic features applied to the classification of the sounds of Dialectal Arabic. The examples provided to illustrate them are transcribed without the final vowels and 'tanwin' marking the grammatical inflections, except in the case of the grammatical category of verbs. Some researchers have the tendency to over represent the sound system of Standard Arabic using the Arabic alphabet. As an example, Schultz, Krah, and Reuschel (2000:5) divide the Arabic letters into letters in isolated positions, letters in final positions, letters in medial positions, and letters in initial positions. According to them, the letter representing the sound /x/, for example, should be written as **خ** in isolated position, **خـ** in final position, **خ** in medial position, and **خ** in initial position. In the case of this sound and many others, there does not seem to be a difference between the spelling in final position and in isolated position, on the one hand, and between the spelling in initial position and that in medial one, on the other. This is because the extra straight line belongs to the previous letter in both final and medial positions. Here are the consonants of Standard Arabic and their spellings:

i. /b/: It is voiced, oral, bilabial, consonantal, non-syllabic, and stop. In spelling, it is realized as **ب** word initial and word medial and as **ب** in final position. It has no voiceless counterpart as a phoneme in Standard Arabic, but there may be some voiceless allophonic variation in reality as when this sound precedes a voiceless sound such as

/t/. An example would be the word 'ابتسام' /ibtisa:m/ 'smile', pronounced as /iptisa:m/ in less careful articulation:

ب	ب
بات	تاب
/ba:ta/	/ta:ba/
'to become'	'to repent'

ii. /t/: It is voiceless, oral, alveolar, consonantal, non-syllabic, and stop. It is influenced by its dialectal counterpart in the performance of Algerian learners. In spelling, it is realized as ت word initial and word medial and as ت or ة or ءة word final. The final letter ءة may not be pronounced, and the letter ة may be pronounced as /h/. Such options are only if the following vowel or the following 'tanwin' is not pronounced:

ت	ة	ة	ت
تائه	فتاة	حمامة	فتات
/ta:ʔh/	/fata:t/	/ħama:matun/	/futa:t/
'lost'	'girl'	'pigeon'	'crumb'

iii. /t/: It is the velarised or dark emphatic counterpart of the sound /t/ with a dental place of articulation. The emphatic consonants in Standard Arabic, just like those in the dialectal form, affect the surrounding vowels and consonants, which become also emphatic. Hence, all the sounds of words like 'طل' /ṭalla/ 'to appear', 'ضل' /ḍalla/ 'to go astray', and 'ظن' /ḍalla/ 'to remain' are emphatic, whereas none is emphatic in a word such as 'دل' /dalla/ 'to show' or 'ذل' /ðalla/ 'to submit to'. Some of the techniques of reciting the Holy Quran seem to be how to overcome the influence of the emphatic

consonants over the surrounding vowels and consonants as well as to contain the influence of all the other aspects of connected speech, such as assimilations, contractions and so forth, on an articulate rendering of some sounds. In spelling, it is realized as **ط** in all contexts:

ط
نمط
 /namaṭ/
 'type'

iv. /d/: It is voiced, oral, dental, consonantal, non-syllabic, and stop. In spelling, it is realized as **د** in all positions:

د
بلد
 /balad/
 'country'

v. /d̤/: It is the velarised emphatic counterpart of the sound /d/. In spelling, it is realized as **ض** word initial and word medial and as **ض** word final:

ض ضلع /d̤ilʕ/ 'rib'	ض أرض /ʔard̤/ 'land'
--	---

vi. /k/: It is voiceless, oral, velar, consonantal, non-syllabic, and stop. In spelling, it is realized as **ك** word initial and word medial and as **ك** word final:

ك	ك
كبير	ذلك
/kabi:r/	/ða:lik/
'big'	'that'

vii. /m/: It is voiced, nasal, bilabial, consonantal, non-syllabic, and stop. In spelling, it is realized as م word initial and word medial and as م word final:

م	م
من	فم
/min/	/fam/
'from'	'mouth'

viii. /n/: It is voiced, nasal, alveolar, consonantal, non-syllabic, and stop. In spelling, it is realized as ن word initial and word medial and as ن word final:

ن	ن
نعم	بن
/na'am/	/bunn/
'yes'	'coffee'

A third nasal which is the voiced velar /ŋ/ occurs in Standard Arabic but only as an allophonic realisation and as a result of the process of assimilation. This is when the voiced dental nasal stop /n/ occurs before the voiceless velar oral stop /k/ or the voiceless uvular oral stop /q/. Some examples would be 'انكسار' /iŋkisa:r/ 'break' and 'انقسام' /iŋqisa:m/ 'division' respectively.

ix. /f/: It is voiceless, oral, labio-dental, consonantal, non-syllabic, and continuant. In Standard Arabic, this voiceless fricative has no voiced counterpart. In spelling, it is realized as ف word initial, as ف word medial, and as ف word final:

ف	ف	ف
فيل	عفيف	خفيف
/fi:l/	/ʕafi:f/	/xafi:f/
'elephant'	'chaste'	'light'

x. /s/: It is voiceless, oral, alveolar, consonantal, non-syllabic, and continuant. In spelling, it is realized as **س** word initial and word medial and as **س** word final:

س	س
سفر	شمس
/sifr/	/ʃams/
'book'	'sun'

xi. /ʃ/: It is the velarised emphatic counterpart of the sound /s/. In spelling, it is realized as **ص** word initial and word medial and as **ص** word final:

ص	ص
صفر	خلاص
/ʃifr/	/xala:ʃ/
'zero'	'salvation'

xii. /θ/: It is voiceless, oral, interdental, consonantal, non-syllabic, and continuant. In spelling, it is realized as **ث** word initial and word medial and as **ث** word final:

ث	ث
أثاث	مثلث
/ʔaθa:θ/	/muθallaθ/
'furniture'	'triangle'

xiii. /ð/: It is voiced, oral, interdental, consonantal, non-syllabic, and continuant. In spelling, it is realized as **ذ** in all positions:

ذ
ذهب
/ ðahab/
'gold'

xiv. /ð/: It is the velarised emphatic counterpart of the sound /ð/with an alveolar place of articulation. In spelling, it is realized as **ظ** in all contexts:

ظ
ظفر
/ ðafr/
'nail'

xv. /ʃ/: It is voiceless, oral, palatal, consonantal, non-syllabic, and continuant. In spelling, it is realized as **ش** word initial and word medial and as **ش** word final:

ش	ش
شر	فراش
/ ʃar/ 'evil'	/fira:ʃ/ 'bed'

xvi. /ʒ/: It is voiced, oral, palato-alveolar, consonantal, non-syllabic, and fricative. In spelling, it is realized as **ج** word initial and word medial and as **ج** word final:

ج	ج
جمال	عاج
/ ʒama:l/ 'beauty'	/ʕa:ʒ/ 'ivory'

xvii. /r/: It is voiced, oral, post alveolar, consonantal, non-syllabic, and approximant. This sound has an allophonic emphatic realization which affects the neighbouring vowel

and consonants. A word like 'رَجُلٌ' /razul/ 'man' is pronounced with the emphatic one whereas the word 'رِجْلٌ' /riʒl/ 'foot' is pronounced with the non-emphatic one. In spelling, it is realized as ر in all contexts:

ر
 رَجُلٌ
 / riʒl/
 leg

xviii. /z/: It is voiced, oral, alveolar, consonantal, non-syllabic, and continuant. In spelling, it is realized as ز in all contexts:

ز
 أَزْرَقُ
 / ʔazraq/
 blue

ixx. /l/: It is voiced, oral, alveolar, consonantal, non-syllabic, lateral, and continuant. In theory, there is only the clear non-velar articulation. However, when the articulation of certain forms of the word 'Allah' is considered, the existence of a dark emphatic realization of this sound is obvious. The pronunciation of this word in 'بِسْمِ اللَّهِ' /bismillahi/ 'in the name of Allah' is definitely without raising the back of the tongue towards the soft palate, whereas it is absolutely with in 'قَالَ اللَّهُ' /qa:lallahu/ 'Allah said'. So, the former is clear but the latter is dark. Furthermore, the difference may sometimes be phonemic and not just allophonic as in the contrast between 'وَاللَّهُ' /wallahu/ 'and Allah' and 'وَاللَّهُ' /wallahu/ 'he appointed him' (Ferguson 1956:447). In spelling, it is realized as ل word initial and word medial and as ل word final. When preceding the long vowel /a:/ both are realized as لا:

ل	لـ	as part of لا
نبيل	لباس	لا
/ nabi:l/	/ liba:s/	/ la:/
noble	dress	no

xx. /j/: It is voiced, oral, palatal, vocalic, non-syllabic, and glide. In spelling, it is realized as **بـ** word initial and word medial and as **ي** word final:

بـ	ي
بيان	يمنى
/ baja:n/	/ jumna:/
statement	right

xxi. /w/: It is voiced, oral, bilabial and velar, vocalic, non-syllabic, and glide. In spelling, it is realized as **و** in all contexts:

و
ورق
/ waraq/
paper

xxii. /h/: It is voiced, oral, glottal, vocalic, non-syllabic, and continuant. In spelling, it is realized as **هـ** word initial and word medial and as **ه** or **هـ** word final:

هـ	ه	هـ
هدر	أماه	الله
/ hadr/	/ʔumma:h /	/ʔallah /
waste	Mother!	Allah

xxiii. /ʔ/: It is voiceless, oral, glottal, consonantal, non-syllabic, and sonorant. It is a very frequent sound in Arabic as it is part of many functional words such as the definite article /ʔal/ as in 'الأسد' /ʔalʔasad/ 'the lion' or /ʔa/ as in 'الشمس' /ʔaʃʃams/'the sun'. This sound is the most problematic one in spelling, for learners, as it takes many shapes

governed by what is known in Arabic as the rules of 'alhamza'. Here are the various possibilities:

أ	إ	Part of آ	ئ
أخ	إن	آدم	يئن
/ʔax/	/ʔin/	/ʔa:dam/	/jaʔin/
brother	if	Adam	moan
ء	ؤ	ئ	
بناء	مؤمن	ملئ	
/bina:ʔ/	/muʔmin/	/malʔa:/	
construction	believer	full	

xxiv. /ʕ/: It is voiced, oral, pharyngeal, consonantal, non-syllabic, and fricative. In spelling, it is realized as ع word initial and ع word medial and as ع or ع word final:

ع	ع	ع	ع
عذر	معلم	صراع	هلع
/ʕuðr/	/muʕallim/	/ʕira:ʕ/	/halaʕ/
excuse	teacher	conflict	terror

xxv. /x/: It is voiceless, oral, velar, consonantal, non-syllabic, and fricative. In spelling, it is realized as خ word initial and word medial and as خ word final:

خ	خ
خبز	مناخ
/xubz/	/mana:x/
bread	climate

xxvi. /q/: It is voiceless, oral, uvular, consonantal, non-syllabic, and stop. Some classify it as a pharyngeal sound (Klatt and Stevens 1969:210). In the International Phonetic Association's Principles (1949:11), it is described as a uvular sound. In spelling, it is realized as ق word initial and word medial and as ق word final:

ق
قدر
/ qadar/
destiny

ق
مرق
/ maraq/
sauce

xxvii. /ɣ/: It is voiced, oral, uvular, consonantal, non-syllabic, and fricative. In spelling, it is realized as **ق** word initial, **ق** word medial, and as **ق** word final:

ق
غريب
/ ɣari:b/
stranger

ق
شغل
/ ʃuɣl /
work

ق
فارغ
/ fa:riɣ /
empty

xxviii. /ħ/: It is voiceless, oral, pharyngeal, consonantal, non-syllabic, and fricative. In spelling, it is realized as **ح** word initial and word medial and as **ح** word final:

ح
حبر
/ ħibr/
ink

ح
تفاح
/ tuffa:h/
apple

The following table classifies the consonants of Standard Arabic:

	Voiced	Oral	Bi labial	Labio Dental	Dental	Inter- dental	Alveolar	Palato alveolar	Post alveolar
b	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
t	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
ṭ	-	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	-
d	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	-
ḍ	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	-
k	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
m	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
n	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
f	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-
s	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
ṣ	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
θ	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-
ḏ	+	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-
ḏ̣	+	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
ʃ	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
ʒ	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
r	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
z	+	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
l	+	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
j	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
w	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
h	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
ʔ	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
ʕ	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
x	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
q	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
y	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
ħ	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 5: Phonetic Features of Standard Arabic Consonants (Part I)

	Palatal	Velar	Uvular	glottal	Pharyngeal	Stop	Approximant	Glide	Lateral	Consonantal	Syllabic
b	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	-
t	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	-
ṭ	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	-
d	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	-
ḏ	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	-
k	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	-
m	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	-
n	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	-
f	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
s	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
š	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
θ	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
ḥ	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
Ḍ	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
Ḑ	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
ẓ	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
r	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	+	-
z	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
l	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	-
j	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-
w	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-
h	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
ʔ	-	-	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	-
ʕ	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-
x	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
q	-	-	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	-
ɣ	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
ħ	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-

Table 5: Phonetic Features of Standard Arabic Consonants (Part II)

II.4.3 Stress

Word stress in Standard Arabic is not as important as that in the English language because the stressed syllable in the former is not as prominent a unit as that in the latter. Indeed, the vowel quality of the stressed syllable does not often stand in sharp contrast with that of the unstressed syllable, as it is the case in English, and, just like the case of the French language, the centres of unstressed syllables in most cases are strong syllables. One thing that Arabic and English have in common is a free movable stress. According to some researchers (Al Ani, 1970:88), the rule governing word stress in Standard Arabic is as follows:

a. When a word is made up of a string of the CV type syllables, the first syllable receives the primary stress and the remaining syllables are weak and unstressed.

'كتب' /kataba/ 'to write' 'درس' /**darasa**/ 'to study'

b. When a word contains only one long syllable, CVC, the long syllable receives the primary stress and the remaining syllables are weak and unstressed.

'كاتب' /ka :tib/ 'writer' 'معلمه' /mu^oallimuhu/ 'his teacher'

c. When a word contains two long syllables CVC or more, the long syllable nearest to the last one receives the primary stress and the closest syllables to the beginning receives, in most cases, a secondary stress.

'رئيسهن' /ra^oi:suhunna/ 'their chief. Fem plural'

'مستودعاتهم' /mustawda^oa:tuhum/ 'their deposits'

There may be some validity in rule number one, but the examples provided for rules 2 and 3 are rather awkward. The syllable that is referred to as a long syllable, a closed CVC, in the word /ka :tib/ and that is thought to bear stress on the basis of such a rule is, in fact, an open CV pattern. What determines the stress is most probably the vowel quality because length in vowels is one of the prominent features that attract

stress. The other examples are characterized by the presence of a consonant geminate or 'shedda', which is, as its name suggests in Arabic, a phonetic context that is very favourable for stress.

Conclusion

The learners investigated in this study know two intricate phonological systems: Dialectal Arabic and Standard Arabic. Most of the sounds are phonetically similar but the phonological elements and rules are rather different. The sounds of Standard Arabic are associated in the minds of the learners with some spelling rules that are varied but rather regular. The two remaining phonological systems that they know, which will be the subject matter of the next chapter are of a much more complex nature with regard to both the sound inventory and the relationship between the phonemes and the graphemes.

CHAPTER III

Sound Inventory and Stress of the Foreign Languages Known to the Informants

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CHAPTER III

Sound Inventory and Stress of the Foreign Languages Known to the Informants

Introduction

In this chapter, a description of the sound systems of two foreign languages known to the learners, namely Standard French and Standard English, and their orthographical representations, will be undertaken. The purpose of describing Standard French is to complete the linguistic background of the learners before undertaking an error analysis of their performance in English; the purpose of describing English is to outline the sound system targeted by the learners and to highlight the intricacies of the correlations between phonemes and graphemes in the core lexicon of this linguistic system. Two additional linguistic systems affect the phonological interlanguage of the investigated learners. They are the dialectal variety of English and the American variety of English. Their influence, however, is a minor one compared to the two aforementioned foreign linguistic systems and, so, does not require a description of their sound inventories.

III.1 French

One of the characteristics of the French sound system is the presence of a number of nasal vowels besides the oral ones. Three oral vowels and their nasal counterparts gather two phonetic features that are rarely gathered in world languages: They are both front and rounded.

III.1.1 Simple Vowels

For some phoneticians Standard French, commonly known as Parisian French, includes 16 simple vowels (Blake 1973:560), while some others state only 15 (Delattre 1968:48, Casagrande 1984:21). The cause of this discrepancy is that the contrast between certain vowels tends not to be maintained any longer by the vast majority of

French natives. Consequently, some phoneticians, when taking a purely synchronic approach, exclude the vowels that are seemingly no longer used or used as some sort of allophonic variation. The main controversial contrast is between the anterior /a/ and the posterior /ɑ/ as in the pair '**la**' /la/ 'the' and '**las**' /la/ 'weary'. A less controversial contrast is that between /ø/ as in '**deux**' /dø/ 'two' and /œ/ as in '**neuf**' /nœf/ 'nine'. The vowels that tend to be neglected in some French vowel inventories are /ɑ/, which is substituted by /a/; and /ø/, which is substituted by /œ/.

For the purpose of this research work and for the sake of exhaustiveness, the sixteen vowels will be retained. They are divided into 12 oral vowels, in the articulation of which the air escapes entirely from the oral cavity, and 4 nasal ones that are produced while the velum is lowered and, so, the air escapes only through the nasal cavity.

The French vowels may be classified taking into consideration the phonetic features that have been applied to the previous linguistic system described so far in this research. An additional criterion is the passage of the air i.e. whether the air goes only through the oral cavity (oral) or through only the nasal cavity (nasal). The various spellings are in alphabetical order, starting with simple letters and moving on to complex letter combinations. Of course, some spellings occur much less regularly than others do. The limits of a sound in a spelling representation are not always evident. Hence in a word like '**oignon**' /ɔ̃ɲɔ̃/ 'onion', the combination 'oi' is used here to represent the sound /ɔ̃/, but it might be argued that only the letter 'o' represents this sound; the letter 'i' is merely a silent one. Here are the French vowels following the previous phonetic criteria:

i. /i/: it is oral, close, front, and unrounded. In spelling, it is realized as:

î	y	ï
île	type	naïf

ii. /ɛ/: it is oral, open, front, and unrounded. It occurs mainly in closed syllables, i.e. syllables that are closed by a consonant. In spelling, it is realized as:

e	è	ê	ai	aî	ei	aie
belle	gène	mêle	faire	maître	seize	raie

iii. /e/: it is oral, mid, front, and unrounded. It occurs mainly in open syllables, i.e. syllables that are not closed by a consonant. In spelling, it is realized as:

e	é	ai	œ
ces	été	mais	œsophage

iv. /a/ vs. /ɑ/: /a/ is oral, open, central, and unrounded. This has been called the anterior /a/ as opposed to the posterior /ɑ/. The former is pronounced with the bulge of the tongue moving towards the middle of the oral cavity with maximum openness, whereas the latter is produced with the bulge of the tongue moving towards the back and the lips slightly less spread (Delattre 1957:142). There has been a tendency in French to substitute the posterior /ɑ/ with the anterior one. Delattre (1957:147) counted only 151 occurrences of the former, 71 of which were with a circumflex accent. It occurs mainly under the influence of a following /s/ or /z/ or under that of a following consonant cluster ending with a liquid /vr, fl, br, dr/. Here are the spelling contexts of both vowels:

	a	à	e	Part of oi			
a	matin	là	femme	doigt			
	a + s	a + z	a + vr	a + fl	a + br	a + dr	â
ɑ	las	base	Havre	rafle	sabre	cadre	tâche

v. /o/: It is oral, mid, back, and rounded. It occurs mainly in open syllables:

a	o	au	eau
hall	dos	haut	nouveau

vi. /ɔ/: It is oral, open, back, and rounded. It occurs mainly in closed syllables. In spelling, it is realized as:

o	ô	u	au	oi
alors	côte	album	Paul	oignon

vii. /u/: It is oral, close, back, and rounded. In spelling, it is realized as:

ou	où	oût	aoul
fou	où	coût	saoul

viii. /y/: It is oral, close, front, and rounded. It is, along with the oral /œ/ and /ø/, and the nasal /œ̃/, one of the very few vowels in world languages that are both front and rounded. In spelling, it is realized as:

u	û	eu
tu	bûche	eu

ix. /ø/: It is oral, mid, front, and rounded. It occurs mainly in open syllables. In spelling, it is realized as:

eu	eû	eue	œu
ceux	jeûne	queue	nœud

x. /œ/: It is oral, open, front, and rounded. It occurs mainly in closed syllables. In spelling, it is realized as:

u	ue	œi	œu
club	cueillir	œil	œuvre

xi. /ə/: It is oral, open, central, and unrounded. It is the only vowel in French that is lax i.e. produced with the least of muscular effort and movement compared with the rest of the vowels that are tense. It is known for researchers in French phonetics and phonology as the '**e caduc**' (null e), the '**e instable**' (unstable e), the '**e féminin**' (feminine e), and the '**e sourd**' or '**e muet**' (silent e). Some phoneticians also refer to it as the schwa or as the neuter e (Anderson 1982:534, Dell 1995:6). It tends to be a controversial vowel with regard to when it is pronounced, when it is dropped, and when it is unstable. For some phoneticians it is not phonetically distinct from the vowel /œ/. Phonologically, however, as Anderson (1982:537) pointed out, the two vowels differ: the schwa never occurs in a stressed syllable, except in words of one syllable such as exclamatory '**que**' or in imperatives such as in '**prends-le**'. When it is the centre of the last syllable on which word stress always falls in French, the stress moves on to the penultimate one, in this case. It is a vowel that is always elided before other vowels. Delattre (1949:455) mentions 9 monosyllables where it is unstable: '**que**', '**te**', '**de**', '**me**', '**ne**', '**le**', '**ce**', '**se**', '**je**'. According to him, it is dropped when not followed by another vowel, as in '**j m'en vais**' and '**c n'est pas ça**'; when it is followed, it is the second one that is omitted as in '**je n m'en vais pas**'. Therefore, besides being influenced by the degree of openness and the force of articulation of the preceding consonant, it is dropped or kept to maintain balanced syllable intensity that characterises the French language. For Haden (1966:737), however, the e of '**le**' is a stable one in all environments. For Delattre (1951:343) when the schwa occurs inside a monosyllable, it is dropped if preceded by only one consonant and kept if preceded by more than one: '**samedi**' and '**vendredi**'. Dealing with this vowel in general, Glanville (1991) stipulated that dropping, keeping,

or inserting it obeys a rhythmic rule, which is to be pronounced only between two stressed syllables: The word final one and a following monosyllable. To support his view, he gave the following examples: '**Porte-plume, garde-boue**' (pronounced); '**film muet, ours blanc**' (inserted); '**porte manteau, garde barrière**' (dropped); and '**un film français, un film muet**' (not inserted). In spelling, it is generally realized as the letter 'e' without any accent mark and not followed by a double consonant with some exceptions:

e	ai	on
regard	faisons	monsieur

xii. /ɛ̃/: It is nasal, open, front, and unrounded. In spelling, it is realized as:

en	im	in	aim	ain	ein
moyen	timbre	malin	faim	bain	teint

xiii. /ã/: It is nasal, open, central, and unrounded. In spelling, it is realized as:

an	am	em	en	aon
dans	jambe	semble	talent	paon

xiv. /œ̃/: It is nasal, open, front, and rounded. In spelling, it is realized as:

un
brun

xv. /ɔ̃/: It is nasal, open, back, and rounded. In spelling, it is realized as:

om	on
comte	bon

Delattre (1965:92) made the following observations about the French nasal vowels:

- a. They are markedly longer than their oral counterparts e.g. '**sec**' vs. '**cinq**', '**mode** vs. **monde**', '**peint** vs. **paix**' '**dompter** vs. **doter**'.
- b. The contrast is phonemically distinctive not only within word boundaries but also across word boundaries e.g. '**laid**' vs. '**lin**' and '**comblé**' vs. '**comme blé**'.
- c. When the underlying nasal consonants /m/and /n/ are followed by a vowel, the nasal vowel is denasalized e.g. '**plan**' vs. '**plane**', '**jeun**' vs. '**jeune**', and '**bon**' vs. '**bonne**'.

The following table classifies the vowels of Standard French:

Vowel	Oral	front	central	back	close	mid	open	rounded
i	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	-
y	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	+
u	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+
e	+	+	-	-	-	+	-	-
ø	+	+	-	-	-	+	-	+
o	+	-	-	+	-	+	-	+
ɛ	+	+	-	-	-	-	+	-
œ	+	+	-	-	-	-	+	+
ə	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	-
a	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	-
ɔ	+	-	-	+	-	-	+	+
ẽ	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-
œ̃	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	+
ã	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	-
õ	-	-	-	+	-	-	+	+

Table 6: Phonetic Features of French Vowels

III.1.2 Diphthongs

There are eleven combinations of vowels which form the nucleus or the centre of syllables in French. The tendency in transcribing these diphthongs (see for instance

both the soft and hard version of Oxford Hachette Dictionary 1994) is to combine the two glide consonants /j/ and /w/ with a vowel just as it is the case of the English diphthongs in the American phonetic tradition. Hence a word like 'bataille' is transcribed as /batɑj/, and a word like 'roi' is transcribed as /rwa/. /. That would seem rather a combination of a vowel and a consonant. Furthermore, it is difficult to perceive the vowel in the suggested diphthong /ɥi/ as in 'huit' /ɥit/.

i. /wa/

oi	oy	oie
roi	loyal	soie
ois	oit	oix
lois	toit	choix

ii. /ɥi/

ui	hui	uis
lui	huit	puis
uit	oui	ouis
fuit	oui	Louis

iii. /wɛ̃/⁷

oin	oins	oint
soin	moins	joint

⁷ One might argue that in this case as well as in the rest of the diphthongs involving a nasal vowel, it is rather a two consonant cluster in which the post initial consonant is a glide.

iv. /jɛ̃/

ien

iens

rien

biens

v. /jɛ/

ie

iè

rien

liège

vi. /aj/

ail

aille

ailles

travail

broussaille

batailles

vii. /ej/

eil

eille

eilles

pareil

bouteille

merveilles

viii. /œj/

euil

œil

euille

eUILles

seuil

œil

feuille

feUILles

ix. /uj/

ouille

ouilles

rouille

embrouilles

xx. /jø/

ieu

ieux

lieu

mieux

One might observe also that with the exception of /wa/, /wɛ̃/, and /ʁi/ which are fully contained in the syllable nucleus, other sequences of a glide and vowel may be considered part of a glide formation process that turns a close vowel into a glide (and part of the syllable onset) when followed by another vowel (Chitoran, 2001).

III.1.3 Triphthongs

Triphthongs are also not so evident because they always include one of the glides which may be considered as consonants and, hence, form onsets of new syllables instead of being part of one nucleus.

i. /waje/

oyé

oyer

ahier

déployé

envoyer

cahier

oyez

ayest

soyez

ça y est

ii. /ɛjã/

eillant

ayant

surveillant

payant

iii. /jɛj/

ieille

vieille

iv. /eje/

eillée

eiller

ayer

veillée

veiller

essayer

v. /uje/

ouillé

ouiller

mouillé

brouiller

vi. /wajɛ/

oye

voyelle

vii. /wajø/

oyeux

joyeux

viii. /ɥije/

uyé

uyer

appuyé

essuyer

III.1.4 Consonants

There are 21 consonants for the majority of phoneticians. Most of them consider that the letter 'h' is considered mute in all contexts and, so, the sound /h/ is discarded. The two affricates /tʃ/ and /dʒ/ are also seldom mentioned (see, for instance, Huart 2002:72). Again, these three sounds are maintained as plausible ones in this study. Applying the same phonetic features applied to the two previous linguistic systems

described in this research, the French consonants are:

i. /p/: It is voiceless, oral, bilabial, consonantal, non-syllabic, and stop. In spelling, it is realized as:

p	pp
petit	appât

ii. /b/: It is voiced, oral, bilabial, consonantal, non-syllabic, and stop. In spelling, it is realized as:

b	bb
belle	abbé

iii. /t/: It is voiceless, oral, dental, consonantal, non-syllabic, and stop. In spelling, it is realized as:

d	t	th	tt
quand il	ta	thé	boulette

iv. /d/: It is voiced, oral, dental, consonantal, non-syllabic, and stop. In spelling, it is realized as:

d	dd
dormir	additif

v. /k/: It is voiceless, oral, velar, consonantal, non-syllabic, and stop. In spelling, it is realized as:

c	k	q	Part of x	cc
cas	kilo	coq	taxi	accroc
ch	ck	qu	cqu	

techno **snack** **que** **acquérir**

vi. /g/: It is voiced, oral, velar, consonantal, non-syllabic, and stop. In spelling, it is realized as:

c	Part of x	g	gg	gu
seconde	exemple	garde	aggrave	guide

vii. /m/: It is voiced, nasal, bilabial, consonantal, non-syllabic, and stop. In spelling, it is realized as:

m	mm
matin	comme

viii. /n/: It is voiced, nasal, dental, consonantal, non-syllabic, and stop. In spelling, it is realized as:

n	nn
ne	vanne

ix. /ŋ/: It is voiced, nasal, velar, consonantal, non-syllabic, and stop. It always occurs after a vowel and is found in some loan words. Its occurrence in French is so infrequent that some phoneticians discard it when dealing with the French phonemes inventory. In spelling, it is realized as:

ng
footing

x. /ɲ/: It is voiced, nasal, palatal, consonantal, non-syllabic, and stop. It is a combination of /n/ and /j/. In spelling, it is realized as:

ng

vigne

xi. /f/: It is voiceless, oral, labio-dental, consonantal, non-syllabic, and continuant. In spelling, it is realized as:

f	ff	ph
fil le	eff ort	ph oto

xii. /v/: It is voiced, oral, labio-dental, consonantal, non-syllabic, and continuant. In spelling, it is realized as:

f	v	w
neuf ans	v ite	w agon

xiii. /s/: It is voiceless, oral, dental, consonantal, non-syllabic, and continuant. In spelling, it is realized as:

c	ç	s	t
ce	ça	se	nation
x	Part of x	sc	ss
six	taxi	scène	tasse

xiv. /z/: It is voiced, oral, dental, consonantal, non-syllabic, and continuant. In spelling, it is realized as:

s	x	Part of x	z	zz
rase	six heures	ex emple	zè bre	jaz z

xv. /ʃ/: It is voiceless, oral, palato-alveolar, consonantal, non-syllabic, and continuant. In spelling, it is realized as:

ch	sch
chat	schéma

xvi. /ʒ/: It is voiced, oral, palato-alveolar, consonantal, non-syllabic, and continuant. In spelling, it is realized as:

g	j
gène	jeune

xvii. /r/: It is voiced or voiceless, oral, pharyngeal or velar or alveolar, consonantal, non-syllabic, and liquid. It is a controversial sound concerning its precise place of articulation. Giving a general description of this sound in various languages, Delattre (1946:429) described it as follows:

Son mode d'articulation varie d'une vibrante à une continuante. Son mode d'articulation varie des parties les plus avancées de la langue aux parties les plus reculées. Et ses modes, vibrés et fricatifs, se produisent tous deux aussi bien à l'arrière qu'à l'avant de la bouche- à l'arrière dans la région de la luette, à l'avant dans la région de la pointe de la langue. De plus, il peut être sourd ou sonore en tous lieux d'articulation comme en tous modes.
(Its manner of articulation extends from a vibrant sound to a continuant one. It may extend from the most forward parts of the mouth to the most backward ones. When it is articulated at the back, it is in the area of the uvula, and when at the front, it is in the area of the tip of the tongue. Moreover, this sound may be voiceless or voiced in all places and all manners of articulation)
(Translation by the author of this thesis)

According to him, unlike the retroflex English /r/ that is produced with the anterior part of the tongue, the /r/ of modern French is pronounced with the posterior part of the tongue. It is an apical sound that may be divided into three:

a. Dorsal /r/ which is the Parisian /r/ and the dominant one in educated French,

b. Uvular /r/.

c. Pharyngeal /r/.

Delattre, then, went on describing this sound as follows:

Le r français est fricatif ... la restriction est entre la partie la plus reculée de la langue et l'extrémité du voile du palais ... diffère selon la voyelle qui précède : plus elle est antérieure, plus le dos de la langue recule; après une voyelle postérieure, il s'élève plus qu'il ne recule. Après les voyelles nasales, les mouvements de recul et d'élévation sont plus réduites puisque le voile du palais est abaissé. Le r français n'est pas loin d'être une voyelle. C'est la plus ouverte de toutes les consonnes (hormis les semi-voyelles). Sa douceur est démontrée par le fait que c'est devant elle que les voyelles s'allongent le plus.

(The French r is fricative the narrow passage is between the part of the tongue that is furthest back and the soft palate ... it differs depending on the preceding vowel: the more anterior it is, the further back the blade of the tongue withdraws; when following nasal vowels, the rising and withdrawing movements are more reduced since the soft palate is lowered. It is the lowest consonant (apart from the semi-vowels). Its softness is demonstrated by the fact that all vowels occurring after it are stretched to the maximum). (Translation by the author of this thesis)

Yet, Delattre himself (1969:7) when using experimental speech processing equipments described the same sound as follows:

Le français par le R pharyngal et par d'autres traits généraux tels que l'antériorité, le refus de diphtongaison ou la montée perpétuelle d'intonation.... Entendons nous que c'est le R entendu dans le nord de la France et non le r roulé avec la pointe de la langue qui s'entend à la campagne, dans les villages et dans certaines villes du Midi.... Nous allons démontrer que c'est une consonne pharyngale et non pas vélaire dorsale comme on a tendance à le croire...

(The French Language with its pharyngeal R and other general features like anteriority, non diphthongization, and a perpetual rising intonation... What I mean by this sound is the R heard in the north of France and not the one rolled with the tip of the tongue that is heard in the countryside, in the villages, and in some towns of the Midi ... We will demonstrate that it is a pharyngeal sound and not a dorsal velar one as some tend to believe...) (Translation by the author of this thesis)

Casagrande (1984:24) wrote:

French speakers can have one of the two r's. Speakers of Standard French have a back /R/. Many speakers of French in rural areas use the alveolar /r/ produced by one or more vibrations of the tip of the

tongue against the teeth ridge. This /r/, non standard in contemporary usage, was popular in the court of Louis XIV. The other /R/ is produced in a number of ways, ably described by Delattre (1969), the most generally known of which is a trill produced by vibrations of the uvular, the tip of the velum.

Huart (2002: 72) describes this sound as simply a uvular one. For the purpose of this research work, the velar place of articulation will be used throughout the error analysis. The /R/ may be voiced [ʀ] or voiceless [χ] as a result of assimilation depending on the adjacent consonant or vowel e.g. '**perdre**' vs. '**perte**' and '**gré**' vs. '**craie**'. In spelling, it is realized as:

r	rr
rat	terre

xviii. /l/: It is voiced, oral, dental, vocalic, non-syllabic, and continuant (lateral). In spelling, it is realized as:

l	ll
le	aller

xix. /j/: It is voiced, oral, palatal, vocalic, non-syllabic, and glide. In spelling, it is realized as:

i	l	y	ll
iode	oeil	yeux	fille

xx. /ɥ/: It is voiced, oral, bilabial, vocalic, non-syllabic, and glide. In spelling, it is realized as:

ui

lui

xxi. /w/: It is voiced, oral, bilabial and velar (the back of the tongue raised towards the soft palate), vocalic, non-syllabic, and glide. In spelling, it is realized as:

u	w	Part of oi	Part of ôi	ou
Guadeloupe	watt	doigt	goître	fouine

xxii. /h/: Few recognize the existence of this sound which is voiced, oral, glottal, vocalic, non-syllabic, and continuant. The letter 'h' is mute in all contexts in French, and, so, a word like '**déshonneur**' is with an intervocalic 's' that is pronounced /z/ just like that of '**désespoir**' or '**désapprouver**'. One of the few who included such a sound is Warnart (1987:24) who gives as examples the two words '**halte**' and '**hop**' in an interjectional form. In spelling, such a 'sound' is realized as:

h
hop!

xxiii. /tʃ/: It is voiceless, oral, palato-dental, consonantal, non-syllabic, and affricate. In spelling, it is realized as:

tch
match

xxiv. /dʒ/: It is voiced, oral, palato-dental, consonantal, non-syllabic, and affricate. In spelling, it is realized as:

dj
adjoint

The following tables classify the consonants of Standard French:

Cons	Voiced	Oral	Bila bial	Labio- Dental	Dental	Alveol ar	Palato- alveolar	Pala tal	Velar	Glo ttal	Sylla bic
p	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
b	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
t	-	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
d	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
k	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
g	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
m	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
n	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
ŋ	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
ɲ	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-
f	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
v	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
s	-	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
z	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
ʃ	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-
ʒ	+	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-
r	+	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	+	-	-
l	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
j	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-
ɥ	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
w	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
h	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
tʃ	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-
dʒ	+	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-

Table 7: Phonetic Features of French Consonants (Place of Articulation)

Consonant	Stop	Affricate	Glide	Lateral	Consonantal
p	+	-	-	-	+
b	+	-	-	-	+
t	+	-	-	-	+
d	+	-	-	-	+
k	+	-	-	-	+
g	+	-	-	-	+
m	+	-	-	-	+
n	+	-	-	-	+
ɲ	+	-	-	-	+
ɲ	+	-	-	-	+
f	-	-	-	-	+
v	-	-	-	-	+
s	-	-	-	-	+
z	-	-	-	-	+
ʃ	-	-	-	-	+
ʒ	-	-	-	-	+
r	-	-	-	-	+
l	-	-	-	+	+
j	-	-	+	-	-
ɥ	-	-	+	-	-
w	-	-	+	-	-
h	-	-	-	-	+
tʃ	-	+	-	-	+
dʒ	-	+	-	-	+

Table 8: Phonetic Features of French Consonants (Manner of Articulation)

III.1.4 Stress

French is one of the languages with fixed stress, as opposed to languages with a free or movable stress like English. Stress always falls on the last syllable except when the centre of the last syllable is a schwa or a null e, in which case it is the penultimate syllable that receives stress. Delattre (1938:57) distinguished between two types of stress:

- a. The final stress that always occurs on the final syllable.
- b. the emotional stress that may occur on the first or second syllable as in '**Imbécile!**' and '**Nigaud!**'. The latter stress would more or less correspond to sentence stress in English, which is also semantically contrastive.

III.2 English

The English language is one of the most described languages. This has resulted in a deeper and more accurate analysis of its linguistic levels, but, on the other hand, it has also led to a lot of divergence over some of the facts concerning it.

III.2.1 Vowels

UK Standard English or British English, the pronunciation of which is known as Received Pronunciation, contains twenty-five vowels, though Gimson (1980) restricts the number to only twenty by excluding the five triphthongs. They are divided into simple vowels, diphthongs or combinations of two vowels, and triphthongs or combinations of three vowels. All vowels are oral i.e. the passage of the air is solely through the oral cavity. The feature of nasality occurs only at an allophonic level and is just an aspect of connected speech.

Based on Roach (1988:15), this section classifies the English vowels following more or less the criteria above. The spelling illustrations are mostly based on the work of Hill and Ure (1962), but while these authors matched every spelling with its sound or sounds, here every sound is matched with its spelling or spellings. The various spellings are in alphabetical order, starting with simple letters and moving on to complex letter combinations. Of course, some spellings occur much less regularly than others do. In English, the limits of a sound in some spelling representation are even less evident than those in French. Hence, in a word like 'connoisseur', the combination 'oi' is taken as representing the sound /ɔ/, but it may be rightly argued that this sound is represented only by the letter 'i' and that the letter 'o' is a silent one. Only few commonly used proper nouns have been used to illustrate the various spelling possibilities of the same

vowel. If more proper nouns had been considered, there would have been many more possibilities. For instance, a spelling combination such as 'gh' is pronounced as a schwa in the proper noun 'Edinburgh'. There will be even more spelling possibilities if the vast array of scientific and technical terms are considered. Of course, some spelling representations listed in the following tables might not be exhaustive.

III.2.1.1 Simple Vowels

i. /ɪ/: it is close, front, and unrounded. In spelling, it is realized as:

a	e	i	o	u	y
courage	women	hit	women	busy	lyric
ae	ai	ay	ea	ee	ey
gynaecology	captain	Sunday	forehead ⁸	coffee	donkey
ia	oi	ie	ui		
marriage	connoisseur	buried	build		

ii. /i:/: it is longer, more open, more front and more spread than the short vowel /ɪ/. In spelling, it is realized as:

e	i	ae	ay	ea	ee
theme	machine	Caesar	quay	sea	see
ei	eo	ey	ie	oe	
seize	people	key	chief	foetus	

⁸ This word may also be pronounced /fɔ:hed/; many other words in this thesis may be pronounced in more than one way.

iii. /e/: it is mid, front, and unrounded. In spelling, it is realized as:

a	e	u	ae	ai	ea
any	error	bury	haemorrhage	said	bread
ee	ei	eo	ie	oe	
threepence	leisure	leopard	friend	foetid	

iv. /æ/: It is open, front, and unrounded. In spelling, it is realized as:

a	i	ai	al	ea
have	meringue	plaid	salmon	whereas

v. /ɑ:/: It is open, back, and unrounded. In spelling, it is realized as:

a	aa	al	ar	au	er	are	ear	ire
fast	bazaar	half	hard	aunt	clerk	are	heart	repertoire

vi. /ʌ/: It is open, central, and unrounded. In spelling, it is realized as:

o	u	oe	oo	ou
above	hunt	does	blood	country

vii. /ə/: It is mid, central, and unrounded. It is the most frequent vowel in English as it is the centre of most of the weak syllables and the functional words when they are not stressed. It is a lax vowel i.e. one that is uttered with the least of energy and the least of speech organs involvement. It is a key vowel in pronunciation, stress, rhythm and intonation patterns. Given its frequency, it has more spelling representations than any other vowel:

a	e	o	r	u	ai
balloon	camera	Europe	Messrs	upon	villain
au	ar	aw	ea	eo	er
restaurant	vineyard	awry	ocean	pigeon	per cent
eu	ia	ie	io	oi	or
whereupon	Asia	patient	action	tortoise	forget
ou	uo	ur	eig	eou	eur
famous	languorous	surprise	foreign	gorgeous	chauffeur
ier	iou	oar	our	ough	
soldier	gracious	cupboard	honour	thorough	

viii. /ɜ:/: It is mid, central (more central than the short vowel /ə/), and unrounded. In spelling, it is realized as:

er	ir	or	ur	ear	ere	err
serve	bird	worm	occur	earn	were	err
eur	our	olo	urr	yr	yrrh	
connoisseur	journal	colonel	purr	myrtle	myrrh	

ix. /ɔ:/: It is open, back, and rounded. In spelling, it is realized as:

o	a	e	au	eo	ou	ow	ach
olive	swallow	Rendezvous	because	thereof	cough	knowledge	yacht

x. /ɔ:/: It is less open and more back than the short /ɔ/. It is pronounced with a strong lip rounding. In spelling, it is realized as:

a	o	al	ao	ar	au	aw	oa
call	chorus	walk	extraordinary	warm	cause	law	broad
or	oar	ore	oor	our	augh	ough	
born	board	before	door	four	daughter	bought	

xi. /ʊ/: It is close, back, and rounded. In spelling, it is realized as:

o	u	oo	ou	oul
woman	put	book	bouquet	could

xii. /u:/: It is not as back and as close as the short /ʊ/ and the lips are less round. In spelling, it is realized as:

o	u	au	eu	ew	oe	oo	ou	ue
move	June	beauty	rheumatism	chew	shoe	too	soup	blue
ui	wo	eue	ewe	oeu	ooe	ough	ougha	
fruit	two	queue	chewed	manoeuvre	cooed	through	brougham	

The following table sums up the phonetic description of simple vowels in English:

Vowel	Oral	front	central	back	close	mid	open	rounded
ɪ	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	-
i:	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	-
e	+	+	-	-	-	+	-	-
æ	+	+	-	-	-	-	+	-
ɑ:	+	-	-	+	-	-	+	-
ʌ	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	-
ə	+	-	+	-	-	+	-	-
ɜ:	+	-	+	-	-	+	-	-
ɒ	+	-	-	+	-	-	+	+
ɔ:	+	-	-	+	-	-	+	+
ʊ	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+
u:	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	+

Table 9: Phonetic Features of English Simple Vowels

III.2.1.2 Diphthongs

Diphthongs are combinations of two vowels. There are three centring diphthongs i.e. diphthongs that are gliding towards the central schwa vowel /ə/, and five closing ones, i.e. those gliding towards either the close vowel /ɪ/ or the close vowel /ʊ/. The following examples of spelling representing such diphthongs have been limited to only where both vowels making the diphthong belong to the same syllabic centre. Hill and Ure (1962:53) tend to consider such combinations even when the two vowels belong to two different syllables. Hence, they deal with /ɪ/ and /ə/ in a word like 'burial', /berɪəl/, as a diphthong, though the two vowels are two different centres of two different syllables: /be rɪ əl/. In what follows are the English diphthongs and their various spelling representations:

i./iə/

e	ea	eo	ia	ir
serum	idea	theory	India	souvenir
ear	eer	eir	ier	oea
clear	deer	weird	fierce	diarrhoea

ii./eə/

a	ae	ai	ao	ar	air
vary	aeroplane	hairy	aorist	scarce	fair
are	ear	eir	ere	ayer	ayor
aware	bear	their	there	prayer	mayor

iii./ʊə/

u	eu	ue	eur	oor	our	ure	ewer
rural	pleura	cruel	liqueur	poor	tour	sure	brewer

iv. /eɪ/

a	e	ê	é	ae	ai	ao	au	ay
change	regime	fête	précis	sundae	aid	gaol	gauge	day
et	ea	ée	ei	ey	alf	aye	eigh	
ballet	steak	fiancée	rein	they	halfpenny	played	eight	

v. /aɪ/

i	y	ai	ei	ie	ig	ic
bite	type	aisle	either	die	sign	indict
is	uy	ye	aye	eye	igh	eigh
viscount	buy	bye	aye	eye	fight	height

vi. /ɔɪ/

oi	oy	uoy	uoye
boil	boy	buoy	buoyed

vii. /əʊ/

o	au	eo	ew	oa	oe	ol
home	mauve	yeoman	sew	road	toe	folk
oo	ou	ow	eau	ore	owe	ough
brooch	soul	blow	bureau	forecastle	owe	though

viii. /aʊ/

au	ou	ow	owe	ough
gauss	house	allow	bowed	bough

III.2.1.3 Triphthongs

The triphthongs are the most complex vowels because they combine three vowels. A triphthong starts with one of the five closing diphthongs and ends with the schwa. Here are the various spelling representations:

i. /eɪə/

aie	eya	ayer	eyer	eyor
gaiety	abeyance	layer	greyer	conveyor

ii. /aɪə/

ia	ie	io	ire	iro
dial	society	lion	fire	irony
oir	y	yer	yre	
choir	tyrant	dyer	tyre	

iii. /ɔɪə/

oyer	oyou	uoya
employer	joyous	buoyant

iv. /əʊə/

oa	oer	ower
coalescence	goer	lower

v. /aʊə/

our	owa	owe	auer	owar	ower
flour	nowadays	vowel	sauerkraut	coward	power

III.2.2 Consonants

There are 24 consonants in English. They can be classified by the same criteria as the ones used to classify the three previous linguistic systems:

i. /p/: It is voiceless, oral, bilabial, consonantal, non-syllabic, and stop. When it is syllable initial, it is aspirated [p^h]. In spelling, it is realized as:

p	gh	ph	pp
pen	hiccough	Shepherd	apple

ii. /b/: It is voiced, oral, bilabial, consonantal, non-syllabic, and stop. In spelling, it is realized as:

b	bb
bed	ebb

iii. /t/: It is voiceless, oral, alveolar, consonantal, non-syllabic, and stop. It may be denti-alveolar, i.e. produced with the tip of the tongue on the borderline between the upper teeth and the alveolar ridge. This occurs before the close front unrounded vowels /ɪ/ and /i:/ and the close back rounded vowels /ʊ/ and /u:/ as in 'tea' and 'two'. It may also be slightly affricated before a devoiced /r/ as in 'try' and before the two glides /w/ and /j/ as in 'twelve' and 'tune'. When syllable initial, it is aspirated [t^h]. In spelling, it is realized as:

d	t	th	tt
missed	ten	Thomas	attend

iv. /d/: It is voiced, oral, alveolar, consonantal, non-syllabic, and stop. It may be slightly affricated before a devoiced /r/ as in 'dry' and before the two glides /w/ and /j/, as in 'dwarf' and 'dune' In spelling, it is realized as:

d	dd
had	sudden

v. /k/: It is voiceless, oral, velar, consonantal, non-syllabic, and stop. When syllable initial, it is aspirated [k^h]. In spelling, it is realized as:

c	k	Part of x	cc	ch	ck
cat	kill	taxi	accuse	ache	back
kh	kk	qu	cch	cqu	
khaki	dekko	cheque	saccharine	racquet	

vi. /g/: It is voiced, oral, velar, consonantal, non-syllabic, and stop. In spelling, it is realized as:

g	gg	gh
get	baggy	ghost

vii. /m/: It is voiced, nasal, bilabial, consonantal, syllabic, and stop. In spelling, it is realized as:

m	mm
man	hammer

viii. /n/: It is voiced, nasal, alveolar, consonantal, syllabic, and stop. In spelling, it is realized as:

n	nn
lunch	sunny

ix. /ŋ/: It is voiced, nasal, velar, consonantal, syllabic, and stop. In spelling, it is realized as:

n - c	n - g	n - k	n - q	n - ch	n - dk
income	song	ink	vanquish	anchor	handkerchief

x. /f/: It is voiceless, oral, labio-dental, consonantal, non-syllabic, and continuant. In spelling, it is realized as:

f	ff	gh	ph
fat	off	enough	photo

xi. /v/: It is voiced, oral, labio-dental, consonantal, non-syllabic, and continuant. In spelling, it is realized as:

f	v	ph	vv
of	have	Stephen	navvy

xii. /s/: It is voiceless, oral, alveolar, consonantal, non-syllabic, and continuant. In spelling, it is realized as:

c	s	sc	ss	z	Part of x
cell	sell	scene	possess	quartz	six

xiii. /z/: It is voiced, oral, alveolar, consonantal, non-syllabic, and continuant. In spelling,, it is realized as:

s	x	Part of x	z	ss	zz
husband	xenophobe	example	size	possess	dizzy

xiv. /ʃ/: It is voiceless, oral, palato-alveolar, consonantal, non-syllabic, and continuant. In spelling, it is realized as:

c	s	t	Part of x	ch
official	sugar	action	anxious	machine
sc	sh	ss	chs	sch
conscious	ash	mission	fuchsia	schedule

xv. /ʒ/: It is voiced, oral, palato-alveolar, consonantal, non-syllabic, and continuant. In spelling, it is realized as:

g	s	z
prestige	decision	seizure

xvi. /θ/: It is voiceless, oral, interdental, consonantal, non-syllabic, and continuant. In spelling, it is realized as:

th
breath

xvii. /ð/: It is voiced, oral, interdental, consonantal, non-syllabic, and continuant. In spelling, it is realized as:

th
breathe

xviii. /tʃ/: It is voiceless, oral, palato-alveolar, consonantal, non-syllabic, and affricate, i.e. a combination of a stop and a continuant. In spelling, it is realized as:

c	t	ch	tch
concerto	nature	beach	catch

ixx. /dʒ/: It is voiced, oral, palato-alveolar, consonantal, non-syllabic, and affricate. In spelling, it is realized as:

d	g	j	ch	dg	dj	gg
soldier	age	jam	spinach	judge	adjust	suggest

xx. /r/: It is voiced, alveolar, vocalic, syllabic, and retroflex continuant. It tends to be a trill after the voiceless interdental consonant as in 'through'. In spelling, it is realized as:

r	rr
red	married

xi. /l/: It is voiced, oral, alveolar, consonantal, syllabic, and continuant. It is palatalised, velarised, or darkened [ɫ] when it is syllable final or before another consonant as in 'feel', and 'help'. In spelling, it is realized as:

l	ll
self	fall

xxii. /h/: It is voiced, oral, glottal, vocalic, non-syllabic, and continuant. In spelling, it is realized as:

h	wh
hat	who

xxiii. /j/: It is voiced, oral, palatal, vocalic, non-syllabic, and glide. In spelling, it is realized as:

y	j
yes	hallelujah

xxiv. /w/: It is voiced, oral, bilabial and velar (the back of the tongue raised towards the soft palate), vocalic, non-syllabic, and glide. In spelling, it is realized as:

o	u	w	wh
reservoir	queen	way	why

The following tables classify the consonants of British Standard English:

Consonant	Voiced	Oral	Bilabial	Labio-Dental	Interdental	Alveolar	Palato-alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
p	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
b	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
t	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-
d	+	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-
k	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
g	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
m	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
n	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-
ŋ	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
f	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
v	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
s	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-
z	+	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-
ʃ	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-
ʒ	+	+		-	-	-	+	-	-	-
θ	-	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-
ð	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-
tʃ	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-
dʒ	+	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-
h	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+
l	+	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-
r	+	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-
j	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
w	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	-

Table 10: Phonetic Features of English Consonants (Place of Articulation)

Consonant	Stop	Affricate	Glide	Lateral	Consonantal	Syllabic
p	+	-	-	-	+	-
b	+	-	-	-	+	-
t	+	-	-	-	+	-
d	+	-	-	-	+	-
k	+	-	-	-	+	-
g	+	-	-	-	+	-
m	+	-	-	-	+	+
n	+	-	-	-	+	+
ŋ	+	-	-	-	+	+
f	-	-	-	-	+	-
v	-	-	-	-	+	-
s	-	-	-	-	+	-
z	-	-	-	-	+	-
ʃ	-	-	-	-	+	-
ʒ	-	-	-	-	+	-
θ	-	-	-	-	+	-
ð	-	-	-	-	+	-
tʃ	-	+	-	-	+	-
dʒ	-	+	-	-	+	-
h	-	-	-	-	-	-
l	-	-	-	+	+	+
r	-	-	-	-	-	+
j	-	-	+	-	-	-
w	-	-	+	-	-	-

Table 11: Phonetic Features of English Consonants (Manner of Articulation)

III.2.3 Stress

English has a movable stress, which means that any syllable with a strong vowel as a centre may be stressed whether word initial as in 'follow', word medial as in 'potato', or word final as in 'upon'. The syllables that are never stressed are those having as a centre weak vowels, which are: the schwa /ə/, an allophonic close front vowel [i] in

the general area of the long /i:/, the short one /ɪ/, an allophonic close back vowel [u] in the general area of the long /u:/, the short one /ʊ/, and the syllabic consonants. Simple words of two and three syllables tend to have some regular patterns of stress depending on the grammatical category (verb, noun, or adjective), the number of syllables, and the vowel quality. Stress in complex words with suffixes depends on the suffixes themselves. Some suffixes bear stress as 'ee' in 'refugee', some alter the position of stress on the root such 'ity' as in 'fertility', and some others neither bear stress nor influence its word position as 'able' in 'comfortable'. Stress in compound words depends on the first morpheme and on the meaning. If the first morpheme is adjectival, and if the word means exactly what it means the stress falls on the second morpheme, otherwise it is always on the first one. Hence, 'second-class' is stressed on the second syllable because 'second' is an adjective, and the word means a class that comes second. On the other hand, although the morpheme 'green' in 'greenhouse' is an adjective, it is stressed because the meaning of the whole word is not 'a house that is green' but rather 'a plastic coverage used in agriculture'. Finally, the word 'bedroom' is stressed on the first morpheme simply because the first morpheme is not an adjective. Stress in English is grammatically contrastive in the case of some two-syllable word pairs that are identically spelt. For instance, the word 'increase' is stressed on the first syllable, if it is a noun or an adjective and on the second one if it is a verb. Some phoneticians would classify syllables into stressed syllables and unstressed ones, but some others would allocate a secondary stress besides the primary one to polysyllabic words with syllables having strong vowels as centres. A word like 'Japanese' would have a secondary stress on the first syllable in addition to the primary one on the suffix. In addition to word stress, there is sentence stress that is semantically contrastive at the sentence level. A sentence like 'The fat man is coming' with an emphasis on man' would mean 'the fat

man and not the fat woman', whereas emphasis on 'fat' would mean 'the fat man not the thin one'. As stress is quite an important suprasegmental aspect, there may be some disagreements among phoneticians and linguists in general as to where a given word is stressed, but this applies to an extremely insignificant number of words. The word 'kilometre' may be stressed on the first syllable by some and on the second by some others. Most vowels in unaccented syllables and in functional words when unstressed, such as articles, pronouns, prepositions, auxiliaries, and conjunctions, are reduced to a schwa. According to some phoneticians, this gives the English language a stress-timed rhythm of speech that tends to be quicker in speed and more economical in matter of energy compared to languages with a syllable-timed rhythm like French. In French, all vowels keep their quality whether the syllable is accented or not. A comparison between the pronunciation of an utterance like 'a marvellous creature', /ə 'mɑ: və ləs 'kri: tʃə/ in English and 'une créature merveilleuse' /yn kre ja 'tyr mɛR vɛ 'jøz/, in French shows this contrast between the two languages. Hence, out of the six syllables in English, only the two stressed syllables are strong, all the remaining four unstressed syllables are weak and have the schwa as a centre. On the other hand, all the centres of the six syllables in French are strong vowels whether stressed or unstressed. The high frequency of the unstressed syllables that are weak in English make of it a stress-timed rhythm language that is, according to the proponents of this theory, quicker in speed and more economical in matter of energy in comparison with the syllable-timed rhythm characterizing the French language.

Any approach to teaching the sounds of English should take into account this background, which if not appropriately handled may prove to be an obstacle to good achievement instead of being a facilitating factor.

Conclusion

By the time the Algerian learners, among which are the population under study, start approaching the sound system of English, they already have in their mind quite a rich repertoire of sounds made up of three sound systems and two orthographical patterns representing the two written languages. As the error analysis undertaken in the next two chapters will reveal, these three sound systems play a role in various degrees in shaping the phonological interlanguage of these learners. Yet, the greatest influence is from the target system itself followed by Standard French, although the level of most of the learners is much lower than their level in Standard Arabic. This is due to both an irregular orthography of the core lexicon of the target language and a somewhat regular orthography of that of the French Language.

CHAPTER IV

Error Analysis of the Interlanguage of the First Group and Confirmation

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CHAPTER IV

Error Analysis of the Interlanguage of the First Group and Confirmation

Introduction

In any error analysis, it is of primary importance to introduce first the subjects under investigation, their regional backgrounds, and their levels in the languages they know besides the target one in order to understand the nature of their transfer and the strategies they adopt when approaching the target sound system. In order to have an idea on their level in the two sound systems they know prior to the target one, a reading test including most of the relevant sounds is devised. It consists of a paragraph taken from the Principles of the International Phonetic Association and translated into Arabic by the author (Appendix 1)⁸. In order to confirm the results of the following error analysis, a confirmation test is administered to a group of thirteen third year students. It consists of three tokens as a maximum and one as a minimum of the instances of the errors dealt with within the error analysis (Appendix 2). Finally, the results obtained will be compared with the errors made by two types of learners with whom the Algerian learners tend to be classified: French learners and Arab learners. This is done in order to establish the interlanguage of the Algerian learners as a distinct one from that of these two types of learners.

IV.1 Subjects

The subjects of the first group are all third year students at the department of English, University of Constantine. The third year in the classical BA in English curriculum is the last year including a 'module' of oral expression and listening comprehension. It is supposed that by this time the students would have achieved a

⁸ As appendix 10 is too large to be included within this volume, because it comprises samples of all the errors that will be dealt with, it will be in a separate one.

fairly good level in both producing and comprehending stretches of connected English discourse in various contexts of use. All the subjects know English as a third language. By 'language' here is not meant the general concept of any system of communication; it is rather a restricted meaning which is the academic variety of all of English, French, and Arabic. Obviously, the term 'know' does not refer necessarily to a total mastery of the three languages. It rather implies knowledge of some of the basic elements and rules of phonology (as described in the previous chapters and which is of primary importance in this error analysis), morphology, syntax, and a fair amount of Lexis along with some rudiments of pragmatic rules. Besides these three languages, the subjects use, for their everyday life, one of the dialectal varieties of Algerian spoken Arabic. Their number is constituted of 59 students (37 females and 22 males) and their regional dialects are as follows:

Dialect	Number
Constantine	22
Jijel	18
Mila	9
Skikda	2
Ain Beida	2
Algiers	2
Eastern South	2
Batna	1
Annaba	1

Table 12: Informants' Regional Dialects

31 of the subjects had access to the university after gaining a baccalaureate of Arts while 28 had got a baccalaureate of sciences. A routine information sheet that was kept by the teacher in the beginning of the academic year included a question about the level of each student in Standard Arabic and Standard French. The answers of the students to this question are as follows:

Level	Language	
	Standard Arabic	Standard French
Weak	1	1
Average	20	29
Good	36	29
Excellent	2	0
Total	59	59

Table 13: Informants' Level in both Arabic and French (Information Sheet)

As can be seen from the above table, there are more students who claim to be good in Arabic than those who claim to be so in French, and there are less students who claim to be just average in Arabic than those who claim to be so in French.

The students were given the one paragraph story in French and its translation into Arabic (tape 23, side 2, 12:30 and tape 24 both sides)⁹ to read in order to test the influence of their dialects on the segmental phonology of both Standard Arabic and Standard French. Concerning Standard Arabic, the segments in question are the voiceless dental stop /t/, the voiced palatal fricative /ʒ/, and the voiceless uvular stop /q/. Hence, in the reading of Arabic, some students from the region of Jijel substitute the voiceless uvular stop /q/ by the voiceless velar stop /k/ under the influence of the dialectal form of Arabic they use in their everyday life (tape 24, side 1, 2:16). Concerning French, the tested segments are the front half-open unrounded vowel /e/, the voiced velar fricative /ʀ/, and the voiceless dental stop /t/. As an example of the accent of some students in the production of French is the substitution of the front half open unrounded vowel /e/ by the front close unrounded vowel /i/ (tape 24, side 1, 27:7).

⁹ The tapes used to illicit the data in this research have been converted to audio files; the audio extracts dealt with in this research as illustrations as well as tape 1 in Appendix 3 are saved in a disk enclosed with this thesis. 12:30 refers to the counter on the Windows Media Player.

language	French			Arabic			
Sounds tested	/e/	/ʀ/	/t /	/t /		/dʒ/	/q/
Substitutions	/ɪ/	/ɪ/	/t /	/t ^s /	/ṭ /	/ʒ/	/k/
N° of students substituting	12	11	01	38	03	07	04
Total	24			52			

Table 14: Students' Accents Main Features in both French and Arabic

The results show that the students whose Standard Arabic is influenced by the dialectal phonological features outnumber those whose Standard French is so. The following tables show in more details the influence of the regional dialects on the reading of both Standard Arabic and Standard French:

Dialects	Cne		Jijel			Mila	
Standard Arabic	t	ʒ	t	dʒ	q	t	dʒ
Dialectal Substitutes	t ^s	dʒ	t ^s	ʒ	k	t ^s	ʒ
Students substituting	17/22	3/22	14/18	1/18	4/18	5/9	2/9

Table 15: Influence of the Dialects upon Standard Arabic (Part I)

Dialects	Skikda	A. Beida	Algiers	South East	Batna	Annaba
Standard Arabic	t	t	ʒ	t	t	-
Dialectal Substitutes	-	ṭ	dʒ	t ^s	ṭ	-
students substituting	0/2	2/2	1/2	1/2	1/1	-

Table 15: Influence of Dialects upon Standard Arabic (Part II)

Dialects	Constantine		Jijel		Mila	
French Sounds Substituted	e	R	e	R	R	ʒ
Dialectal Substitutes	ɪ	/ɪ/	ɪ	/ɪ/	t	dʒ
N° of students Substituting	2/22	4/22	7/18	4/18	3/9	1/9

Table 16: Influence of Dialects upon French (Part I)

Dialects	Skikda	Ain Beida	Algiers	S. East		Batna	Annaba
French Sounds Substituted	-	R	-	R	t	-	-
Dialectal Substitutes	-	/ɪ/		/ɪ/	t ^s	-	-
N° of students Substituting	-	1/2	-	1/2	1/2	-	-

Table 16: Influence of Dialects upon French (Part II)

Tables 15 to 16 show that there is an influence from the different types of Algerian Arabic spoken by the students upon both French and Arabic. However this influence is not random but seems to be rather selective. For example the majority of the students from the dialectal group of Constantine, Jijel, and Mila transfer one of the very common phonetic features of their dialects, which is the voiceless denti-alveolar affricated /t^s/ to Arabic but not to French. The French voiceless dental stop /t/ is correctly pronounced by nearly all the students. This tendency to be selective in transferring might be due to the conception that dialectal Arabic is of a much closer distance to Arabic than to French. The only instance where the denti-alveolar voiceless stop /t^s/ is transferred to French is that of the eastern south student (tape 23, side 2, 15:57). It might be because most southern accents of Algeria have a more affricated /t^s/

than those of the north. However, the conception of the distance does not seem to be enough to trigger transfer if there are some social constraints in the mind of the learner such as awareness that a given sound is socially 'funny'. For example, the use of the voiceless velar stop /k/ in some dialects of Jijel, in contexts where elsewhere it is either the voiced velar stop /g/ or the voiceless uvular stop /q/ that are used, is stigmatized by some people speaking other dialects. This attitude seems to have stimulated the students from Jijel to make an extra effort and pronounce the voiceless uvular /q/ in Arabic, and only four of them failed to do so. The same could explain why neither of the two students from Skikda substituted the voiceless dental stop /t/ in Arabic by the voiceless palato-alveolar affricated /tʃ/ so common in the dialects of the region of Skikda (tape 24, side 2, 33:52). These sociolinguistic barriers are further illustrated by the fact that no one of the 37 female students substituted the voiceless velar fricative /ʀ/ in French by the dialectal voiced alveolar trill /ɹ/, while ten males out of twenty-two did so, and three hesitated between the two sounds (tape 23, side 2, 00:55, for one of the three who hesitated). A well-known gender difference in the performance of French in Algeria is the voiced alveolar trill /ɹ/ for males vs. the voiced velar fricative /ʀ/ for females.

The significant influence of the mother tongue of some students on Standard Arabic and, to a lesser extent, on Standard French, might lead one into concluding that this influence will be carried over to the performance of English and that there will be more transfer from Dialectal Arabic into English, or, at least, to the same extent than transfer from French into English. As will be shown later, French seems to be a much stronger source of transfer than Dialectal Arabic even for those students who are just average or weak in French. The learners will be selective in their transfer to English just as they were in their transfer to French.

IV.2 Tasks

The tasks to elicit errors are recordings of oral expression sessions taught by the author of this thesis to third year students, dealing mainly with the various types of public speaking. The recorded sessions consist of 23 audio tapes, converted to audio files for easier reference. The contents of the recordings are as follows:

- The students answering questions about a lecture followed by a general discussion about the best lecturer and the worst one. (Tape 1)
- The students answering questions about a football commentary followed by a general discussion about women and sport. (Tapes 2 and 3)
- A news bulletin followed by questions and a general discussion. (Tapes 4, 5, and 6)
- The students answering questions about two Christian sermons followed by a general discussion about Christianity and Islam. (Tapes 7 and 8)
- The students answering questions about a debate between a Muslim religious authority and a Christian one followed by a general discussion. (Tapes 9, 10, and 11)
- Three students addressing their classmates on a religious topic followed by a discussion. (Tapes 12 and 13)
- Individual chatting with the students on various topics. (Tapes 14, 15, 16, 17, and 18)
- Two students addressing their classmates on a political topic, followed by a discussion. (Tape 19)
- The reading of a song and a Shakespearean soliloquy. (Tapes 20 and 21)
- Reading of a political speech and a second reading of a Shakespearean soliloquy. (Tapes 22 and 23).

IV.3 Nature of the Error Analysis

Since the purpose of the following error analysis is both theoretical and pedagogical, the recognition of the error is not as strict as Bell would have liked it to be (see I.2.3. page 19). The frequency of the error is not per individual but per group of students. That means if an error occurs more than once but not necessarily by the same student, it is counted as such. As Corder (1975:410) wrote once about the nature of interlanguage:

I would go so far as to say that the learner is a 'native speaker' of his peculiar language. In fact, he is probably the only native speaker of it, **though his language may share interesting properties with that of other people who are learning the same target language, particularly if they have the same language background as he has.** This language of his is clearly neither his mother tongue nor is it the target language, though it may share some properties with these two languages: mother tongue and target. (The highlighting is by the author of this thesis)

In a context such as the one in which this investigation is carried out, and because of the lack of universities in this country, no group of students is likely to be linguistically and educationally homogeneous. Students will, for some time to come, vary in origin, dialect, pre-university studies, and language of study. Consequently, one has to opt for a qualitative assessment instead of a quantitative one. Such a qualitative assessment is not in the sense of Johansson's cited in the first chapter (see I.2.3, page 19) but in a sense that it is limited to 'typical errors'. This implies that the intuition of the teacher is called upon instead of the learner in the recognition of those errors which, as his teaching experience shows him, are commonly made by some learners under a set of learning circumstances. As Corder (1973:30) suggested, since the foreign lecturer has been once a student, he "has, therefore, been a native speaker of his pupil's

interlanguage". The description of the error will be following Corder's model, which is a reconstruction of what the student actually intended according to the target language norms. Since the present error analysis is limited to the performance of the students in segmental phonology, stress, and some devices of connected speech, the possibility of having more than one probable target intention is greatly reduced. Indeed, most of the errors are overtly idiosyncratic because there can be very little ambiguity in the use and in the misuse of segments (see I.2.2.1, page 16). Finally, the explanation of the errors will be, as much as possible, in the light of the relatively recent cognitive approach to transfer and to interlanguage.

After having categorised the errors common to most students, a word list consisting of a minimum of one instance and a maximum of three of each error (where possible) was established. This list was read by 13 students, most of whom were third year students. The objective of such a reading test is to confirm the occurrence of the errors made by the previous group of students (word list tape) (see appendix 2).

IV.4 Findings

IV.4.1 Overall Performance

The script of tape one (Appendix 3) and the interlanguage samples of the students within the body of this thesis (see IV.5, page 163) show the following features of the students' performance:

- A very slow rhythm of speech full of hesitations, represented in the script by three dotted gaps, repetitions, changes in mid-course, and slips of the tongue which are partly due to the nature of linguistic performance as such and mostly to a lack of vocabulary and ideas, showing, in most cases, that their overall level is far below what is required at this stage of their studies.

- A high frequency of errors of lexis, grammar, and articulation, the language level of concern here.
- Many cases of code switching to all the three systems known by all students, namely Dialectal Arabic, Standard Arabic, and Standard French.
- Many cases of hybrid words mainly between English and French such 'Saudia Arabia', 'Arabie Saudia', 'Irakian', etc, and even inventions sometimes.
- Many cases of sudden falls in voice to a point of whispering due to uncertainty by the students as to the correctness of the form, the content, or both of what is said. These cases are keyed with a smaller font than the font representing regular speech on the sample tape (Appendix 3)
- Many self corrections.
- Many self miscorrections.

IV.4.2 Articulation

IV.4.2.1 Vowels

It is with vowels that the students seem to encounter the greatest difficulties. Out of the 25 vowels they make errors in 20. The 5 vowels with which they seem to have no problem are: the diphthong /ɔɪ/ as in 'soil' /sɔɪl/, the triphthong /eɪə/ as in 'layer' /leɪə/, the triphthong /əʊə/ as in 'lower' /ləʊə/, the triphthong /ɔɪə/ as in 'lawyer' /ləɪə/, and the triphthong /aʊə/ as in 'our' /aʊə/. The only exception is those students who mix the American pronunciation with the English one and pronounce the post-vocalic 'r'. As a result, when a triphthong is word-final, it tends to be pronounced as a diphthong followed by the voiced alveolar liquid /r/. The above examples of triphthongs would be realised, in this case, as /leɪr/, /ləʊr/, /ləɪr/, and /aʊr/ respectively.

IV.4.2.1.1 Substitutions

Substitutions have the lion's share in the overall occurrence of error. The number of instances of intralingual substitutions (both the substituted vowel and the substituting one belong to the target language) amounts to 44 instances followed by a no less important number of instances of interlingual ones (the substituting vowel is from French, the students' second language), which amounts to 28.

a. Intralingual Substitutions

Intralingual substitutions are part of what is known in the literature as 'intralingual transfer', in contrast with 'interlingual transfer', which is a transfer across two or even, as will be dealt with later, three languages. This intralingual transfer is generally due to a generalisation of the target language items and rules. Many error analysts have called the cause of such transfer 'overgeneralization' (Dulay and Burt, 1974). The English language is thought to be of a highly irregular spelling. According to Crystal (1987:214), George Bernard Shaw, one of the many spelling reformers of English, observed that a word such as 'fish' /fɪʃ/ could be written in English as 'ghoti': /f/ as in 'cough' /kɒf/, /ɪ/ as in 'women' /wɪmɪn/, and /ʃ/ as in 'nation' /neɪʃn/. However, English, like any natural language possesses a vast lexicon that needs systematic and exhaustive probing in order to reach a firm and objective conclusion. A study undertaken more than three decades ago (Hanna, et al, 1971) on a corpus of 17000 words revealed that no less than 84% were spelt following a regular pattern. A commonly cited percentage of regular patterns is 75%, and the impression that English is highly irregular in spelling may stem from the fact that around 400 words that are widely used and form part of the core lexicon are irregular (Crystal, 1987). This irregularity has been blamed for a rather slow development of literacy skills by English children (Thorstad, 1991), for their early poor spelling standard (Spencer, 2002), and for

being the major source of errors for learners of English (Cook, 1997). Many such studies based their conclusions on only L1-L2 learning contexts. However, in the L1-L2-L3 context of this error analysis, this apparent spelling to sound inconsistency of the English language is only one of the major sources of their pronunciation errors. A no less important source of errors is the relative consistency of the spelling of French, their second academic language after Standard Arabic. The few third-language acquisition studies available, though not in the area of the spelling influence on pronunciation, (Ringbom, 1982; Azevedo, 1978; Fitzgerald, 1978; Sharwood Smith, 1979; Bartelt, 1989) suggest that L2 seems to play an important role in shaping the strategy of learners in approaching their L3. An important contribution on the influence of spelling, but in an L1-L2 context, is that of Zampini (1994).

This investigation has revealed 43 instances of intralingual substitutions. The evidence that what the student is facing, in most cases, is not a problem of articulation but rather a problem of spelling confusion is the fact that most of the vowels are intersubstitutable. This means that the same vowel is substituted by another vowel and serves as a substitute to the same vowel in a different context. Words like 'prefer' /prɪ'fɜː/ and 'transfer' /'trænsfɜː/ are pronounced /'prɪfə/ and /'trænsfə/ by generalising the spelling combination 'er' in words such 'learner' /'lɜːnə/ or 'bigger' /'bɪgə/; whereas, a word like 'certificate' /sə'tɪfɪkət/ is pronounced /'sɜːtɪfɪkət/ by aligning the spelling combinations 'er' on the pronunciation of such words as 'serve' /sɜːv/ and the spelling combination 'ate' on the pronunciation of such words as 'late' /leɪt/. So, two possibilities of pronouncing the spelling combination 'er', namely /ɜː/ and /ə/, are quite reversed. The main reason for such substitutions is that most of the students are unaware or do not abide by the fact that the phonetic value of the same spelling combination cannot be the same in monosyllabic words as in polysyllabic ones.

Indeed, in the former the centre is necessarily strong, except in weak form words, and the tendency in the latter is weakening most of the syllables.

Table 17 displays 15 vowels, which are subject to intralingual transfer:

English Vowel	English Substitute	Erroneous Use	Correct Use	Spelling	Possible English Inferences ¹⁰
ə	e	ɪnt'restəd	'ɪntrəstɪd	interested	sent, went
	æ	'dʒentlmæn	'dʒentlmən	gentleman	man, can
	ɜ:	'sɜ:tɪfɪkət	sə'tɪfɪkət	certificate	certify, term
	ʌ	'sʌkses	sək'ses	success	summer, butter
	ʊ	tʊ'geðə	tə'geðə	together	to
	ɔ:	'fɔ:bɪdən	fə'bɪdn	forbidden	form, norm
	ɑ:	'pɑ:tɪkjələ	pə'tɪkjələ	particular	part, hard
	əʊ	'pəʊst,pəʊn	pə'spəʊn	postpone	rope, hope
	eɪ	æ'fɔ:tʃʊnətɪli	ʌn'fɔ:tʃənətɪli	unfortunately	lately, innately
ɪ	ɪə	'sɒldɪə	'səʊldʒə	soldier	bier, fierce
	ə	'wʊmən	'wɪmɪn	women	woman
	ʊ	'wʊmən	wɪmɪn	women	woman
	eɪ	do'zeɪdʒ	'dəʊsɪdʒ	dosage	cage, age
e	aɪ	'maɪrəkl	'mɪrəkl	miracle	mine, nine
	ə	'ɪvənt	ɪv'ent	event	current
	eɪ	seɪd	sed	said	paid, laid
	i:	'pli:ʒə	'plezə	pleasure	please, seat
ɒ	ɪ	'dʒɪnɪrəl	'dʒenrəl	general	precision
	ə	'ʌpən	ə'pɒn	upon	common, lemon
	æ	wæt	wɒt	what	cat, hat
ʌ	əʊ	'nəʊlədʒ	'nɒlədʒ	knowledge	know, low
	ɜ:	'wɜ:rɪd	'wʌrɪd	worried	word
	əʊ	'nəʊθɪŋ	'nʌθɪŋ	nothing	no, so
ʌ	aʊ	'kaʊntrɪ	'kʌntrɪ	country	count, bound

Table 17: Intralingual Substitutions in the Use of Vowels (Part I)

¹⁰ By 'possible inferences' is meant more or less the similar combinations that are generalised by the students.

English Vowel	English Substitute	Erroneous Use	Correct Use	Spelling	Possible English Inferences
ɜ:	ə	m'təpri:t	m'tɜ:prɪt	interpret	interact
	ɔ:	'wɔ:ʃɪp	'wɜ:ʃɪp	worship	storm, form
	e	'persən	'pɜ:sn	person	let, get
ʊ	u:	gu:d	gʊd	good	food, shoot
	ɒ	wɒlf	wʊlf	wolf	lot, hot
	ɪ	'wɪmən	'wʊmən	woman	women
æ	ə	'fainəns	'fainəns	finance	importance
	eɪ	'neɪtʃərəl	'nætʃərəl	natural	nature
ɔ:	aʊ	braʊt	brɔ:t	brought	house, about
	əʊ	brəʊd	brɔ:d	broad	road, coat
eɪ	æ	tʃændʒ	tʃeɪndʒ	change	hand, land
	i:	gri:t	greɪt	great	meat, heat
ɑ:	æ	'ænsə	'ɑ:nsə	answer	hand, band
	ɜ:	hɜ:t	hɑ:t	heart	learn, earn
aɪ	ɪ	kɪst	kraɪst	Christ	list, mist
	i:	'æli:z	'ælaɪz	allies	series, parties
aʊ	əʊ	ə'ləʊ	ə'laʊ	allow	low, slow
	ʌ	dʌbt	daʊt	doubt	country
əʊ	u:	'tʃu:zən	'tʃəʊzn	chosen	choose
eə	ɪə	bɪə	beə	bear	near, fear, tear

Table 17: Intralingual Substitutions in the Use of Vowels (Part II)

Table 18 classifies these vowels on a scale of difficulty:

Vowel	N° of Substitutes	N° of Substituted Vowels	Vowel	N° of Substitutes	N° of Substituted Vowels
ə	10	5	ɔ:	2	2
ɪ	4	2	ʊ	2	2
e	4	1	aʊ	2	2
ʌ	3	2	ɑ:	2	1
ɒ	3	1	aɪ	2	1
eɪ	2	4	əʊ	1	5
ɜ:	2	3	eə	1	-
æ	2	4	u:	-	2

Table 18: Scale of Difficulty of Vowels Subject to Intralingual Substitutions

It seems that the most problematic vowel is the mid-central unrounded vowel /ə/. It has 10 intralingual substitutes and substitutes no less than 5 vowels. The fact that it substitutes 5 vowels shows that the problem lies in an English spelling pronunciation mismatch. It is not a difficulty of articulation, as might be thought, due to a difference between English and one of the previously learnt or acquired linguistic systems. What mainly happens is that the inductive reasoning of the students runs against so many exceptions, which, more than often, outweigh the rules.

A failure to master the mid-central unrounded vowel /ə/ is also a failure to master the English stress pattern, since most weak unstressed syllables have this vowel as a centre. Substituting this vowel with a strong vowel results either in stress displacement or overstress. This means that the articulated words will have, besides the major stress, one or two minor ones. For instance, by substituting the schwa /ə/ in the word 'success' /sək'ses/ by a strong vowel /ʌ/ and realising it as /'sʌksəs/, the stress is moved from the second syllable /ses/ to the first one /sək/ resulting in stress displacement. On the other hand, substituting the two schwas in the word 'photography' /fə'tɒgrəfi/, by the diphthong /əʊ/ in the first syllable and by the open front unrounded vowel /æ/ in the third syllable, by pronouncing it /fəʊtɒ'græfi/, results in both stress displacement and overstress. This is due to the fact that both the latter vowels are centres of strong syllables.

The mid-central unrounded vowel /ə/ is, perhaps, the vowel that requires the least of energy and the involvement of the fewest of speech organs; it is also the most frequently used vowel in English. Consequently, a failure to get it under control results in redundant articulation that slows down the natural speed of English and requires more time and more energy from the student. Furthermore, since the rhythm of speech in English is wholly determined by a pattern of stressed and unstressed syllables, a

failure to master this crucial vowel greatly disturbs that natural rhythmic flow of English speech. The resulting difficult rhythm of speech cannot be very stimulating for the students to read or speak in English.

b. Interlingual Substitutions (from French)

The second most important type of substitutions is that of English vowels by French counterparts. There are 15 French vowels and 1 French semivowel that substitute the English ones and 28 instances of language transfer. These substitutions are mainly caused by the influence of a relatively consistent spelling of French compared to the English one. Here are the French vowels that interfere in the performance of the informants:

- The oral, close, front, and rounded vowel /y/ as in the word '**tu**' /ty/ 'you'.
- The oral open central unrounded vowel /a/ as in the word '**la**' /la/ 'the'.
- The oral, mid, front, and unrounded /e/ as in '**ces**' 'these'.
- The oral, close, back, and rounded /u/ as in '**fou**' 'mad'.
- The oral, open, front, and rounded /œ/ as in '**œuvre**' 'work'.
- The oral mid back rounded vowel /o/ as in '**lot**' /lo/ 'share'.
- The oral, open, back, and rounded /ɔ/ as in '**alors**' /alɔR/ 'so'
- The oral, open, central, and unrounded /ə/ as in '**regard**' 'look'.
- The oral, open, front, and unrounded vowel /ɛ/ as in '**maître**' /mɛtR/ 'master'.
- The semi vowel /ɥ/ as in the word '**nuit**' /nuɥ/ 'night'.

The following table illustrates the interlingual transfer in the use of vowels:

English Vowel	French Substitute	Erroneous Use	Correct Use	Spelling	Probable French Inferences
ə	a	ˌtra'dɪʃənəl	trə'dɪʃənəl	traditional	traditionnel
	e	ˌɔpe'reɪʃn	ˌɔpə'reɪʃn	operation	opération
	ɔ	'steɪdɪəm	'steɪdɪəm	stadium	album
	y	sy'pɔ:t	sə'pɔ:t	support	supporter
	ʊ	rɪ'lɪdʒjʊs	rɪ'lɪdʒəs	religious	tous
ʌ	ʊ	'gʊvənmənt	'gʌvənmənt	government	gouvernement
	y	'pyblik	'pʌblik	public	publique
	æ	klæb	klʌb	club	club
ɪ ¹¹	ə	'segəndrɪ	'sekəndrɪ	secondary	secondaire
	e	dev'lop	dɪ'veləp	develop	développer
	ɥ	bɥlt	bɪlt	built	nuit, suit
eɪ	ɑ	'sɑkrəd	'seɪkrɪd	sacred	sacré
	e	ˌo'ke	ˌəʊ'keɪ	ok	ok
	æ	ɪz'raɛl	'ɪzreɪl	Israel	Israël
ʊ	y	ˌsɪty'eɪʃn	ˌsɪtʃə'eɪʃn	situation	situation
	ɔ	kə'weɪt	kʊ'weɪt	Kuwait	Koweït
u:	y	sy'pɪəriə	su:'pɪəriə	superior	supérieur
	æ	mɑ'nœvɾɪŋ	mə'nu:vəriŋ	manoeuvring	manceuvrer
ɔ:	ɑ	'alsəʊ	'ɔ:lsəʊ	also	altérer
e	e	ə'merɪkənz	ə'merɪkənz	Americans	Américains
ɒ	a	'kwɒlɪfaɪ	'kwɒlɪfaɪ	qualifier	qualifier
ɑ:	a	kɑrɑ'te	kə'rɑ:tɪ	karate	karaté
i:	e	'edʒɪpt	'i:dʒɪpt	Egypt	Egypte
ɜ:	u	dʒɜrnl	dʒɜ:nl	journal	journal
ɪə	e	ɪk'spɪəriəns	ɪk'spɪəriəns	experience	expérience
eə	a	dɪ'klaɪəd	dɪ'kleəd	declared	déclarer
aʊ	u	'ʊtrɑʒɪəs	əʊ'treɪdʒəs	outrageous	outrage
ʊə	y	'kjʊəriəs	'kjuəriəs	curious	curieux

Table 19: Interlingual Transfer in the Use of Vowels (French Interference)

¹¹ This vowel is pronounced by most students as the French /i/ which is closer than its English counterpart /ɪ/.

Setting the previous findings on a scale of difficulty will give the following results:

Vowel	N° of Substitutes	Vowel	N° of Substitutes
ə	5	ɒ	1
ʌ	3	ɑ:	1
ɪ	3	i:	1
eɪ	3	ɜ:	1
ʊ	2	ɪə	1
u:	2	eə	1
ɔ:	1	aʊ	1
e	1	ʊə	1

Table 20: Scale of Difficulty of Vowels Subject to Interlingual Transfer

What is noticeable from the previous two tables is that the vowel that presents more problems for the students is, again, the mid-central unrounded vowel /ə/. It is substituted by five French vowels. The French vowels /a/ and /e/ are dominant in the number of substitutions; they substitute 12 vowels out of 16. The stability of the letter 'a', in representing mostly the anterior French vowel /a/, contrasts sharply with the letter 'a' in English, which represents many sounds. There is a tendency among the learners to favour a stable and regular pronunciation of French in this case. Many weak form words in English are strengthened because of the letters 'a', among which are 'as', 'at', 'that', 'than', 'can', etc. Not reducing these vowels, in addition to strengthening weak syllables in most polysyllabic lexical words that have to be weakened, seriously affect their performance of English connected speech and result in a very uneconomical and arrhythmic pronunciation. What is also noticeable is that most of the words on which interlingual transfer operates are words with Latin origin. This means they have spelling equivalence in the French language. Where there is intralingual transfer, on the other hand, most of the words have a Germanic root. Therefore, it seems that the transfer of a vowel form French to English (interlanguage transfer) often obeys more to a conception

of the distance between the two languages than to a similarity of the two spellings. For instance, the spelling 'u' is pronounced /y/ in the verb 'to support' which is of Latin origin but never so in a verb like 'to cut' which is of Germanic origin. The same spelling combination is pronounced differently depending on how close it is conceived to the French language. Words having Latin origin seem to be perceived closer to French than those with a Germanic root. One last observation is that since most words that are affected by French spelling are of Latin descent, learners sometimes confuse partial spelling similarity with total similarity between French and English cognates. Some of the many instances are the cognates 'responsibility', 'pronunciation', 'government', and 'gulf'; these are pronounced /,respɔ̃sə'bɪlɪtɪ/, /pro,nɔ̃sɪ'eɪʃn/, /gu'vernəmənt/, and /gɒlf/ as if they were spelt 'responsability' 'prononciation', 'gouvernement', and 'golf' respectively. As Gass & Selinker (1994:100) put it, sometimes "similarities obscure for the learner the fact that there is something to learn". Furthermore, the misuse of the schwa under the influence of French leads to the production of extra syllables such as the case of the word 'Russia' /rʌʃə/ pronounced as /rʌʃɪə/, ending up in a word of three syllables /rʌ ʃɪ ə/ instead of two.

c. Crosslinguistic Substitutions

The third type of substitutions is where it is not clear whether it is due to a generalisation of the target language phonological elements and 'rules' or to French influence. The term 'crosslinguistic influence' is suggested to refer to these ambiguous errors. The author has already used such a term in an earlier work (Beghoul, 1984) when dealing with a lexical error analysis to refer to a transfer which operates across two linguistic systems at a time. This could, in the field of segmental phonology and at the level of the syllable, refer to two errors originating from two or even more languages. An error like /'demselvz/ for /ðəm'selvz/ could be crosslinguistic in the

sense that in the first syllable the voiced interdental stop /ð/ is substituted by the voiced dental stop /d/, a transfer that may be from Dialectal Arabic, and the mid central unrounded vowel /ə/ is substituted by the mid, front, and unrounded vowel /e/, which might be an intralingual error. However, in the context of this study, crosslinguistic transfer refers to a transfer where the same segment could be from either language. An example would be the erroneous pronunciation of the diphthong /əʊ/ in the words 'both' /bəʊθ/ and 'only' /'əʊnli/. As the sole difference between the English vowel /ɒ/ and the French /o/ is only in the position of the tongue from the velum i.e. the former is open and the latter is only half open or mid, they cannot be distinguished when heard unless using very sophisticated equipment. Consequently, it is difficult to state whether the students pronounce the previous words as /boθ/ and /'onli/, influenced by the French language (interlingual transfer), or /bɒθ/ and /'ɒnli/, influenced by the English one (intralingual transfer). Here are the cases of such a transfer:

English Vowel	Crosslinguistic Substitute	Erroneous Use	Correct Use	Spelling	Possible French Inference	Possible English Inference
ʌ	ɒ / o	'ɒ/oðə	'ʌðə	other	pomme	hot
ə	ɒ / o	ɒ/o'pɪniən	ə'pɪniən	opinion	pomme	hot
əʊ	ɒ / o	'ɔ:lsɒ/o	'ɔ:lsəʊ	also	pomme	hot
eɪ	ɛ/e	ə'frɛd	ə'freɪd	afraid	aide	said

Table 21: Crosslinguistic Substitutions of Vowels

Again, and just like in the case of the letter 'a', the students seem to resort to a regular pronunciation of the letter 'o' that is more frequent and more consistent in both language: /o/ or /ɒ/. Opting systematically for such a pronunciation also greatly effects

and slows down the rhythm of speech as there are so many weak syllables that are spelt with the letter 'o' including many weak form words such as 'of', 'for', etc.

d. Miscellaneous Substitutions

Another type of substitutions is those vowel substitutions that defy explanation and cannot be classified in any category. The term 'miscellaneous substitutions' is suggested here.

English Vowel	Miscellaneous Substitution	Erroneous Use	Correct Use	Spelling
ʌ	e	'kentrɪ	'kʌntrɪ	country
	ə	kən'trɪ ¹²	'kʌntrɪ	country
e	ʌ	'sʌkənd	'sekənd	second
	æ	fræntʃ	frentʃ	French
ɔ:	əʊ	'kəuzəd	kɔ:zd	caused
	aʊ	haunt	hɔ:nt	haunt
əʊ	ʊ	'gʊɪŋ	'gəʊɪŋ	going
	aʊ	naʊ	nəʊ	no
eə	ɪə	dɪ'kleə	dɪk'leə	declare
	eɪə	ðeɪə	ðeə	their
ɪə	ɪ	aɪ'dɪ	aɪ'diə	idea
	ɪə	aɪ'dɪə	aɪ'diə	idea
æ	ɪ	'lɪŋgwɪdʒ	'læŋgwɪdʒ	language
ɔ:	u:	bɪ'fu:	bɪ'fɔ:	before
eɪ	aɪ	'traɪnə	'treɪnə	trainer
aɪ	eɪ	ɪz'reɪlɪ	ɪz'reɪli	Israeli
ʊə	ʊ	ˌjʊərə'piən	ˌjʊərə'piən	European
aɪə	aɪ	'sɒsaɪtɪ	sə'saɪəti	society

Table 22: Miscellaneous Substitutions of Vowels

Such substitutions, as those in table 23, are open to all plausible explanations. For instance, substituting the long vowel/ɔ:/ in words like 'for' /fɔ:/ and 'before' /bɪfɔ:/

¹² This word is also pronounced as /'kauntrɪ/ by many students.

by /u:/ may be explained in various ways. One of them might be that the consonant /f/ being a labio-dental sound, an articulation that, somehow, influences the half-close back rounded vowel /ɔ:/, and so it becomes a completely close back rounded vowel /u:/.

e. Interlingual Substitutions (from Dialectal Arabic)

A noticeable influence of the dialectal forms of Arabic is the tendency by most students to shorten long vowels and pronounce pairs like hit/heat /hɪt/ /hi:t/, live/leave /lɪv/ /li:v/, sit/seat /sɪt/ /si:t/ as only one realisation with the short /ɪ/. Some of them even extend this shortening to vowels that are not part of the sound inventory of their local dialects such as the long vowel /ɔ:/ which is realized as a short one /ɒ/. Research comparing between the western Arabic dialects and the eastern ones, for instance (Ghazali et al, 2002), have shown that the former are characterized by complex syllables and reduced vowels while the latter are characterized by longer vowels. These features seem to be the main factor responsible for differences in rhythmic structures. Barkat (2000) tested a group of naïve native speakers of Arabic by asking them to identify speakers from various regions of the Arab World using a listening task. The group managed to identify them as belonging to North Africa or the Middle East in 97% of cases. The same task was given to a French group of speakers and they managed to geographically discriminate between the two types of speakers only in 56% of cases, which is still a significant percentage. When the French speakers were asked about the criteria they used to differentiate between the two, most of them mentioned that North African Arabic sounded faster and jerky or more halting than Eastern Arabic. Using phonetic jargon, such an impression would translate into one type of speech rhythm that is determined mainly by and alternation between long and short vowels. Barkat concluded that although both groups of Dialectal Arabic belong to the stress-timed rhythm, short vowels in the dialects of North Africa have shorter duration than the

corresponding vowels in the dialects of the Middle East. Besides the shortening of vowels, there is one case of transferring a 'dialectalized' pronunciation of an English word back to English again. Here the learner substituted the sound /ʊ/ in the word 'football' with /o/ pronouncing as /fotbɔ:l/ instead of /fʊtbɔ:l/. Here are the English vowels that tend to be influenced by the students' local varieties of Arabic:

English Vowel	Dialectal Substitution	Erroneous Use	Correct Use	Spelling
i:	ɪ	'tɪtʃɪŋ	'ti:tʃɪŋ	teaching
u:	ʊ	grʊp	gru:p	group
ʊ	ɔ	'fotbɔ:l	'fʊtbɔ:l	football
ɒ	ʊ	ˌpɒpjuˈleɪʃn	ˌpɒpjuˈleɪʃn	population

Table 23: Interlingual substitutions (Dialectal Arabic Interference)

f. Interlingual Substitutions (from American English)

The American variety seems to greatly impress most of the learners. However, since they are unaware of the minute differences between the two varieties, none of them utterly pronounces American and the result is an obvious and frequent use of only a few features of American English. The vowel /ɒ/ in English is so often substituted by the American vowel /ɑ/ and, hence, a word like 'body' /bɒdi/ is pronounced /bɑdi/. Sometimes even mispronunciations are Americanized and, so, a word like 'condition' which is pronounced as /kən'dɪʃn/ in both varieties is pronounced by some students as /'kɑndɪʃn/.

IV.4.2.1.2 Insertions

The vowel that is mostly inserted is the mid-central unrounded vowel /ə/. This insertion occurs between the infinitive of the regular verb and the simple past or past participle 'ed'. For instance, a verb like 'rob' in the simple past and past participle form 'robbed' is pronounced /rɒbəd/ instead of /rɒbd/. Such insertion prevents the students

from pronouncing the voiceless morpheme since there is no influence of the last voiceless sound in the infinitive. Hence, the verb 'kiss', which ought to be pronounced with a voiceless morpheme /t/, because of the influence of the voiceless final /s/, is pronounced /kɪsəd/ instead of /kɪst/. Furthermore, by inserting this vowel the learner turns a monosyllabic word into a disyllabic one. This failure will be discussed when dealing with the errors in the use of consonants. These insertions are part of the students' failure to silence so many letters in English and may be classified among the intralingual errors. The following vowels are inserted with varying degrees:

English Vowel	Inserted vowel	Erroneous Use	Correct Use	Spelling
-	ə	'stʌdɪəd	'stʌdɪd	studied
-	ɪ	'krɪstɪən	'krɪstʃən	Christian
-	æ	'ɑ:sənæɪ	'ɑ:sənɪ	arsenal
-	e	kʊ'dent	'kʊdnt	couldn't
-	ɒ	ˌpɒ'lɪtɪkəl	pə'lɪtɪkl	political

Table 24: Insertions of Vowels

IV.4.2.1.3 Omissions

Two vowel omissions bear the influence of French such as omitting the vowel /ɪ/ in 'especially' or the vowel /e/ in the verb 'to develop'. A third omission, which is that of /ə/ from some words such 'mathematics' falls however within miscellaneous errors:

Omitted Vowel	Erroneous Use	Correct Use	Spelling
ə	ˌmæt'mætɪks	ˌmæθə'mætɪks	mathematics
ɪ	'speʃəlɪ	'ɪspeʃəlɪ	especially
e	dɪv'lopəd	dɪ'veləpt	developed

Table 25: Omissions of Vowels

IV.4.2.1.4 Summary

All in all, it appears from the analysis of the errors made in the use of vowels that most of them are substitutions (100 instances against 5 instances of insertion and 3 instances of omission). English and French come at the top of the sources of interference. There seems to be very little influence from the dialectal forms of Arabic and no influence from the standard one. The latter system is conceived as quite apart from English when it comes to transferring vowels. Where there is transfer in the use of vowels, it often obeys to a conception of the language distance between English and French and between English and the dialectal forms of Arabic. The closer is the distance, in the mind of the students, the more is the likelihood of the transfer of a given vowel or combination of vowels. Both the English spelling and the French one play quite an important role in the kind of transfer that occurs. The root of the English word also determines to a great extent the nature of transfer. Where the root is Latin, there is more leaning towards an interlingual transfer (from French); where it is Germanic, the tendency is towards an intralingual one. The schwa vowel is definitely the most problematic for the learners; it is substituted by 15 vowels across English and French and substitutes 5 vowels in English. It is also part of both insertions and omissions.

The following table summarizes the types of influence the Interlanguage performance of the learners undergoes while using English vowels. Down are the English vowels; across are the substitutes from various linguistic systems.

	ɪ	ʌ	ɒ	æ	ʊ	ə	e	i:	u:	ɑ:	ɔ:	ɜ:	aɪ	əʊ	əʊ	aʊ	aʊ
ɪ					E	E							E				
ʌ			EF			M	M					E		E		E	
ɒ				E	D	E								E			
æ	M					E											
ʊ			E						E								
ə		E	EF	E	E		E			E	E	E		E			
ɛ	E	M		M		E		E									
i:	D																
ɑ:				E								E					
ɔ:									M					E	M	E	M
ɜ:						E	E				E						
ʊ:					D												
aɪ	E							E									
əʊ			EF	M					E							M	
aʊ		E												E			
eɪ				E			EF	E					M				
ɪə	M																
ɛə																	
ʊə																	
aɪə													M				
aʊə																	
ɔɪə																	
eɪə																	
ø	E		E	E		E	E										
ɒ	F					M	F										
	ɪ	ʌ	ɒ	æ	ʊ	ə	e	i:	u:	ɑ:	ɔ:	ɜ:	aɪ	əʊ	əʊ	aʊ	aʊ

E: Intralingual transfer from English

F: Interlingual transfer from French

D: Interlingual transfer from Arabic dialects

EF: Crosslinguistic transfer from English or French

A: Interlingual transfer from American English

M: Miscellaneous transfer

ø: Insertion

D: Deletion or omission

Table 26: Summary of the Learners' Use of Vowels (Part I)

	eɪ	ɪə	ɪə	eɪə	ɑ	ʊ	ɑ	u	é	y	o	o	ə	ɔ	ε	œ	æ	ɪə
ɪ	E					F			F				F					
ʌ								F		F	EF					F		
ɒ					A		F											
æ	E																	
ʊ										F	F D	D						
ə	E	E					F	F	F	F	EF			F				
ε	E								F									
i:									F									
ɑ:							F											
ɔ:							F											
ɜ:								F										
ʊ:										F						F		
aɪ	M																	
əʊ											EF							
aʊ								F										
eɪ							F		F						EF		F	
ɪə									F									M
εə		E	M	M			F											
ʊə										F								
aɪə																		
aʊə																		
ɔɪə																		
eɪə																		
∅																		
D																		
	eɪ	ɪə	ɪə	eɪə	ɑ	ʊ	ɑ	u	é	y	o	o	ə	ɔ	ε	œ	æ	ɪə

E: Intralingual transfer from English

F: Interlingual transfer from French

D: Interlingual transfer from Arabic dialects

EF: Crosslinguistic transfer from English or French

A: Interlingual transfer from American English

M: Miscellaneous transfer

∅: Insertion

D: Deletion or omission

Table 26: Summary of the Learners' Use of Vowels (Part II)

IV.4.2.2 Combinations of vowels and Consonants

French nasal vowels substitute many combinations of vowels and consonants in English. These nasal vowels are:

- The nasal open central unrounded vowel /ã/ as in the word '**lent**' /lã/ 'slow'.
- The nasal, open, front, unrounded vowel /ẽ/ as in '**timbre**' /tẽbr/ 'stamp'.
- The nasal, open, front, rounded vowel /œ̃/ as in the word '**un**' /œ̃/ 'one'.
- The nasal, open, back, rounded vowel /õ/ as in the word '**ton**' /tõ/ 'your'.

A word like 'principle' /prɪnsɪpl/ in English is pronounced /prẽsɪpl/, substituting the combination /ɪn/ in English by the French nasal vowel /ẽ/. The spelling combinations that are affected in the English language are: 'am' as in 'example', 'an' as in 'franc', 'en' as in 'sentimental' 'in' as in 'principle', 'om' as in 'complete', 'on' as in 'convince', 'um' as in 'number', and 'un' as in 'lunch'. In the following table are the English spellings that are pronounced as single French nasal vowels instead of combinations of consonants and vowels, as they are supposed to be in English:

Spelling	English Represented phone(s)	Example	French substitutes	Erroneous Instance	Correct Use
'am'	əm	Birmingham	-	-	-
	ɑ:m	example	ã	ɪg'zãmpl	ɪg'zɑ:mpl
'an'	ən	distance	-	-	-
	eɪn	change	-	-	-
	ɑ:n	chance	-	-	-
	æŋ	anchor	-	-	-
	æn	translation	ã	trãsleɪʃn	trænz'leɪʃn
'en'	ən	commentary	ã	'kɔmãtrɪ	'kɔməntrɪ
	ɪn	enjoy	ã ¹³	ã'dʒɔɪ	ɪn'dʒɔɪ
	en	sentimental	ã	ˌsãtɪ'mãtl	ˌsentɪ'mentl
'in'	ɪn	principle	ĩ	'prĩsɪpl	'prɪnsəpl
'om'	ɒm	composition	-	-	-
	əm	complete	õ	ˌkɔ'pli:t	kəm'pli:t
'on'	ən	concerned	õ	ˌkɔ'sɜ:nd	kən'sɜ:nd
	ɒn	bond	-	-	-
	ʌn	London	õ	'lɔdɔn	'lʌndɔn
	ʌŋ	among	õ	ə'mɔŋ	ə'mʌŋ
	əʊn	only	õ	'ɔɪ	'əʊnɪ
'um'	ʌm	number	œ	'nœmbə	'nʌmbə
	ju:m	fume	-	-	-
'un'	ju:n	unify	yn	ynɪfai	'ju:nɪfai
	ən	until	œ	œ'tɪl	ən'tɪl
	ʌn	pronunciation	õ	pro,nɔ̃nsɪ'eɪʃn	prə,nʌnsɪ'eɪʃn
		hundred	œ	'hœndrəd	'hʌndrəd

Table 27: Errors in the Use of Combinations of Vowels and Consonants

Here, again, there is another preconceived French spelling in the minds of the learners when uttering the word 'pronunciation' in English (the line before the last one in the table). This word is pronounced as if it were written exactly in the same way as the

¹³ This vowel is sometimes inserted such as in the word 'adolescence' /,ædɔ'lesns/ pronounced /adɔlesãs / or 'renaissance' / rɪ'neɪnsns/ pronounced as /r(ə)nesãs / .

French cognate word '**prononciation**'. Consequently, unlike the rest of the cases, it is the French nasal vowel /ɔ̃/ which substitutes the combination /ʌn/, whereas, it should have been substituted by the French vowel /œ/. Another very common case, but of intralingual errors, is generalising the spelling of the verb 'to pronounce' to that of the noun and preconceiving it as '**prononciation**' instead of 'pronunciation'. This leads many learners to pronounce the combination /ʌn/ as /aʊn/. The same phenomenon occurs with the pair 'fundamentalist' in English vs. '**fondamentaliste**' in French. Introducing the French nasal vowels by the learners to the English sound inventory, which contains only oral vowels, is of an interlingual nature. Yet, there are some cases which may be of a miscellaneous nature; For instance, the pronunciation of the word 'country' by some students as /kɔ̃ntri/ realizing the spelling combination 'oun' as /ɔ̃/ and the pronunciation of the word 'unfortunately' by one student as /ɪnfɔːtjʊnətli/.

IV.4.2.3 Single Consonants

Out of the 24 consonants in English, the students seem to have problems with 20 of them. Those with which they seem to have absolutely no problems are the voiced alveolar nasal stop /n/, the voiced alveolar stop /d/, the voiceless labio-dental fricative /f/, and the voiced velar nasal stop /ŋ/. Transfer in the use of consonants consists of interlingual substitutions from both French and the dialectal varieties of Arabic. Instances of such a type of transfer is the substitution of the voiceless palatal affricate /tʃ/ by the voiceless palatal fricative /ç/ in such words as 'French' and 'branch', pronounced as /frenç/, and /bræŋç/ or the substitution of the English voiced, alveolar, retroflex /r/ by the dialectal voiced, oral, post alveolar, approximant one /ɹ/ such as in the word 'grunt' pronounced as /gɹœnt/ instead of /grʌnt/. Some substitutions seem to originate from either of the two linguistic systems. Hence, a substitution such as that of the voiced palatal affricate /dʒ/ by the voiced palatal fricative /ʒ/ is of an ambiguous

origin when done by students whose dialectal sound inventory includes only the latter. Indeed, since it is also the case of the French language, it is difficult to sharply situate the source of transfer. Some other substitutions seem to be on the borderline between French and English. Pronouncing the preposition 'of' as /ɒf/ instead of /ɒv/, when strong, can be a generalisation of either the French spelling or the English one. Another type of substitutions is the intralingual one, which clearly is a generalisation of the English sounds and their occurrence. For instance, generalizing the pronunciation of some English spelling combinations 'ch' as /tʃ/, 'th' as /θ/, and 'sio' as /ʃ/ ends up in erroneous realisations of some words such as 'heartache', pronounced /'hɑ:tetʃ/ instead of /'hɑ:teɪk/, 'smooth', pronounced /smu:θ/ instead of /smu:ð/, and 'invasion', pronounced /ɪn'veɪʃən/ instead of /ɪn'veɪzən/. One last type of substitutions in the use of consonants is those substitutions that defy explanation and that are typical of any error analysis. The pronunciation of /θ/ as /t/, as in the word 'wealthy', pronounced /welɪ/ instead of /welθɪ/, is difficult to explain simply because the voiceless interdental fricative is a sound that is theoretically not part of the sound inventory of English or any of the languages known by most of the students, except for the few students who have this sound as part of the sound inventory of their local dialects. Finally, transfer in the use of consonants is reflected in insertions, which are of two types: intralingual and interlingual. The former is illustrated by pronouncing the silent consonants like the 'l' of 'half', 'could', 'should', 'would' and 'calm', and the latter, from French, is exemplified by the pronunciation of the spelling 'ng' as /ɪŋg/, in words with final 'ing', instead of just /ɪŋ/.

IV.4.2.3.1 Substitutions

In the substitutions of consonants, the dialectal varieties of Arabic have a qualitative influence by some of the most frequent sounds in both the dialects and the target language causing a prominent feature of the learners' accents in English.

a. Interlingual Substitutions (From Dialectal Arabic)

The most important case of such substitutions is substituting the voiceless alveolar stop /t/ and its allophones by the dialectal counterparts. In English, such a sound is aspirated when syllable initial [t^h], as in the word 'table' [t^heɪbl], affricated when preceding a voiced alveolar retroflex /r/, as in the word 'train' [t^rrein], denti-alveolar affricated when preceding any of the vowels /ɪ/, /i:/ /ʊ/ or /u:/ as in 'tea' [t^ɪi:], and voiceless alveolar stop elsewhere. The realisation of such a sound by students varies according to how it is realised in their native dialects. It is pronounced as voiceless denti-alveolar affricated [t^s] by students originating from Constantine, Jijel, and Mila, as a voiceless interdental stop [t] by the students originating from Annaba, Batna, and Ain Beida, and as a palato-alveolar affricated [t^ʃ] by students from the regions of Skikda, although some of them use the denti-alveolar [t^s] instead. The question that needs to be asked here is why do some students from Skikda resort to the denti-alveolar [t^s], a sound that is foreign to their dialect and used only restrictively in the target language? It might be explained by a certain social awareness of these students that the affricated [t^ʃ] is stigmatized. Had there been a voiceless uvular stop /q/ in English, the students originating from some regions in Jijel would, perhaps, have avoided substituting it with the voiceless velar stop /k/, as a lot of them did while reading Arabic. What is surprising is that none of the students transfer any of the previous sounds to the French language with the exception of one of the two South East students, who did for the denti-alveolar affricated [t^s]. They simply have had no problem

realising the voiceless dental stop /t/ while performing in French. This shows, once more, that transfer is not random, but is determined, in many cases, by certain social, psychological, and linguistic factors. While in the case of vowels there is no significant influence from the dialects; in the case of consonants, the distance between the dialects and the English language is conceived much closer. Since the voiceless alveolar stop /t/ in English is highly frequent, realising it as any of the previously stated interfering sounds gives the students a heavy accent. Another good example of the influence of the dialects on the articulation of English consonants is the stopping of the voiced interdental fricative /ð/, i.e., its realisation as a voiced dental stop /d/. As a matter of fact such stopping occurs first of all in their performance of Standard Arabic and, then, is carried over to their performance in English as their reading of Arabic shows. One could argue that such an error might have as a source the French language, as the fricative in question does not occur in this latter language while the substitute does. However, it is commonly known among Error Analysts (Swan *et al*, 1987:128) that French learners tend to substitute, just like Egyptian learners do, this fricative by the voiced alveolar fricative /z/ and not by the voiced dental stop /d/. The following table illustrates the interlingual substitutions from the dialectal varieties.

English Consonant	Dialectal substitute	Erroneous use	Correct Use	Spelling
t	t ^s	dæt ^s	ðæt	that
	t ^ʃ	t ^ʃ ʊ	[t ^s ʊ]	to
	ṭ	'samṭaimz	'samtaimz	sometimes
[t ^ʃ]	t ^s	t ^s ru:ps	tru:ps	troops
ð	d	dɪs	ðɪs	this
r	ɾ	'præktɪs	'præktɪs	practice

Table 28: Interlingual Substitutions of Consonants (Dialectal Arabic Interference)

b. Interlingual Substitution (from French)

In the case of consonants, transfer from French is, again, not transfer of consonants as such because of their absence in the English language or because of any difficulty of articulation. It is rather transfer of the graphemic rules and their exceptions from the French language. These rules and their exceptions do not always correspond to the English rules and exceptions. For instance, the letter 's' in French is pronounced /z/ whenever occurring between two vowels: the word '**maison**' is pronounced /mɛzɔ̃/. Such a regular relationship between grapheme and phoneme does not always apply to English: It applies to a word like 'cheese' /tʃi:z/ but not to a word such as 'disagree' /dɪsəɡri:/. In French, the letter 's' is always pronounced /s/ when not occurring between two vowels; in English, the letter 's' between two vowels might be either /s/ or /z/: the word 'absent' is pronounced /'æbsənt/ while the word 'observe' is pronounced /əb'zɜ:v/. The geminate consonants 'ss' in French are always pronounced /s/; in English, on the other hand, it is not always the case: a word such as 'assess' is pronounced /ə'ses/, but a word like 'possess' is pronounced /pə'zes/. Here are all the cases of this interlingual transfer from French:

English Consonant	French Substitute	Erroneous Use	Correct Use	spelling	French Spelling/Pronunciation Rules
z	s	træns'mɪt	trænz'mɪt	transmit	The letter 's' is always pronounced /s/ except when final and between two vowels
s	z	beɪzəd	beɪst	based	's' between two vowels is always /z/
tʃ	ʃ	frenʃ	frentʃ	French	'ch' is always /ʃ/ ¹⁴
k	ʃ	'psɪʃɪk	'saɪkɪk	psychic	previous rule
k	g	'segəndrɪ	'sekəndrɪ	secondary	'c' if not followed by 'i' or 'e' is /k/; one exception is the word 'second'.
r	R	arabɪk	'ærəbɪk	Arabic	The letter 'r' is pronounced /R/ in French. ¹⁵

Table 29: Interlingual Substitutions of Consonants (French Interference)

c. Interlingual Substitutions (From Dialectal English)

There is one consonant that is used by some students and which belongs to some English local varieties. It is the voiceless glottal stop /ʔ/ that substitutes the RP voiceless alveolar stop /t/. Hence, a word like 'cannot' /'kænɒt/ is pronounced /'kænɒʔ/. The use of such a sound in an academic context shows that these students are unaware of many of the sociolinguistic features of the English language.

d. Interlingual Substitutions (from American English)

Two features of American English that the performance of some students displays is darkening the voiced alveolar lateral /l/, in contexts where it should not be

¹⁴ One plausible explanation of this error is an intralingual generalisation of the adjectival suffix 'sh' as in 'Finish', 'English', 'Welsh', 'British', 'Kurdish', etc. Hence, many students write the word 'French' as 'Frensh'.

¹⁵ Most of the learners who make this error are female students, who pronounce French with this consonant.

darkened, and realizing the British voiceless alveolar stop /t/ as a voiceless alveolar flap /ɾ/ when it is between two vowels, the first is the centre of a strong syllable and the second the centre of a weak one. A word such as 'possibility' [ˌpɒsəˈbɪləti] is pronounced [ˌpɒsəˈbɪləɾi] with a dark [ɪ] instead of a clear one [i] and with the flap /ɾ/ instead of the stop /t/. In RP, the dark [ɪ] is used only when word final and when pre-consonantal. The tendency of most students is to substitute the dark [ɪ] by the clear one [i]. Hence, a word like 'well' and 'build' are pronounced by most students as [wel] and [bɪld] instead of [weɪl] and [bɪld].

e. Crosslinguistic Substitutions

The term 'crosslinguistic', here, is used exactly as used earlier in the case of vowels. The only difference is that in this context there are instances where transfer might be either from the dialect or from French and instances where transfer might be either from French or English.

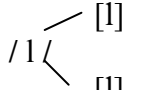
English Consonant	Crosslinguistic Substitute	Erroneous Use	Correct Use	spelling	Possible French Inference	Possible Dialectal Inference
dʒ	ʒ	ɪn'telɪʒənt	ɪn'telɪdʒənt	intelligent	intelligent	جمال
/ɪ/ 	[ɪ]	[help]	[help]	help	culte	ملك

Table 30: Crosslinguistic Substitutions of Consonants (French or Dialectal Interference)

English Consonant	Crosslinguistic Substitute	Erroneous use	Correct Use	Spelling	Possible French Inference	Possible English Inference
v	f	ɒf	ɒv	of	sauf	beef
[p ^h]	[p]	['peɪpə]	['p ^h eɪp ^h ə]	paper	papier	tip
[k ^h]	[k]	[keɪk]	[k ^h eɪk]	cake	calme	take

Table 31: Crosslinguistic Substitutions of Consonants (French or English Interference)

f. Intralingual Substitutions

Again the discrepancy in English between spelling and pronunciation causes, more than often, a serious confusion in the use of consonants. Here are the instances of such substitutions:

English Consonant	Intralingual Substitute	Erroneous Use	Correct Use	Spelling	Possible English inference
t	d	ɑ:skəd	ɑ:skt	asked	robbed
ð	θ	smu:θ	'smu:ð	smooth	wealthy
ʒ	ʃ	ɪn'veɪʃən	ɪn'veɪzən	invasion	tension
s	ʃ	'kwɛʃtʃən	'kwɛstʃən	question	mansion
ʃ	s	'grɑ:ʃɪəs	'grɛɪʃəs	gracious	grace
tʃ	t	'æktʊəlɪ	'æktʃʊəlɪ	actually	tune
dʒ	d	'sɒldrɪər	'səʊldʒə	soldier	sold

Table 32: Intralingual Substitutions of Consonants

g. Miscellaneous Substitutions

Two instances of miscellaneous substitution are substituting the interdental voiceless fricative /θ/ by the voiceless interdental stop /t/ and to a lesser degree by the denti-alveolar voiceless alveolar /t^s/. A word like 'wealth' /welθ/ is pronounced /welt/ by most students and /welt^s/, by very few students. This stopping also occurs in the reading of Arabic and seems to have been carried over to their performance in English. The most plausible substitutes, in the case of most of the students, who substitute the former with the latter, should have been the voiceless denti-alveolar stop /t^s/ and /t^ɸ/. This

substitution makes sense only for the learners whose dialectal variety bears the voiceless interdental stop /t̪/ such as students from Ain Baida, khenchela etc. One probable answer to such a question is that the voiceless interdental stop is the closest sound to the voiceless interdental fricative since the only difference is in the manner of articulation. The former is a stop; the latter is a fricative. However, a sound like the voiceless denti-alveolar stop, for instance, is different from the target sound in both place and manner of articulation. It seems that in the 'projection phase', as suggested by Kellerman (1977) (see I.3.2.2, page 26), if there is no sound which is close enough to the target language sound, the learner resorts to another closer sound even if it is not part of the phonemic inventory of any linguistic system of which he/she is aware. In an error analysis of the phonological interlanguage of Hungarian learners, Nemser (1971:108) found that some of them produced substitutions that did not occur in native English or Hungarian. An example was the substitution of the voiceless interdental stop /θ/ by the rather exotic sound /sθ/.

IV.4.2.3.2. Insertions

a. Intralingual Insertions

There are a lot of cases of such type of insertions. The most important one is the insertion of the /r/ in postvocalic position; a word such as 'hard' /hɑ:d/ is pronounced /hɑ:rd/. The letter 'r' in RP is pronounced /r/ only if followed by a vowel, and it is silent elsewhere. Most of the students pronounce this letter systematically and in all contexts as /r/. Here are the instances of intralingual insertions:

English Consonant	Intralingual Insertion	Erroneous Use	Correct Use	Spelling	Possible English inference
-	r ¹⁶	mɔ:r ¹⁷	mɔ:	more	brief
	b	debt	det	debt	obtain
	g	tʌŋ	tɒŋg	tongue	league
	h	'hɒnə	'ɒnə	honour	horror
	w	'wɪrɪn	'rɪn	written	swear
	l	tɔ:lɪk	tɔ:k	talk	fault
	t	'pəʊstpəʊn	pəs'pəʊn	postpone	postgraduate
	j	ˌedʒjə'keɪʃn	ˌedʒə'keɪʃn	education	during
	ʃ	ˌkrɪstɪ'ænətɪ	ˌkrɪstɪ'ænətɪ	Christianity	Christian

Table 33: Intralingual Insertions of Consonants

b. Interlingual Insertions (from French)

There are some letters that are silent in some contexts in English and that are not so in the French language. These tend to mislead the learners in their pronunciation of English. Here are the instances of such consonant insertions:

English Consonant	Interlingual Insertion	Erroneous Use	Correct Use	Spelling	Possible French Inference
-	p	psɪʃɪk	sɑɪkɪk	psychic	'p' is never silent word initial
	r	gɜ:rlz	gɜ:lz	girls	Part of French phonemic inventory only
	j	næʃjənəlɪst	'næʃnəlɪst	nationalist	The spelling 'io' is pronounced /jo/

Table 34: Interlingual Insertions of Consonants (French Interference)

¹⁶ The general tendency is to pronounce the English voiced alveolar retroflex as a dialectal approximant or trill.

¹⁷ The 'r' is pronounced even when it is followed by a consonant as in 'more money'.

c. Miscellaneous Insertions

One consonant that is miscellaneously inserted is the voiceless velar stop /k/. It occurs at the end of 'ing' forms. A word like 'thing' /θɪŋ/ is pronounced /θɪŋk/ as if it were the verb to 'think'.

IV.4.2.3.3 Omissions

The omissions of consonants are divided into:

a. Intralingual Omissions

Just as some silent letters are by analogy pronounced, some letters that ought to be pronounced are, again by analogy, silenced by many students. One case in point is silencing the letter 'l' in the word 'world' /wɜ:ld/ and pronouncing it as /wɜ:d/.

English omitted Consonant	Erroneous Use	Correct Use	Spelling	Possible Intralingual Inference
l	wɜ:d	wɜ:ld	world	talk
j	'feɪlə	'feɪljə	failure	literature

Table 35: Intralingual Omissions of Consonants

b. Interlingual omissions (from French)

There are five instances of this type of omissions. The following table illustrates each of them:

English omitted Consonant	Erroneous Use	Correct Use	Spelling	Possible French Inference
h	'ɪpɒkrɪt	'hɪpəkɪt	hypocrite	hypocrite
t	dɒn	dəʊnt	don't	dont
s	pɑ:rt	pɑ:ts	parts	parts
d	'stændə	'stændəd	standard	standard
w	kə'teɪʃn	kwəʊ'teɪʃn	quotation	quota

Table 36: Interlingual Omissions of Consonants (French Interference)

c. Interlingual Omissions (dialectal English)

Some students tend to omit the voiceless alveolar stop /t/ from some words such 'twenty' /'twenti/ and pronounce it /'tweni/. This is most probably due to their exposure to some English dialectal varieties in which this consonant is sometimes elided.

IV.4.2.3.4 Summary

The following table summarizes the various substitutions, insertions and deletions in the use of Consonants:

	b	p	d	t	t	ʔ	θ	s	z	f	ʒ	ʃ	k	k ^h
t			E			DE								
θ														
ð			D				E							
s									F			E		
z								F						
v										FD				
ʒ												E		
r														
k												F		
g											F			
dʒ			E								EF			
ʃ								E						
tʃ				E								F		
p ^h		FD												
k ^h													FD	
l														
ɫ														
-	E	F		E								E	M	
OM			F	F	DE			F						
	b	p	d	t	t	ʔ	θ	s	z	f	ʒ	ʃ	k	k ^h

Table 37: Errors in the Use of Consonants (Part I)

	g	tʃ	w	j	ṭ	tˢ	tʃ	f	r	h	l	ḷ	R	J
t					D	D	D	A						
θ					M	M								
ð														
s														
z														
v														
ʒ														
r													F	D
k	F	E												
g														
dʒ														
ʃ														
tʃ														
p ^h														
k ^h														
l												A		
ḷ											EF			
-	E		E	E					E	E	E		F	
OM			F	E						F	E			
	g	tʃ	w	j	ṭ	tˢ	tʃ	f	r	h	l	ḷ	R	J

Table 37: Errors in the Use of Consonants (Part II)

Down: English consonants

Across: substituting, inserted, or omitted consonants

A: Interlingual transfer from American English

EF: Crosslinguistic transfer from English or French

M: Miscellaneous transfer

Interlingual transfer from Arabic dialects

F: Interlingual transfer from French

OM: Omission

DE: Crosslinguistic transfer from Arabic dialects or English itself

F: Interlingual transfer from French

- : Insertion

E: Intralingual transfer from English

IV.4.2.4 Vowels + Consonants

The combination /ju:/ and /jʊ/ in English are substituted by the French vowel /y/ and the semi vowel /ɥ/:

English Combination	Interlingual Substitute	Erroneous use	Correct Use	Spelling	Possible French Inference
ju: ¹⁸ /jʊ	ɥ	,mt'ɥfn	,mtju:'ɪfn	intuition	suite
	y	ma'nɪpjɛit	mə'nɪpjɔɛit	manipulate	manipuler

Table 38: Errors in the Use of Combinations of Vowels and Consonants

IV.4.2.5 Consonant Clusters

A consonant cluster is any sequence of adjacent consonants. In English there might occur up to three in syllable initial position, such as in the word 'street' /stri:t/, and up to four consonants in syllable final position, such as the word 'texts' /teksts/. Second language learners of English, in general, and Arab learners from the Middle East, in particular, break three and four consonant clusters by inserting one or two vowels reducing them to two consonant clusters and increasing the number of syllables. Words such as 'street', 'splash', 'square', and 'scream' are realised as /sə'tri:t/, /sə'plæʃ/, /sə'kweə/, and /sə'kri:m/ respectively (Broselow, 1983:299).

In the collected data of the first study, there are no such errors. Two and three consonant clusters are available in both the dialectal varieties of Algeria and also in French. Consonant clusters are positively transferred to the performance of the students in English. Even four consonant clusters that are typical only of a few languages such as English do not seem to create problems for them.

IV.4.2.6 Connected Speech

The main devices of connected speech in English are weak forms, contractions, and assimilations. Weak forms are weak unstressed realisations of functional words (i.e. with weak vowels as syllable centres) such as articles, prepositions, pronouns,

¹⁸ The pronunciation may also be with /u:/ in many cases, and, so, the error would be classified among those in the use of single vowels.

conjunctions, and auxiliaries. An instance is the preposition 'at' pronounced as /æt/ when in isolation, when the word is stressed, or when sentence final; but it is weakened to /ət/ elsewhere. A contraction is the fusion of two words into only one: the two words 'he' /hi:/ and 'has' /hæz/ can be, in pronunciation, contracted in only one word 'he's' /hɪz/. Assimilation is the influence of one sound upon a neighbouring one. In an utterance like 'look at them' the /t/ of 'at' is assimilated into the /ð/ of 'them' to make only one sound; what is actually heard when this utterance is uttered in rapid connected speech is /lʊkəððəm/ and not /lʊkətðəm/.

Taking an utterance like 'he cannot look at them' as a sequence of strong isolated words, the pronunciation will be /hi: 'kænɒt lʊk æt ðəm/, but in natural connected speech the pronunciation is reduced to /hɪ'kænt'lʊkəððəm/ by contracting 'cannot', weakening 'at' and 'them', and assimilating the voiceless alveolar stop /t/ of 'at' into the voiced interdental fricative /ð/. Nearly all students fail to make use of such devices of connected speech. Their performance is a sequence of strong forms of both functional and lexical words (see IV.5, page 163). This makes them waste time and energy in articulating quite unnecessary sounds. It also makes English oral performance quite a difficult and tiresome task for them. Furthermore, mispronouncing so many lexical words also influence their listening comprehension. Most of the students are caught unawares by the use of connected speech devices and quite unfamiliar ways of articulation especially when the context is not of much help. They end up not grasping even some very usual words in writing. A word, for instance, like 'tomb' is hardly recognised in pronunciation as /tu:m/. Their generalisations of the graphemic rules may lead them to expect such a word to be realised as /tɒmb/, /tɒm/, /təʊm/, etc. they can hardly expect the letter 'o' to be pronounced as /u:/.

IV.5 Samples of the Phonological Interlanguage

In what follows are samples of the phonological interlanguages of some students from various eastern dialectal regions. The letters before the examples stand for what follows:

- a. The performance of the students in phonetic alphabet
- b. The segments that are substituted, inserted, or deleted
- c. The performance of the students in Roman alphabet

IV.5.1 Constantine

(1)

- a. aɪ θɪŋk fɔr hɪm...hɪ sed dæt^s its....ə sʊsaɪd fɔr hɪz kənt^srɪ tʊ ent^sər də wɔr
- b. ə ø ðæt ju:ɪ ə ø¹⁹ ʌ t ø ð ɔ:
- c. I think...he said that it's...a suicide for his country to enter the war,

(2)

- a. ɒn...saɪd wɪd ɪ'rɑ:k bʌt hɪ sed ɔ:lsəʊ dæt^s...ɪf...ðer wɪl bi ə kəmbaɪnd
- b. ð ə ɪ ðæt ðeə ɪ
- c. on...side with Iraq, but he said also that...if...there will be a combined,

(3)

- a. fɔrsəz ɒf mʊslɪmz wɪ kæn ent^sər...wɪ kæn ent^sər də wɔr hɪ...hɪ kɔ:lz fɔr
- b. ɪ əv ə t ø ə t ø ð ø ɪ əø
- c. forces of Muslims we can enter...we can enter the war. He... He calls for,

(4)

- a. hɪ kɔ:lz fɔr 'əldʒɪhæd...hɪ sed dæt^s...
- b. ɪ ə ðæt
- c. He calls for Eldjihad... He said that...

(Tape 4, Side 1, 5:23)

(5)

- a. jes aɪ θɪŋk dæt...dɪ ɪ ... ɪrɑ:kɪ ɒθərɪtɪ dɪklɪərəd dæt^s deɪ...st^sɒp
- b. ðə ð ɔ: eəø ðə ð
- c. Yes, I think that...the I...Iraqi authorities declared that they...stop

¹⁹ This symbol refers to an insertion of a sound.

(6)

- a. brəʊdkæstɪŋ mɪ pɪktəz ɔr dɪklereɪʃən ɒf də...də paɪlətˈs...wɪtʃ wər...
- b. ɔ: e tʃ ø e əv ð ð ə ø
- c. broadcasting any pictures or declaration of the...the pilot...which were...

(7)

- a. hʊ wər prɪzənər...
- b. ø ø ø
- c. who were prisoner...

(Tape 4, Side 2, 1:44)

IV.5.2 Jijel

(8)

- a. maɪ wɔːst tɪtʃə wɒz ən ɪʒɪpʃn...hɪ wɒz mæθɪmætɪk tɪtʃə əpɑːrɪtˈs ɒf biŋg
- b. ɜ: i: ə dʒ ə æθə æ i: ət əv ø
- c. my worst teacher was an Egyptian... He was Mathematic teacher apart of being

(9)

- a. vɪrɪ fætˈs...hɪ wɒz vɪrɪ ...vɪrɪ leɪzɪ...aɪ tɪŋk dætˈs aɪ ...aɪ hævənt lɜːn enɪtɪŋg
- b. e t ə e e θ ð t θ ø
- c. very fat... he was very...very lazy...I think that I...I haven't learn anything

(10)

- a. əbaʊtˈs...kɔːnsɜːnɪŋ mæθɪmætɪk...wɪð...wɪð hɪm...hɪ wɒz ɔːlweɪz steɪŋg ɒn hɪz
- b. t ən θə ð ð ə ɪ
- c. about...concerning mathematic...with...with him...he was always staying on his

(11)

- a. tʃeə...gɪvɪŋg əs ɪgzəɪsɪsəs tu du ænd den wɪ kɔːrɛktəd dem...ænd
- b. ə eks ø zɪz ə ə ø ð ə ɪ ðə ə
- c. chair...giving us exercises to do and then we go back to them...and

(12)

- a. evərɪdeɪ də seɪm tɪŋk ænd dʒuːrɪŋg ɪgzæmɪneɪʃən...aɪ tɪŋk dæt hɪ nevər
- b. ð θ ø ə ø ø θ ðə ø
- c. everyday the same thing, and during examination...I think that he never

(13)

- a. kɔːrɛkts aʊr kɔːpɪz bɪkɔːz hɪ dɪ...wɪ dɪdntˈs sɪ dem...hɪ keɪm ænd...lʊkɪŋg
- b. ə r ø t i: ðə ə ø
- c. corrects our copies because he di...we did not
- d. see them... He came and...looking

(14)

- a. ət evərɪwʌn ɒf əs ænd hɪ gɪvz enɪ mɑːks...hɪ wɒnts...hɪ ɪz nɒtˈs daɪnæmɪk
- b. ə əv ə ə ø a:ø t
- c. at everyone of us, and he gives any marks...he wants...he is not dynamic...

(15)

a. hɪ ɪz ɔ:lweɪz...aɪ tɪŋk hɪ ʃʊdn̩t hæv ðɪs dʒɒb.

b. ɪ θ ð

c. he is always...I think he shouldn't have this job.

(Tape 1, Side 2, 26:48)

IV.5.3 Mila

(16)

a. jɛs aɪ tɪŋk dæt̩s ɪŋɡlənd ænd dʒɜ:mənɪ a:r ɡəʊɪŋɡ...hævnt̩s pleɪd də mətʃ

b. θ ð t ə ø əø ø t ð

c. Yes I think that England and Germany are going...haven't played the match

(17)

a. jɛt̩s...dɪ ɪntərnæʃənəl mətʃ deɪ a:r ɡəʊɪŋɡ tə pleɪ ɪt̩s

b. t ð ð ø ø ə t

c. yet... The international match they are going to play it

(Tape 2, Side 1, 2:40)

(18)

a. deɪ hævənt̩s bi:n bɪt̩sən jɛt̩s

b. ð t i:t t

c. They haven't been bitten yet

(Tape 2, Side 1, 6: 2)

(19)

a. aɪ tɪŋk...ɪn maɪ ɒpɪniən aɪ həʊld dɪ ʒənəɪtəd neɪʃənz rɪspɔːsɪbl fɔː

b. θ ə ɪ ð ɪ ɒn əø

c. I think...in my opinion I hold the United Nations responsible for

(20)

a. ðɪs wɔː...æz də fɔːrən mɪnɪstə ɒf ɪrɑːk sed...hɪ...hɪ...ədresd eɪks ænd

b. ð ɔːø ə ð r əv t ə ø

c. This war...as the Foreign Minister of Iraq said...he...he...addressed X and

(21)

a. held hɪm rɪspɔːsɪbl fɔː ðɪs wɔː...waɪ fɜːst bɪkɔːz də də sɪks sevən eɪt̩s

b. ɪ ɒn ð ɔːø ð ð t

c. held him responsible for this war...why? first because the the six seven eight

(22)

a. rɪzɔːluːʃən wɒz nɒt̩s ədɔːptəd juːnænɪməslɪ...tʃaɪnə wəz æbsənt̩s...ænd sɪns

b. e ə t ɪ ə t ə ø

c. resolution was not adopted unanimously...China was absent...and since

(23)

- a. deɪ wəz nəʊ ju:nænɪmɪtɪ dɪs rɪzəlu:ʃən kʊd nɒt^s bi əplaid tʊ ɒblaɪdʒ
b. ð ø ə ð e j t ə
c. There was no unanimity, this resolution could not be applied to oblige

(24)

- a. ɪrɑ:k tʊ...ænd ɪ:vən dɪ ɒblɪgeɪʃn ɪn dɪs rɪzəlu:ʃən ɪz nɒt st^seɪtəd æz ə
b. ə ð ð e t ɪ ə
c. Iraq to..., and even the obligation in this resolution is not stated as a

(25)

- a. mɪlɪtrɪ ɒblɪgeɪʃn...aɪ mi:n dæt^s ɪn dɪs rɪzəlu:ʃən ɪt ɪz nɒt^s st^seɪtəd dæt^s
b. ð t ð e t ɪ ðæt
c. military obligation...I mean that in this resolution it is not stated that

(26)

- a. deɪ...deɪ wɪl bi...deɪ wɪl bi mɪlɪtrɪ ɒpəreɪʃnz ɒr wɔ: tʊ...əgeɪnst ɪrɑ:k
b. ð ð ɪ ð ɪ ø ɔ:ø
c. There...there will be...there will be military operations or war to...against Iraq

(Tape 4, Side 2, 9: 41)

IV.5.4 Annaba

(27)

- a. aɪ θɪŋk...ə gʊd lektʃərə...ɪz də wʌn hʊ...hʊ æz əʊə frend sed...hʊd ɒɪgənəɪz
b. ð ə ø
c. I think...a good lecturer...is the one who...who, as our friend said...who'd organise

(28)

- a. ɔ: ərændʒ də lektʃə ɪn ə...ɪn sʌtʃ ɔ:də dæt hɪ kʊd trāsmɪt də lektʃə baɪ
b. eɪ ð ð æn ð
c. or arrange the lecture in a...in such order that he could transmit the lecture by

(29)

- a. dæt ɔ:də tʊ də stju:dənts...ænd hɪ wʊd...hɪ mʌst...hɪ mʌst tʃʊz də wɜ:dz
b. ð ð ə ø ə ə ə u: ð
c. That order to the students...and he would...he must...he must choose the words

(30)

- a. dæt ɑ:r ɪzɪ...ɪzɪ tʊ ki:p baɪ dem...baɪ də stju:dnts...ɔ:lsə...dɪs fɔ: də
b. ð i: i: ə ð ð əʊ ð əø ð
c. That are easy...easy to keep by them...by the students...also...this for the

(31)

- a. ped pedagɒʒɪkəl saɪd...ʌdər saɪd dæt aɪ wɒnt tʊ spi:k əbaʊt hɪ mʌst tri:t
b. ə dʒ əl ð ø ðə ə ə
c. ped pedagogical side...other side that I want to speak about he must treat

(32)

- a. ɔ:l də stju:dənts ɪn də seɪm weɪ hɪ mʌsnt ɛtəfɪə də pedəgɒzɪkəl ænd də
b. ɪ ð ð ɪn ð ə dʒ ə ɪ ə ø ð
c. all the students in the same way. He mustn't interfere the pedagogical and

(33)

- a. sɪntɪməntəl saɪdz təgedə ænd sʌmtaɪmz wen də stju:dənt faɪndz sʌm
b. en øl ə ð ə ø t ð
c. sentimental sides together, and sometimes when the student finds some

(34)

- a. dɪfɪkəltɪz tə ɪkspres wɒt hɪ...wɒt hɪ wɪʃəz ɔ:r bɪkɔ:z der ɑ:r sʌm
b. ə ə ɪ ø ð ø
c. difficulties to express what he...what he wishes, or because there are some

(35)

- a. stju:dənts hʊ...hʊ faɪnd demselvəz ɪn sʌtʃ weɪ dæt deɪ kənt ɪkspres
b. ðə ɪ ø ðə ð
c. students who...who find themselves in such way that they can't express

(36)

- a. demselvəz səʊ də tɪtʃə mʌst nɒt nɪglect dæt²⁰ stju:dənt...hɪ wəd...hɪ wəd
b. ðə ɪ ø ð tɪ: ə ð ø ə
c. Themselves so the teacher must not neglect that student...he would...he would

(37)

- a. hɪ mʌst traɪ tə ʔedəstænd dem...tə help dem...bɪkɔ:z aɪ faʊnd sʌm
b. ə ʌn ðə ə ɪ ə ə
c. he must try to understand them...to help them...because I found some

(38)

- a. sɪtʃuəɪʃənz dæt dʒɪnərəli də tɪtʃə kɪk aʊt də stju:dənt frɒm də klɑ:srʊm
b. ð e ə ə ð i: ð ə ð u:
c. situations that generally the teacher kick out the student from the classroom

(39)

- a. ænd dɪs wɪl kri:et ə læk bɪtwi:n də stju:dənt ænd də tɪ:tʃə səʊ də
b. ə ø ð ɪ ð ə ø ð t ð
c. and this will create a lack between the student and the teacher so the

(40)

- a. stju:dənt hɪ wəd teɪk sʌtʃ ə dʒʌdʒmənt dæt hɪ wəd nevər... nevər ɑ:sk
b. ðə ø ø
c. student he would take such a judgement that he would never...never ask

²⁰ The student from Annaba uses the voiceless interdental stop also as a substitute for the voiceless alveolar stop.

(41)

- a. tʊ də tʃtʃə bɪkɔz hɪ fɪr tə bɪ kɔpli:tli dɪsmɪsəd ɔ:r bædli tri:təd
- b. ə ð ti: iə əm øt ø ɪ
- c. to the teacher because he fear to be completely dismissed or badly treated.

(Tape 1, Side 1, 20:41)

IV.5.5 Khenchla

(42)

- a. aɪ θɪŋk də dɪbeɪt ɪz tɜ:rniŋ...əbaʊt...wen pɔɪnt ænd naʊ...wɪ...wɪ əraɪv tʊ
- b. ð ø ʌ ə ø tə
- c. I think the debate is turning...about...one point and now...we...we...arrive to

(43)

- a. dɪs pɔɪnt də pɔɪnt wɔz əreɪzd...əreɪzd...baɪ...baɪ mɪstə kɔmã sapəl tɪl eks
- b. ð ð ə ø ø wɔts ɪz neɪm
- c. This point the point was raised...raised...by...Mister Comment s'appelle-t-il? X

(44)

- a. səʊ də kwɛstʃən aɪ θɪŋk wɪ hævənt tʊ²¹ spɪk əbaʊt spɛsɪfɪk pɔɪnt ɒv vju:
- b. ð s tə i: ə ə
- c. So, the question I think we haven't to speak about specific point of view

(45)

- a. ɪf wɪmən a:r ələʊd tʊ dʊ sətʃ θɪŋk ɔ: nɒt ɔ: ɪf ʃɪ...ɪf wɪmən...a: eɪbəl tʊ dʊ
- b. ɪ aʊ ə ʌ ø ɪ øɪ tə
- c. if women are allowed to do such thing or not ,or if she...if women...are able to do

(46)

- a. sətʃ θɪŋk ɔ: nɒt bɪkɔ:z ɪt ɪz ə kwɛstʃən ɒf dɪfərəns ɒf hæbɪlɪtɪ aɪ θɪŋk wɪ
- b. ʌ ɡ s əv ɪ ə ən əv øə
- c. such thing or not because it is a question of difference of ability. I think we

(47)

- a. hævənt tʊ spɪsɪfaɪ evəri taɪm ɔ: ɪtʃ taɪm wɪtʃ kaɪnd ɒf spɔ:t wɪmən kæn
- b. ə e i: t əv ɪ ə
- c. haven't to specify every time or each time which kind of sport women can

(48)

- a. dʊ ænd ɔ: wɔt kaɪnd ɒf wɜ:k ɪz...ɪz mɔ: sʊtəbl tʊ wɪmən rædə dæn tʊ men
- b. ɒ əv ju: t ɪ ð ðə ə
- c. do or what kind of work is...is more suitable to women rather than to men

(49)

- a. də kwɛstʃən ɪz nɒt...də kwɛstʃən ʃʊd nɒt bi...dɪskʌst frɒm dɪs pɔɪnt ɒv
- b. ð s ð s ə ə ð ə
- c. The question is not...the question should not be...discussed from this point of

²¹ The student from Khenchla heavily uses the interdental voiceless stop as a substitute for the voiceless alveolar stop but not for the voiceless interdental fricative that she correctly pronounces.

(50)

- a. vju:...fɜ:st wɪ hæv də...wɪ hæv tʊ...tʊ θɪŋk dæt evərɪbɑdɪ ɪz fri: tʊ tʃu:z wat
b. ð t ə tə ð ɒ tə ɒ
c. view...First, we have the...we have to...to think that everybody is free to choose what

(51)

- a. hi wɒnts ðen tʊ spi:k əbaʊt wɪmənz raɪt... wɪmən ɑ:r nɒt ɑ:skɪŋg əbaʊt...
b. ə ɪ ɪ ø
c. He wants then to speak about women's right. Women are not asking about...

(52)

- a. əbaʊt...əbaʊt...wen wɪmən fɔr egzɑpl dʊ mɑ:rfəz ɔ:r ɑ:sk fɔr deɪə raɪts ɪts
b. ɪ ə æm øtʃɪ ø əø ðeə
c. about...about...when women for example do marches or ask for their rights, it's

(53)

- a. bɪkɔ:z men fɔ:ɡet dæt ɔ:l dɪz...dæt deɪ ɑ:r nɒt hjɔməŋ...də dæt deɪ ɑ:r nɒt
b. ə ðə ði: ðə ð əø ð ðə ð ə ø
c. because men forget that all these...that they are not human...the that they are not

(54)

- a. ænɪməlz bʌt deɪ ɑ: hjɔməŋ bi:ŋɡz dæt deɪ hæv deɪə spɪsɪfɪk dɪzɑɪrz...deɪə
b. ø ə ð ə ø ðə ð ðeə ə ø ð
c. animals, but they are human beings that they have their specific desires...they're...

(55)

- a. deɪ wɒnt tʊ...tʊ... sepanwɪr aɪ dəʊn nəʊ...aɪ hæv nɒt faʊnd də wɜ:d deɪ
b. ð ə ə blɒsəm ə ð ð
c. They want to s'épanouir I don't know...I have not found the word they

(56)

- a. wɒnt tʊ bi mɔr emɑːsɪpeɪt ænd ɪt wɪl bi...ɪt wɪl bi...ɪt wɪl hæv ə ɡʊd rɪzʌlt
b. ə ɔ: ɪ æn ɪd ə l l l
c. want to be more emancipate and it will be...it will be...It will have a good result

(57)

- a. ɒn sɔsɪəti aɪ θɪŋk bɪkəz...bɪkɔ:z wɪmən ɪz...ɪz...hæz tʊ edʒʊkeɪt hɜr
b. ə ə ɒ ʊ ø ø
c. on society, I think, because...because woman is...is...has to educate her

(58)

- a. tʃɪldrənz ...eksetrə ænd ʃɪ hæz ə ɡri:t ɛflɪəns ɒn sɔsɪəti ænd ɒn... ænd
b. l ø ɪt ə ə ø eɪ ɪn ʊ ə ə ə ə
c. childrens...ecsetera and she has a great influence on society and on...and

(59)

- a. ɒn hɪz fæməli ænd wen tʃɪldrən ...hæd ɔ:r hæv ə ɡu:d edʒʊkeɪʃən...ðeɪ
b. ɪ ə ø ʊ
c. on his family, and when children...had or have a good education...they

(60)

- a. ðei wil hæv ə gu:d moræli:ri...ænd ðei wil nɒt lʊk tu θɪŋgz æz...æz frɒm
b. l̩ ʊ ə ə ə ø l̩ ə ø ə ə ə
c. they will have a good morality...and they will not look to things as...as from

(61)

- a. spɪsɪfɪk pɔɪnt ɒv vju: ɔ:r frɒm hæʊ tu sei...frɒm kɒmɛ̃ di:r frɒm sɪnɪk vɪʒən
b. ə ə ø ə ə ə hæʊ tə sei ə
c. specific point of view or from have to say...from comment dire? from cynic vision

(62)

- a. ðei wil θɪŋk dæt ɔ:l θɪŋk ɪz nætʃərəl ænd wɪ hævənt tu sɪpəreɪt ɔ:r
b. l̩ ə l̩ ɹ ə ø tə ə ø
c. they will think that all thing is natural and we haven't to separate or

(63)

- a. tu spɪk əbaʊt sɪgɪgeɪʃən ɒr tu spɪk əbaʊt mɪksɪtɪ bɪkɔ:z ɪts nɔ:məl...
b. ə i: e rə ɔ: ə i: l̩
c. to speak about segregation or to speak about mixity because it's normal

(64)

- a. dæts wat hæv...wat aɪ hæv tu sei
b. ð ɒ ɒ ə
c. That what I have...what I have to say.

(Tape 2, Side 2, 19:25)

The most obvious and most frequent misuse of vowels common to all students of the previous samples is the substitution of the mid-central unrounded vowel /ə/ by so many vowels from French and especially English. This misuse leads to the strengthening of so many syllables that ought to be weakened and, as a result, to a great disturbance of the rhythmic flow of language, (see 3a, 11a, 29a, and 50a). Another common and frequent misuse is the shortening of some long vowels especially the vowel /i:/ (see 8a and 30a). As for the most obvious misuse of consonants, there is the stopping of the voiced interdental fricative /ð/ and its realisation as the voiced dental stop /d/ (the student from Khenchla hesitated between both), (see 2a, 3a, 5a, and 30a). Another consonant that creates problems for all students of the previous samples is the voiced alveolar retroflex /r/ which is realised as the dialectal voiced alveolar trill /ɾ/; it is sometimes inserted when it is pre-consonantal, a context where it does not occur at all in British English. Finally, a consonant that is also commonly misused is the voiced

alveolar velarised or dark [ɫ], which is often realised as a clear one [l]. Concerning connected speech, all students of the previous sample fail to use the basic devices that contribute to the rhythmic flow of speech and to an economical pronunciation, (see 3a, 8a, 14a, and 20a).

There is no obvious common and frequent difference in the use of vowels, but there are two main differences in the use of consonants. First, while the students from Constantine, Jijel, and Mila substitute the voiceless alveolar stop /t/ by the voiceless denti-alveolar affricated /tʰ/ (see 8a and 17a), those from Annaba and Khenchla substitute it with the voiceless interdental stop /t̪/. Although the student from Constantine in the previous sample did not stop the fricative /θ/, there are so many of them who did so in the recording (Tape 2, Side 2, 28:21).

Finally there are only two students who have code switched: that from Constantine (see 4a) and that from Khenchla (see 55a and 61a). However, this phenomenon of crudely borrowing from French, dialectal Arabic, and Arabic is illustrated by so many examples from the audio taped data. Although these are instances of lexical transfer, which is not very relevant to the subject of this research, it, nonetheless, confirms a very important fact, which is that transfer is not always random and mechanical. The students seem to transfer following certain criteria, such as transferability of the item and the choice among many linguistic options, to which reference has already been made. It seems that they first project, to use Kellerman's terminology (see I.3.2.2. page 26), about which of the three linguistic systems lends itself more to transfer in a given context. However, it seems that some items do escape this projection phase and result in an unconscious automatic transfer. There might be many reasons for this failure to process. One of them, in the case of phonological transfer, might be the acoustic similarity between two items. Hence, a number of

students would hardly accept, when their errors are commented upon, that the voiceless denti-alveolar affricated /tʰ/ and the voiceless interdental stop /t̪/ are different from the English voiceless alveolar stop /t/. Moreover, a word like 'physical' ['fɪzɪkəl] is perceived by so many students as /'fɪzɪkəl/. Perceiving the dark [ɫ], when word final, as a clear one preceded by the vowel /ɒ/ prevents a lot of students from trying to imitate it and realise it as a clear one in all contexts, (see 32a, 33a, and 45a).

IV.6 Confirmation Test

As already mentioned, a word list representing almost all the instances where the students under investigation make errors, was read by another group of third year students for the sake of confirmation. (Appendix 2) This group is constituted of 7 students who speak the dialect of Constantine, 2 the dialect of Jijel, 1 the dialect of Mila, 1 the dialect of Setif, 1 the dialect of Khenchla, and 1 the dialect of Skikda.

The following two tables show the results obtained from the reading test. The smallest figure in each cell is the minimum number of the students out of 13 making errors while reading the three tokens of each tested instance, and the largest one is the maximum number. Down are the English segments and across are the substitutes.

a. Vowels

	ɪ	ʌ	ɒ	æ	ʊ	ə	e	i:	u:	ɑ:	ɔ:	ɜ:	aɪ	əʊ	aʊ	eɪ	eɪə	a	ɥ	a	u	y
ɪ					3-11	3-11							1-5			4-12			0-1			
ʌ			3-10									0-9			4-12						0-11	6
ɒ						8								0-4				5-10				
æ						9-11										1						
ʊ									8 10													
ə		4-12	3-13	1-8	11-13		5-6			12-13	9-10	7-13		7-9		10-12				4-11	8-13	2-7
e	4-12							1-12														
i:	6-9																					
ɑ:												5										
ɔ:									1					10-10								
ɜ:						2					3-5											
u:																						
aɪ	8-10																					
əʊ			6-12																			
aʊ														12-13								1-7
eɪ				9-12			6	7-12														
ɪə																						
eə																	11-13				3-4	
	ɪ	ʌ	ɒ	æ	ʊ	ə	e	i:	u:	ɑ:	ɔ:	ɜ:	aɪ	əʊ	aʊ	eɪ	eɪə	a	ɥ	a	u	y

Table 39: Confirmation Test Results: Vowels

b. Consonants

	p	d	θ	s	z	f	ʒ	ʃ	k	g	w	t̥	t̥ ^s	r	h	l	R	J
t		9-12										0-2	7-11					
θ												0-2						
ð		10-13	12-13															
s					8-12													
z				8-12														
v						10-10												
ʒ								7										
r																		1-2
k										12-12								
g																		
dʒ							1-2											
ʃ																		
tʃ								1-7										
p ^h	10-13																	
k ^h									0-7									
l																		
l̥																8-12		
∅									5-12		1-5				10-12	1-10		
	p	d	θ	s	z	f	ʒ	ʃ	k	g	w	t̥	t̥ ^s	r	h	l	R	J

Table 40: Confirmation Test Results: Consonants and Consonant Clusters

c. Vowels + Consonants

	ĩ	õ	ã
ɪ + n	0-11		
ʌ + n	8-12		
ɒ + n		8-10	
æ + n			4-10
ə + n		10-12	

Table 41: Confirmation test results: Vowels + Consonants

As it is noticed in the two previous tables, only 16 out of 71 instances (22.53%) have been correctly pronounced by more than half of the students taking into account all tokens. There are 33 instances of errors (46.47%) where 10 and more students made the same instance of error in the same token. In order to test the performance of the above students in the use of the devices of connected speech, the sentence 'I think we have got to help them as soon as we can' was added to the list of words. Ten out of thirteen students read the whole utterance as a sequence of strong forms with no contraction and no assimilation which literally doubles the number of stressed syllables. Indeed, instead of /aɪ'θɪŋkwɪv'gɒttə'hɛlpðəməs'su:nəzwɪ'kæn/, it is mostly read /aɪ 'θɪŋk wɪ 'hæv 'gɒt tʊ 'hɛlp 'dem 'æz 'su:n 'æz wɪ 'kæn/.

IV.7 Comparison with Two Types of Learners

The Algerian learners tend to be classified in Error Analysis sometimes among the 'speakers of Arabic' type and sometimes among the 'speakers of French' type (Beghoul, 1984:20). However, the learners of the population under investigation seem to constitute, a type that is different from both French learners and Middle Eastern ones. Indeed, they have linguistic, educational, and cultural backgrounds that are, somehow, mixtures of the two former types. Consequently, they share many of their errors and learning strategies, both interlingual and intralingual, but they also differ from them in more than one way. Such differences might be due to the fact that these learners, having

a much larger linguistic repertoire, seem to have much more choice in their strategies of transfer. In order to highlight these similarities and differences, a brief comparison of their errors with the errors of both French and Arab learners of English, outlined in two works, will be made. The first work is that of Swan and Smith (1987:126), and the second one is that by Kelly (2000: 144).

IV.7.1 Swan and Smith

Swan and Smith deal with various learners of English with various backgrounds. Among those are learners with a French linguistic background and learners with an Arabic background.

IV.7.1.1 French Learners of English or 'French Speakers'

IV.7.1.1.1 Vowels

The writers mention eight difficulties concerning vowels:

1. French has only one sound in the area of /i:/ and /ɪ/ leading to confusion between pairs like 'live' and 'leave'
2. /ʌ/ is almost pronounced like /ə/, so that 'much' becomes 'mirch'.
3. French has only one sound in the area of /ʊ/ and /u:/ leading to confusion between 'pull' and 'pool'.
4. /ɒ/ is often unrounded, so that, for instance, 'not' is realised something like 'nut'.
5. Both /ɔ:/ and /əʊ/ are moved towards the French /o/, leading to confusion between pairs like 'naught' and 'not'.
6. /æ/ often creates difficulty. Depending on how it is perceived by the French speaker, it may be realised:
 - Very like an English /ʌ/, so that words like 'bank' and 'bunk' are confused.
 - A bit like /ɑ:/, so that, for instance, 'hand' sounds like 'hahnd'.
 - As /e/, causing confusion between pairs like 'pat' and 'pet'.
7. /eɪ/ sometimes becomes /e/, so that, for example, 'paper' sounds like 'pepper'. Since /æ/ can also be realised as /eɪ/, this can lead to confusion like 'mad' and 'made'.
9. Other diphthongs are not usually problematic, but they may be pronounced with equal force and length on the two elements: 'I see now' becomes 'Ah-ee see nah-oo'. (p. 127)

Only number 1 and number 3 seem to be common to the Algerian learners under investigation. However, concerning number 1, it is difficult to safely state that the

interference is from French in the case of these learners because the tendency to shorten long vowels is rather dialectal. Concerning number 3, the studied learners do have a problem with the vowel /ʊ/, but it is the long one that is used in most cases. It could be transfer from French when the spelling is 'ou' as when words like 'could' /kʊd/ and 'should' /ʃʊd/ are realised as /kuld/ and /ʃuld/ roughly stretching the short vowel; it is intralingual transfer when the spelling is 'oo' like in 'books' /bʊks/ and 'good' /gʊd/ realised as /bu:ks/ and /gu:d/.

IV.7.1.1.2 Consonants

Concerning consonants, the writers mention six difficulties:

1. /θ/ and /ð/ do not exist in French, and the fact that spoken French does not use the tip of the tongue makes them difficult to learn. /s/, /z/, /f/, /v/, /t/, and /d/ are common realisations of these phonemes. 'think' may be realised as 'sink', 'fink', 'tink'; and 'that' as 'zat', 'vat', or 'dat'.
2. /tʃ/ is often realised as /ʃ/ and /dʒ/ as /ʒ/. So 'church' becomes 'shursh' and 'joke' becomes 'zhoke'.
3. /h/ (which does not exist in French) is often dropped: 'I haven't seen 'enry today'.
4. /r/ is pronounced with the back of the tongue in French, and so is likely to be pronounced the same way in English.
5. 'Dark' /l/, as in 'will', does not occur in French, and students may replace it by 'clear' /l/ as in 'lay'.
6. English lengthens vowels in stressed syllables before voiced consonants. In fact, the main way an English speaker hears the difference between words like 'sat' and 'sad' is by hearing the longer vowel before the 'd' of the word 'sad' (the voiced/devoiced) contrast between 't' and 'd' is much less important for perception). French speakers do not generally lengthen these vowels, leading to confusion between pairs of words like 'sat' and 'sad', 'pick' and 'pig', and so on. (p. 128)

Only 1, 2, and 5 do apply to Algerian learners though not so systematically.

Concerning the pairs /θ/ and /ð/ the learners substitute only the last alternative i.e., the two stops /t/ and /d/ leaning more towards stopping the voiced interdental fricative /ð/ than towards stopping the voiceless one /θ/.

IV.7.1.1.3 Consonant Clusters

As for consonant clusters, the writers state three cases of errors:

1. In words ending with consonant + le, the French speaker, may reinterpret the 'dark' /l/ as /əl/. Combined with the tendency to stress multisyllabic words on the last syllable, this gives pronunciations like 'terribul', 'littul'.
2. At the end of words like 'realism', French speakers may pronounce /s/ plus devoiced /m/ rather than changing the 's' to a voiced /z/ as in English. An English speaker may hear 'realiss'.
3. One does not find normally a consonant followed by /z/ at the end of a French word. So in pronouncing English plurals, French speakers tend to drop the -s after voiced consonants, making mistakes like 'two-tin'. (p. 129)

Number 1 and number 3 apply but only somehow to the learners of this study; they, indeed, tend to insert a vowel before word final dark 'l'. However, it is not a schwa, but rather a short /ɒ/. Besides, inserting any vowel in that context cannot be considered an epenthesis error or cluster reduction as such because in English, dark 'l' in word final position is also syllabic and, so, it is the centre of the syllable. Any centre of a syllable cannot be part of a cluster because clusters occur as onsets or terminations of syllables. Concerning number 3, this type of errors is done by only an extreme minority of students (5 occurrences in the 23 tapes recordings).

IV.7.1.1.4 Influence of spelling on pronunciation

The writers, further, state five examples of errors due to the influence of French spelling on pronunciation:

1. In syllables ending with the letter 'r', this letter is pronounced in French; interference here may cause problems in British English with words like 'hard', 'early', 'garden'. In words like 'sister', French speakers may pronounce the final 'e', giving 'sistair'.
2. 'Ou' may be pronounced /u:/ and 'au' may be pronounced as /o/: 'pronoonce', 'otomatic'.
3. In regular post endings, the students may pronounce final /ɪd/ or /ed/ after all unvoiced consonants: 'warnèd', 'jumpèd'.
4. Final written consonants in French (e.g. plurals) are often not pronounced. This tends to be carried over into English and provokes mistakes like *'differen', *'she stay'.

5. There is a large number of cognates in English and French. It is very common for French students to transfer French stress patterns to these words. (p. 129)

The learners under study do have considerable problems with the pronunciation of English because of the spelling of French but in so many different ways. They also have difficulty n° 2 but only for the first part of it. Concerning the pronunciation of 'au', for the learners under investigation, it is either the diphthong /əʊ/, as in 'cause' /kɔːz/ realised as /kəʊz/ and 'pause' /pɔːz/ realised as /pəʊz/, or the diphthong /aʊ/ as in 'aunt' /ɑːnt/ realised as /aʊnt/ or 'haunt' /hɔːnt/ realised as /haʊnt/. So, such errors cannot be due to transfer from French. They cannot also be instances of intralingual transfer since the spelling 'au' is not pronounced /əʊ/ at all and very rarely pronounced /aʊ/. Concerning difficulty n° 3, there is, indeed, vowel insertion between the infinitive and the regular past marker, but it has never been the mid front unrounded vowel /e/ but rather the mid central unrounded one /ə/. The latter substitution shows that the vowel insertion is not due to an influence of French. As for the stress pattern or difficulty n° 5, the learners under investigation have the tendency to stress the first syllable of cognate words like 'response' /rɪs'pɒns/, 'prefer' /prɪ'fɜː/, 'respect' /rɪs'pekt/, 'specific' /sp'sɪfɪk/, 'revenge' /rɪ'vendʒ/, and 'defence' /dɪ'fens/ are articulated by many of the learners of this error analysis as /'rɪspəns/, /'prɪfə/, /'rɪspəkt/, /'spesɪfɪk/, /'rɪvəndʒ/, and /'dɪfəns/. There are few cases such as the word 'refuge' /'refjuːdʒ/ which is articulated as /re'fjuːdʒ/ of which it is the last syllable that is stressed instead of the first one.

IV.7.1.2 Middle Eastern Learners of English or 'Arabic Speakers'

IV.7.1.2.1 Vowels

According to Swan and Smith, the commonest confusions in the use of vowels are three:

1. /ɪ/ and /e/ are often confused: 'bit' for 'bet'
2. /ɒ/ and /ɔ:/ are often confused: 'cot' for 'caught'
3. Diphthongs /eɪ/ and /əʊ/ are usually pronounced rather short and are confused with /e/ and /ɒ/: 'raid' for 'red'; 'hope' for 'hop'. (p. 143)

Confusion 1 and 3 are rather contradictory. Only n° 2 seems more or less to apply to the learners under study. However, the writers seem to attribute the interference to Arabic. In the case of the learners under study, one is tempted to believe that the shortening of long vowels is rather due to the influence of the dialectal forms of Arabic. Indeed, long vowels are much less used in the latter forms than in those spoken in the Middle East (Barkat, 2000).

IV.7.1.2.2 Consonants

As for consonants, the writers state ten cases:

1. The glottal stop is a phoneme in Arabic.
2. Arabic has only one letter in the /g/-/dʒ/ area, which is pronounced as /g/ in some regions, notably Egypt, and as /dʒ/ in others. Arabic speakers tend, therefore, to pronounce an English /g/, and sometimes even as 'j' in all positions according to their local dialects.
3. /tʃ/ as a phoneme is found only in a few dialects, but the sound occurs naturally in all dialects in junctures of /t/ and /ʃ/.
4. There are two approximations to the English 'h' in Arabic. The commoner of them is an unvoiced harsh aspiration; Arabic speakers tend to pronounce an English 'h' rather harshly.
5. /r/ is voiced flap, very unlike the RP /r/. Arabic speakers commonly pronounce the post-vocalic 'r' as in 'car park'.
6. /p/ and /b/ are allophonic and tend to be used rather randomly:
*I baid ten bence for a bicture of Pig Pen
7. /f/ and /v/ are allophonic, and are usually both pronounced /f/.
8. /k/ and /g/ are often confused, especially by those Arabs whose dialects do not include the phoneme /g/.
9. Although /θ/ and /ð/ occur in literary Arabic, most dialects pronounce them as /t/ and /d/ respectively. The same tends to happen in English.
10. The phoneme /ŋ/ is usually pronounced as /n/ or /ng/ or even /nk/. (p.143)

Only 5, 9, and 10 do apply to the learners under investigation. In the case of 10, however, the voiced velar nasal /ŋ/ is realised as /ŋg/ in words ending with 'ing' and

sometimes as /ŋk/. It is not a mispronunciation of the voiced velar nasal /ŋ/ but rather an addition of the voiced velar stop /g/ under the influence of spelling. Besides, it would be nearly impossible to utter a combination such as /ng/ in connected speech: the voiced alveolar nasal stop /n/ is inevitably velarised under the influence of the following velar, and, so, it becomes /ŋ/.

IV.7.1.2.3 Consonant Clusters

The writers find that what they call 'Arabic speakers', with whom they include Algerians, have serious problems with the three and four segment clusters and break them with a short vowel. A word like 'next' /nekst/ would be pronounced /nekɪst/. The learners involved in this error analysis, however, have not faced any of such problems.

IV.7.1.2.4 Influence of Spelling

Finally, Swan and Smith stipulate that since the Arabic writing system is virtually phonetic, Arabic speakers tend to pronounce English words phonetically. A word like 'foreign' would be pronounced /fɔːrɪɡen/. There is no such influence on the learners under investigation. It is very likely that, having been exposed to French before English, and the former having a writing system that is much less phonetic than that of Arabic, the Algerian learners grow used to expecting some exceptions. This habit is, then, positively transferred to English. One good example of such a habit is the pronunciation of the word 'second' /sekənd/ as /segənd/. Here one of the exceptions in the French pronunciation which is realising the letter 'c' as the voiced velar stop /g/ is transferred to English.

IV.7.2 Kelly

Here are the phonological difficulties speakers of Arabic and speakers of French have in learning the phonology of English, according to Kelly:

IV.7.2.1 Arabic

Although Kelly does not provide in his work a geographical definition of 'Arabic speakers', many of the difficulties he describes are similar to those described by Swan and Smith.

IV.7.2.1.1 Vowels

	English Phone(s)	Substitute(s)	Erroneous Use	Correct use	spelling
1.	ɪ	e	bed	bɪd	bid
2.	e	ɪ	bɪd	bed	bed
3.	ə	In various ways			
4.	ɔ:	ɒ	tɒt	tɔ:t	taught
5.	æ	e	sæt	set	set
6.		ʌ	kʌt	kæt	cat
7.	ʌ	æ	fæn	fʌn	fun
8.	ɑ:	æ	kænt	kɑ:nt	can't
9.	Diphthongs	Many diphthongs simplified			

Table 42: Difficulties of 'Arabic Speakers' with English Vowels (Kelly)

The learners under investigation share only 5 out of 9 difficulties: 2,3,4,7 and 8. However, only few diphthongs are simplified and that applies to only those learners who pronounce the post-vocalic 'r' while trying to imitate American English.

IV.7.2.1.2 Consonants and Consonant Clusters

	English Phone(s)	Substitute(s)	Erroneous Use	Correct use	spelling
1.	p	b	ben	pen	pen
2.	b	p	pɪn	bɪn	bin
3.	k	g	kɒt	gɒt	cot
4.	g	k	gɒt	kɒt	got
5.	tʃ	ʃ	kæʃ	kætʃ	catch
6.	dʒ	ʒ	'meɪʒə	'meɪdʒə	major
7.	v	f	væn	fæn	van
8.	θ	s	sɪŋ	θɪŋ	thing
9.	ð	z	ðɪs	zɪs	this
10.	z	s	gəʊs	gəʊz	goes
11.	ʒ	ʃ	'pleʃə	'pleʒə	pleasure
12.	h	Articulated in a guttural way			
13.	ŋ	followed by /g/ or /k/ /sɪŋk/ for 'sing'			
14.	r	Articulated differently			
15.	Consonant clusters	Vowel insertion in consonant clusters e.g. /seterɒŋ/ for 'strong'.			

Table 43: 'Arabic Speakers' Difficulties with English Consonants & Clusters (Kelly)

The learners under investigation share only 4 out of 15 difficulties: 5,6,11, and 14. They do have a problem with the pair /ʃ/ and /tʃ/ and tend to substitute the latter by the former, but not in words of Germanic descent such as 'catch'. They do that when the word is of a Latin descent such as the verb 'to march', mainly confused by the spelling 'ch' in both languages, while Middle Eastern Arabs seem to have a problem of articulation.

IV.7.2.2 French

Kelly considers that French speakers face the following difficulties in learning the phonological inventory of the English language:

IV.7.2.2.1 Vowels

	English Phone(s)	Substitute(s)	Erroneous Use	Correct use	spelling
1.	i:	ɪ	hi:t	hit	hit
2.	e	ɪ	bɪd	bed	bed
3.	ə	In various ways			
4.	ɔ:	ɒ	tɒt	tɔ:t	taught
5.		əʊ	kəʊt	kæt	cat
6.	æ	e	set	sæt	sat
7.	ʌ	ɜ:	lɜ:v	lʌv	love
8.	ɑ:	æ	kænt	kɑ:nt	can't
9.	eɪ	e	pled	pleɪd	played
10.	ɪə	Final ə may present problems for many			
11.	ʊə				
12.	əʊ	ɒ	kɒp	kəʊp	cope
13.		ɔ:	kɔ:t	kəʊt	coat

Table 44: Difficulties of French Speakers with English vowels (Kelly)

7 out of 11 problems are common to both the learners under investigation and French learners: 1, 3, 4, 5, 8, 10, 11, and 13. This shows the importance of French as an interfering source but does not justify classifying Algerian learners among the French speakers' type.

IV.7.2.2.2 Consonants and Consonant Clusters

	English Phone(s)	Substitute(s)	Erroneous Use	Correct use	spelling
1.	tʃ	ʃ	kæʃ	kætʃ	catch
2.	dʒ	ʒ	'meɪʒə	'meɪdʒə	major
3.	v	f	væn	fæn	van
4.	θ	s	sɪŋ	θɪŋ	thing
5.		t	tɪn	θɪn	thin
6.		f	fɪn	θɪn	thin
7.	ð	z	ðɪs	zɪs	this
8.		d	deə	ðeə	there
9.		v	væt	ðæt	that
10.	z	s	gəʊs	gəʊz	goes
11.	ʒ	ʃ	'pleɪʒə	'pleɪzə	pleasure
12.	h	dropped/put in inappropriately			
13.	ŋ	followed by /g/ or /k/ /sɪŋk/ for sing			
14.	r	Articulated differently			

Table 45: Difficulties of French Speakers with English Consonants (Kelly)

There are only 7 instances out of 14 that are similar to the errors made by the learners investigated in this research: 1, 2, 8, 11, 12, 13, and 14. Again, the substitution of the voiceless palato-alveolar affricate /tʃ/ by the voiceless palatal fricative /ç/ by these learners does not occur in a word like 'catch' because the spelling 'tch' is not problematic. I doubt it that it may cause a problem for the French learners because this combination is also pronounced /tʃ/ in some borrowed words from English to French such as 'match'. The sound /ç/ does indeed substitute the sound /ʒ/ in the performance of the learners of the study, but not in this example. This substitution is an overgeneralization of the pronunciation of the spelling combination 'sion' in many words in English such as 'mission', 'transmission', 'submission', etc to a word like 'invasion'.

All in all, and as the above comparison shows, the Algerian learners involved in this error analysis share only some phonological errors made by Arab speakers of the Middle East and some made by French speakers. However, they have many difficulties that are encountered by neither. This implies that although French, Arabic, and its dialectal forms are potential sources of interference, how these linguistic systems influence the learners under study depends on many factors. This influence does not depend solely on the similarities and differences of the phonological segments and structures across these languages. So much of this influence depends on the learner's conception of the language distance, the transferability of the phonological components, and the phonetic perception of the phonological segments and structures of these languages. What may be noticed in the work of Kelly is that the schwa is the most problematic for both types of learners, though he does not provide any details. Incidentally, all speakers of the 13 languages he dealt with in his work also had problems with the schwa and 'in various ways'.

Conclusion

The error analysis carried out on the phonological interlanguage of the first group has yielded many results. The learners' phonological interlanguage is not the result of a straightforward transfer from the mother tongue (Dialectal Arabic) into the target language (English), but it is influenced, to various degrees, by all of their mother tongue, their second standard language, French, and the target language itself, English. The degree of influence and the area influenced are not solely due to some structural causes but also to some mental even sociolinguistic ones, i.e. the learners' hypotheses as to which linguistic system lends itself better to phonological transfer, because typologically close enough, and whether such or a such transfer is socially allowed. These hypotheses start right when handling the pronunciation of the first and the second standard languages. Consequently, some phones that are transferred into Standard Arabic from their mother tongue are not automatically transferred into French. When later approaching English phonology, Standard Arabic, though constituting quite a rich repertoire of sounds does not seem to be fit for transfer, and the mother tongue is there only for minor interference, especially in the performance of vowels. It is, first, the target language, and, then, the second standard language, French, that so often come to the rescue. This happens even in the case of learners who are not so competent in French. Spelling, with its regularities and irregularities, across the two favoured systems for transfer, seems to play quite an important role in determining what to transfer and how often. Unfortunately, some hypotheses yield poor results not only at the level of the segments, but, most importantly, at the suprasegmental aspects such as stress and rhythm. The latter are performed, as a result, in such an unnatural way that pronunciation instead of being easy and simple becomes quite a difficult task that so much undermines the learners' motivation to read and speak.

In the next chapter, the errors of a group of fourth year students will be dealt with and compared with those of the first group in order to see whether change in some external variables will overcome these notions and hypotheses that seem to be well rooted in the learners' minds.

CHAPTER V

Error Analysis of the Interlanguage of the Second Group

And Confirmation

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CHAPTER V

Error Analysis of the Interlanguage of the Second Group

And Confirmation

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to analyse the phonological interlanguage of a second group of students and contrast the findings of this error analysis with those of the previous one. The aim of such a contrast is to see whether the change in some variables such as the level in Standard French of the learners will considerably affect their hypotheses and strategies when approaching the English sound system. Then, the findings of both groups will be tested on a group of learners consisting of two or three students from each of the academic years of the BA in English, and a group of both experienced and inexperienced teachers. Then, another test is administered to two teachers who were once among the first group of students. Finally, the performance of a four senior lecturers while examining a doctoral candidate and the performance of the latter are analysed. The purpose of these supporting tests and analyses is to find how general this interlanguage is and the part of the teachers' interlanguage in the shaping of the students' one. The overall objective of these undertakings is to check how systematic and how stable this phonological interlanguage can be.

V.1. Error Analysis of the Second Group

V.1.1 Subjects

The subjects of the second group of students are 168 fourth year students (137 females and 31 males) reading for a BA degree (classical system) at the department of English, University of Constantine. They were videotaped while orally presenting their classroom assignments in linguistics. All informants know English as a third standard language and their regional dialects are as follows:

Dialect	Number
Constantine	61
Mila	46
Chelghoum Laid	13
Tleghma	12
Jijel	8
Tebessa	4
Tadjenant	3
Zighoud Youcef	3
Oued Athmania	3
Bordj Bouariridj	2
Guelma	2
Skikda	2
Ain Abid	1
Bouira	1
Didouche Mourad	1
El Harrouche	1
Khenchela	1
Oum Bouaghi	1

Table 46: Informants' Regional Dialects

108 of the subjects had access to the university after gaining a baccalaureate of Arts; 46 had got a baccalaureate of sciences, and 4 of them had one before and one after. All students had, prior to the university, studied the main subjects in Arabic.

To a question in the routine information sheet kept by the teacher about their level in Arabic and French, the students provided the following answers:

Level	language	
	Arabic	French
Weak	3	26
Average	49	92
Good	102	35
Very good	3	2
Excellent	13	3
Total	160	158 ²²

Table 47: Level of Performance in Arabic and French

²² The discrepancy in the totals of students is due to their missing or not willing to answer some of the questions.

As can be seen from the above table, the total students who claim to be good, very good, or excellent in Arabic constitute 118, whereas those who claim to be so in French are only 40. The majority of them are good in Arabic (102) and just average in French (92). Compared to the first group, the percentage of the people who are good in French is much lower (25% i.e. 40 out of 158, against 49% i.e. 29 out of 59).

V.1.2 Tasks

The errors are elicited out of the students' classroom oral assignments dealing with the main aspects of sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, and applied linguistics, as part of the module of fourth year linguistics in the BA degree in English prior to the LMD system. (DVDs 1 to 4 containing around 11 hours of free speech).

V.1.3 Nature of the Error Analysis

The error analysis is performed following the same principles and out of the same convictions behind conducting the error analysis of the previous study. Given the quite large number of students compared to that of the previous study, only one instance and one token of each error made by each student is used.

V.1.4 Findings

V.1.4.1 Overall Performance

The videotapes of the 167 advanced students' free speech show that, in the case of the extreme majority of them, there are no less hesitations, repetitions, slips of the tongue, errors at all language levels, code switching, hybrid expressions, self corrections, and self miscorrections.

V.1.4.2 Articulation

The following tables display the problems of articulation of the second group. In order to show the new instances of errors that were not made by the first group, the whole line in the table is bolded; to indicate that the two groups share the same instance

and also the same token, only the token in the line is bolded. To imply that the two groups of learners share the same instance but with different tokens, the whole line is with regular font.

V.1.4.2.1 Vowels

a. Substitutions

- Intralingual Substitutions

English Vowel	English Substitute	Erroneous Use	Correct Use	Spelling	Possible English Inferences
ə	e	ɪnt'restəd	'ɪntrəstɪd	interested	sent, went
	ɪ	spɪ'sɪfɪk	spə'sɪfɪk	specific	become
	æ	'dʒentlmæn	'dʒentlmən	Gentleman	man, can
	ɜ:	ˌpɜ:'fɔ:məns	pə'fɔ:məns	performance	certify, term
	ʌ	ˌsʌ'fɪʃnt	sə'fɪʃnt	sufficient	summer
	ʊ	tʊ'geðə	tə'geðə	together	to
	ɔ:	ˌɪn'fɔ:meɪʃn	ˌɪnfə'meɪʃn	information	form, norm
	ɑ:	'pɑ:tɪkjələ	pə'tɪkjələ	particular	part, hard
	əʊ	dɪv'ləʊps	dɪ'veləʊps	develops	rope, hope
	eɪ	ʔɛ'fɔ:tʃənətli	ʌn'fɔ:tʃənətli	unfortunately	lately
	ɪə	'sɒldrɪz	'səʊldrɪz	soldier	bier, fierce
	ʊə	prə'sedʒʊə	prə'si:dʒə	procedure	pure, endure
ɪ	ə	'wʊmən	'wɪmɪn	women	woman
	ʊ	'wʊmən	'wɪmɪn	women	woman
	eɪ	ɪ'meɪdʒəz	'ɪmɪdʒɪz	images	rage, page
	aɪ	'aɪdɪələkt	'ɪdɪələkt	idiolect	idea, isolate
e	ə	'pesənt	pə'sent	per cent	innocent
	eɪ	-	-	-	-
	i:	ɪn'stɪ:d	ɪn'sted	instead	please, seat
	ɪ	'dʒɪnrəl	'dʒenrəl	general	precision
ɒ	ə	'ʌpən	ə'pɒn	upon	common
	æ	wæt	wɒt	what	cat, hat
	əʊ	'nəʊlədʒ	'nɒlədʒ	knowledge	know, low

English Vowel	English Substitute	Erroneous Use	Correct Use	Spelling	Possible English Inferences
ʌ	ɜ:	-	-	-	
	əʊ	-	-	-	
	aʊ	'kaʊntri	'kʌntri	country	count
ɜ:	ə	m'tɒpri:t	m'tɜ:prɪt	interpret	interact
	ɔ:	-	-	-	-
	e	'persən	'pɜ:sn	person	let, get
æ	ə	əkwi'zɪʃn	,ækwi'zɪʃn	acquisition	agree, adore
	e	ðen	ðæn	than	then ²³
	eɪ	'nætʃərəl	'nætʃərəl	natural	nature
ʊ	ʊ:	-	-	-	-
	ɒ	-	-	-	-
	ɪ	'wʊmən	'wɪmɪn	women	woman
ɔ:	aʊ	braʊt	brɔ:t	brought	house, south
	əʊ	əb'rəʊd	əb'rɔ:d	abroad	road, boat
eɪ	æ	bɪ'hævjə	bɪ'heɪvjə	behavior	have, had
	i:	gri:t	greɪt	great	meat, heat
ɑ:	æ	'ænsə	'ɑ:nsə	answer	hand, band
	ɜ:	'hɜ:tbi:t	'hɑ:tbeɪt	heartbeat	learn, earn
aɪ	ɪ	krist	kraɪst	Christ	list, mist
	i:	-	-	-	-
aʊ	əʊ	ə'ləʊ	ə'laʊ	allow	low, slow
	ʌ	'kʌntəbl	'kaʊntəbl	countable	country
əʊ	ʊ:	'tʃu:zən	'tʃəʊzn	chosen	choose
ɛə	ɪə	bɪə	bɛə	bear	near, fear

Table 48: Intralingual Substitutions of Vowels

Out of 44 intralingual instances of errors made by the first group, the second group made errors in 37 (84.09%). Out of the 37 common instances, 25 are made in the same token (56.82%). These percentages are quite significant especially if we consider that the task to elicit is unpredictable free speech. There are only two new instances of errors; one of them is in the use of the schwa. This confirms the importance of the target language, English, as a source of errors and in shaping the phonological interlanguage.

²³ There seems to be a confusion between the pronunciation of some minimal pairs that are also near homographs such as the pair 'then' and 'than', 'live' and 'leave' etc.. This applies to both groups of students.

- Interlingual Substitutions (French Interference)

English Vowel	French Substitute	Erroneous Use	Correct Use	Spelling	Probable French Inferences
ə	a	,tra'diʃnl	trə'diʃnl	traditional	traditionnel
	e	kamera'mæn	'kæmərəmæn	cameraman	caméraman
	ɔ	'mæksɪməm	'mæksɪməm	maximum	maximum
	y	sy'pɔ:t	sə'pɔ:t	support	supporter
	u	-	-	-	-
	ə ²⁴	'ndikertə	'ndikertə	indicator	
ʌ	u	-	-	-	-
	y	mylti'mi:diə	,mʌlti'mi:diə	multimedia	multimédia
	æ	-	-	-	-
ɪ ²⁵	ə	rə'leɪʃn	rɪ'leɪʃn	relation	relation
	e	dev'lop	dɪ'veləp	develop	developper
	ɥ	-	-	-	-
eɪ	a	'sɑkrəd	'seɪkrɪd	sacred	sacré
	ɛ	ɛk'spəuze	ek'spəuzeɪ	exposé	exposé
	aɛ	-	-	-	-
ʊ	y	,sɪtɪ'eɪʃn	,sɪtʃʊ'eɪʃn	situation	situation
	ɔ	-	-	-	-
u:	y	sy'piəriə	su:'piəriə	superior	supérieur
	æ	-	-	-	-
e	e	a'merikən	ə'merikən	American	américain
	ə	rəlatɪv	'relətɪv	relative	relative

²⁴ The symbol /ə/ in the second column and in the corresponding erroneous tokens refers to the French schwa, null vowel or 'ə/ caduc'.

²⁵ This vowel is pronounced by most students as the French /i/ which is closer than its English counterpart /ɪ/.

English Vowel	French Substitute	Erroneous Use	Correct Use	Spelling	Probable French
ɒ	a	-	-	-	-
ɔ:	a	ˌaltə'neɪʃn	ˌɔ:ltə'neɪʃn	alternation	alternation
ɑ:	a	'ɑ:rgjəmənt	'ɑ:gjəmənt	argument	argument
i:	e	'edn	'i:dn	Eden	Eden
ɜ:	u	-	-	-	-
ɪə	e	ɪk'spɪəriəns	ɪk'spɪəriəns	experience	expérience
eə	a	'vəri	'veəri	vary	varier
aʊ	u	-	-	-	-
ʊə	y	-	-	-	-

Table 49: Interlingual Substitutions of Vowels (French Interference)

There are 17 out of 28 interlingual errors (French interference) in the use of vowels, which are common to both groups (60.71%). 8 errors among them are made in the same token (28.57%). There are only two new instances made by the second group.

- Crosslinguistic Substitutions

English Vowel	Crosslinguistic Substitute	Errors	Correct Use	Spelling	Possible French Inference	Possible English Inference
ʌ	ɒ / o	'ɒ/ɔðə	'ʌðə	other	pomme	hot
ə	ɒ / o	ɒ/o'pɪniən	ə'pɪniən	opinion	pomme	hot
əʊ	ɒ / o	'ɔ:lsɒ/o	'ɔ:lsəʊ	also	pomme	hot
eɪ	ɛ/e	ə'frɛ/ed	ə'freɪd	afraid	Aide	said

Table 50: Crosslinguistic Substitutions of Vowels (Intralingual or Interlingual)

4 out 4 of the instances of the crosslinguistic substitutions are made by both groups (100%) and all in the same tokens (100%).

- Miscellaneous Substitutions

English Vowel	Miscellaneous Substitution	Erroneous Use	Correct Use	Spelling
ʌ	ɛ	-	-	-
	ə	kən'tri	'kʌntri	country
ɛ	ʌ	'sʌkənd	'sekənd	second
	æ	-	-	-
ɔ:	əʊ	-	-	-
	aʊ	haunt	hɔ:nt	haunt
əʊ	ʊ	'gʊŋg	'gəʊŋ	going
	aʊ	naʊ	nəʊ	know
eə	ɪə	-	-	-
	eɪə	ðeɪə	ðeə	their
ɪə	ɪ	ai'dɪlɪzəm	ai'diəlɪzəm	idealism
	ɪə	ai'dɪə	ai'diə	idea
æ	ɪ	'lɪŋgwɪdʒ	'læŋgwɪdʒ	language
ɔ:	u:	ku:s	kɔ:s	course
eɪ	aɪ	grai	greɪ	grey
aɪ	eɪ	'eɪðə	'aɪðə	either
ʊə	ʊ	ˌjʊərə'piən	ˌjʊərə'piən	European
aɪə	aɪ	sə'saɪti	sə'saɪti	society

Table 51: Miscellaneous Substitutions of Vowels

14 errors out of the 18 miscellaneous instances of errors made by the first group are also made by the second group (77.78%). There are 8 instances that are made in the same token by both groups (44.44%).

- Interlingual Substitutions (Dialectal Arabic Interference)

English Vowel	Dialectal Substitution	Erroneous Use	Correct Use	Spelling
i:	ɪ	'tɪtʃɪŋ	'ti:tʃɪŋ	teaching
u:	ʊ	grʊp	gru:p	group
ʊ	ɔ	-	-	-
ɒ	ʊ	ˌpɒpjʊ'leɪʃn	ˌpɒpjʊ'leɪʃn	population

Table 52: Interlingual Substitutions of Vowels (Dialectal Arabic Interference)

Out of 4 dialectal substitutions, the second group makes 3 (75%); All 3 substitutions are in the same tokens (75%).

- Interlingual Substitutions (from American English)

English Vowel	American Substitution	Erroneous Use	Correct Use	Spelling
ɒ	ɑ	'evrɪbɑɪ	'evrɪbɒɪ	everybody
ə	ɑ	ˌkɑ'mju:nɪkət	kə'mju:nɪkət	communicate
eɪ	i:	'i:ðə	'aɪðə	either

Table 53: Interlingual Substitutions of Vowels (American English Interference)

3 interlingual substitutions originating from American English in the errors of the first group are also in the errors of the second (100%). One of those substitutions happens to be in the same token for both groups (33.33%).

b. Insertions

English Vowel	Inserted vowel	Erroneous Use	Correct Use	Spelling
-	ə	'stʌɪɹəd	'stʌɪɪd	studied
-	ɪ	pru:vɪd	pru:vɪ	proved
-	æ	-	-	-
-	e	-	-	-
-	ɒ	'fɪzɪkɒl	'fɪzɪkl	physical

Table 54: Insertions of Vowels

3 insertions out of 5 in the use of vowels are common to both groups (60%); one insertion is made in the same token by both groups (20%).

c. Omissions

Omitted Vowel	Erroneous Use	Correct Use	Spelling
ə	-	-	-
ɪ	'speʃəlɪ	'ɪspeʃəlɪ	especially
e	dɪ'vlopəd	dɪ'veləpt	developed
əʊ	'kɔ:dmət	ˌkəʊ'ɔ:dmət	coordinate

Table 55: Omissions of Vowels

2 omissions in the use of vowels out of 3 (33.33%) made by the first group are also made by the second one. The two omissions happen to be in the same token (33.33%). One instance of errors was not made by the first group.

d. Summary

Out of 105 erroneous instances by the second group there are:

- 77 instances that are shared by the first group recorded earlier. This constitutes a significant percentage (73.33%) despite the fact that the tasks to elicit errors consisted of free speech.
- The students of both groups have made the errors in 48 identical tokens, which is again a significant percentage (45.71%).
- There are only 5 new instances of errors that were made by the learners of the second group.
- The English weak vowel /ə/ is substituted by no less than 18 vowels (12 English vowels and 6 French ones), and, with the exception of the French null one, all the remaining 17 vowels are strong ones. This tendency by most of the learners makes of their rhythm of speech a syllable timed one full of redundant articulation , just like that of the previous learners.
- The greatest share in erroneous instances is that of substitutions and the greatest instances of substitutions are those which are of an intralingual nature.

The role of French in the phonological interlanguage of the students remains the same despite the students decreasing level in it. This demonstrates that phonological interlanguage, in the case of BA degree students, is shaped more by hypotheses made by the learners as to certain linguistic parameters such as language distance than to those pertaining to similarity and difference between the mother tongue's phones and

the target language's ones or to the degree of the learner's achievement in a given linguistic system.

V.1.4.2.2 Vowels + Consonants

Spelling	English Represented phone(s)	Example	French substitutes	Erroneous Instance	Correct Use	Spelling
am	əm	Birmingham	-			-
	ɑ:m	lamp	ã	ɪg'zɑ:mpl	ɪg'zɑ:mpl	example
an	ən	distance	-			-
	eɪn	change	-			-
	ɑ:n	chance	-	frãns	frɑ:ns	France
	æŋ	anchor	-			-
	æn	land	ã			France
en	ən	violent	ã	-	-	experience
	ɪn	enchain	ã	ã ²⁶ dʒenrəl	ɪn'dʒenrəl	in general
	em	temptation	ã	tãp'teɪʃn	temp'teɪʃn	temptation
	en	send	ã	,sãtɪ'mãtl	,sentɪ'mentl	sentimental
im	m	simple	ẽ	ẽ'pɔ:tnt	ɪm'pɔ:tnt	important
in	ɪn	infinite	ẽ	'prãsəpl	'prɪnsəpl	principle
om	ɒm	composition	-	-	-	-
	əm	freedom	õ	,kɔ'pli:t	kəm'pli:t	complete
on	ən	convince	õ	kɔ'sɜ:nd	kən'sɜ:nd	concerned
	ɒn	bond	õ	'kɔʃəs	'kɒnʃəs	conscious
	ʌn	none	õ			London
	ʌŋ	among	õ			among
	əʊn	lonely	õ			only
um	ʌm	humble	œ	'nœmbə	'nʌmbə	number
	ju:m	fume	-	-	-	-
un	ju:n	uniform	yn	-	-	unify
	ən	until	œ	œ'tɪl	ən'tɪl	until
	ʌn	lunch	õ	pro,nɔ̃nsɪ'eɪʃn	prə,nʌnsɪ'eɪʃn	pronunciation
			œ	'hœndrəd	'hʌndrəd	hundred
ain	n	Britain				
	ən	villain				
	ɪn	captain				
	em	chain	ẽ	mẽtem	mem'tem	maintain

Table 56: Interlingual Substitutions of Vowels + Consonants (French Interference)

The nasal vowels in French have a strong influence on the learners of the second group as well. There are 12 out of 16 instances of errors that are common to both first and second groups (75%); 10 of them are in exactly the same token (45.71%).. There are 3 new instances of errors that are made by the second group.

²⁶ Here is another case of a learner completely misled by French spelling; the proposition 'in' is pronounced as if it were the French counterpart 'en'.

V.1.4.2.3 Consonants

a. Substitutions

- Interlingual Substitutions (Dialectal Arabic Interference)

English Consonant	Dialectal substitute	Erroneous use	Correct Use	Spelling
θ	t ^s	dæt^s	ðæt	that
	t ^f	-	-	-
	t̪	'sʌmt̪ʌmz	'sʌmtʌmz	sometimes
tʃ	t ^s	'st ^s rʌkt ^s əd	'strʌktʃəd	structured
ð	d	dɪs	ðɪs	this
dʒ	ʒ	'æʒɪktɪv	'ædʒɪktɪv	adjective
ɪ	ɪ	'tɪ.æfɪk	'træfɪk	traffic

Table 57: Interlingual Substitutions of Consonants (Dialectal Arabic Interference)

5 instances out of 6 are common to both groups of learners (83.33%), and they make 3 instances of errors in the same tokens (50%). There is a new instance, which is a special case. In this instance, the interference is from the dialect because the word '**adjectif**' in French is pronounced with the palato-alveolar /dʒ/ just like in English. However, just like the first group, most of the substitutions of the affricate /dʒ/ with the palatal /ʒ/ are of a crosslinguistic nature.

- Interlingual Substitution (French Interference)

English Consonant	French Substitute	Erroneous Use	Correct Use	Spelling	French Spelling/Pronunciation Rules
z	ʒ	'trænsmit	trænz'mit	Transmit	The letter 's' is always pronounced /s/ unless between two vowels
s	ʒ	beizəd	beist	Based	's' between two vowels is always /z/
tʃ	ʃ	frenʃ	frentʃ	French	C+h is always /ʃ/ ²⁷
k	ʃ	-	-	-	previous rule
k	ʁ	'segənd	'sekənd	Second	'c' if not followed by 'i' or 'e' is /k/; one exception is the word 'second'.
r	R	di'skrɪmɪnt	di'skrɪmɪnt	discriminate	The letter 'r' is pronounced /ʀ/ in French. ²⁸

Table 58: Interlingual Substitutions of Consonants (French Interference)

5 instances out of 6 are common to both groups (83.33) with 4 having the same tokens of error occurrence (66.67).

- Interlingual Substitutions (Dialectal English Interference)

English Standard Consonant	English Dialectal Consonant	Erroneous Use	Correct Use	spelling
t	ʔ	'bʌʔ	bʌt	but

Table 59: Interlingual Substitutions of Consonants (Dialectal English Interference)

The glottal /t/ is no exception; it is used by both groups and with the same token of occurrence (100% for both instance and token).

²⁷ Just like in the case of the first group, one plausible explanation of this error is an intralingual generalisation of the adjectival suffix 'sh' as in 'Finish', 'English', 'Welsh', 'British', 'Kurdish', etc. Hence, many students of the second group also write the word 'French' as 'Frensh'.

²⁸ Most of the learners who make this error are females; they pronounce French with this consonant.

d. Interlingual Substitutions (from American English)

British English Consonant	American English Consonant	Erroneous Use	Correct Use	spelling
[l]	[l]	['læŋgwɪdʒ]	['læŋgwɪdʒ]	language
t	f	'dʒenflmən	'dʒentlmən	gentlemen

Table 60: Interlingual Substitutions of Consonants (American English Interference)

2 instances out of 2 (100%) are common to both groups with one similar token of occurrence (50%).

- Crosslinguistic Substitutions

English Consonant	Cross linguistic Substitute	Erroneous Use	Correct Use	spelling	Possible French Inference	Possible Dialectal Inference
dʒ	ʒ	m'telɪʒənt	m'telɪdʒənt	intelligent	intelligent	جمال
/l/ [l] [ɫ]	[l]	[help]	[help]	help	culte	ملك

Table 61: Crosslinguistic Substitutions of Consonants (French or Dialectal Arabic Interference)

2 instances out 2 (100%) and 2 tokens of occurrence out of 2 are common to both groups of learners (100%).

English Consonant	Crosslinguistic Substitute	Erroneous use	Correct Use	Spelling	Possible French Inference	Possible English Inference
v	f	ɒf	ɒv	Of	sauf	beef
[p ^h]	[p]	['pɪəriɒd]	['p ^h ɪəriɒd]	Period	période	tip
[k ^h]	[k]	[keɪk]	[k ^h eɪk]	Cake	calme	take

Table 62: Crosslinguistic Substitutions of Consonants (French or English Interference)

3 instances out of 3 (100%), and 3 tokens of occurrence out of 3 (100%) are common to both groups.

- Intralingual Substitutions

English Consonant	Intralingual Substitute	Erroneous Use	Correct Use	Spelling	Possible English inference
t	d	ɑ:skəd	ɑ:skt	Asked	robbed
ð	θ	'nɔ:θən	'nɔ:ðən	Northern	wealthy
ʒ	ʃ	ɪn'veɪʃən	ɪn'veɪʒən	Invasion	omission
s	ʃ	'kwɛʃtʃən	'kwɛstʃən	question	mansion
ʃ	s	'sɛksʊəl	'sɛkʃʊəl	Sexual	sixteen
tʃ	t	'æktʊəl	'æktʃʊəl	Actual	tune
dʒ	d	'sɔldɪər	'səʊldʒə	soldier	sold

Table 63: Intralingual Substitutions of Consonants

7 out of 7 instances (100%) with 5 similar tokens (71.43%) of occurrences are common to both groups of learners.

- Miscellaneous Substitutions

English Consonant	Miscellaneous Substitute	Erroneous Use	Correct Use	Spelling
θ	[t]	[tɪŋk]	θɪŋk	think
	[tʰ]	[tʰru:'aʊt]	θru:'aʊt	throughout
	[tʰ]	['fɪltʰɪ]	'fɪlθɪ	filthy
t	k	ek 'setərə	et 'setərə	et cetera

Table 64: Miscellaneous Substitutions of Consonants

3 out of 3 (100%) instances with 2 similar tokens (66.67%) of occurrences are common to both groups of learners. There is one new instance of errors.

b. Insertions

- Intralingual Insertions

English Consonant	Intralingual Insertion	Erroneous Use	Correct Use	Spelling	Possible English inference
-	r ²⁹	mɔ: ³⁰	mɔ:	More	brief
	b	-	-	-	-
	g	tʌŋ	tɔŋg	Tongue	league
	h	-	-	-	-
	w	-	-	-	-
	l	tɔ:lk	tɔ:k	Talk	fault
	t	-	-	-	-
	j	ˌedʒjʊ'keɪʃn	ˌedʒʊ'keɪʃn	Education	during
	s	-	-	-	-

Table 65: Intralingual Insertions of Consonants

4 instances out of 9 (44.44%) are common to both groups with 4 (44.44%) identical tokens of occurrence.

- Interlingual Insertions (French Interference)

English Consonant	Interlingual Insertion	Erroneous Use	Correct Use	Spelling	Possible French Inference
-	p	-	-	-	-
	R	'stændɑR	'stændəd	Standard	Part of French phonemic inventory only
	j	'ri:dʒjɔnəlɪst	'ri:dʒənəlɪst	Regionalist	The spelling 'io' is pronounced /jo/

Table 66: Interlingual Insertions of Consonants

²⁹ The general tendency for the second group is also to pronounce the English voiced alveolar retroflex as a dialectal approximant or trill.

³⁰ The second group also pronounces the 'r' even when it is followed by a consonant as in 'more money' by the informants of the second group.

2 instances out of 3 (66.67%) of errors are made by both groups though with different tokens of occurrence (00.00%).

- Miscellaneous Insertions

English Consonant	Miscellaneous Insertion	Erroneous Use	Correct Use	Spelling
-	k	θɪŋk	θɪŋ	thing

Table 67: Intralingual Insertions of Consonants

3 instances out of 4 (75%) are common to both groups with one (25%) common token. There is one new instance.

c. Omissions

- Intralingual Omissions

English omitted Consonant	Erroneous Use	Correct Use	Spelling	Possible French Inference
l	wɜ:d	wɜ:ld	World	word
j	bi'hervə	bi'hervjə	Behaviour	literature

Table 68: Intralingual Omissions of Consonants

2 instances out 2 (100%) are also made by the second group with one (50%) similar token of occurrence.

- Interlingual Omissions (French)

English omitted Consonant	Erroneous Use	Correct Use	Spelling	Possible French Inference
h	'ɪbru:	'hi:bru:	Hebrew	hébreu
t	-	-	-	-
s	pɑ:rt	pɑ:ts	Parts	parts
d	'stændər	'stændəd	Standard	standard
w	ˌækɪ'zɪʃn	ˌækwɪ'zɪʃn	Acquisition	acquisition

Table 69: Interlingual Omissions of Consonants (French Interference)

4 instances out of 5 (80%) are also typical of the second group with one (20%) identical token.

- Interlingual Omissions (Dialectal English)

English omitted Consonant	Erroneous Use	Correct Use	Spelling	Possible French Inference
t	-	-	-	-

Table 70: Interlingual Omissions of Consonants (Dialectal English Interference)

There is no instance of omitting the /t/ in English (00.00%).

V.1.4.2.4 Consonants + Vowels

English Combination	Interlingual Substitute	Erroneous use	Correct Use	Spelling	Possible French Inference
ju:/jʊ	ɥ	,mt'ɥɪʃn	,ɪntju:'ɪʃn	Intuition	suite
	y	'stɪmyləs	'stɪmjʊləs	Stimulus	stimulus
	ø	'øfəmɪzəm	'ju:fəmɪzəm	euphemism	euphémisme

Table 71: Errors of Vowels + Consonants

2 instances out of 2 (100%) are common to both groups with an identical token (50%). A third instance is made only by the second group.

All in all, in the use of single consonants and that of combinations of vowels and consonants, the second group made 55 out of 70 instances made by the first group (78.57%). 38 out of 70 (54.29%) instances were in the same token.

V.1.4.2.5 Consonant Clusters

The learners of the second group seem to have no apparent problems with consonant clusters, whether simple or complex. A case of a consonant cluster but across

syllable boundaries is 'gn' which is pronounced by one student of the second group as the French voiced, nasal, palatal /ŋ/, realizing the word 'signal' /sɪgnl/ as /sɪŋl /.

V.1.4.3 Connected Speech

No improvement whatsoever seems to have been made for the vast majority of students even the ones who have a fairly good pronunciation of lexical words. Judging by the videotapes of their performance, the students' pronunciation is a sequence of strong vowels for both functional and lexical words. There are very few elisions and assimilation, which makes their rhythm of speech identical to the rhythm of speech characterizing the performance of the students recorded earlier. Here are two samples; the first one is by one of the most articulate students and the second one is by one of the worst:

wɪ 'ɑ:r 'gəʊɪŋ tʊ prɪ'zent aʊr ə'saɪnmənt ə'baʊt 'sosiəlɪŋgwɪstɪks **ænd**
 ə ə əʊ əʊ **ən**

bɪ'fʊ:r 'gəʊɪŋ 'di:p ɪn ðə 'hɑ:t əv aʊr 'tʊpɪk 'lets hæv ə brəʊd 'aɪdɪə əbaʊt wɒt
 ɔ: ɑ: ø ɔ: ɪə ɒ

'kʌmz bɪ'fɔ:r ɪn 'tɜ:rmz **ɒv** mɒ'dɜ:rn ɪŋ'gwɪstɪks.
 ø **əv** ə ø

(DVD 1 00:16:56)

wæt ɪz 'mækroʊlɪŋgwɪstɪks bɑ: 'dɪfɪnɪʃn ɪt ɪz 'dʒɪnɪrəʊlɪ dɪ'fɑ:nəd **æz** **dʊ** 'stʌdɪ **ɒf**
 ɒ əʊ e e ə ø ø ðə əv

'læŋgwɪdʒ bɪ'yɒnd 'læŋgwɪdʒ 'wæt aɪ 'mɪn bɑ: 'dɪs ɪt ɪz **dʊ** 'stʌdɪ **ɒf** 'læŋgwɪdʒ ɪn
 ɒ i: ð ðə əv

rəleɪʃn **tʊ** 'wæt ɪz nɒt 'pju:rlɪ ɪŋ'gwɪstɪks.
 ɪ ə ʊə

(DVD 1 00:02:28)

V.1.4.4 Summary and Comments

Out of 175 erroneous instances by the second group there are:

- 132 instances that are shared by the first group recorded earlier. This constitutes a significant percentage (75.43) despite the fact that the tasks to elicit errors consisted of free speech.
- Both groups have made errors in 86 identical tokens, which is again a significant percentage (49.14%).
- There are only 5 new instances of errors that were made by the learners of the second group.

Despite the change occurring in some variables such as the time and context of the recording, the academic level of the students, the ever-decreasing level of the learners in French, the second standard language, the pattern of the phonological interlanguage is nearly the same. This proves, once more, that it is quite resistant to these external variables and obeys more to some unified hypotheses that are of an internal nature about these linguistic systems.

V.2 Confirmation

The purpose of the following tests and analyses is to demonstrate that the phonological interlanguage, resulting from both error analyses (first and second groups) is characteristic of not only all academic years but also some teachers, even those teaching oral expression and listening comprehension, no matter how long their experiences have been. This 'fossilization' of errors is due to many factors, of an internal nature, most of which is the persistence of some past assumptions and hypotheses when approaching the pronunciation of English. It is because the internal factors are dominant that there is mismatch between how far their interlanguage has gone towards the target norm and where they rank in reality.

V.2.1 Teachers and Students' Test

A good match between how far an interlanguage has gone towards the target norm and where it rank in reality would be that an experienced teacher is closer along the interlanguage continuum than an inexperienced one is; a teacher who is trained in phonetics is closer than a teacher who is not; a teacher is always closer than a student is; a fourth year student is closer than a third year one; and a student obtaining a high mark from the teacher is closer than one who is obtaining a low one. The results of the following test and the classification of the students and the teachers together in matter of achievement in some aspects of oral performance reveal that it is not always the case.

V.2.1.1 Subjects

A group of students and a group of teachers have been administered a reading and a transcription test.

V.2.1.1.1 Students

Two students have been selected from each of the three first years in which the module of oral expression and listening comprehension is taught: One student who obtained one of the best marks in the first examination and one who obtained one of the worst marks. Two other students were selected from the fourth year based on their oral performance: one among the best, and the other among the worst.

V.2.1.1.2 Teachers

There are four experienced teachers with around two decades of teaching oral expression and listening comprehension and two inexperienced teachers who have taught for only two years. The first inexperienced teacher (Teacher 1) grew as a bilingual English Arabic in a foreign country and the second inexperienced teacher (Teacher 2) ranked best student in the BA degree obtained. There is also an

experienced teacher of phonetics, who has never taught oral expression and listening comprehension.

V.2.1.2 Tasks

The tasks consist of: A word list to be read, a group of sentences to be read and transcribed, and a text to be read.

V.2.1.2.1 Word List

The word list contains 301 words most of which are from the corpus of tokens that illustrates the instances of errors of the two previous error analyses. There is a minimum of one token and a maximum of two tokens from each instance (see appendix 2).

V.2.1.2.2 Sentences

There are 14 sentences containing 152 words, 43 of which are functional and 109 are lexical. The sentences are used to test performance at the level of connected speech (see appendix 5)

V.2.1.2.3 Text

It includes 369 words, 93 of which are functional and 276 are lexical. The idea of using a text is to test performance at the highest language unit, which is the textual one. It is generally characterized by a more rapid rhythm of connected speech and in which the informants tend to be much less careful of the form and, thus, more natural (see appendix 6).

V.2.1.3 Findings

Besides generating many of the errors intended to be generated, the reading and transcription tests also elicit many error tokens that are not intended to be elicited. Hence, in order to illicit the intralingual substitution of the vowel /ə/ by the vowel /æ/, the words 'gentleman' and 'Switzerland' are used. This substitution also occurs, in the

case of some students, in the word 'nuisance' that is initially intended to generate only the interlingual substitution of the combination /ju:/ by the French semi vowel /ɥ/. The tests also generate many error instances that did not appear in the first two error analyses.

V. 2.1.3.1 Students

The error analysis of the tested students has provided the following results:

a. First Year Students

- Word List Reading

	Number of Words	Errors	%	Correct	%	Extra Errors	Total
Best Student	301	175	58.14	126	41.86	27	202
Worst Student	301	157	52.16	144	47.84	18	175

Table 72: Word List Reading Results of First Year Students

- Sentence Reading

	Lexical Words (109)				Functional Words (43)			
	Errors	%	Correct	%	Errors	%	Correct	%
Best Student	38	34.86	71	65.14	32	74.42	11	25.58
Worst Student	19	17.43	90	82.57	24	55.81	19	44.19

Table 73: Sentence Reading Results of First Year Students

- Sentence Transcription

	Lexical Words (109)				Functional Words (43)			
	Errors	%	Correct	%	Errors	%	Correct	%
Best Student	83	76.15	26	23.85	41	95.35	2	4.65
Worst Student	54	49.54	55	50.46	35	81.40	8	18.60

Table 74: Sentence Transcription Results of First Year Students

- Text Reading

	Lexical Words (276)				Functional Words (93)			
	Errors	%	Correct	%	Errors	%	Correct	%
Best Student	73	26.45	203	73.55	56	60.22	37	39.78
Worst Student	43	15.58	233	84.42	60	64.52	33	35.48

Table 75: Text Reading Results of First Year Students

The above four tables show that although the difference between the first year worst student and the best one is not significant, it is the former who is doing better than the latter one on all counts. Their level of phonological interlanguage is not reflected in the kind of assessment they underwent, and it seems that pronunciation played second fiddle in their assessment. One thing that they share is that their scores in lexical words are always higher than in the functional ones and it is in transcription that their scores are the lowest.

b. Second Year Students

- Word List Reading

	Number of Words	Errors	%	Correct	%	Extra Errors	Total
Best Student	301	169	56.15	132	43.85	10	179
Worst Student	301	184	61.13	117	38.87	29	213

Table 76: Word List Reading Results of Second Year Students

- Sentence Reading

	Lexical Words (109)				Functional Words (43)			
	Errors	%	Correct	%	Errors	%	Correct	%
Best Student	28	25.69	81	74.31	28	65.12	15	34.88
Worst Student	30	27.52	79	72.48	31	72.09	12	27.91

Table 77: Sentence Reading Results of Second Year Students

- Sentence Transcription

	Lexical Words (109)				Functional Words (43)			
	Errors	%	Correct	%	Errors	%	Correct	%
Best Student	59	54.13	50	45.87	41	95.35	2	4.65
Worst Student	81	74.31	28	25.69	43	100.00	0	0.00

Table 78: Sentence Transcription Results of Second Year Students

- Text Reading

	Lexical Words (276)				Functional Words (93)			
	Errors	%	Correct	%	Errors	%	Correct	%
Best Student	76	27.54	200	72.46	57	61.29	36	38.71
Worst Student	74	26.81	202	73.19	72	77.42	21	22.58

Table 79: Text Reading Results of Second Year Students

Concerning the second year students, as the four tables display above, it is the best student who comes first but not on all counts. In the text reading, the worst student is achieving slightly better in reading the lexical words. Again, the score in reading the functional words is always lower than reading the lexical ones for both students, and it is at the transcription exercise that they get their lowest scores.

c. Third Year Students

- Word List Reading

	Number of Words	Errors	%	Correct	%	Extra Errors	Total
Best Student	301	111	36.88	190	63.12	18	129
Worst Student	301	128	42.52	173	57.48	14	142

Table 80: Word List Reading Results of Third Year Students

- Sentence Reading

	Lexical Words (109)				Functional Words (43)			
	Errors	%	Correct	%	Errors	%	Correct	%
Best Student	5	4.59	104	95.41	17	39.53	26	60.47
Worst Student	14	12.84	95	87.16	15	34.88	28	65.12

Table 81: Sentence Reading Results of Third Year Students

- Sentence Transcription

	Lexical Words (109)				Functional Words (43)			
	Errors	%	Correct	%	Errors	%	Correct	%
Best Student	19	17.43	90	82.57	26	60.47	17	39.53
Worst Student	31	28.44	78	71.56	25	58.14	18	41.86

Table 82: Sentence Transcription Results of Third Year Students

c. Text Reading

	Lexical Words (276)				Functional Words (93)			
	Errors	%	Correct	%	Errors	%	Correct	%
Best Student	18	6.52	258	93.48	29	31.18	64	68.82
Worst Student	35	12.68	241	87.32	33	35.48	60	64.52

Table 83: Text Reading Results of Third Year Students

The four tables displaying the results of the third year students indicate that, again, the best student is not always doing significantly better than the worst one. The worst student is even doing better on two counts: Reading and transcribing the functional words at the level of the sentences. Just like the students of the two previous years, their scores in reading and transcribing lexical words is always higher than that of reading and transcribing functional ones, and transcription is the most problematic task .

d. Fourth Year Students

- Word List Reading

	Number of Words	Errors	%	Correct	%	Extra Errors	Total
Best Student	301	111	36.88	190	63.12	8	119
Worst Student	301	162	53.82	139	46.18	11	173

Table 84: Word List Reading Results of Fourth Year Students

- Sentence Reading

	Lexical Words (109)				Functional Words (43)			
	Errors	%	Correct	%	Errors	%	Correct	%
Best Student	10	9.17	99	90.83	24	55.81	19	44.19
Worst Student	17	15.60	92	84.40	27	62.79	16	37.21

Table 85: Sentence Reading Results of Fourth Year Students

- Sentence Transcription

	Lexical Words (109)				Functional Words (43)			
	Errors	%	Correct	%	Errors	%	Correct	%
Best Student	23	21.10	86	78.90	35	81.40	8	18.60
Worst Student	82	75.23	27	24.77	30	69.77	13	30.23

Table 86: Sentence Transcription Results of Fourth Year Students

- Text Reading

	Lexical Words (276)				Functional Words (93)			
	Errors	%	Correct	%	Errors	%	Correct	%
Best Student	29	10.51	247	89.49	43	46.24	50	53.76
Worst Student	43	15.58	233	84.42	43	46.24	59	53.76

Table 87: Text Reading Results of Fourth Year Students

The above tables show that for the fourth year students, the situation is not so different from the previous three years. The best student has not managed to defeat the worst one on all counts. The latter is achieving nearly twice better than the former in the transcription of the functional words at the level of the sentences. Moreover, they achieve exactly the same score in reading the functional words at the level of the text. Even at the most advanced level of the BA degree, both students have scored much

better when it is lexical words than when it is functional ones. Once more, the transcription task is also the one with the lowest scores for both students.

V.2.1.3.2 Teachers

a. Experienced Teachers of Oral Expression

- Word List Reading

	Number of Words	Errors	%	Correct	%	Extra Errors	Total
Teacher 1	301	93	30.90	208	69.10	5	98
Teacher 2	301	101	33.55	200	66.45	8	109
Teacher 3	301	103	34.22	198	65.78	7	110
Teacher 4	301	100	33.22	201	66.78	8	108

Table 88: Word List Reading Results of the Teachers of Oral Expression

- Sentence Reading

	Lexical Words (109)				Functional Words (43)			
	Errors	%	Correct	%	Errors	%	Correct	%
Teacher 1	11	10.09	98	89.91	16	37.21	27	62.79
Teacher 2	6	5.50	103	94.50	23	53.49	20	46.51
Teacher 3	7	6.42	102	93.58	11	25.58	32	74.42
Teacher 4	10	9.17	99	90.83	21	48.84	22	51.16

Table 89: Sentence Reading Results of the Teachers of Oral Expression

- Sentence Transcription

	Lexical Words (109)				Functional Words (43)			
	Errors	%	Correct	%	Errors	%	Correct	%
Teacher 1	59	54.13	50	45.87	29	67.44	14	32.56
Teacher 2	31	28.44	78	71.56	37	86.05	6	13.95
Teacher 3	62	56.88	47	43.12	20	46.51	23	53.49
Teacher 4	28	25.69	81	74.31	31	72.09	12	27.91

Table 90: Sentence Transcription Results of the Teachers of Oral Expression

- Text Reading

	Lexical Words (276)				Functional Words (93)			
	Errors	%	Correct	%	Errors	%	Correct	%
Teacher 1	17	6.16	259	93.84	30	32.26	63	67.74
Teacher 2	11	3.99	265	96.01	43	46.24	49	53.76
Teacher 3	25	9.06	251	90.94	34	36.56	59	63.44
Teacher 4	29	10.51	247	89.49	43	46.24	50	53.76

Table 91: Text Reading Results of the Teachers of Oral Expression

What is noticeable in the tables, displaying the results obtained from testing the teachers of oral expression and listening comprehension, is that sometimes these results do not match their long experience in teaching oral expression and listening comprehension. Hence, in reading the word list, the best score has not reached 70%. Moreover, just like the students, their performance in functional words is always lower than that in lexical ones, and it is in transcription that their scores are the lowest.

b. Teacher of Phonetics

- Word List Reading

Number of Words	Errors	%	Correct	%	Extra Errors	Total
301	41	13.62	260	86.38	7	41

Table 92: Word List Reading Results of the Teacher of Phonetics

- Sentence Reading

Lexical Words (109)				Functional Words (43)			
Errors	%	Correct	%	Errors	%	Correct	%
1	0.92	108	99.08	11	25.58	32	74.42

Table 93: Sentence Reading Results of the Teacher of phonetics

- Sentence Transcription

Lexical Words (109)				Functional Words (43)			
Errors	%	Correct	%	Errors	%	Correct	%
4	3.67	105	96.33	13	30.23	30	69.77

Table 94: Sentence Transcription Results of the Teacher of Phonetics

- Text Reading

Lexical Words (276)				Functional Words (93)			
Errors	%	Correct	%	Errors	%	Correct	%
23	8.33	253	91.67	41	44.09	52	55.91

Table 95: Text Reading Results of the Teacher of Phonetics

The teacher of phonetics is achieving much better in both reading and transcription than the experienced teachers of oral expression and listening comprehension. Hence, the highest score is in reading and transcribing the sentences (99.08% and 96.33% respectively). In reading the word list, the score is (86.38%). The interlanguage of this teacher displays, however, one common characteristic with the

teachers of oral expression and the students: The score achieved in lexical words is always higher than in functional words.

c. Inexperienced Teachers

- Word List Reading

	Number of Words	Errors	%	Correct	%	Extra Errors	Total
Teacher 1	301	38	12.62	263	87.38	5	43
Teacher 2	301	100	33.22	201	66.78	12	112

Table 96: Word List Reading Results of the Inexperienced Teachers

- Sentence Reading

	Lexical Words (109)				Functional Words (43)			
	Errors	%	Correct	%	Errors	%	Correct	%
Teacher 1	9	8.26	100	91.74	0	0.00	43	100.00
Teacher 2	5	4.59	104	95.41	2	4.65	41	95.35

Table 97: Sentence Reading Results of the Inexperienced Teachers

- Sentence Transcription

	Lexical Words (109)				Functional Words (43)			
	Errors	%	Correct	%	Errors	%	Correct	%
Teacher 1	17	15.60	92	84.40	10	23.26	33	76.74
Teacher 2	25	22.94	84	77.06	21	48.84	22	51.16

Table 98: Sentence Transcription Results of the Inexperienced Teachers

- Text Reading

	Lexical Words (276)				Functional Words (93)			
	Errors	%	Correct	%	Errors	%	Correct	%
Teacher 1	15	5.43	261	94.57	6	6.45	87	93.55
Teacher 2	22	7.97	254	22	23.66	71	76.34	22

Table 99: Text Reading Results of the Inexperienced Teachers

The role of experience in teaching does not seem to be determinant in moving phonological interlanguage towards the norm. The two inexperienced teachers are achieving better than the experienced ones on more than one account. A 100% score is achieved by Teacher 1 in reading the functional words at the level of the sentences. Teacher 2 managed to reach 95.35% correct reading the functional words at the level of the sentences; these are the only two scores in all tests where there is as much achievement in the functional words as in the lexical ones. Early exposure to English and daily practice combined with explicit knowledge of the system have been determinant in polishing the connected speech of Teacher 1. For Teacher 2, however, only motivation and interest in this aspect and explicit knowledge of the system can be behind achieving such scores.

V.2.1.4 Classification

Classifying the results obtained by all the informants will demonstrate that the external variables, such as experience, level of study, specialization etc..., are just among the variables that push the phonological interlanguage forward towards the target norm.

V. 2.1.4.1 Word List Reading

a. Classification by Percentage of Correct Instances

	Informant	Percentage
1	Inexperienced Teacher 1	87.38
2	Teacher of Phonetics	86.38
3	Experienced Teacher 1	69.10
4	Experienced Teacher 4	66.78
5	Inexperienced Teacher 2	66.78
6	Experienced Teacher 2	66.45
7	Experienced Teacher 3	65.78
8	Fourth Year Best Student	63.12
9	Third Year Best Student	63.12
10	Third Year Worst Student	57.48
11	First Year Worst Student	47.84
12	Fourth Year Worst Student	46.18
13	Second Year Best Student	43.85
14	First Year Best Student	41.86
15	Second Year Worst Student	38.87

Table 100: Achievement by Percentage of Correct Instances (Word List Reading)

No one managed to get a 100% score, not even the Inexperienced Teacher 1 who is a native bilingual despite the combination of day to day exposure to English and explicit knowledge of it at the various stages of education. This confirms the interlanguage hypothesis; if one does not acquire a given system as a mother tongue, it will always remain as an intermediate system with, at best, some 'fossilized' features in it. The second best score is that of the teacher of phonetics preceding all the experienced teachers of oral expression and listening comprehension. This shows that explicit knowledge of the sound system of English is more important for accuracy than any other means.

b. Classification by Number of Errors

	Informant	Percentage
1	Inexperienced Teacher 1	43
2	Teacher of Phonetics	48
3	Experienced Teacher 1	98
4	Experienced Teacher 4	108
5	Experienced Teacher 2	109
6	Experienced Teacher 3	110
7	Inexperienced Teacher 2	112
8	Fourth Year Best Student	119
9	Third Year Best Student	129
10	Third Year Worst Student	142
11	Fourth Year Worst Student	173
12	First Year Worst Student	175
13	Second Year Best Student	179
14	First Year Best Student	202
15	Second Year Worst Student	213

Table 101: Achievement by Number of Errors (Word List Reading)

There is no change at the top with the extra errors added to those intended to be elicited. Only in the middle some teachers of oral expression have traded places.

V. 2.1.4.2 Sentence Reading

a. Classification by Percentage of Correct Lexical Words

	Informant	Percentage
1	Teacher of Phonetics	99.08
2	Third Year Best Student	95.41
3	Inexperienced Teacher 2	95.41
4	Experienced Teacher 2	94.50
5	Experienced Teacher 3	93.58
6	Inexperienced Teacher 1	91.74
7	Fourth Year Best Student	90.83
8	Experienced Teacher 4	90.83
9	Experienced Teacher 1	89.91
10	Third Year Worst Student	87.16
11	Fourth Year Worst Student	84.40
12	First Year Worst Student	82.57
13	Second Year Best Student	74.31
14	Second Year Worst Student	72.48
15	First Year Best Student	65.14

Table 102: Achievement by Percentage of Correct Lexical Words (Sentence Reading)

Mastering the pronunciation of lexical words does not seem always to depend on teaching experience in oral expression and listening comprehension. Two of the experienced teachers rank 8 and 9, and the third year best student ranks second. The only teacher to rank among the first is that of phonetics. As for the Inexperienced Teacher 1, a day-to-day exposure to English does not seem to help sufficiently to acquire the pronunciation of all lexis because of its open and unlimited nature.

b. Classification by Percentage of Correct Functional Words

	Informant	Percentage
1	Inexperienced Teacher 1	100.00
2	Inexperienced Teacher 2	95.35
3	Teacher of Phonetics	74.42
4	Experienced Teacher 3	74.42
5	Third Year Worst Student	65.12
6	Experienced Teacher 1	62.79
7	Third Year Best Student	60.47
8	Experienced Teacher 4	51.16
9	Experienced Teacher 2	46.51
10	Fourth Year Best Student	44.19
11	First Year Worst Student	44.19
12	Fourth Year Worst Student	37.21
13	Second Year Best Student	34.88
14	Second Year Worst Student	27.91
15	First Year Best Student	25.58

Table 103: Achievement by Percentage of Correct Functional Words (Sentence Reading)

Functional words which are quite an important aspect of English connected speech seem to rely on more day to day practice and exposure to daily communication. That might be why the Inexperienced Teacher 1 goes back to the front with a 100% score, and the teacher of phonetics falls to third position. It is the inexperienced teacher 2 who comes second and the third year worst student who ranks fifth scoring better than three experienced teachers. It seems that the weakening of English functional words in the contexts where they should be weakened is a matter of individual choice and motivation to apply. So many teachers and students, though aware of this phenomenon of connected speech in English, choose not to apply when it comes to pronunciation.

V. 2.1.4.3 Sentence Transcription

a. Classification by Percentage of Correct Lexical Words

	Informant	Percentage
1	Teacher of Phonetics	96.33
2	Inexperienced Teacher 1	84.40
3	Third Year Best Student	82.57
4	Fourth Year Best Student	78.90
5	Inexperienced Teacher 2	77.06
6	Experienced Teacher 4	74.31
7	Third Year Worst Student	71.56
8	Experienced Teacher 2	71.56
9	First Year Worst Student	50.46
10	Second Year Best Student	45.87
11	Experienced Teacher 1	45.87
12	Experienced Teacher 3	43.12
13	Second Year Worst Student	25.69
14	Fourth Year Worst Student	24.77
15	First Year Best Student	23.85

Table 104: Achievement by Percentage of Correct Lexical Words (Transcription)

A good transcription requires both knowledge of the IPA and a good pronunciation. Here, the teacher of phonetics ranks first followed by the Inexperienced Teacher 1 and the third year best student. All the experienced teachers of oral expression and listening comprehension rank more than fifth. This proves that using IPA in oral expression and listening comprehension and in teaching pronunciation is thought to be secondary by those teachers.

b. Classification by Percentage of Correct Functional Words

	Informant	Percentage
1	Inexperienced Teacher 1	76.74
2	Teacher of Phonetics	69.77
3	Experienced Teacher 3	53.49
4	Inexperienced Teacher 2	51.16
5	Third Year Worst Student	41.86
6	Third Year Best Student	39.53
7	Experienced Teacher 1	32.56
8	Fourth Year Worst Student	30.23
9	Experienced Teacher 4	27.91
10	Fourth Year Best Student	18.60
11	First Year Worst Student	18.60
12	Experienced Teacher 2	13.95
13	Second Year Best Student	4.65
14	First Year Best Student	4.65
15	Second Year Worst Student	0.00

Table 105: Achievement by Percentage of Correct Functional Words (Transcription)

The functional words seem to be problematic for most. The percentage of achievement is most of the time inferior to that of lexical words, whether in theory (transcription) or practice (pronunciation). This is despite the fact that the functional words are limited in number and rule governed (a closed category) as opposed to lexical words, which are unlimited in number and not so rule governed (an open category). It seems that the conception of a good pronunciation for most students and teachers is synonymous to accuracy in the pronunciation of the greatest number of lexical words. This explains why functional words are an aspect that tends to be neglected by either not knowing or ignoring the fact that they constitute the backbone of connected speech. The scores reflect the fact that when it comes to functional words both theory and practice are needed for good achievement. It is why an experienced teacher (only in the practical side) has fallen as down as position 12.

V.2.1.4.4 Text Reading

a. Classification by Percentage of Correct Lexical Words

	Informant	Percentage
1	Experienced Teacher 2	96.01
2	Inexperienced Teacher 1	94.57
3	Experienced Teacher 1	93.84
4	Third Year Best Student	93.48
5	Inexperienced Teacher 2	92.03
6	Teacher of Phonetics	91.67
7	Experienced Teacher 3	90.94
8	Fourth Year Best Student	89.49
9	Experienced Teacher 4	89.49
10	Third Year Worst Student	87.32
11	First Year Worst Student	84.42
12	Fourth Year Worst Student	84.42
13	First Year Best Student	73.55
14	Second Year Worst Student	73.19
15	Second Year Best Student	72.46

Table 106: Achievement by Percentage of Correct Lexical Words (Text Reading)

It seems that when it goes down to a reading activity especially in as complex a unit as text and regarding lexical words, the teacher of phonetics does not practise what s/he preaches and falls down to the 6th position.

b. Classification by Percentage of Correct Functional Words

	Informant	Percentage
1	Inexperienced Teacher 1	93.55
2	Teacher of Phonetics	76.34
3	Experienced Teacher 3	68.82
4	Inexperienced Teacher 2	68.82
5	Third Year Worst Student	67.74
6	Third Year Best Student	64.52
7	Experienced Teacher 1	63.44
8	Fourth Year Worst Student	55.91
9	Experienced Teacher 4	53.76
10	Fourth Year Best Student	53.76
11	First Year Worst Student	53.76
12	Experienced Teacher 2	43.01
13	Second Year Best Student	38.71
14	First Year Best Student	35.48
15	Second Year Worst Student	22.58

Table 107: Achievement by Percentage of Correct Functional Words (Text Reading)

Both the teacher of phonetics and the Inexperienced Teacher 1 seem to be keen on functional words when it is a reading activity. Again, the third year worst student ranks much higher than three of the experienced teachers do. S/he is definitely more interested in this aspect of the pronunciation of English than his/her teachers are!

V.2.1.5 Errors

Here are the errors made by the 15 informants of the confirmation test (7 teachers and 8 students). The bolded numbers in the total column refer to where the totals exceed half the number of both teachers and the students, i.e. the error is made by the majority of both teachers and students (5 and more for the students and 4 and more for the teachers).

V.2.1.5.1 Vowels

a. Substitutions

- Intralingual Substitutions

English Vowel	English Substitute	Students	Teachers	Total
ə	e	8	5	13
	ɪ	8	2	10
	i:	5	2	7
	æ	7	6	13
	ɜ:	8	5	13
	ʌ	8	7	15
	ʊ	8	7	15
	ɔ:	8	6	14
	ɑ:	7	6	13
	əʊ	8	5	13
	eɪ	8	4	12
ɪə	5	3	8	
ɪ	ə	8	3	11
	ʊ	4	0	4
	e	7	2	9
	i:	6	4	10
	eɪ	5	0	5
	aɪ	8	5	13

English Vowel	English Substitute	Students	Teachers	Total
e	ə	8	4	12
	eɪ	4	3	7
	i:	8	4	12
	ɪ	8	5	13
ɒ	ə	6	3	9
	æ	8	4	12
	əʊ	5	2	7
ʌ	ə	4	2	6
	ɜ:	4	3	7
	əʊ	4	3	7
	aʊ	6	2	8
ʊ	ɜ:	4	1	5
	u:	6	5	11
	ɒ	7	1	8
	ɪ	2	0	2
ɜ:	ə	8	4	12
	ɔ:	8	1	9
	e	2	0	2
æ	ə	8	4	12
	e	3	0	3
	ɪ	1	0	1
	eɪ	8	1	9
ɔ:	æ	3	0	3
	aʊ	4	1	5
	əʊ	8	4	12
eɪ	æ	8	3	11
	i:	7	1	8
ɑ:	æ	4	8	12
	ɜ:	4	0	4
aɪ	ɪ	8	5	13
	i:	6	1	7
	ɪə	4	1	5
aʊ	əʊ	8	4	12
	ʌ	4	0	4
əʊ	u:	5	1	6
eə	ɪə	7	4	11

Table 108: Intralingual Substitutions of Vowels by Students and Teachers

- Interlingual Substitutions (French Interference)

English Vowel	French Substitute	Students	Teachers	Total
ə	a	8	6	14
	e	8	2	10
	ɔ	8	2	10
	y	7	1	8
	u	6	0	6
	ə	8	5	13
	jo	5	0	5
ʌ	u	8	3	11
	y	6	0	6
	œ	3	0	3
ɪ	ə	8	5	13
	e	8	4	12
	ɥ	1	0	1
eɪ	a	8	5	13
	e	8	6	14
	æ	7	7	14
ʊ	y	8	4	12
	o	1	2	3
u:	y	7	0	7
	œ	5	3	8
	ɥ	4	0	4
ɜ:	u	5	0	5
	i	6	2	8
e	e	8	1	9
	ə	4	0	4

English Vowel	French Substitute	Students	Teachers	Total
ɔ:	a	0	0	0
ɒ	a	6	1	7
ɑ:	a	5	4	9
i:	e	8	4	12
ɪə	e	8	2	10
eə	a	8	3	11
aʊ	u	8	2	10
ʊə	y	8	5	13
aɪə	jo	8	1	9

Table 109: Interlingual Substitutions of Vowels by Students & Teachers (French Interference)

- Crosslinguistic Substitutions

English Vowel	Crosslinguistic Substitute	Students	Teachers	Total
ʌ	ɒ / o	8	4	12
ə	ɒ / o	8	5	13
u:	ɒ/o	7	2	9
əʊ	ɒ / o	8	5	13
eɪ	ɛ/e	8	5	13

Table 110: Crosslinguistic Substitutions of Vowels by Students & Teachers

- Miscellaneous Substitution

English Vowel	Miscellaneous Substitution	Students	Teachers	Total
ʌ	e	3	2	5
	ə	0	0	0
e	ʌ	2	4	6
	æ	1	1	2
ɔ:	əʊ	0	0	0
	aʊ	0	0	0
əʊ	ʊ	0	0	0
	aʊ	1	1	2
eə	ɪə	2	0	2
	eɪə	7	1	8
ɪə	ɪ	6	1	7
	ɪə	6	3	9
	i:	5	2	7
æ	ɪ	1	0	1
ɔ:	u	7	1	8
eɪ	aɪ	8	5	13
aɪ	eɪ	6	1	7
ʊə	ʊ	8	4	12
eə	eɪə	6	1	7
	aɪə	5	5	10
aɪə	aɪ	8	4	12

Table 111: Miscellaneous Substitutions of Vowels by Students & Teachers

- Interlingual Substitutions (Dialectal Arabic Interference)

English Vowel	Dialectal Substitution	Students	Teachers	Total
i:	ɪ	8	7	15
u:	ʊ	8	7	15
ʊ	o	2	2	4
ɒ	ʊ	0	0	0

Table 112: Interlingual Substitutions of Vowels by Students & Teachers (Dialectal Arabic Interference)

- Interlingual Substitutions (from American English)

English Vowel	American Substitution	Students	Teachers	Total
ɒ	a	8	5	13
ə	a	8	3	11
eɪ	i:	-	-	-

Table 113: Interlingual Substitutions of Vowels by Students & Teachers (American English Interference)

b. Insertions

English Vowel	Inserted vowel	Students	Teachers	Total
-	ə	6	4	10
-	ɪ	8	3	11
-	æ	-	-	-
-	e	2	1	3
-	ɒ	5	0	5

Table 114: Insertions of Vowels by Students & Teachers

c. Omissions

Omitted Vowel	Students	Teachers	Total
ə	-	-	-
ɪ	8	6	14
e	3	1	4

Table 115: Omissions of Vowels by Students & Teachers

V.2.1.5.2 Vowels + Consonants

Combination	French Substitute	Students	Teachers	Total
æm	ã	4	2	6
æn	ã	8	4	12
ən	ã	8	1	9
	õ	5	0	5
	œ	8	3	11
ɪn	ã	0	1	1
	ẽ	8	0	8
en	ã	7	2	9
ɪm	ẽ	0	3	3
əm	õ	6	1	7
ɒn	õ	8	4	12
ʌn	õ	5	0	5
	œ	8	5	13
ʌm	œ	7	3	10

Table 116: Errors in Vowels + Consonants by Students & Teachers

V.2.1.5.3 Consonants

a. Substitutions

- Interlingual Substitutions (Dialectal Arabic Interference)

English Consonant	Dialectal substitute	Students	Teachers	Total
t	t ^s	7	1	8
	t ^f	2	1	3
	ṭ	3	1	4
tʃ	t ^s	2	0	2
ð	d	7	0	7
dʒ	ʒ	8	5	13
r	ɾ	2	0	2

Table 117: Interlingual Substitutions of Consonants by Students & Teachers (Dialectal Arabic Interference)

- Interlingual Substitution (French Interference)

English Consonant	French Substitute	Students	Teachers	Total
z	s	8	7	15
s	z	8	7	15
tʃ	ʃ	7	2	9
k	ʃ	8	2	10
k	g	5	4	9
r	ʀ	3	0	3

Table 118: Interlingual Substitutions of Consonants by Students & Teachers (French Interference)

- Interlingual Substitutions (Dialectal English Interference)

English Standard Consonant	English Dialectal Consonant	Students	Teachers	Total
t	ʔ	3	3	6

Table 119: Interlingual Substitutions of Consonants by Students & Teachers (Dialectal English Interference)

- Interlingual Substitutions (from American English)

British English Consonant	American English Consonant	Students	Teachers	Total
[l]	[ɫ]	8	5	13
t	f	3	3	6

Table 120: Interlingual Substitutions of Consonants by Students & Teachers (American English Interference)

- Crosslinguistic Substitutions



English Consonant	Crosslinguistic Substitute	Students	Teachers	Total
dʒ	ʒ	8	5	13
/l/  [l]	[l]	8	5	13
 [l]	[l]	8	5	13

Table 121: Crosslinguistic Substitutions of Consonants by Students & Teachers (French or Dialectal Arabic Interference)

English Consonant	Crosslinguistic Substitute	Students	Teachers	Total
v	f	8	1	9
[p ^h]	[p]	8	3	11
[k ^h]	[k]	6	2	8

Table 122: Crosslinguistic substitutions of Consonants by Students & Teachers (French or English Interference)

- Intralingual Substitutions

English Consonant	Intralingual Substitute	Students	Teachers	Total
t	d	8	3	11
ð	θ	8	4	12
ʒ	ʃ	4	0	4
s	ʃ	7	0	7
ʃ	s	6	5	11
tʃ	t	8	3	11
dʒ	d	8	3	11

Table 123: Intralingual Substitutions of Consonants by Students & Teachers

- Miscellaneous Substitutions

English Consonant	Miscellaneous Substitute	Students	Teachers	Total
θ	[t]	8	3	11
	[tʃ]	1	0	1
	[t ^s]	4	0	4
t	k	5	2	7

Table 124: Miscellaneous Substitutions of Consonants by Students & Teachers

b. Insertions

- Intralingual Insertions

English Consonant	Intralingual Insertion	Students	Teachers	Total
-	r	8	5	13
	b	8	5	13
	g	8	7	15
	h	8	4	12
	w	4	0	4
	l	7	1	8
	t	8	5	13
	j	8	4	12
	ʃ	-	-	-

Table 125: Intralingual Insertions of Consonants by Students & Teachers

- Interlingual Insertions (French Interference)

English Consonant	Interlingual Insertion	Students	Teachers	Total
-	p	6	1	7
	R	-	-	-
	j	-	-	-

Table 126: Interlingual Insertions of Consonants by Students & Teachers (French Interference)

- Miscellaneous Insertions

English Consonant	Miscellaneous Insertion	Students	Teachers	Total
-	k	-	-	-

Table 127: Miscellaneous Insertions of Consonants by Students & Teachers

c. Omissions

- Intralingual Omissions

English omitted Consonant	Students	Teachers	Total
l	7	2	9
j	8	5	13

Table 128: Intralingual Omissions of Consonants by Students & Teachers

- Interlingual Omissions (French)

English omitted Consonant	Students	Teachers	Total
h	7	4	11
t	-	-	-
s	7	0	7
d	4	0	4
w	8	4	12

Table 129: Interlingual Omissions of Consonants by Students & Teachers (French Interference)

- Interlingual omissions (Dialectal English)

English omitted Consonant	Students	Teachers	Total
t	5	3	8

Table 130: Interlingual Omissions of Consonants by Students & Teachers (Dialectal English Interference)

V.2.1.5.4 Vowels + Consonants

English Combination	Interlingual Substitute	Students	Teachers	Total
ju:/jʊ	ɥ	8	3	11
	y	5	0	5
	ø	-	-	-

Table 131: Errors in Vowels + Consonants by Students & Teachers

V.2.1.5.5 Consonant Clusters

The minimum of errors in the use of consonants is 0 for both students and teachers, and the maximum is 3 for teachers and 8 for students.

V.2.15.6 Summary

The following table summarizes the errors made by the students and teachers:

Tested Instances	Erroneous Instances	%	Error Instances by Informants' Majority	%	Error Instances by teachers & Students majority	%
200	188	94	100	53.19	68	34

Table 132: Summary of the Confirmation Test Errors Made by Students & Teachers

As can be seen on the table, the students and teachers have made errors in 94% of the instances of errors that the first group made earlier. The majority of the informants (15 informants), which amounts to at least 8 informants, has made errors in 53.19% of instances, and the majority of each group separately (8 students and 7 teachers), which amounts to at least 5 students and at least 4 teachers, in 34% of instances. This proves that there is an established phonological interlanguage pattern

that seems to be characteristic of learners and, to a lesser extent, teachers at the department of languages.

V.2.2 Teachers Once Recorded as Students

Time and experience are supposed to be determinant factors in moving the approximative system towards the target one. The interlanguage of the students of English seems to be somewhat resistant to these factors as well.

V.2.2.1 Subjects

The subjects are two teachers, who were students themselves among the first recorded group of students. They are tested to see how much their interlanguages have 'fossilized' and how much they have improved through time and with their experience in teaching.

V.2.2.2 Tasks

They are asked to read a list of words that they mispronounced once in an examination test. There are 55 words for teacher 1 and 84 words for teacher 2. Then, they are asked to read the text that was read by the previous group of teachers and students.

V.2.2.3 Findings

V.2.2.3.1 Word List Reading

	Number of Words	Errors	%	Correct	%	Extra Errors	Total
Teacher 1	55	20	36.36	35	63.64	11	31
Teacher 2	84	27	32.14	57	67.86	18	45

Table 133: Word List Reading Results of Teachers Once Recorded as Students

V.2.2.3.2 Text Reading

	Lexical Words (276)				Functional Words (93)			
	Errors	%	Correct	%	Errors	%	Correct	%
Teacher 1	48	17.39	228	82.61	35	37.63	58	62.37
Teacher 2	26	9.42	250	90.58	57	61.29	36	38.71

Table 134: Text Reading Results of Teachers Once Recorded as Students

V.2.2.3.3 Summary

Neither of the two teachers has managed to get rid of all the errors in the word list. More than 30% of errors persist for both of them. As for the text, the achievement in the pronunciation of functional words is inferior to that of the pronunciation of lexical words, especially for teacher 2 who has managed to weaken only 36%. The interlanguage of the two teachers bears most of the characteristics of the informants previously studied.

V.2.3. Senior Lecturers

The choice of analysing the performance of four senior lecturers during a viva along with the candidate is motivated by a search for whether the phonological interlanguage persists even in a setting that is supposed to be the summit of accurate performance.

V.2.3.1 Subjects

There are five senior lecturers, three professors and a 'maître de conférence', and a doctoral candidate videotaped during a doctoral viva that took place in the academic year 2006-2007.

V.2.3.2 Error Analysis

Following the same principles of the previous error analysis and dividing errors along the same division, an error analysis of the performance of all four senior lecturers and the candidate is undertaken.

V.2.3.3 Findings

Again, where there is a majority of the senior lecturers making an error, the total is bolded.

V.2.3.3 1 Vowels

a. Substitutions

- Intralingual Substitutions

English Vowel	English Substitute	Candidate	Lecturers	Total
ə	e	1	2	3
	ɪ	0	0	0
	i:	0	0	0
	æ	0	0	0
	ɜ:	0	1	1
	ʌ	0	2	2
	ʊ	0	0	0
	ɔ:	0	2	2
	ɑ:	0	0	0
	əʊ	0	0	0
	eɪ	0	2	2
	ɪə	0	0	0
ʊə	0	1	1	
ɪ	ə	1	5	6
	ʊ	0	0	0
	e	0	0	0
	i:	1	1	2
	eɪ	0	0	0
	aɪ	0	0	0
e	ə	0	1	1
	eɪ	0	0	0
	i:	0	0	0
	ɪ	1	2	3
ɒ	ə	1	3	4
	æ	1	3	4

	əʊ	0	0	0
ʌ	ə	0	0	0
	ɜ:	0	0	0
	əʊ	0	0	0
	aʊ	0	1	1
ʊ	ɜ:	0	0	0
	u:	0	0	0
	ɒ	0	0	0
	ɪ	0	0	0
ɜ:	ə	0	2	2
	ɔ:	0	0	0
	e	1	1	2
æ	ə	0	1	1
	e	0	1	1
	ɪ	0	0	0
	eɪ	0	0	0
ɔ:	æ	0	2	2
	aʊ	0	0	0
	əʊ	1	0	1
eɪ	æ	0	0	0
	i:	0	0	0
ɑ:	æ	1	2	3
	ɜ:	0	0	0
	e	1	0	1
aɪ	ɪ	0	0	0
	i:	0	0	0
	ɪə	0	0	0
aʊ	əʊ	0	1	1
	ʌ	0	0	0
əʊ	u:	0	0	0
	ə	0	1	1
ɜə	ɪə	0	0	0

Table 135: Intralingual Substitutions of Vowels by Senior lecturers & Candidate

- Interlingual Substitutions (French Interference)

English Vowel	French Substitute	Candidate	Lecturers	Total
ə	a	1	5	6
	e	1	1	2
	ɔ	1	0	1
	y	0	1	1
	u	0	0	0
	ə	0	1	1
	jo	0	0	0
ʌ	u	0	0	0
	y	0	1	1
	œ	0	0	0
ɪ	ə	1	5	6
	e	0	0	0
	ɥ	0	0	0
eɪ	a	0	0	0
	e	0	0	0
	aɛ	0	0	0
ʊ	y	0	1	1
	o	0	0	0
u:	y	0	0	0
	œ	0	0	0
	ɥ	0	0	0
ɜ:	u	0	0	0
	i	0	0	0
e	e	0	1	1
	ə	0	0	0
ɔ:	a	0	0	0

ɒ	a	0	0	0
ɑ:	a	0	0	0
i:	e	0	0	0
ɪə	e	1	1	2
eə	a	0	1	1
aʊ	u	0	0	0
ʊə	y	0	1	1
aɪə	jo	0	0	0

Table 136: Interlingual Substitutions of Vowels by Senior Lecturer & Candidate (French Interference)

- Crosslinguistic Substitutions

English Vowel	Crosslinguistic Substitute	Candidate	Lecturers	Total
ʌ	ɒ / o	1	4	5
ə	ɒ / o	1	5	6
u:	ɒ/o	0	0	0
əʊ	ɒ / o	1	5	6
eɪ	ɛ/e	0	1	1

Table 137: Crosslinguistic Substitutions of vowels by Senior Lecturers & candidate (Intra or Interlingual)

- Miscellaneous Substitutions

English Vowel	Miscellaneous Substitution	Candidate	Lecturers	Total
ʌ	e	0	0	0
	ə	0	0	0
e	ʌ	0	0	0
	æ	0	0	0
ɔ:	əʊ	1	0	1

	aʊ	0	0	0
əʊ	ʊ	0	0	0
	aʊ	0	0	0
ɛə	ɪə	0	0	0
	eɪə	1	0	1
ɪə	ɪ	0	1	1
	ɪə	0	0	0
	i:	0	1	1
æ	ɪ	0	0	0
ɔ:	u	0	0	0
eɪ	aɪ	0	0	0
aɪ	eɪ	0	0	0
ʊə	ʊ	0	0	0
eə	eɪə	0	0	0
	aɪə	0	0	0
aɪə	aɪ	0	0	0

Table 138: Miscellaneous Substitutions of Vowels by Senior Lecturers & Candidate

- Interlingual Substitutions (Dialectal Arabic Interference)

English Vowel	Dialectal Substitution	Candidate	Lecturers	Total
i:	ɪ	1	4	5
u:	ʊ	0	1	1
ʊ	o	0	0	0
ɒ	ʊ	0	0	0

Table 139: Interlingual Substitutions of Vowels by Senior Lecturers & Candidate (Dialectal Arabic Interference)

- Interlingual Substitutions (American English Interference)

English Vowel	American Substitution	Candidate	Lecturers	Total
ɒ	ɑ	1	3	4
ə	ɑ	0	1	1
eɪ	i:	0	0	0

Table 140: Interlingual Substitutions of Vowels by Senior Lecturers & Candidate (American English Interference)

b. Insertions

English Vowel	Inserted vowel	Candidate	Lecturers	Total
-	ə	1	1	2
-	ɪ	0	0	0
-	æ	0	0	0
-	e	0	0	0
-	ɒ	0	0	0
-	y	0	1	1

Table 141: Interlingual Insertions of Vowels by Senior Lecturers & Candidate

c. Omissions

Omitted Vowel	Candidate	Lecturers	Total
ə	1	1	2
ɪ	0	0	0
e	1	0	1

Table 142: Vowel Omissions by Senior Lecturers & Candidate

V.2.3.3.2 Vowels + Consonants

Combination	French Substitute	Candidate	Lecturers	Total
æm	ã	0	0	0
æñ	ã	1	1	2
ən	ã	0	0	0
	õ	1	5	6
	œ	0	1	1
ɪm	ã	0	0	0
	ẽ	0	1	1
en	ã	1	2	3
im	ẽ	0	0	0
əm	õ	0	0	0
ɒn	õ	0	1	1
ʌn	õ	0	0	0
	œ	1	4	5
ʌm	œ	1	4	5

Table 143: Errors in Vowels + Consonants by Senior Lecturers & Candidate

V.2.3.3.3 Consonants

a. Substitutions

- Intralingual Substitutions (Dialectal Arabic Interference)

English Consonant	Dialectal substitute	Candidate	Lecturers	Total
t	t ^s	1	0	1
	t ^f	0	0	0
	ṭ	0	1	1
tʃ	t ^s	0	0	0
ð	d	1	5	6
dʒ	ʒ	1	1	2
r	ɾ	0	1	1

Table 144: Interlingual Substitutions of Consonants by Senior Lecturers & Candidate (Dialectal Arabic Interference)

- Interlingual Substitution (French Interference)

English Consonant	French Substitute	Candidate	Lecturers	Total
z	s	1	1	2
s	z	1	4	5
tʃ	ʃ	0	2	2
k	ʃ	0	0	0
k	g	0	0	0
g	ʒ	1	0	1
r	R	0	0	0

Table 145: Interlingual Substitutions of Consonant by Senior Lecturers & Candidate (French Interference)

- Interlingual substitutions (Dialectal English Interference)

English Standard Consonant	English Dialectal Consonant	Candidate	Lecturers	Total
t	ʔ	1	0	1

Table 146: Interlingual Substitutions of Consonants by Senior lecturers & Candidate (Dialectal English Interference)

- Interlingual Substitutions (from American English)

British English Consonant	American English Consonant	Candidate	Lecturers	Total
[l]	[ɫ]	0	0	0
t	f	0	0	0

Table 147: Interlingual Substitutions of Consonants by Senior lecturers & Candidate (American English Interference)

- Crosslinguistic Substitutions

English Consonant	Crosslinguistic Substitute	Candidate	Lecturers	Total
dʒ	ʒ	0	0	0
/l/ [l]	[l]	1	5	6

Table 148: Crosslinguistic substitutions of Consonants by Senior lecturers & Candidate (French or Dialectal Arabic Interference)

English Consonant	Crosslinguistic Substitute	Candidate	Lecturers	Total
v	f	0	0	0
[p ^h]	[p]	0	0	0
[k ^h]	[k]	0	0	0

Table 149: Crosslinguistic substitutions of Consonants by Senior lecturers & Candidate (French or English Interference)

- Intralingual Substitutions

English Consonant	Intralingual Substitute	Candidate	Lecturers	Total
t	d	1	2	3
ð	θ	0	0	0
ʒ	ʃ	0	0	0
s	ʃ	0	2	2
ʃ	s	0	0	0
tʃ	t	0	2	2
dʒ	d	0	0	0

Table 150: Intralingual Substitutions of Consonants by Senior lecturers & Candidate

- Miscellaneous Substitutions

English Consonant	Miscellaneous Substitute	Candidate	Lecturers	Total
θ	[t]	1	2	3
	[tʰ]	0	0	0
	[tʳ]	0	0	0
t	k	0	0	0

Table 151: Miscellaneous Substitutions of Consonants by Senior lecturers & Candidate

b. Insertions

- Intralingual Insertions

English Consonant	Intralingual Insertion	Candidate	Lecturers	Total
-	r	1	2	3
	b	0	0	0
	g	1	4	5
	h	0	0	0
	w	0	0	0
	l	0	0	0
	t	0	0	0
	j	1	1	2
ʃ	0	0	0	

Table 152: Intralingual Insertions of Consonants by Senior lecturers & Candidate

- Interlingual Insertions (French Interference)

English Consonant	Interlingual Insertion	Candidate	Lecturers	Total
-	p	0	0	0
	R	0	0	0
	j	0	0	0

Table 153: Interlingual Insertions of Consonants by Senior Lecturers & Candidate (French Interference)

c. Miscellaneous Insertions

English Consonant	Miscellaneous Insertion	Candidate	Lecturers	Total
-	k	0	0	0

Table 154: Miscellaneous Insertions of Consonants by Senior Lecturers & Candidate

c. Omissions

- Intralingual Omissions

English omitted Consonant	Candidate	Lecturers	Total
l	0	0	0
j	0	0	0

Table 155: Intralingual Omissions of Consonants by Senior Lecturers & Candidate

- Interlingual Omissions (French)

English omitted Consonant	Candidate	Lecturers	Total
h	0	0	0
t	0	0	0
s	0	0	0
d	0	0	0
w	0	0	0

Table 156: Interlingual Omissions of Consonants by Senior lecturers & Candidate (French Interference)

- Interlingual Omissions (dialectal English)

English omitted Consonant	Candidate	Lecturers	Total
t	0	0	0

Table 157: Interlingual Omissions of Consonants by Senior Lecturers & Candidate (Dialectal English Interference)

V.2.3.3.4 Vowels + Consonants

English Combination	Interlingual Substitute	Candidate	Lecturers	Total
ju:/jʊ	ɥ	0	0	0
	y	0	0	0
	ø	0	0	0

Table 158: Errors in Vowels + Consonants by Senior Lecturers & Candidate

V.2.3.3.5 Consonant Clusters

There seems to be no problem in the articulation of the consonant clusters by either the lecturers or the candidate.

V.2.3.3.6 Connected Speech

There is an obvious tendency to strengthen many weak form words by some of the lecturers and the candidate.

V.2.3.4 Summary

Out of the 200 instances of errors made by the groups of students previously analysed, 81 instances occur at a viva, supposed to be the summit of accuracy. This constitutes 40.5% of the overall number. There are no less than 135 tokens made by the four senior lecturers and the viva candidate. There are 18 instances of errors that are common to a majority of them (at least 3).

Conclusion

The error analysis of the second group's interlanguage has confirmed that the phonological interlanguage of the undergraduate students of the earlier recordings is not typical only of a period and a context of teaching. A significant percentage of errors made by the first group are also made by the second group despite the fact that the

material to elicit errors is free speech in both. The learners of the second group not only share many instances with the first group but they also make them in many common tokens. As a matter of fact, the features of this interlanguage are not only characteristic of the two groups of third year and fourth year students studying at two different times and in two different contexts, but they are also characteristic of all other graduation years and even the teachers of oral expression and listening comprehension with their various experiences. So many features are equally shared by senior lecturers who are supposed to be at the summit of pronunciation accuracy.

CHAPTER VI

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CHAPTER VI

Pedagogical Implications

Introduction

As early as 1920, Ballard (1920:134) wrote:

We have ceased to ask if it is worth while to try to give a good pronunciation; we have ceased, have we not, to discuss the value of oral work. We know we must do what we can to satisfy in some measure the insistent demand for a comprehension of the spoken word. The desire for it always existed. I wonder sometimes what men are thinking now of the teacher who never had time for pronunciation and never tried to do much with it!

To give all the members of a class good pronunciation by any method means, patient, constant and trying work for teacher and faithful, obedient and hard work for most pupils. Without such work on both sides success is impossible. There is only one method that I believe to be successful for practically the whole class and that is the method that uses the much maligned, much misunderstood phonetic symbols.

This was written at a time when the grammar translation method, a purely formal approach, was still in its heyday. Yet, pronunciation as a formal aspect of language seems to have already been neglected in those times. The emergence in the 1950's of the audio-lingual method brought about an emphasis on systematically teaching pronunciation, and the learners were supposed to master the sounds first before contrasting meaning. The means to achieve this was mainly drilling them by using minimal pairs. Of course, a phonetic explanation of the sounds was contrary to the structuralist principles in vogue. Ever since the audio-lingual method was abandoned, the focus in teaching became much more on function than on form and became much more learner centred. The pronunciation aspect has been even more neglected and has become an integral part of the communicative –oriented curriculum. The focus became neither on knowing the sounds nor on knowing about them. There has been considerable research dealing with the various factors that affect the development of

pronunciation skills by non native Speakers (Acton, 1984). Some researchers believe that pronunciation cannot be taught or that it cannot be given the same importance as that given to some other levels of language (Scarcella and Oxford, 1988). Many other researchers stress the social and psychological factors as critical determinants of a good pronunciation acquisition by the adult learner (Guiora et al, 1972).Some others think that there are some maturational constraints that govern the development of good pronunciation skills in a second language, suggesting that it is impossible to improve one's pronunciation in a second language after adolescence (Krashen et al, 1982; Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991). However, there are others, such as Neufeld (1978) and Acton (1984), who assert that adults are capable of acquiring native like pronunciation skills in a second language.

VI.1 Pronunciation Teaching: Approaches, and Techniques

In what follows are some of the approaches and techniques in the area of pronunciation teaching outlined by Scarcella and Oxford (1994).

VI.1.1 Approaches to Teaching Pronunciation: Past and Present

Scarcella and Oxford compare between the traditional approach to teaching pronunciation and the modern one as follows:

- a. The objective in the past was to help learners learn a native like pronunciation, whereas now it is only to gain sufficient pronunciation skills so as not to inhibit communication.
- b. Teaching the isolated segments was the point of focus, but now the emphasis is on all that is beyond a single sound.
- c. The means to teach pronunciation in the past was pronunciation drills, while now it is by using communicative tasks.

- d. Phonetic description was a primary component in the oral class, but now it is used only when strictly necessary.
- e. The students did not take a primary role in improving their own pronunciation, but in the modern approach, which is student centred, the learners' motivation is central in order to improve self monitoring and develop awareness strategies.
- f. Some psychological factors such as the students' level of anxiety were overlooked in the past, whereas now the learning tasks and activities have to be as much entertaining and relaxing as possible to lower the level of anxiety and to fight resistance to improving pronunciation.

Some of the objectives of the modern approaches suggested by the author may hold for a context where learning a second language or a foreign one is for all other purposes than teaching it. When the aim is to transmit one's knowledge and skill to generations of students, "to gain sufficient pronunciation skills so as not to inhibit communication" can hardly be sufficient. Of course, when the objective changes, there is no alternative but to change the corresponding means and techniques.

VI.1.2 Some Modern Techniques for Teaching Pronunciation

Scarcella and Oxford suggest the following techniques:

- a. Self-Monitoring: Students have to be conscious that their pronunciation distorts communication and must work to improve their intelligibility. So, even if they have an accurate vocabulary and grammar, when their pronunciation falls below a certain level, they may not communicate effectively. Therefore, teachers should help the learners by pretending not to understand them when others outside of the classroom really do not. It is the responsibility of the students to make themselves understood.
- b. Tutorial Sessions and Self-Study: The spoken English of the student should be diagnosed and followed by individualized programs of selected written and oral

texts. Recourse to audio taping and videotaping may be effectively used in tutorial sessions and in self-study. In addition, tapes and materials can be loaned weekly as a part of the students' homework.

- c. **Modelling and Individual Correction:** This consists of regularly recording and analyzing samples of the learners' performance in order to monitor their progress. The focus of the analysis should be on rhythm, stress, accent, linking, and consonant clusters. The outcome of the analysis should be reported to the students in individual conferences or in writing.
- d. **Communicative Activities:** The target pronunciation features should be identified along with their lexical and grammatical contexts; appropriate communicative tasks should be devised for practising the target features such as dialogues and role plays.
- e. **Written Versions of Oral Presentations:** For more advanced learners, they may be provided with the right strategies to analyse the written versions of their oral presentations.
- f. **Computer Assisted Language Learning:** Computer assisted language learning can also be used to teach pronunciation. Teachers can use software that displays speech patterns to teach intonation, stress, and sounds to individuals and small groups of learners.
- g. **Explanations:** Explanations or traditional articulatory instruction should be kept to a minimum and should be selective. It could include some general rules regarding placing stress. Dickerson (1990) suggests that four simple word-stress rules can help students place stress correctly on about 700,000 polysyllabic words.
- h. **Communication Strategies:** Some useful communication strategies which will help learners give the impression that their pronunciation is better than it really is are previewing, sequencing (first, second, third), using contrast words (however),

repeating, and paraphrasing can increase the non-native English speaker's intelligibility.

- i. Affective Strategies. A number of excellent affective strategies can be taught to help learners lower their anxieties and gain confidence. For instance, learners can be taught to use deep breathing or meditation exercises before speaking. Teachers can also use soothing music and laughter to make the students feel comfortable pronouncing their new language.

This is a communication based approach that is learner centred although there is a very shy and cautious suggestion to recourse to formal teaching. The point of departure is pronunciation, and it is so important that there is a plea by the writers for not making any efforts to meet the learners half way in their attempts to communicate in order not to encourage them to be content with a poor performance in this skill. Yet, the solutions suggested are of an immersive nature just like those suggested by any communicative approach that would be only too cautious when it comes to explicit instruction. There is a suggestion to diagnose the spoken language of the learners using written work (the writers are not explicit as to the form this written work takes; for instance, is it using IPA or normal alphabet?) and to identify the target pronunciation features with their lexical and grammatical contexts using sometimes very sophisticated means. Yet, the suggested means to achieve this has, in reality, very little to do with the formal aspect of language and leads us head first into devising "appropriate communicative tasks....for practising the target features such as dialogues and role plays". The underlying spirit is so communicative that, at the end of the day, the most important thing, in contrast with the very beginning of this proposal, is " ...some useful communication strategies which will help learners **give the impression** (highlight by the author of this thesis) that their pronunciation is better than it really is"; this should

be achieved by "previewing, sequencing (first, second, third), using contrast words (however), repeating, and paraphrasing", and the ultimate goal is to "increase the non-native English speaker's intelligibility." The authors have simply lost track of pronunciation altogether.

After so many years of a crude communicative approach to language learning and language teaching with, so often, poorer results than those achieved by the grammatical and the audio lingual approaches, it is high time to start breaking certain taboos about formal and explicit instruction.

VI.2 Teaching Pronunciation at the Department of English, University of Constantine

Teaching pronunciation within the module of oral expression and listening comprehension at the Department of English, University of Constantine, has so often been influenced by the communicative approach with its many drawbacks, the most important of which is a blatant neglect of the pronunciation aspect. In what follows is an analysis of the principles and the reality of teaching oral expression and listening expression at the department of English, University of Constantine.

VI.2.1 Official 'Syllabus' for Oral Expression and listening comprehension

The official syllabus for teaching oral expression and listening comprehension that includes the pronunciation aspect, goes back to the late seventies. It was only recently, with the introduction of the LMD system (Licence, Master, Doctorat) that some orientations for teaching this module replaced the old syllabus.

VI.2.1.1 'Syllabus' in Theory

Before dealing with how the oral skills have been taught and how they are taught at present, it is worth outlining the syllabus that is supposed to be applied for that purpose.

VI. 2.1.1.1 Classical System

The official 'syllabus' for teaching oral expression and listening comprehension in the BA degree curriculum (classical system) lists a set of objectives for both aspects along with a few suggestions as for the kind of laboratory and classroom activities that would help achieve these objectives.

The listening comprehension aspect, according to this syllabus:

... is aimed to help the student improve and develop a comprehension of authentic spoken English, and this by exposing him to different forms of speech, to name but a few, expository, conversational, formal, colloquial, etc...³¹.

Besides the ambiguity of the expression 'authentic spoken English', i.e., whether 'spoken' refers to 'oral' as a medium or to 'colloquial' as a variety, there is the odd listing of 'formal' and 'colloquial' as two varieties along with 'expository' and 'conversational'. The latter two are only aspects of discourse or style that can be achieved in either of the two varieties.

Nine objectives are then listed at which the listening comprehension aspect aims:

1. to follow and grasp large stretches of speech at natural speed
2. to comprehend the structural arrangement of oral discourse.
3. to recognize and comprehend modern terminologies, idioms, and contextual meanings.
4. to distinguish between essential and incidental, or redundant features of oral discourse, so as to focus on the main content.
5. to recognise style as indicated by stress and intonation patterns.
6. to perceive and interpret the meaning of the intonation patterns such as the speaker's mood, attitude, feelings, intonation etc...
7. to extract the natural meaning (basic information) from material listened to, that is to be able to identify the topic, general meaning, and be able to summarise a passage.
8. to draw the inferential meaning from the literal meaning.
9. to evaluate critically the information according to various referents drawing on personal experience, opinions, etc...

³¹ Contenu des modules (a syllabus suggested by the Ministry of Higher Education in the late seventies) p1; the original text contains many grammatical and spelling mistakes and, in this research, they are left as they are.

While objectives 1,2,3,6 and 8 are mainly formal, objectives 3, 4, 7, and 9 essentially target the substance of speech.

Concerning the oral expression aspect, it is stated that:

This part of the course will train the student into developing a certain degree of fluency and being capable to hold intelligent conversation while discussing various topics, expressing personal attitude, and opinions.

This main objective is split into 6 objectives:

1. reproduce 'models' of speech with accurate pronunciation, accuracy of sounds, intonation, stress, etc... in everyday modern spoken English.
2. respond with correct grammatical structures and verbal expressions in structural contexts.
3. to manipulate grammatical structures and verbal expressions in drills.
4. use current language functions appropriately: greetings, varying degrees of courtesy in social situations, evaluations, etc...
5. communicate original thought orally, by means of such activities as discussions or debates on current issues: culture, education, etc... with special emphasis on Algerian realities, for example 'Charter'. At this stage, correct verbal expression including pronunciation and structure is the important criteria.
6. initiate free expression of personal attitudes and opinions in various speech situations, with appropriate style and refined choice of words. Here the overall fluency and the manner in which the student expresses nuances of meaning are the performance criteria.

Up to objective n° 3, it is the form of language that is primary, including both the syntactic and the phonological aspects. In objective n°3, the method of teaching is implicitly suggested by the use of the word 'drills' i.e., the audio-lingual method. As for objectives 4, 5, and 6, the major concern seems to be the functional aspect of language without neglecting both the stylistic and the semantic features of such functions. There are still some ambiguous concepts within these objectives such as 'original thought' and not least is 'everyday modern spoken English.' Indeed, it seems that there is nothing to which the former is opposed, and the latter refers much more to the written form than to the spoken one. If what is meant by 'modern' is 'present day', then a variety that is used

in, say, the streets of London, Liverpool, etc...can hardly be the objective of an academic course.

What follows these objectives is rather a random and incoherent set of activities or exercises:

- discussions interviews,
- situational and functional English (as opposed to structural English)
- emphasis on grammatical points taught in Grammar module.
- tenses and sentence structures
- basic idioms
- elements of phonetics (intonation)
- introduction to colloquial English'

These suggestions are incoherent in the sense that they mix the content with the method. Furthermore, three syllabi are suggested at the same time: the grammatical, the situational, and the functional syllabi. If what is really meant is an eclectic approach that draws from the three of them, it is not explicitly stated.

Finally, a set of exercises and activities are suggested for each of the four years of the BA curriculum, taking into consideration each of the two aspects (oral expression and listening comprehension) separately:

Listening comprehension

first year

- graded dialogues/language games
- pronunciation drills (practical grammar and phonetics)
- Communicative situations (guided)

2nd year

- introduction to different registers
- exposure to different dialects

3rd year

- BBC programmes, plays (American and English)
- T.V programmes

Oral expression

First year

- discussions

- role selection
- lab songs, listening with comprehension to authentic material, pronunciation drills.

second year

- free dialogues
- language games
- technical language

third year

- public speaking
- correction of mistakes
- language games and interviews.

In such a sketchy 'syllabus', there is no neat separation of the tasks and activities required to improve the receptive skills (listening) and those required to promote the productive ones (speaking). Hence, technical language is singled out in oral expression, for some unknown reasons, after being dealt with in listening comprehension within an introduction to different registers. Furthermore, the role of the teacher is mixed with that of the student like 'correction of mistakes' listed in the third year of oral expression.

All in all, besides being slightly out of date, these suggestions are sketchy, vague, far too ambitious (given the teaching facilities and aids available) and do not seem to be based on a clear and definite approach, i.e., a precise theoretical framework.

VI.2.1.1.2 LMD (Licence, Master, Doctorat) System

The content of the syllabus of oral expression and listening comprehension in the new LMD system is even sketchier than that of the classical one. It is written in French (Appendix 8) and in what follows is a translation done by the author of this thesis into English:

FIST SEMESTER

Basic Teaching Units

Techniques of Oral Expression

Content:

Phonetics (learning sounds/laboratory)

Constructing oral sentences starting from a specified topic

Contexts of language use

Using language in discursive situations

Foreign Language 2

Techniques of written expression and oral expression

SECOND SEMESTER

Basic Teaching Units

Techniques of Oral Expression

Content:

Phonetics (learning sounds/laboratory)

Constructing oral sentences starting from a specified topic

Contexts of language use

Using language in discursive situations

Foreign Language 2

Techniques of written expression and oral expression

THIRD SEMESTER

Basic Teaching Units

Techniques of Oral Expression

Content:

Phonetics (learning sounds/laboratory)

Constructing oral sentences starting from a specified topic

Contexts of language use

Using language in discursive situations

Foreign Language 2

Techniques of written expression and oral expression

FOURTH SEMESTER

Basic Teaching Units

Techniques of Oral Expression

Content:

Phonetics (learning sounds/laboratory)

Constructing oral sentences starting from a specified topic

Contexts of language use

Using language in discursive situations

Foreign Language 2

Techniques of written expression and oral Expression

Semesters 5 and 6 (Language Sciences Option)

Oral Expression: Language comprehension and production in authentic situations

Foreign Language: Reinforcing written and spoken languages

Content:

Oral: Oral literatures

Phonetics (learning sounds/laboratory)

Constructing oral sentences starting from a specified topic

Contexts of language use

Using language in discursive situations

Techniques of written expression and oral expression

**Semesters 5 and 6 (Languages, literatures, and civilisations
Option)**

Oral Expression: To get the students accustomed to authentic spoken English and develop their abilities to use language in discursive situations

Content:

Oral: Oral literatures

Phonetics (learning sounds/laboratory)

Constructing oral sentences starting from a specified topic

Contexts of language use

Using language in discursive situations

Foreign Language: Contacts and relationships between languages

Semesters 5 and 6 (Applied Language Studies Option)

Oral Expression: To get the students accustomed to authentic spoken English (authentic colloquial RP) and to allow them to develop their abilities to use language in discursive situations

Techniques of Oral Expression

Content:

Phonetics (learning sounds/laboratory)

Constructing oral sentences starting from a specified topic

Contexts of language use

Using language in discursive situations

Foreign Language: Reinforcing written and spoken languages

**Semesters 5 and 6 (English for tourism) (Langue appliquée au
tourisme)**

Oral Expression: To get the students accustomed to authentic spoken English (authentic colloquial RP) and to allow them to develop their abilities to use language in discursive situations

Content:

Training students in oral communication based on professional situations

Up to the fourth semester, there is no change either in the objective or in the content. The sole objective which is 'techniques of oral expression' is rather vague. Are

students supposed to be taught about the techniques or how to apply these techniques themselves? In either case, nothing whatsoever is mentioned about these techniques. The only allusion made to pronunciation is the first heading of the content which is phonetics (learning sounds/laboratory). Again, a similar question may be raised: is it applied phonetics or is it theoretical phonetics? Whether applied or theoretical, nothing is explicit as to the correlation between phonetics and oral expression. An odd concept included in the second heading of the content is 'oral sentences'. The basic unit of oral discourse is, as is commonly known, the utterance or, technically speaking, the tone group and not the sentence. The latter is a grammatical unit, which is a unit of language as an ideal construct, and is more a part of the written mode than the oral one. Another no less ambiguous expression is the one born in the last heading referring to the situations of language use as 'discursive situations'.

As for the last semesters, semesters 5 and 6, the same content of the syllabus of oral expression and listening comprehension is kept for three options, but the objectives vary. In the last option, however, both objectives and content differ from the rest. A question that may be asked is: how can the same content be kept for different objectives? In the applied language option and the applied language to the field of tourism, there is, yet, another puzzling term: authentic colloquial RP!!!! If there is likelihood that the previous odd terms are the result of an unfaithful translation by the author of this thesis, it cannot be the case of the latter because it was originally inserted in English in the middle of the French text.

The LMD system, which is supposed to be a radical change in English teaching and learning, has not given due importance to oral expression and listening comprehension and not least to an important aspect of them: pronunciation.

VI.2.1.2 Syllabus in Practice: Past and Present

Here is how this syllabus was and has been, more or less, implemented at the Department of English.

VI.2.1.2.1 Past

In the late seventies and early eighties, when the author of this thesis was a student at the Department of English and, then, a teacher of the module of oral expression and listening comprehension, very few lecturers of this module did take the general principles of the official 'syllabus' into consideration. Those who did implemented them with great freedom for manoeuvre. When considering only the mainly used tasks and activities, listening comprehension and oral expression were taught as follows:

a. Classroom Sessions

The commonest activity in classroom sessions was making students listen to a text (of various topics) read by the lecturer, generally more than once, then, questions about the content were asked. Handouts of the printed text were, then, provided to the students, and a general discussion of the gist of the text followed. What was targeted by such an activity was, most of all, the student's intellectual ability to grasp and handle some theoretical issues. Another activity was 'round table chats', in which the lecturer and the students sat in a circle and discussed a given topic. Sometimes one student or a group of students used to prepare such a topic at home, and sometimes it was just improvised. The objectives of the latter task were not so different from those behind the former one because both tasks drove at the intellectual side of oral expression and listening comprehension. The only difference between the two was that in the latter the distance between the lecturer and the students was decreased because s/he became more of a participant than a guide. It was, therefore, hoped that by such 'a face to face'

activity, some psychological barriers such as the 'lack of confidence' and the 'shyness' of some students would be broken. Finally, a few lecturers indulged into some language games and some situational activities such as role-playing, improvised or selected from some books of oral expression and listening comprehension.

b. Laboratory Sessions

The commonest activity was that some material (a conversation, a dialogue, a monologue etc.) was recorded for the students, and, then, some printed questions relating to the recorded material were provided. The students took all their time to look for the answer through a tiring winding and rewinding of the tape, then, wrote it. So often and in order to motivate the students, the material under probing was a song.

c. Assessment

Part of the final assessment of oral expression was the reports given to each student separately or to groups of students. The topics of these reports were chosen by either the students themselves or the lecturer. The student or the group of students briefed their classmates on their topic, and a discussion followed. Some lecturers would ask for a written version of the report to be assessed. However, the commonest and main way of assessing oral expression was by a very brief and private 'chat' or a 'tête-à-tête' with each student on either a general topic with prior preparation or on any of the texts or the reports dealt with in the classroom. Concerning listening comprehension, it was tested in the laboratory and in exactly the same way as running a regular laboratory session. While some lecturers would be content with the assessment of mainly oral expression, few of them would really have both tests and gave as a final mark the average of both.

VI.2.1.2.2 Present

In order to find out about how oral expression and listening comprehension are thought nowadays at the Department of English, three sessions of oral expression and listening comprehension, one of each of the three years, are videotaped (DVD's 6 and 7). Furthermore, a questionnaire is given to 27 teachers, who have taught oral expression and listening comprehension for one year at least, in order to have an idea on how oral expression and listening comprehension are and have been taught as well as to find out about their attitudes to some variables in the conception, implementation, and assessment of the oral skills.

i. Videotapes

a. First Year

- Classroom Session

This is the sequence of the main events of the first year classroom session (DVD 6 1:59:20 till the end):

The time is Thursday morning; it is much less noisy in the corridor of the Letters Building than it is in the rest of the days at this time. The teacher is an inexperienced supply teacher (vacataire).

- Students take their copybooks and pencils; no roll call by the teacher so the group of students is reduced to around 50 per cent. (1:59:20)
- A student gives back the Arabic newspaper Al-Khabar to her classmate. Reading in English does not seem to be one of the primary concerns for some students. (1:59:23)
- The teacher reads the topic to be dealt with, and the students write down. It is a text with illustrations and exercises about the parts of the face. (2:00:50)
- The teacher asks the first student to read from a provided sheet of paper calling her by her first name. (V6 2:00:27)

- The teacher passes on the sheet of paper to the second student, and so on for the rest of the students while correcting the reading errors each time. (2:01:54)
- A student makes awkward junctures between words reading a word like 'eye shadow' as 'eyes hadow'. The student is corrected by the teacher. However, the teacher fails to correct silencing the plural morpheme /s/ or /z/ by the same student. (2:11:21)
- The teacher starts dictating the questions to be answered in a written form. (2:16:12)
- The teacher helps some students by checking their writing and spelling out some words for them. (2:20:10)
- The teacher gives time to the students to think of the questions and discuss them in pairs. The language used for discussion (code switching between Dialectal Arabic and French) is not at all watched by the teacher. (2:26:46)
- The teacher checks the answers of the students by moving between the rows. (2:31:07)
- The teacher starts asking the students for the answers. (2:35:42)
- The teacher asks for an example of a word containing an interdental. (2:35:44)
- Most students pronounce the word 'cheeks' with a short /ɪ/, as if it were the word 'chick', and the teacher corrects pronouncing the word with the long vowel. (2:40:00)
- A student wonders how the word 'lifting' is called in English, probably thinking that it is of a French origin. (2:40:25)
- The teacher gives homework to the students to prepare for the following week. (2:43:50)

At the end of the lecture, the author of this thesis asked the teacher for a copy of the two pages dealt with in the session and the teacher was kind enough to provide one. Within one of the two pages, the expression 'a person who doesn't like their nose' bore a line under 'their' with a question mark. The teacher seemed to think that there was

a problem of agreement and did not seem to be aware of the anti-sexist tendency in modern English usage.

The author of this thesis asked the teacher about the reason why the same copy of the text was passed on to the students to read instead of giving each one a copy of their own, and the answer was that the administration was unwilling to make copies for students each time there is a need for that.

- Articulation

The teacher, just average in matter of articulation and fluency, made 26 instances of errors and the students made 47 instances most of which were not corrected by the teacher. These counts are made only after one listening and do not take into consideration the uncountable stopping of some fricatives such as /ð/ and /θ/ and substituting them with /d/ and /θ/ or the substitution of the English retroflex /r/ with the Arabic trill /ɾ/. It also does not take into consideration the numerous strengthening of the weak form words.

- Comments

All in all, the course objective of this session seems to be twofold: It is intellectual as it is a text study about the parts of the face; it is linguistic, phonetic to be precise, because one of the topics dealt with is some organs that are involved in speech. Using reading as an activity allows all students to take part in a systematic way. There is concern with the formal aspect of language as the teacher's role, besides directing the course, is explaining and correcting errors. How much efficient is this correction of the errors to the improvement of the students' phonological interlanguage may be open to debate.

b. Second Year

- Classroom Session

(DVD 6 1:00:59 till 1:59:20)

The time is Wednesday morning and there is a lot of noise in the corridor. Unlike the human ear, the camera is not selective, and, so, it is rather difficult to hear and understand a lot of what is said by the teacher and the students when viewing the DVD afterwards.

- The teacher, very fluent and articulate, greets the students and asks them how they are.

(1:00:59)

- There is no roll call so there are many students who are absent.

- The teacher introduces the author of this thesis to the students (1:01:11)

- The teacher sits on the desk in a relaxed way with a smiling face. This decreases the distance between the teacher and the students. (1:01:46)

- Some students are curious to know the reason for the camera. (1:01:56)

- They are reassured by the author of this thesis. (1:01:54)

- It is a session that is devoted to discussing a topic which is: Should women have absolute rights? (1:03:53)

- The teacher divides the classroom into three rows: the two extreme positions on the right and on the left and the moderate one in the middle. It is a clever approach because each student is given a sense of belonging to a group and so gains more confidence in oneself (1:05:20)

- Only two students are moderate. (01:06:38)

- There is nearly no turn taking in the discussion, and the students talk all together, which worsens the problem of recording. (1:07:28)

- Wrong translation of an Arabic saying to English by a student who says 'under every great man there is a woman!!!!' instead of 'Behind every great man there is a woman'. This stirs laughter as some students seem to have realized the sexual connotation of the erroneous dictum. (1:12:42)
- A student laughingly mimicking her classmate's attempt at expressing herself with gestures when linguistic knowledge fails her. (1:15:07)
- Correction of the third person singular morpheme /s/ by the teacher in 'she become' uttered by one of the students. (01:21:58)
- The most complex instance of code switching occurs 'Muhammad fils of Fulan' instead of 'Muhammad son of x'. Besides the lexical code switching, the proper name 'Muhammad' is uttered following the Arabic phonetic and phonological pattern instead of /mə'hæmɪd/. (1:24:17)
- The student persists in using the French word 'fils' instead of the English word 'son' and is corrected by many students. (01:25:14)
- The teacher uses an elided and weakened 'because' pronouncing it as /kəz/ many times. (01:26:08)
- An utterly deliberate code switch with a word for word translation from Standard Arabic by a student saying 'go! You are taliqa!' students burst out laughing, including the one saying it, because, as it seems, of the unusual code switch. The student, in fact, transfers an erroneous Arabic agreement to English since the adjective in Arabic should have been masculine 'taliq' and not 'taliqa'. (1:42:47)
- The same code switch by the same student but seriously this time and making no mistake in Arabic saying 'go! You are taliq!' (1:43:17)

- The student unable to express her ideas in English simply asks the teacher to speak in Arabic with an ironic smile that indicates that she is aware that code switching is normally not tolerated. (1:43:23)
- The student uses a supposedly Apostolic saying, pronouncing it utterly in Arabic: 'annissau naaqisatu aqlin wa din' (Women lack spirit and faith). (1:44:18)
- The student says again that she cannot express herself in English, and she would rather talk in Arabic, and the teacher allows her this time. (1:44:39)
- The student explains why she cannot express her ideas in English using an Arabic substandard variety and, then, translates that into English. (1:44:42)
- A student teases the author of this thesis by asking whether he knows anything at all about 'our religion', and many students burst out laughing. (1 45:00)
- As the discussion evolves there are more and more religious terms used in Arabic such as 'Hadj' for 'pilgrimage'. (1:48:53)
- Another code switch by a student but to an intermediate variety between dialectal Arabic and Standard Arabic saying 'el mushkil fina mashi falmudjtamaa' for 'the problem lies in us not in society'. (1:55:39)
- A student asks another linguistically hybrid question 'Kifah ngul financier?' in order to find the word 'financial' in English. (1:56:42)

- Articulation

The teacher, very fluent and very articulate, made only three instances of errors, and the students made 31 instances.

- Comments

The course objective of this session seems to be more intellectual than anything else. Debating as general a topic as women's lib is quite an open activity especially if the teacher does not set the limits of the discussion. It is one of those topics that, though

stimulating, triggers a random and chaotic participation of the students. It is also a topic that plays on the students' religious sensitivity and opens the way to a lot of code switching to Arabic. The formal aspect of language, especially pronunciation, is mostly discarded.

c. Third Year

- Classroom Session

(DVD 6 00:00:17 till 1:00:59)

The time is Wednesday afternoon, and it is less noisy out in the corridor, but a teacher next door is teaching with a very high voice. It is really distracting, but the video taped teacher and students seem to have been used to it. The teacher is an experienced 'chargé de cours', and the session consists of an oral presentation of an assignment on nuclear armament by two students.

- The assigned two students arrive. (00:00:20)
- The teacher calls the roll, and the classroom is full of students. (00:00:40)
- The teacher reminds the students of the remaining assignments and the students who are concerned with them. (00:01:58)
- The two students move forward; the teacher welcomes them and states that their task is to make their topic challenging. (00:04:10)
- The students write the content of the assignment on the blackboard, and most students are ready to take notes. (00:04:19)
- The teacher orally corrects the spelling of a word on the blackboard. The student finds difficulty noting the right spelling despite the correct pronunciation of the teacher. Finally, the teacher has to orally spell the whole word out. (00:05:18)
- The teacher asks about the sources of information or the bibliography and requests that the students write them on the blackboard. (00:06:08)

- The students begin addressing their classmates (00:07:54)
- The first student reads from some notes on the desk and sometimes uses the blackboard to illustrate and explain. The topic is highly technical and stuffed with armament terms. (00:09:13)
- First correction by the teacher: the word 'renewable' is pronounced without the schwa /rɪ'nju:bl/, and the teacher corrects the pronunciation twice as /rɪ'nju:əbl/; the student persists in his pronunciation. (00:10:08)
- Another correction by the teacher: the word 'uranium' pronounced by the student with the French /a/ instead of the diphthong /eɪ/ and with the French vowel /ɔ/ instead of the schwa as the centre of the second syllable. (00:10:49)
- The teacher re-corrects the pronunciation of the word 'uranium'. (00:11:04)
- Fourth correction of the word 'uranium'; the student just ignores it. (00:11:07)
- Fifth correction of the word 'uranium'; the student correctly pronounces it this time. (00:11:19)
- The teacher asks the first student to write the figures on the board. (00:12:05)
- One of the students asks about the period that is left before oil reserves disappear. (00:13:40)
- The teacher comments on the student's illustration on the board saying, 'This is physics!' (00:15:24)
- The teacher corrects once again the spelling on the blackboard. (00:16:39)
- Miscorrections of the first student by the teacher. The word 'atomic' is pronounced by the student /a'tomɪk/ with French vowels but accurately stressing the second syllable, and the teacher corrects it as /'ætəmɪk/ strengthening and stressing the first syllable instead of the second one. (00:16:58)

- Sixth correction of the word 'uranium' by the teacher. Noise of the teacher next door increases even more. (00:17:26)
- Second student starts addressing the class. He is more reading than explaining and is greatly influenced by the American accent. (00:18:47)
- The second student is again miscorrected by the teacher when he pronounces the word 'atomic', and he pronounces the word following the teacher's version. (00:19:28)
- The teacher corrects the pronunciation of the proper noun 'Chicago'; the second student fails to imitate the teacher in an accurate way. This stirs laughter among the class. (00:21:24)
- The teacher corrects the pronunciation of the word 'tons' pronounced by the student as /təʊnz/. Yet, when the teacher pronounces it correctly as /tʌnz/, the student fails to get the right articulation and goes on pronouncing it as /tɒnz/. (00:22:32)
- One student asks about the number of dead people in Nagasaki nuclear bombing. (00:24:20)
- The teacher corrects a grammatical error in the use of tense. The student uses the simple present 'hold' instead of the simple past 'held'. (00:26:50)
- One student has noted down on her notebook that the pronunciation of the word 'atomic' is /'ætəmɪk/, with stress on the first syllable, instead of /ə'tɒmɪk/. (00:29:06)
- End of the assignment presentation and the teacher thanks both students. (00:39:10)
- Teacher sums up the topic and notes once again that it is highly technical. (00:39:18)
- The second student goes back and provides the classmates with a list of countries owning nuclear armament (00:40:04)
- Teacher confirms that Israel does possess nuclear weapons. (00:40:07)
- Teacher raises the problem of who has the right to own atomic weapons and who has not. Then, he asks a question to the students 'Why is Iran a problem?' Not receiving

- any answer, he changes the Wh question to a series of yes no questions. Many students do not feel concerned, and there is a shy 'no' answer by a group of students to the yes no question 'is it legitimate?' (00:42:28)
- A student answers forcefully that it is not legitimate, and the teacher asks 'why?' (00:44:50)
 - He asks 'if Iran has nuclear weapons, won't it use them against Israel?' (00:44:53)
 - A student says that 'if it's Israel ... it's good'. (00:45:01)
 - The second assigned student tries to answer the question. (00:45:49)
 - The teacher uses the colloquial 'ya' meaning 'yes' many times. (00:48:48)
 - The persistent ringing of a mobile (00:49:45)
 - The teacher correcting the pronunciation of the word 'strategic' uttered by one student (00:52:16)
 - One student asks about Pakistan and why it was not included among the nuclear nations. (00:54:31)
 - The teacher concludes that the world situation in matter of nuclear armament creates some sort of balance, but, unfortunately, the Third World countries are the underdog. He, then, thanks the students signalling the end of the lecture. (00:59:59)

- Articulation

The first assigned student made 29 errors and the second made 30 errors and the rest of the students made 4. The latter number is not because the students were very articulate, but simply because their contribution amounted to only some 2%! The teacher, very articulate and very fluent, made only three errors despite his huge contribution to the discussion of the topic (around 98%).

- Comments

The objective of this session seems to be utterly intellectual, hoping that the intellectual input will implicitly generate the linguistic one. A report is an activity that is the least interactive, as quite a significant part of the time is devoted to the reporting students. A further consequence is that the students are exposed to a lot of linguistically deficient input by the two reporting students. Although, there are many corrections of the form by the teacher, it seems to be thought secondary by the students, and they seem to be more interested in the faith of humanity and the threat that some nations pose on the world's destiny than on how such or such a word is actually pronounced.

ii. Questionnaire

The questionnaire consists of many questions targeting the ways of conceiving, implementing, and assessing a course of oral expression and listening comprehension within which is the pronunciation skill (appendix 9).

a. Population

There are 28 teachers with varying teaching experience. There are 4 exceeding 30 years of experience and there are 3 who have taught for only 1 year. 17 of them have had an experience of more than 15 years. There are 2 'maîtres de conférence', 13 'chargés de cours', 4 'titulaires', and 9 'vacataires'. As for their experience in teaching oral expression and listening comprehension, it ranges between 25 years and 1 year. 11 of the teachers have taught this module for more than 7 years. There is 1 teacher who taught the same level of students for 19 years and another one for 16 years.

b. Answers

The elements of each of the following answers are classified in descending order from the greatest percentage to the smallest one. The most significant percentages are bolded.

- Course Objectives

Course objective	Overall comprehension	Accent free English	Intelligible English	Accurate comprehension
Number of teachers	17	12	12	7
Percentage	60.71	42.86	42.86	25

Table 159: Answers to the Question about the Course Objectives

The majority has answered "overall comprehension" (60.71 per cent); "accent free English" as an answer is only by 42.86%. This shows that the general tendency is towards a content based course.

- Language Variety Used and Targeted (Standard or Substandard)

Language variety	Standard	Mixture	Sub-standard
Number of teachers	17	10	0
Percentage	60.71	35.71	0

Table 160: Answers to the Question about the Language Variety Used (Standard or Substandard)

The majority (60.71) has answered "Standard" and a good percentage (35.71) has answered "a mixture of both".

- Reasons for Selecting a Given Variety (Standard or Substandard)

Those who chose the standard form justified their choice by "a matter of convention" (46%) and by "easier and more practical to teach and learn" (another 46%). Some of those who have answered a mixture of both have justified their answers by "students need to know both" (46%). One of the latter justified choosing a mixture by stating that "I cannot help code switching between the two."

- Language Variety Used and Targeted (British or American)

Language variety	British English	Mixture	American English
Number of teachers	19	9	0
Percentage	67.86	32.14	0

Table 161: Answers to the Question about the Language Variety Used (British or American)

The language variety used by the majority (67.86) is "British English", but a good percentage (32.14) is a mixture of both.

- Reasons for Selecting a Given Variety (British or American)

Most of those who have answered "British English" have justified their answers by "the language of their training and that of the available teaching material"; one of those who have opted for "a mixture" has found that "the impact of American outside is more important".

- Teaching Materials

Teaching Material	Both	Authentic	Non authentic
Number of teachers	14	13	1
Percentage	50	46.43	3.57

Table 162: Answers to the Question about the Type of Teaching Materials Used

There are 50% who have answered that they use both authentic and non-authentic material and 46.43% have answered that they use authentic material.

- Percentage Allocated to Authentic Material

To a question about the percentage allocated to authentic materials to those who mix between the two types, the answers vary between 30% and 90%.

- Activities and Means in Classroom Sessions

Activity	Number	Percentage
Debates	26	92.86
Role Play	18	64.29
Games	17	60.71
Problem Solving	13	46.43
Reports	13	46.43
Reading	12	42.86
Story Telling	11	39.29
Text Study	7	25.00
Dictation	7	25.00
Pictures	5	17.86
Verse and Rhyme	3	10.71

Table 163: Answers to the Question about Classroom Activities

The majority (92.86) use debates and discussions as an activity in the classroom. This is followed by role play activities and games. There seems to be a decline in the use of reports and text studies compared to the use of these two activities in the past. They seem to have become difficult to manage given the ever increasing number of students per group and the deteriorating teaching means.

- Activities and Means in Laboratory Sessions

Activity	Videos	Conversations	Radio programmes	Songs	Drills
Number of teachers	22	16	13	10	8
Percentage	78.57	57.14	46.43	35.71	28.57

Table 164: Answers to the Question about Laboratory Session Activities

The majority which is 78.57% uses videos in the laboratory session, and this is a means that was introduced to the laboratory of the department only recently because of so many cabins becoming utterly defective. This may be the reason also for the decline of the use of songs and drills that were very commonly used when the laboratories were in order.

- Number of Times the Material is listened to Before Answering Questions

Number of Times	Twice	Many times	Thrice	Once
Number of teachers	14	13	2	1
Percentage	50	46.43	7.14	3.57

Table 165: Answers to the Question about the Number of Times a Material is Listened to

Half of the teachers allow the students to listen twice, and nearly half of them allow them to listen many times or more than three times. Some teachers have given more than one answer writing that it all depends on the level of the students. Only one teacher makes the students listen only once.

- Objectives of the Questions Asked

Objective	Main Facts	Minute Details	Gist
Number of teachers	20	11	6
Percentage	71.43	39.29	21.43

Table 166: Answers to the Question about the Objectives of the Questions Asked

The majority (71.43%) seeks the students to grasp the main facts, a significant number (39.29%) wishes the students to remember the minute details, and only 21.43% aim at making the students remember and answer about the gist of the topic.

- The Approach to Teaching

Approach	Eclectic	Functional communicative	Structural	Situational	Notional
Number of teachers	15	12	2	1	0
Percentage	53.57	42.86	7.14	3.57	0

Table 167: Answers to the Question about the Approach to Teaching

53.57% of teachers have an eclectic approach, but a significant percentage (42.86%) has a communicative orientation in their approach to teaching this subject.

- Attitude to Errors

Attitude	So and So	Part of Learning	Obstacle to Learning
Number of teachers	16	8	3
Percentage	57.14	28.57	10.71

Table 168: Answers to the Question about the Attitude to Errors

The majority (57.14%) have answered that their attitude to errors depends on the nature of the errors themselves. A significant percentage (28.57) believes that errors are part of learning and should not be given importance, and only 3 teachers (10.71%) believe that they constitute an obstacle to learning and should be eradicated.

- What Errors to Correct

Error	Errors of Grammar	Errors of Articulation	Errors of Fact and logic
Number of teachers	24	23	9
Percentage	85.71	82.14	32.14

Table 169: Answers to the Question about What to Correct

Errors of grammar (85.71 per cent) and errors of articulation (82.14%) are the ones that need to be corrected by the majority of the teachers investigated.

- When to Correct

When to correct	Promptly	When Turn is Over	Feedback Session
Number of teachers	19	10	4
Percentage	67.86	35.71	14.29

Table 170: Answers to the Question about When to Correct

Most of the teachers (67.86%) are prompt in correcting the student, some (35.71%) wait for the student to finish speaking, and a minority of them (14.29%) organizes special feedback sessions in which the problem of errors is exclusively tackled.

- How to Correct

How to correct	Direct and explicit	Subtle and implicit
Number of teachers	22	6
Percentage	78.57	21.43

Table 171: Answers to the Question about How to Correct

The manner of the majority (78.57%) is direct and explicit and that of the minority (21.43%) is subtle and implicit.

- Use of IPA

Use of IPA	Yes	No
Number of teachers	19	7
Percentage	67.86	25.00

Table 172: Answers to the Question about the Use of IPA

The majority (67.86) uses the IPA as a support in oral expression and listening comprehension; only a minority does not use the international alphabet (25%).

- Percentage of pronunciation in the course: from 50% to 90%

- How to Test

Testing	Tête-à-tête	Written Using Roman Alphabet	Oral Drills	Reading	Dictation	Written Using Roman Alphabet and IPA	Written Using IPA
Number of teachers	22	7	5	4	2	1	0
Percentage	78.57	25	17.86	14.29	7.14	3.57	0

Table 173: Answers to the Question about How to Test

The majority of the teachers (78.57%) prefer a private "chat" or a "tête-à-tête" to assess the student's oral capacities.

- Belief of Teachers about their Own Accent

Accent	Near native	Foreign	Native
Number of teachers	15	11	2
Percentage	53.57	39.29	7.14

Table 174: Answers to the Question about the Teacher's Accent

15 teachers (53.57%) think that their accent in English is near native; 11 (39.29%) believe that their accent is foreign; and 2 take it for granted that their accent is utterly native.

- Interfering Languages on the Students' Pronunciation and Percentage

Interfering Language	Arabic Dialect	Standard French	English	Standard Arabic	Berber
Number of teachers	20	20	13	9	3
Percentage	71.43	71.43	46.43	32.14	10.71
Percentage of Interference	1 to 90%	3 to 75%	3 to 50%	0 to 90%	1 to 30%

Table 175: Answers to the Question about the Interfering Languages and Percentage of Interference

20 teachers think that one of the sources of interference is the dialectal form of Arabic with some of them raising the level of this interference to 90%. 20 teachers believe that Standard French also interferes reaching for some 75%. Only 13 teachers (46.43%) see that English interferes in the pronunciation of students.

- Examples of Interference

When asked to support their answers with examples, they provided many examples out of which are: The problem of the sound /t/ originates from Arabic, nasal pronunciation from Berber, /r/ from Standard Arabic, the pronunciation of /e/ for 'in', and pronouncing 'h' in 'hour' from English itself.

- Worst Score and Best Score

The best marks range between 17 out of 20 and 13 out of 20 with 11 teachers marking between 15 and 17 (39.28%). The worst marks range between 9 and 1 with 11 teachers giving marks between 7 and 9 (39.28%).

- Assessed Elements in Order of Importance: only 14 out of 28 (50%) have classified articulation within the first four positions.

- Theoretical and Practical Reference: Most of the teachers (17 teachers) use the teaching materials of the department (60.71%).

- Course Aspects and Percentage

Course Aspect	Speaking	Listening	Theory	Reading
Percentage	25 to 100	10 to 100	0 to 60	5 to 30

Table 176: Answers to the Question about the Percentage of Some Course Aspects

There is a tendency towards giving more importance to speaking over listening. The former starts at 25% at worst whereas the latter starts at only 10%. The one with the least of importance seems to be the reading aspect, which does not exceed 30% at best.

- Topics Discussed

Topic	social	General	scientific	literary	political	historical	linguistic
Number of teachers	22	21	10	7	6	2	2
Percentage	78.57	75	35.71	25	21.43	7.14	7.14

Table 177: Answers to the Question about the Topics Discussed during the Classroom Sessions

The social topic and the general one predominate with 78.57% and 75% percent respectively.

- Use of Arabic and French by the Teacher

Use	Yes	No
Number of teachers	17	9
Percentage	60.71	32.14

Table 178: Answers to the Question about the Teacher Code Switching to French and Arabic

17 out of 28 (60.71%) code switch to Arabic and French when addressing the students, while 9 (32.14%) do not.

- Reasons for Code Switching

8 out of the 17 teachers who code switch justified it by writing that it is, sometimes, the only way to be clear enough.

- Tolerance of French and Arabic by the Teacher

Tolerance	No	Yes
Number of teachers	16	10
Percentage	57.14	35.71

Table 179: Answers to the Question about the Teacher's Tolerance of Code Switching to French and Arabic

It is practically the reverse that happens when the teachers are asked about their tolerance of the students' code switching to French and Arabic. 16 teachers (57.14%) do not tolerate code switching.

-Reasons for not Tolerating Code Switching

To justify this attitude, one of them wrote, "I use Arabic or French but students are not allowed to use any other language but English!"

- Percentage of Reluctant Students to Participate

It is from 2% to 95% with 9 (32.14%) teachers writing a percentage that is above 50%.

- Reasons for Students' Reluctance to Participate

Why	Psychological Problems	Weak Linguistic Competence	Lack of knowledge	other
Number of teachers	21	20	7	5
Percentage	75.00	71.43	25.00	17.85

Table 180: Answers to the Question about the Reasons of the Students' Reluctance to Participate

There are 21 teachers (75%) who think that this reluctance is due to psychological problems. Nearly the same percentage (71.43) finds that a poor linguistic competence is behind this unwillingness to take part in discussions.

- Teacher's Part in the Lecture

The percentage of the part of the teacher in running the lecture is between 10% and 90% with 15 teachers (53.57%) answering that their share is between 50 % and 90%.

- Recording Students for Tutoring and Analysis

Student Recording	No	Yes
Number of teachers	18	9
Percentage	64.29	32.14

Table 181: Answers to the Question about Recording Students for Review, Analysis and Feedback

18 teachers, which amount to 64%, do not record students for the sake of tutoring them and analysing their performance weaknesses.

- Self-Recording for Improvement

Recording Students	No	Yes
Number of teachers	18	9
Percentage	64.29	32.14

Table 182: Answers to the Question about Teachers Recording themselves for Self Analysis and Improvement

16 teachers (64.29%) do not record themselves for self analysis and improvement.

- Students Mixing American and English

Mixing	Yes	No	Not sure
Number of teachers	19	4	3
Percentage	67.86	14.29	10.71

Table 183: Answers to the Question about Students Mixing between American and English

19 teachers (67.86%) find that the students they teach mix between the two standard varieties; 4 teachers (14.29%) do not notice such a phenomenon, and 3 teachers (14.29%) are not so sure whether their students do or do not.

- Theoretical Input

Theoretical Input	Yes	No
Number of teachers	21	5
Percentage	75.00	17.86

Table 184: Answers to the Question about whether the Teachers Provide any Theoretical Input

21 teachers (75%) reinforce their course by some theoretical input, and 5 of them (17.86%) do not. The remaining two have simply not answered the question.

- Nature of Input

Nature of Input	American vs. British	conversational norms	Varieties/Registers	Connected Speech	IPA	Other
Number of teachers	13	13	10	9	7	2
Percentage	46.43	46.43	35.71	32.14	25.00	7.14

Table 185: Answers to the Question about what Sort of Theoretical Input is Fed to the Students

The majority (46.43) feeds the students with contrasting the American with the British one and with some theory about English conversational norms.

- Classroom and Laboratory Percentage in the Course

The time allocated to the classroom sessions is between 10% and 95%, with 10 teachers (35.71%) allocating more than 50%. As for the laboratory sessions, the time allocated is between 5% and 80%, with only two teachers allocating more than 50%.

- Course Sequencing or Grading Criteria

Course Sequencing	Relevance	Easiness and Difficulty	The Official Syllabus	Chronological Order
Number of teachers	15	12	10	1
Percentage	53.57	42.86	35.71	3.57

Table 186: Answers to the Question about the Course Sequencing or Grading Criteria

Relevance is the most important criterion for it is selected by 15 teachers (53.57%) followed by the criterion of easiness vs. difficulty chosen by 12 teachers (42.86%). What may be noticed is that only 10 teachers out of 28 (35.71%) take the official syllabus into account.

-Abiding by the Official Syllabus

Abiding	partly	not at all	entirely
Number of teachers	22	3	1
Percentage	78.57	10.71	3.57

Table 187: Answers to the Question about whether the Teachers Abide by the Official Syllabus

The vast majority, which is 22 teachers (78.57%), abides only partly by the official syllabus for teaching oral expression and listening comprehension. A small minority of 3 teachers (10.71%) does not abide at all by it, and only one teacher (3.57%) abides entirely and exclusively by this syllabus

- Main Problems Encountered

Problems Relating to Students	Large classes, reluctance to participate, lack of motivation, weak linguistic competence, shyness, passivity, lack of knowledge, lack of confidence, poor sense of imitation, use of French and Arabic, more speaking than listening, poor background, persistence in making errors despite correction.
Problems Relating to Materials and means	Scarcity of means, defective and deteriorating laboratories, lack of exposure to the sociolcultural context by students and teachers alike.
Problems Relating to the teaching Setting:	Noisy corridors, not enough time.
Problems Relating to Colleagues:	Lax attitude, grade inflating, overemphasis on British English, topics dealt with not motivating, lack of cooperation and coordination with each other, subjective assessment.
Problems Relating to the Administration:	Underestimating the module.

Table 188: Answers to the Question about the Main Problems Encountered by Teachers in their Teaching

c. Summary and Comments

Judging by the answers provided by the teachers, the general tendency is as follows:

- The main objective of the course is overall comprehension of English which supposes an emphasis on receptive skills rather on productive ones. Nonetheless, for some teachers speaking seems to be important in the course.
- The approach to teaching oral expression and listening comprehension is mainly eclectic with a communicative orientation.
- The language variety used and targeted is Standard British English while differentiating between this variety and the American Standard one through some sort of theoretical input. This does not prevent, in most cases, the students mixing the two varieties.
- The material used is mostly authentic.
- The mostly preferred classroom activity is debates of social and general topics, which takes more than 50% of the course allocated time.
- The laboratory session is devoted mainly to watching videos.
- The attitude of teachers to errors made by students is that some are harmful and must be eradicated, and some are not so and may be discarded. The ones that need to be corrected are mostly errors of grammar and articulation. They are corrected promptly, directly, and explicitly, probably by using the IPA.
- Grading the teaching material is on a relevance basis; the practical references are those available at the department; and there is only a partial abidance by the official syllable.
- The majority of the questioned teachers believe that their English is near native; they code switch to other languages but do not tolerate code switching from their students.
- The majority believes that students are reluctant to participate in the discussions, due to psychological and linguistic handicaps, which compels them to participate by more than 50% in these discussions.

- The majority believes that the linguistic systems that mostly interfere on the performance of their students are Dialectal Arabic and Standard French in order of importance.
- The mostly used means of assessment for the majority is a private chat or a tête-à-tête, and that yields rather generous marks, as the worst mark is 7 out of 20 and the best one is 17 out of 20 for a significant number of teachers.
- In matter of feedback, most of the teachers do not record the students or record themselves as an efficient means of both teaching and self improvement.

This method of teaching oral expression and listening comprehension is rather exclusive and based on no clear conception of what the two crucial skills of oral expression and listening comprehension really entail. It is exclusive in the sense that the two skills are reduced to only one or two elements out of their many constituents by overstressing the intellectual and cultural sides. This is at the expense of the equally important sides which are the linguistic and the psychological ones. Indeed, speech is both form and substance, and it seems that the latter has had the lion's share at the expense of the former. Therefore, teaching listening and speaking requires a more inclusive method, which would take into account all the constituents of the two skills, while making the best of the available facilities and equipment.

VI.2.2 A Suggested Syllabus for Oral Expression and Listening Comprehension

Allen (1984:65) wrote:

Since language is highly complex and cannot be taught all at the same time, successful teaching requires that there should be a selection of material depending on the prior definition of objectives, proficiency level, and duration of course.

The best teacher of oral expression and listening comprehension, as two quite complex skills of an already complex phenomenon (second language acquisition),

cannot go, in the best working conditions and with utmost facilities and teaching aids, beyond a small contribution of about a fourth of what should be achieved. The rest lies so much on the student's personal efforts through daily listening, reading, and writing. However, this small contribution by the lecturer is crucial and constitutes a point of departure. A careful and organised planning of the course is part of that small contribution and paves the way for the student to reach a fair level in both listening and speaking. In order to do so, the student has to learn how to get well under control all the elements that make out an oral message. Those elements are of three types: linguistic, intellectual, and psychological.

VI.2.2.1 Linguistic Components

They include a set of phonological, morphological, syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic rules. They also include a certain amount of vocabulary and some stylistic features of the language taught. Such a division of the linguistic components is only theoretical. In practice, however, there may be some borderline areas. There may also be an interaction between the components. For instance, the voicing and the devoicing of the past regular morpheme 'ed' and its realisation as /t/, /d/, or /ɪd/ is a morphophonological rule which combines both morphology, i.e., how words are structured, and phonology, i.e., how sounds are combined. Some of the linguistic components are of a limited nature such as the phonological, the morphological, and the syntactic ones. Indeed, the inventory of sounds and their possible meaningful combinations (phonology), the possible structures and conversions of words, as well as the common linear order of words to make sentences are limited and rule governed. However, the lexical, semantic, and pragmatic possibilities are unlimited in any language, given the fact that linguistic creativity affects these areas more than others.

VI.2.2.1.1 Selection

All the forms and rules that are critical to a mastery of the oral performance ought to be taught and practised. The most important forms would be the phonetic and phonological ones, for those bear directly on the pronunciation aspect, which has been neglected enormously. Although these forms and rules are dealt with within the 'module' of phonetics and phonology, very few students really apply that knowledge in their oral performance. The co-relation between these two modules is seldom emphasized to correct a certain negative attitude of the students to think of the module of phonetics as solely a means to obtain a good mark in the examination. The right choice of the variety of English is crucial, since the very likely occupation of the students would require a formal use of English; it is either the British standard variety or the American one that ought to be chosen. One can opt for both of them in theory and favour one, for practical reasons, in implementation. A comparative theoretical input is necessary for the students because so many of them tend to mix both varieties. For example, the letter 'r' when pre-consonantal and final in a word is, sometimes, pronounced (an American feature), and, sometimes, not (a British one), by the same students. Some students also tend to confuse the standard variety with the regional ones. An instance of such a confusion is the realisation of the voiceless alveolar stop /t/ as the voiceless glottal stop /ʔ/ when final in monosyllabic words. Such a theoretical input is crucial for the students to develop the ability to code switch in listening comprehension.

VI.2.2.1.2 Grading

The usual grading of teaching material is from easiest to most difficult or most relevant to least relevant. However, such grading has always run into the subjective problem of finding a standard norm of easiness and difficulty or relevance and irrelevance. An alternative approach would be to focus more on the components that are

limited than on those that are limitless. Consequently, a component such as vocabulary ought to be of the least importance given the fact that a great amount of it is only mastered through personal reading and listening. What is of primary importance are the phonological and phonetic rules notably the segmental ones and the mechanisms of connected speech. Indeed, what has been mostly neglected, as the error analysis undertaken in this study has shown, is the pronunciation aspect. A failure to master the strong and weak forms of syllables and functional words makes the pronunciation of English uneconomical and highly arrhythmic. This failure also influences the listening comprehension because when the students listen, they expect the same uneconomical and highly arrhythmic pronunciation patterns. Prior to the university and throughout the different stages of their learning of English, most students have got used to a method of teaching that gives primary importance to either syntax or language functions. As a result, a very poor pronunciation is fossilised, and it is not an easy task for the teacher to remedy to such a fossilisation.

VI.2.2.1.3 Implementation

The classroom session would be mainly used for theoretical aspect. Besides the explanation of the rules, there would be exercises written on the blackboard, and in which all students take part. An instance of such an exercise would be the narrow transcription of a text to which the students have already listened in the laboratory session. This implies that a mastery of the IPA is crucial for both the students and the lecturer. The visual representation of the text's pronunciation and of the students' mistakes is more permanent and to which reference is much easier than a recording and some oral comments on pronunciation errors made by the lecturer. The laboratory sessions would be used, for instance, to play out through the room speaker or to show

on a screen a previously recorded performance of the students while the lecturer comments on their errors of pronunciation and their strategies in oral expression.

VI.2.2.1.4 Assessment

Assessing the linguistic component would be to assess all the sub-elements, the segments, the aspects of connected speech, the syntax, the stylistic features, the use of stress and intonation, and, finally, vocabulary, in this order of importance. It is from the most limited and the most teachable ones to the least limited and the least teachable ones. A mastery of intonation, for instance, relies so much more on a sense of imitation than on a theoretical input. Assessing the students by using the IPA is more objective and with utmost feedback to both the students and the lecturer. For example, dictating a text to the students is assessing their listening comprehension; asking them to transcribe that text exactly as they would read it is assessing their oral performance. A transcribed record of their performance not only makes the students understand the reasons behind their marking, but also helps them in a more practical way to learn from their mistakes. Such a 'written' assessment of aural performance ought, of course to be supported by some oral ones because some students tend to be better at speaking than transcribing their speech. Furthermore, an element like intonation cannot appear so obviously on a transcript. Audiotaping or videotaping such a kind of assessment would be even more objective and more beneficial. Oral performance, if audio taped or videotaped, helps a lot more in the evaluation and in the correction session when the students listen to themselves. It also allows the lecturer to take all the formal elements into consideration. Five minutes 'chatting' or a 'tête-à-tête' with each student, as the students have so often been assessed and as the questionnaire has revealed above, can only lead to an impressionistic sanctioning with very little feedback to the student.

VI.2.2.2 Intellectual Components

They involve the ability to code switch between different English registers, an ability to relate the content of a given material to background information and knowledge, a capacity of grasping, analysing, and digesting an input, and a powerful memory, both short term and long term. Students armed with these intellectual components would understand orally and perform in a much better way than those with little or no background information, with a weak capacity of analysis, and a poor memory, especially the short term one.

The intellectual components are not easy to get under control because they constitute an unlimited aspect. However, the lecturer can help create situations in his teaching, which would help develop such components.

VI.2.2.2.1 Selection

Introducing the students to different varieties and different registers with some theoretical input would help the students to code switch in listening. This means they become aware not only of the difference in content but also the difference in form (dialect, standard, etc.). It also helps feed them with a fair amount of cultural input. The selection of up to date topics in English used in authentic situations helps in a much better way, than what is commonly done, to develop the student's conception of this language and the culture it vehicles. By authentic situations is not meant the 'pseudo-functional' and the 'pseudo-situational' English that has prevailed in English classes during the seventies, the eighties, and even the nineties and two thousands. This approach which consist of introducing the students to some neatly recorded material with an artificially slow speed and with over articulation by some actors in a soundproof studio. This kind of material can be of little use to the students and merely contributes to creating in their minds a wrong image of not only the language but also the culture.

What is meant by authentic situations is, for instance, a hot debate in the British parliament. Such a context of use would introduce the students not only to a sample of the British political life but also makes them aware of a certain contrast in the performance of English by conservative MP's from the south and labour MP's from the northern regions.

VI.2.2.2.2 Assessment

Assessing the intellectual component would include an assessment of the student's memory of what is essential not of what is superfluous, i.e., his ability to quickly make a 'forest' out of some important 'trees'. If the students are trained to listening to a material only once before answering a set of general intelligent questions, they will develop the ability to quickly work out the gist of a message and not to wander in details. Therefore, the nature of the listening task and the kind of questions asked determine to a far extent the type of intellectual and mental faculties assessed. In the oral expression test, what can be assessed is, of course, the organisation of the student's thought, his/her reasoning line, the degree of its explicitness and conciseness, and the information output.

VI.2.2.3 Psychological Components

They comprise a certain degree of self-confidence and a certain control of one's emotions while performing in both skills. They are the most difficult to control for both the learner and the lecturer. The lecturer needs for this purpose to be more of a psychologist. The manner of approaching the students, by decreasing the distance between the teacher and the students by showing concern to all what they say and do, helps a great deal in breaking the psychic wall of shyness and lack of confidence that some students build around them. It is crucial for the teacher to know all his students from the start by devising an appropriate information sheet. It is also crucial that the

teacher calls all the students by their names (preferably their first ones) because doing it for only some of them will contribute to the isolation of the rest. It is equally important that the students get conscious of their psychic weaknesses. Video taping and audio taping the students while performing would make some of them discover how shy, nervous, and gesticulating they can be in front of an audience and would stimulate them to get control of themselves. Furthermore, if their marks bear this deficiency, and if they are sanctioned, it would help them a great deal in perceiving the importance of getting rid of such handicaps in listening comprehension and oral expression.

Conclusion

Both the principles and the reality of teaching oral expression and listening comprehension need many adjustments in order to be more efficient. A content oriented and a student centred approach needs to be replaced by a more formal one that would emphasize on what is limited and teachable and on correcting some wrong assumptions and hypotheses that most students have about the English oral language with its various aspects.

In both listening and speaking, if any of the linguistic components, the intellectual components, or the psychological components is not controlled the message is distorted. Therefore, a course in oral expression and listening comprehension would have to achieve the objective of making the students control the three sets of components. With the exception of vocabulary and some suprasegmental phonetic rules such as intonation, the linguistic components can be taught, and it is quite possible for the students to reach a fair level of achievements in that aspect. However, the lecturer can only advise and help to create situations in which the intellectual and the psychological sets of components can be developed. Some students, of course, would start from scratch and have to make more efforts than some others who would just build

on a fairly good background. An objective and useful evaluation of the student's performance would also have to take these three sets into consideration and not just to focus on the intellectual one, as it has more than often been the case. The three sets of components should bear upon all the different stages of the course design namely selection, grading, implementation, and assessment. Since the pronunciation of English is not so rule governed and its spelling is not as phonetic as that of French and Arabic, for most of the core lexicon, an intensive use of the IPA throughout all the stages of the syllabus is both inevitable and fruitful. The general approach to the syllabus would be eclectic, i.e., it would draw from the three main syllabi namely the functional syllabus, the notional syllabus, and the grammatical one. It is formal and grammatical when dealing with the linguistic components; it is functional and notional when reinforcing the intellectual components. The latter approach does not imply the kind of 'pseudo functional' approach that has been current in many parts of the world during the last four decades whereby some very artificial situations in both form and content are created in the classroom. Besides displaying artificiality in both forms and functions, this approach cannot be of much help with large classes, a phenomenon that will probably last for a while at the department of English.

CONCLUSION

CONCLUSION

There have been various approaches to some key notions in the field of language learning and teaching such as transfer, interference, error, idiosyncrasy etc. No matter what the approach has been, most of the results have converged to establishing a fact which is that these notions are all determinants of the intermediate system that is neither the first language nor the target one: interlanguage. This interlanguage is determined by many factors that are not all of a linguistic nature. In order to describe it, now matter what the language level of the learner is, both a contrastive analysis and an error analysis are needed. This description is necessary not only for theoretical purposes, as some linguists postulated in the heyday of Error Analysis, but equally well for pedagogical purposes.

Mastering the pronunciation of the English language as an important element in the oral and comprehension skills for the undergraduate students of English at the Department of Languages is not an easy task because of the nature of their intermediate system which, because of some persistent assumptions and learning strategies, becomes stable, systematic, and resistant to many external variables.

The undergraduate students approach a very irregular grapheme to phoneme correspondence in the core lexis of this language with many pre-established elements and patterns of pronunciation most of which do not originate from their mother tongue or from the closest linguistic system to their mother tongue: Standard Arabic. These patterns originate from English itself and, not least, from French, their second standard language after Standard Arabic. This is despite the fact that most of them have an average competence in French. The choice of this system is governed by an underlying belief that English is closer to it than to Arabic both spoken and written.

The resulting interlanguage is a complex set of elements and patterns drawing mainly from French and English as learners advance on the learning scale. This interlanguage is, in fact, not just an intermediate system between Arabic, be it dialectal or standard, and English but also between French and English. Any approach to teaching the sounds of English and the oral and comprehension skills would have to take into account this linguistic background and this complex situation, which, if not appropriately handled, may be an obstacle to good achievement instead of being a facilitating factor.

In order to understand this situation, teachers always need to be aware of the various sound inventories of these linguistic systems that interact in order to shape the phonological interlanguage of these undergraduates, which, in the long run, fossilises and becomes impermeable to many teaching and learning variables. Most of the teachers, having been once undergraduates with similar backgrounds and under similar conditions of learning, keep many of these pre-established elements and patterns until much later stages of their professional careers. In attempting to teach the target language sound system to the undergraduates, they inadvertently reinforce the pre-established sound elements and patterns in the minds of the learners through faulty teaching.

The approach to teaching pronunciation within oral expression and listening comprehension has to undergo major changes to remedy this situation. Focus on the knowledge dimension, with the belief that form will take care of itself, has to leave way to much more interest in direct and explicit instruction of the form. This instruction cannot solely be by teaching the segmental phonetics and phonology of English as an end. Making the learners aware of the sound elements and patterns of the target language would be one of the numerous means contributing to the same end. The learners need also to be aware of the complex pattern of interactions between the

various sound inventories and patterns of the linguistic systems that co-work to shape their interlanguage phonology, which, at the end of the day, seriously hinder them in their attempts at breaking through the system. Nonetheless, a realistic aim of any language training for both teachers and learners is always an interlanguage, but the shape of this interlanguage ought to be as closer as possible to the target norm.

A further and broader analysis of the undergraduates' phonological interlanguage could take into account the suprasegmental aspects such as rhythm, pitch, and intonation. Such a work would, perhaps, require more technical facilities such as a sound spectrogram. Another study could analyse the performance of the students while accounting for the three sets of linguistic, intellectual, and psychological components in the light of which a detailed syllabus could be devised. Researchers who are Tamazight Arabic bilinguals could make use of this combination to widen the scope of such a research work.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1

The IPA Story to Test the Proficiency of the First Group in French and Arabic

Le vent et le soleil se disputèrent, chacun assurant qu'il était le plus fort. Ils virent un voyageur qui s'avavançait enveloppé dans son manteau. Ils se mirent d'accord que celui qui arriverait le premier à faire ôter son manteau au voyageur serait considéré le plus fort. Alors, le vent se mit à souffler de toute sa force, mais plus il soufflait plus le voyageur serrait son manteau autour de lui. Et à la fin, le vent renonça à le lui faire ôter. Alors, le soleil commença à briller et au bout d'un moment, le voyageur, réchauffé, ôta son manteau. Ainsi, le vent dû reconnaître que le soleil était plus fort que lui.

حدث ذات يوم أن تنازعت الشمس والرياح، فادعت كل منهما القوة والفضل على

الأخرى. وفي خضم الخصام أقبل سائح متدثر بمعطف خشن. اتفقتا على أن التي تستطيع

منهما إجبار السائح على نزع معطفه تكون هي الأقوى. بعدها هبت الرياح بكل قوتها على

السائح ولكن كلما ازدادت شدة هبوبها كلما كان السائح يلتف في معطفه. وجاء دور الشمس

فأشرقت بأشعة حارة على السائح وعلى التو نزع معطفه. حينئذ اعترفت الرياح بأن الشمس

أقوى منها.

Appendix 2

The Word List for the Confirmation Test of the First Group

a. Intralingual Substitutions of Vowels

e for ə

fatherless (5)³² motherless (5) pitiless (6)

æ for ə

policeman (1) postman (7) fireman (8)

ɜ: for ə

certificate (13) perception (6) perfection (7)

ʌ for ə

success (4) submit (12) subsume (12)

ʊ for ə³³

pitiful (12) merciful (11) joyful (13)

ɔ: for ə

forget (9) forever (9) forbid (10)

ɑ: for ə

parenthesis (12) parental (12) parole (13)

əʊ for ə

envelope (v) (9) develop (7) Penelope (8)

eɪ for ə

intimate (12) accurate (12) ultimate (10)

ə for ɪ and ʊ for ɪ

woman (11) passage (3) message (8)

³² The number on the right and between parentheses is that of the students making the error (out of thirteen).

³³ In some dictionaries, there is no vowel before the final /l/. In this case, the error would be a case of vowel insertion.

	eɪ for ɪ	
foreign (12)	pilgrimage (8)	dosage (4)
	aɪ for ɪ	
miracle (1)	risen (5)	cited (5)
	ə for ɒ	
upon (8)	-	-
	a for ɒ	
body (5)	honour (9)	common (10)
	əʊ for ɒ	
knowledge (4)	-	-
	ɜ: for ʌ	
worry (9)	hurry (9)	judge (0)
	əʊ for ʌ	
nothing (1)	dove (8)	none (5)
	aʊ for ʌ	
country (4)	southern (12)	-
	ɪ for e	
telephone (12)	enter (4)	empire (10)
	i: for e	
sweat (12)	weapon (11)	pleasure (1)
	eɪ for e	
said (0)	-	-
	æ for eɪ	
danger (9)	strange (7)	arrange (12)

	i: for eɪ		
great (7)	steak (12)		-
	ɔ: for ɜ:		
world (3)	worst (5)		-
	ə for ɜ:		
prefer (2)			- -
	au for ɔ:		
brought (0)	sought (5)	thought (5)	
	əʊ for ɔ:		
abroad (10)	broad (10)	broadcasting (10)	
	ə for æ		
finance (11)	circumstance (9)		-
	eɪ for æ		
natural (1)			- -
	ɜ: for ɑ:		
heart (5)			- -
	ɪ for aɪ		
microbe (8)	psychic (7)	twilight (10)	
	u: for ʊ		
good (8)	childhood (9)	wood (10)	
	əʊ for aʊ		
allow (13)	bow (v) (12)		-
	eɪə for eə		
mayor (13)	prayer (4)		-

iə for eə

bear (11) pear (13) tear (v) (13)

b. Interlingual Substitutions of Vowels (French Interference)

a for ə

ability (4) paradise (7) accomplish (11)

y for ə

support (7) subjunctive (0) subversive (2)

ɔ̃ for ə

condemn (10) conclusion (12) control (8)

u for ə

outrageous (8) famous (4) courageous (13)

ẽ for ɪn

principle (11) incest (3) indian (0)

ẽ for ɪm

impose (0) impossible (0) impracticable (2)

æ̃ for ʌn

hundred (10) hunt (9) under (10)

u for ʌ

government (10) couple (0) nourish (11)

y for ʌ

cultivate (6) fluctuate (0) cult (1)

ɥ for ɪ

built (1) building (1) guilt (0)

ɔ̃ for ɒn

responsible (10) contact (8) -

ã for æm

example (10) lamp (4) sample (5)

ɥ for u:

suitable (5) - -

u for aʊ

outrageous (7) outdistance (8) outdate (1)

a for eə

compared (3) declared (5)

c. Crosslinguistic Substitutions of Vowels (French or English Interference)

ɒ/o for ʌ

another (10) other (7) brother (5)

ɒ/o for ə

official (13) welcome (10) freedom (3)

ɒ/o for əʊ

told (12) hold (9) old (6)

ɛ/e for eɪ

afraid (6) - -

d. Miscellaneous Substitutions of Vowels

əʊ for ɔ:

saw (7) law (6) claw (12)

u: for ɔ:

before (0) therefore (1)

e. Dialectal Substitutions of Vowels

ɪ for i:

speak (9) leave (2) sheet (6)

f. Dialectal Substitutions of Consonants

t̥ and t^s for t

haven't (7/2) beaten (8/12) yet (7/12)

d for ð

these (11) feather (10) rather (10)

ɪ for r

brother (1) brief (2) brilliant (2)

g. Interlingual Substitutions of Consonants (French Interference)

s for z

observe (8) transmission (11) translate (8)

z for s

base (8) disagree (11) cease (10)

ʃ for tʃ

French (7) children (1) choose (1)

ʃ for k

heartache (7) architecture (0) patriarch (5)

g for k
 second (5) secondary (2) secondly (3)

h. Crosslinguistic Substitutions of Consonants (French or English Interference)

ʒ for dʒ
 job (1) joke (2) page (2)
 l for ʎ
 build (8) well (8) feel (12)
 f for v
 A man of interest (10) A woman of ninety (10) -

p for p^h
 paper (13) prepare (10) -

k for k^h
 cake (12) - prepare (10)

i. Intralingual Substitutions of Consonants

d for t
 looked (9) ceased (12) washed (10)

θ for ð
 worthy (13) smooth (13) southern (12)

ʃ for ʒ
 invasion (7) - -

tʃ for k
 anarchy (0) heartache (4) archetype (1)

j. Miscellaneous Substitutions of Consonants

t for θ

three (2) thin (0) wealthy (1)

k. Intralingual Insertions of Consonants

b for ø

debt (7) bomb (12) womb (10)

h for ø

honor (12) heir (10) honest (11)

w for ø

writer (10) wrong (0) wrestle (5)

l for ø

half (9) would (1) talk (10)

l. Interlingual Insertions of Vowels (French Interference)

g for ø

listening (5) king (12) wrong (11)

m. Cluster Reduction

ʃ for stʃ and tʃ for stʃ

question (4) question (1)

n. Connected Speech

I think we have got to help him as soon as we can do that. (10)

Appendix 3

Transcript of Tape 1 of the First Group Recordings as a Sample

1.	<p>Teacher: So, Ladies and Gentlemen, who wishes ... to tell us ... what we have been listening to and summarizes it? ... Well, of course, when I say summarizes/a summary means just the main things, what is it about, the content ... First of all, what is this as a type of public speaking? And, second, what is the content ... of it? What is its content? ... Yes, Miss 1.</p>	wat	wɒt	æ for ɒ
		'spi:kɪŋg	'spi:kɪŋ	g for -
		'sʌkənd	'sekənd	ʌ for e
2.	<p>Miss 1: This type of ... public speech is a ... lecture. It is about the ... the urban and architectural growth of London.</p>	ɒv	əv	ɒ for ə
		spɪtʃ	spi:tʃ	ɪ for i:
		'lɒndən	'lʌndən	o for ʌ
3.	<p>Teacher: Good! Very good! Yes, it is, indeed, about the urban and architectural development of ... London. ... Now, what are the main divisions of this lecture? Now, the lecturer proposes</p>	wat	wɒt	æ for ɒ

	to divide his lectures, sorry, his lecture into ... three main parts. Now, who can tell me what these parts are? Yes, Miss 2.			
4.	Miss 2: I think the first part was an introduction, then the consequences, and then ... that's the parts I have kept in mind ... the introduction ... the consequences ...	wɒz	wəz	ɒ for ə
		ɪntrə'dʌkʃən	ɪntrə'dʌkʃən	ɒ for ə
		'kɒnsɪkwensəz	'kɒnsɪkwensɪz	ɔ̃ for ɒn ə for ɪ
5.	Teacher: Who can think of another division? Yes, Mr. 3.			
6.	Mr. 3: May be the communication.			
7.	Teacher: The Communication! What do you mean by communication?			
8.	Mr. 3: As internal communication in London or ...			
9.	Teacher: Yes, Miss 1 again.			
10.	Miss 1: I am not ... I am f... I... I don't know the first division; but ... may be he spoke first about a general ... general idea ... about the ... urban ... urban growth of London and then	dɒn	dəunt	ɒ for əʊ - for t
		nɒ	nəʊ	ɒ for əʊ
		'aɪdɪ	'aɪdɪə	ɪ for ɪə
		ɒf	əv	ɒ for ə and f for v

	he ... spoke about the ... the roads ... the roads...I mean the ... not the ... the buildings or at ... but the roads in London ... the ... that's all I remember.	rəʊds	rəʊdz	s for z
		'bɪldɪŋ	'bɪldɪŋ	clear l for dark l
		bʌt	bət	ʌ for ə
		'lɒndən	'lʌndən	o for ʌ
11.	Teacher: Right! Miss 4.			
	Miss 4: Yes, I ... I think ... that in the first part he speaks about ... of the growth the city in London.	ðæt	ðət	æ for ə
12.		ɒv	əv	ɒ for ə
13.	Teacher: That's the first part, what about the rest?			
14.	Miss 4: I haven't followed the ...	'fʊləʊd	'fɒləʊd	ʊ for ɒ
15.	Teacher: Mr. 5, is that right? You wanted to say something, didn't you?			
	Mr. 5: Yeah, I want to say that the lecturer want to... to speak first about the historical background and the development of London. It was divided into two parts: Roman camp and ... I think ... I don't know it but ... and the second part about the... the growth of ... development of ... I think ... development of London in	ænd	ən	æ for ə
		bʌt	bət	ʌ for ə
		'lɒdən	'lʌndən	ɔ̃ for ʌn
		dɪ'vaɪdəd	dɪ'vaɪdɪd	ə for ɪ
16.		dɪ'veləpment	dɪ'veləpment	o for ə stress
		tɪŋk	θɪŋk	t̥ for θ
		'prɪzənt	'prezənt	ɪ for e

	present time ... then the third part he left it in another lecture to give the ... the future ... the causes of the future development.			
17.	Teacher: Yes? Anybody else? Well, as a matter of fact ... the division is ... There are three parts: the first one is ... the history, the second one is the present, and the third one is the future. Right? That's what the lecturer ... suggests as division ... to his lecture... So, according to him how did London start? ... According to this lecturer how did it start? How this ... what ... what was the very beginning of London? Yes, Miss 2.	wat	wɒt	a for ɒ
18.	Miss 2: He first went to ... to the ... back to ... back to the history when ... when he mentioned the old empire. He spoke about ... when the first ... first comers had ... had built ... had make a kind	'menʃnəd	'menʃənd	- for ə ə for -
		'ɪmpaɪə	'empaɪə	ɪ for e
		bɪlt	bɪlt	clear l for dark l

	of architecture because he mentioned ... the oldest first empire he spoke about ... the first buildings that took place ... in London city.			
19.	Teacher: And what were these first buildings?			
20.	Miss 2: Tower, I think,			
21.	Teacher: The tower. Yes, Miss...?			
22.	6 : 6 .			
23.	Teacher: Right, Miss 6, Yes?			
24.	6: I think that London was divided into two cities. I think. And one of the ... the two cities ... are ... is built by the emperor ... I don't know.	ðæt ^s	ðæt	t ^s for t
		wɒz	wəz	ɒ for ə
		dɪ'vaɪdəd	dɪ'vaɪdɪd	ɪ for ə
		ɒf	əv	f for v and ɒ for ə
		bɪlt	bɪlt	ɪ for i and clear l for dark l
25.	Teacher: The emperor I don't know!!!			
26.	6 : Heu ...			
27.	Teacher: It was built by who? Who can remember? Who built the second city?	'sʌkənd	'sekənd	ʌ for e
28.	Two empire he said, I think, two empires.	'ɪmpaɪəz	'empaɪəz	ɪ for e
29.	Teacher: The			

	empire. Miss 7.			
30.	Miss 7: The first one is Roman Empire, and the second one I don't know.	'ɪmpaɪə	'empaɪə	ɪ for e
31.	Teacher: The Roman Empire built the city ... a whole empire built a city. Yes, Miss ... Sorry, Miss 8.			
32.	Miss 8: Yes, the R ...the Roman were the first to build the first cities.	ferst	fɜ:st	r for - e for ɜ:
		bɪld	bɪld	clear l for dark l
33.	Teacher: Right, so, the Romans. So, one ... one was built ... One city was built by ... one part of the city was built by the Romans and ... the other one.... Now, who can ... what was ... is the name ... what is the name of these two cities? One is the ...			
34.	Miss 2: I think one was called the Roman Camp.	wɒz	wəz	ɒ for ə
35.	Teacher: And the other one is....			
36.	Miss 2: West ... West ... Then something (totally incomprehensible uttered at the same time as the teacher.)			

37.	Teacher: Mr. 3. Sorry, Mr. 3, yes.			
38.	Mr. 3: May be Westminster ... West ... Westminster Abbey.	'æbɪ	'æbe	French e for ɪ
39.	Teacher: Yes, it is the Westminster Abbey. One is the Westminster Abbey and the other one is the Roman Camp. Now, these two were divided by what? Mr. 5.	kæmp	kāp	ã for æm
40.	Mr. 5: They were divided by the river, by a river.	dɪ'vaɪdəd	dɪ'vaɪdɪd	ə for ɪ
		'rɪvər	'rɪvə	r for -
41.	Teacher: Yes, the river; what's the name of the river? Yes, who wishes to say something?			
42.	Mr. 5: The Thames, I think.	θeɪmz	temz	eɪ for e
43.	Teacher: Right. Mr. 5, it is the Thames, ok? So, the thames is the river that separates the two cities; one built by the Roman ... the Romans, and the other one, I think, had already been there. Now, what was the link, according to him, between these two cities? ... in order to ... to link	'sepərəts	'sepərəɪts	ə for eɪ

	these two cities... what was done? Mr. 9.			
44.	Mr. 9: To link those two cities, the state should built a bridge.	ðɒz	ðəʊz	ɒ for əʊ
		bɪlt	bɪlt	clear l for dark l
45.	Teacher: Should built?			
46.	Mr. 9: Yes. ... A bridge to support the two cities.	sy'pɔ:t	sə'pɔ:t	y for ə
47.	Teacher: Mr. 5.			
48.	Mr. 5: I think, there was ... there had been a necessity to built a bridge.	wɒz	wəz	ɒ for ə
		bɪlt	bɪlt	clear l for dark l
		nɪ'sɪsəti	nɪ'sesəti	ɪ for e
49.	Teacher: Aha!			
50.	Mr. 5: Yes.			
51.	Teacher: Now, why ... why did the river ... this Thames river grow important ... according to him? Yes, Miss 2.			
52.	Miss 2: I think it ... I think because it was main way of communicating between the two camps.	wɒz	wəz	ɒ for ə
		ɒf	əv	f for v and ɒ
		bɪ'twɪn	bɪ'twi:n	for ə ɪ for i:
53.	Teacher: Just because of that? ... Who wanted to say something else? ... Yes, Mr.			

	10.			
54.	Mr. 10: Because it's the only way ... that link the two ... two camps ... and ... it's also the ... the only way which links the two camps with ... other city	'ɒnlɪ	'əʊnlɪ	ɒ for əʊ
		ðæt	ðæt	æ for ə
		'ɒlsɒ	'ɔ:lseu	ɒ for ɔ: and ɒ for əʊ
		'ɒðə	'ʌðə	ɒ for ʌ
55.	Teacher: Anything else? ... Yes, Miss 11.			
56.	Miss 11: May be because of the water supply.	ɒv	əv	ɒ for ə
57.	Teacher: Because of the water supply. Anybody else? Mr. 5.	'enɪbədɪ	'enɪbədɪ	ə for ɒ
58.	Mr. 5: And also the main link to the citizens to other continents, I think. To York, and ...	'ɒlsɒ	'ɔ:lseu	ɒ for ɔ: and ɒ for əʊ
		'kɑntɪnənt	'kɒntɪnənt	a for ɒ
59.	Teacher: Yes, it was also a route to Europe. It was also a route to Europe, because, you see, European rivers are good for sailing because, ok, they are quite big rivers. So, they connect London with ... the sea and of course ... The continent as well. Now, let me ask a question. What about the language used in this lecture? Is it	'ju:rop	'juərəp	u: for ʊə and o for ə
		fu:	fə:	u: for ɔ:
		ku:s	kɔ:s	u: for ɔ:
		ði:	ðə	i: for ə
		'lektʃə	'lektʃə	dark l for clear l
		'læŋgwɪdʒ	'læŋgwɪdʒ	dark l for clear l

	easy or difficult? Who wishes to say something? And why is it easy? Sorry, yes Miss 2.	u:	ɔ:	u: for ɔ:
60.	Miss 2: Because, I think, that the words were understandable.	ðæt	ðæt	æ for ə
		ædəs'tændəbl	ʌndəs'tændəbl	æ for ʌn
61.	Teacher: Understandable.			
62.	Miss 2: or stan (Stumbling) the ... I ... I want to say that ... they ... they were explicit.			
63.	Teacher: Yes?			
64.	Mr. 5: I think ...			
65.	Teacher: 5.			
66.	Mr. 5: Yes, I think ... it was easy because he used the RP, Received Pronunciation ... that we are studying.	wɒz	wəz	ɒ for ə
		'bɪkəz	bɪ'kɒz	ə for ɒ
		prɒnʌn'si:ɪʃən	prənʌn'si:ɪʃən	ɒ for ə
		ðæt	ðæt	æ for ə
		ɑ:r	ə	ɑ: for ə r for -
67.	Teacher: Mr. 12.			
68.	Mr. 12: I think tis also easy because of the way ... his way of speaking. If I try to compare, for example with ... that ... that record we listened to, we listened for	tɪz	ɪt ɪz	- for ɪ
		ɒf	əv	f for v and ɒ for ə
		'kɒpeə	kəm'peə	ɔ̃ for əm

	last ... last week, no ... the week before last week, twas very ... very very fast ... but for this one tis not too fast but slow.	'reko:d	ri'ko:d	ɪ for e stress
		twəz	ɪt wəz	- for ɪ
69.	Teacher: Right, so the speed is quite a slow one. I ... Is there any other thing you have noticed? Yes?			
70.	Miss 11: I think that the language was formal	ðæt	ðæt	æ for ə
		'fɔ:məl	'fɔ:məl	clear l for dark l
71.	Teacher: Yes, it is formal English since it is a lecture. It is a formal lecture, so should be ... the language should be quite a formal one. Yes, Mr. 3.	'læŋɡwɪdʒ	'læŋɡwɪdʒ	dark l for clear l
72.	Mr. 3: I n... I think that ... he used also ... easy language ... or easy vocabulary.	ðæt ^s	ðæt	t ^s for t
		vɔ'kæbɪləɪ	və'kæbjʊləɪ	o for ə ɪ for ʊ - for j
73.	Teacher: Easy vocabulary? Have you understood all the words?	vɔ'kæbɪləɪ	və'kæbjʊləɪ	o for ə a for æ ɪ for ʊ - for j
74.	Mr. 3: Yes.			
75.	Teacher: Yes, right. Now, what did he mean by 'estuary'?			
76.	Mr. 3: As ...			
77.	Teacher: Estuary			

	... the estuary.			
78.	Mr. 3: May be I didn't hear this ...			
79.	Teacher: Right, so you missed some of the words.			
80.	Mr. 3: Yes ... I ... I cannot ... cannot catch all the words ... but ...	bʌ?	bət	ʔ for t
81.	Teacher: So, it is relatively easy ...			
82.	Mr. 3: Yes, relatively easy ... yes.			
83.	Teacher: Right, not all words are understandable. Yes, Miss ... Sorry ... Miss ... What's your name? 19, could you please move on to another one, ok, because your microphone is not all right. Yes, Mr. 5.	ju:r	jɔ:	u: for ɔ:
84.	Mr. 5: I think ... he did ... he did this on purpose because he want ... because he is lecturing and he want to make his lecture easy and ... and... understandable.	'bɪkəz	bɪ'kɒz	ə for ɒ
85.	Teacher: Now, what about the organisation? ... the organisation of his lecture ... do you feel ... do you feel that it is ... straightforward and easy running	ɔ:r	ɔ:r	r for -

	lecture ... is it a straightforward and easy running lecture or ... do you feel that you are disturbed? What about the plan ... the plan of the lecture? Yes, Miss 2 ...			
86.	Miss 2: The plan was ... was well organised because as he ... he ... he is teaching... he is teaching ... he must ... he must transmit well the lecture for ... for the s... the audience ... so he gave ... on first he gave a background about history ... he spoke about the old ... the old ... campus ... then he moved to ... he moved to speak about the ... the present ... present day situation and then he ... he ... he moved to ... to give ... a ... a ... a general idea about what will ... what will be the situa ... the ... the organisation of the situation of London city, so he did not swallow words as the other native speaker used to ... to ... to do,	wɒz	wəz	ɒ for ə
		wel	wel	clear l for dark l
		'tɪtʃɪŋ	'ti:tʃɪŋ	ɪ for i:
		mʌst	məst	ʌ for ə
		'trænsmit	'trænzmit	s for z
		'kæmpəz	'kæmpəs	z for s
		'aɪdɪ	'aɪdɪə	ɪ for ə
		tʊ	tə	ʊ for ə
		sɪtɪ'eɪʃən	sɪtʃʊ'eɪʃən	y for ʊ - for j
		swæləʊ	swɒləʊ	æ for ɒ
			ɒ for ə f for v	

	because he is teaching, so he must ...			
87.	Teacher: Finished?			
88.	Miss 2: He must transmit well the idea.			
89.	Lecturer: Mr. 9.			
90.	Mr. 9: Yes, he h ... his planning.... plan is very organized ... because he follows the chronological order, and this chronological order is needed in such lectures like this, beginning with the history, then moving to present time and preparing the future.	krono'lobɜkl	krɒnə'lobɜkl	ɒ for ə ʒ for dʒ
		'ni:dəd	'ni:dɪd	ɪ for ə
		'laktʃə	'lektʃə	ʌ for e
		ænd	ənd	æ for ə
91.	Teacher: Right... Yes, Miss 1.			
92.	Miss 1: I think the lecture was well organised because of two things: First, because he gave the plan, the outline of his lecture in the first ... in the beginning of the lec ... in the beginning of his speech and he followed it ... so we could follow him as well ... and the second thing is the ... the chronological order ... he	wel	wel̩	clear l for dark l
		ɒv	əf	ɒ for ə v for f
		ɒv	əv	ɒ for ə
		spɪtʃ	spi:tʃ	ɪ for i:
		æz	əz	æ for ə
		ku:d	kʊd	u: for ʊ
		krɒnə'lobɜkl	krɒnə'lobɜkl	ɒ for ə ʒ for

	followed in organising ...			dʒ
93.	Teacher: Now ... you might have noticed that he keeps ... as Miss 1 said ... he suggested the outline right in the very beginning of the lecture, but he also ... kept ... reminding ... reminding people of what would be the next stage ... after the stage he was involved in ... ok, which is quite ... a necessary ... thing to do while lecturing because ... first of all you have to warn the ... the audience ... about what you are going ... because your introduction ... the purpose of an introduction is ... to tell ... the audience ... what you are going to s ... to talk about ... and also ... what is the plan ... what is ... the route you are going to follow ... and ... from time to time you remind ... the audience just in case this audience is ... losing the track ... you remind	θɪŋg	θɪŋ	g for -
		ə'di:kwət	'ædɪkwət	ə for æ i: for ɪ stress
		wat	wɒt	a for ɒ
		'enɪbɑːrɪ	'enɪbɒrɪ	a for ɒ
		fɔ:	fə	ɔ: for ə

	<p>this audience again and again about ... what's going to happen next ... which is ... a very good ... thing for lecturing ... in more or less adequate way. Now ... if we ... let this lecture aside ... can you tell me what ... can anybody tell me ... his or her conception of the best lecturer? ... Can anybody tell me ... can anybody tell me ... what is his or her conception of the best lecturer? ... What do you think is the best lecturer? What are the qualities that a lecturer, according to you, should have? Yes, Mr ... Miss 7 ... Sorry ... Mr. 9 ...</p>			
94.	Mr. 9: For me the best lecturer should be like the one I have listened to him ... should ...	fɔ:	fə	ɔ: for ə
95.	Teacher: This one?			
96.	Mr. 9: Yes ... first giving the ... the outline of his lecture ... then ... be concise and precise ... following the	'gɪvɪŋg	'gɪvɪŋ	g for -
		lɪktʃə	lektʃə	ɪ for e
		kɔnsaɪs	kənsaɪs	ɔ̃ for ən

	chronological order if ... it is necessary ... and reminding his audience about the s next ... or next stage ... or ... step of the lecture.			
		prɪsaɪz	prɪ'saɪs	z for s
		krono'loʒɪkl	kɾɒnə'lɒdʒɪkl	ɒ for ɒ o for ə ʒ for dʒ
		steɪʒ	steɪdʒ	ʒ for dʒ
		ɒf	əv	ɒ for ə f for v
97.	Teacher: Right, this is a pedagogical quality ... what about the rest of ...			
98.	Mr. 9: The...			
99.	Teacher: qualities?			
100.	Mr. 9: The lecturer must be sure of what he will say ... of w .. of the ... the knowledge he gave to the audience ... and to be very ... explit ... concise ... explicitness ... in his lecture			
		ɒf	əv	ɒ for ə f for v
		wɪl	wɪl	clear l for dark l
		'nɒlədʒ	'nɒlɪdʒ	ə for ɪ
		'kɔ̃saɪs	kən'saɪs	ɔ̃ for ən
101.	Teacher: Right. Anything else? Who wishes to say something else? Yes ...			
102.	Miss 2: I think ...			
103.	Teacher: Miss 2.			
104.	Miss 2: A good	æz	əz	æ for ə

	lecturer ... is the one who ... who, as our friend said, ... who'd organize ... arrange the lecture in ... in such order that he could transmit ... transmit ... the lecture by that order to the ... the students ... and he would ... he must ... he must ... choose the words that are ... easy ... easu to... to keep by the ... by the students ... also ... this for the peda ... peda ... gogical side ... other side I want to speak about ... he must treat ... all ... all the students in the same way ... he mustn't ... interfere ... his ... the ... the pedagogical and			
		'arandʒ	ə'reɪndʒ	a for ə a for eɪ
		'trɑ̃smɪt	'trænzɪt	s for z ɑ̃ for æn
		'ɒlsɒ	'ɔ:lsəu	ɒ for ɔ: ɒ for əʊ
		tʃʊz	tʃu:z	ʊ for u:
		ɑ:r	ə	ɑ: for ə r for _
		peda'gɔʒɪkl	pedə'gɒdʒɪkl	a for ə o for ɒ ʒ for dʒ
		spɪk	spi:k	ɪ for i:
		trɪt	tr:t	ɪ for i:
		tʊ'geðə	tə'geðə	ʊ for ə
	105.	the sentimental sides together ... and sometimes when the student finds some difficulties to express what he ... what he wishes ... or ... because there are some students who ... who ... who find themselves in such a way that they ... thy can't express		
		'wɪʃəz	'wɪʃɪz	ə for ɪ
		'ðemselvəz	ðəm'selvz	e for ə ə for _ clear l for dark l
		'tɪtʃə	'ti:tʃə	ɪ for i: t for t
		ædə'stænd	ʌndə'stænd	æ for ʌn
	help	ʉelp	clear l for	

	themselves ... so the ... the teacher must not neglect that student ... he would ... he would ... he must try to understand them ... to ... to help them ... because I found some situations that ... generally the teacher kick out the student from the ... from the classroom and ... this will crea ... create a lack between the student and the teacher ... so the student ... he would take ... such a judgement that he ... would never ... never ... ask question to the teacher ... because he feel ... he feel to be completely dismissed ... or badly treated.			dark l
		'kɔ̃pli:tɪ	kəm'pli:tɪ	ɔ̃ for əm
		'dɪsmɪsəd	'dɪsmɪst	ə for - d for t
		'tri:təd	'tri:tɪd	ɪ for ə
106.	Teacher: Yes? ... is there anybody else? Yes, Mr. 3.			
107.	Mr. 3: The lecturer as well ... should have a good pronunciation of words ... in order that ... his lecture will... will be well transmitted	æz	əz	æ for ə
		wel	wel	clear l for dark l
		prɒnɒn'si:ɪʃən	prənɒn'si:ɪʃən	o for ə
		ɒv	əv	ɒ for ə

	to people ... or to ... to the student ... so, for example, when a lecturer had a good pronun ... or has a good pronunciation, the ... he will be a model ... a model for student ... in order ... in future, for example ... they will have ... they will have ... a good pronunciation ... or... they will, for example, when listening to native speakers, they will understand ... and ... because of this bad pronunciation that we pronounce now, we cannot ... we cannot ... follow a native speaker when speaking, for example, in ... on radio station ... or ... or ... television ... or ...such	ðæ?	ðæt	? for t æ for ə
		wɪl	wɪɫ	clear l for dark l
		wel	wel	clear l for dark l
108.	Teacher: Sorry, Miss ... 13			
109.	Miss 13: I think ... there is another important thing ... which is ... which concerns, the speed ... I think lecturers ... have to go as slowly as they can ... because ...	ə'nɒðə	ə'nʌðə	ɒ for ʌ
		ɪm'pɔ:tənt	ɪm'pɔ:tənt	ɔr for ɔ:
		θɪŋk	θɪŋ	k for -
		'kɔ̃sɜ:nz	kən'sɜ:nz	ɔ̃ for ən
		æz	əz	

	especially lecturers who teach foreign languages ... they have to go slower because ... students cannot keep all the words in ... they cannot follow the teachers.			æ for ə
		'lektʃərəʒ	'lektʃərəʒ	œ for ə
		tɪtʃ	tɪ:tʃ	ɪ for i:
		fɒ'reɪn	'fɒrɪn	eɪ for ɪ
		'fɒləʊ	'fɒləʊ	ʊ for ɒ
110.	Teacher: Hum ...			
111.	Miss 13: That's all.			
112.	Teacher: Right, Mr. 5			
113.	Mr. 5: I want just to add that ... the lecturer before giving ... his ... his lecture ... he must ... he must go ... backward and ask questions about the previous lectures ... in order to ... to put ... the ... to put the ... the students in ... in current ... in current of what he is go ... he is going to ... to say.	put ^s	ϕut	t ^s for t
		ɒv	əv	ɒ for ə
114.	Teacher: Mr. 9.			
115.	Mr. 9: I think the physical appearance of the lecturer is needed. The lecturer must be well dressed, well organised in his wearing... to give ... good appearance ... in	'æpɪərəns	əpɪərəns	a for ə and ɪ for ɪə
		ɒf	əv	ɒ for ə f for v
		'nɪdəd	'ni:dɪd	ɪ for i:
		wel	wel	clear l for dark l

	front of the students because ... he represents ... lecturer which is in one side should be respected and should be ... listened to ... listened to ... the physical appearance is needed.	'dresəd	ðrest	ə for _ d for t
		rɪs'pektəd	rɪs'pektɪd	ə for ɪ
		lɪsnəd	lɪsənd	- for ə ə for -
116.	Teacher: Mr. 12. ³⁴			
	Mr. 12: I think that ... really it's not possible to found ... a good teacher ... or ... the best teacher ... it's not possible ... from my classmate ... they are complementary ... for example, there is someone who said a good teacher ... must be ... wear ... wear ... cloth ... wear ... ok, this is one. There is another one who say that a teacher ... for him ... a good teacher is someone who speaks very well, for example loudly ... ok, I agree with him, and there is another one who say that ... the teacher must	'tɪtʃə	'ti:tʃə	ɪ for i:
		klɒθ	kləʊðz	ɒ for əʊ θ for ð
		ɪs'tju:dənts	'stju:dənt	ɪ for -
		'sʌpəʊz	sə'pəʊz	ʌ for əʊ
		'ɒblaɪzɪd	ə'blaɪzɪd	ɒ for ə ʒ for dʒ
		a'dɒpt	ə'dɒpt	a for ə
		ɒf	əv	ɒ for ə f for v
117.		bɪ'hævjə	bɪ'heɪvjə	æ for eɪ

³⁴ Mr. 12 is a black African student whose second language is French. His interlanguage shares many common features with the interlanguage of the Algerian learners.

	<p>have a good relationship with his students ... yes, this is very good. But, I am just going to take one example, suppose there is a teacher who make before starting his lecture ... make a ... on blackboard ... he may do this but when it comes ... the time to p ... to put into practice what he have made on blackboard, he may not be able to ... it correctly, ok? If for example, here I am going to take another example; that one who say a teacher must have a good relationship with student ... for sometimes ... you are obliged to adopt such kind of ... of behaviour when we are inside the classroom. What can say here is that really it is not easy to found ... a best or a good teacher ... what we can have it's a complementary of many ... many</p>			
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	behaviour ... many qualities ...			
118.	Teacher: Mr. 9.			
119.	Mr. 9: About ... I ... about the physical appearance ... I don't mean that the best lecturer is the one ... presented and performed in a good physical appearance ... but the physical appearance is needed ... that's all, it's ... besides the other qualities.	pri'zentəd	pri'zentɪd	ə for ɪ
		pə'fɔ:məd	pə'fɔ:md	ə for -
		'ɒðə	'ʌðə	ɒ for ə
120.	Teacher: So, it's one of the criteria.	ðɪ	ðə	ɪ for ə
121.	Mr. 9: It's one ...			
122.	Teacher: It's only one of the criteria.			
123.	Mr. 9: It's not the condition of the good or the best lecturer, it's not.	'kɒndɪʃən	kən'dɪʃən	ɔ̃ for ə
		ɒf	əv	ɒ for ə f for v
124.	Teacher: Right, it's not the only criterion; it is among the many criteria that a good lecturer should have. Anybody else? Who wishes to say something? Is there anything on any ...? Miss 14.	əmʌŋ	ə'mʌŋ	ɒ for ʌ
125.	Miss 14: Yes, I think a good lecturer is ... the	lɒvz	lʌvz	ɒ for ʌ
		'prɒfeʃən	prə'feʃən	o for ə

	one who loves ... lecturing ... who loves his profession ... this profession ... because I think ... a lecturer is like a doctor ... he's with human being ... and his job is very important ... because he is ... educating ... and it's a very ... very difficult task ... since he is with the human nature ... no and specially in Algeria ... in Algeria here ... the lecturer is always ... reclaiming his right... and ... asking for ... many things ... and ... and he need many things, in fact, but ... I think he mustn't link ... linked ... with his ... how to say? (end of side one)	ʒɒb	dʒɒb	ʒ for dʒ
		im'pɔ:tənt ^s	im'pɔ:tənt	ɔ: r for - t ^s for t
		'vɪrɪ	'very	ɪ for ə
		'speʃəlɪ	ɪ'speʃəlɪ	- for ɪ
		al'ʒɛrɪə	æ'l'dʒɪəriə	ʒ for dʒ e for ɪə a for ə
		fɔ:	fə	ɔ: for ə
		'mɪnɪ	'menɪ	ɪ for e
		bʌt ^s	bət	ʌ for ə t ^s for t
		mʌsnt ^s	mʌsnt	t ^s for t
126.	Teacher: Yes, please do carry on.			
127.	Miss 14: Yes, I said that when we ask any teacher ... why the level of ... students and even if teachers ... is very ... is very bad level, he say ... he answer ... that ... it's ... it's	'tɪtʃə	'ti:tʃə	ɪ for i:
		ɒv	əv	ɒ for ə
		ænd	ənd	æ for ə
		'kweɪtʃən	'kwestʃən	ʃ for s
		hæv	həv	æ for ə

	<p>... it's question of conditions of life, our conditions of life. I think, as I have said ... the doctor when ... it's ... I have make ... the similarity between teacher and doctor ... it's ... he has not to link the ... his conditions with his profession, since it's very ... how to say it? ... it's the ... how to say it? (laughter) ... it's an important task as I have said educating ... to educate people ... to give them good knowledge or ... he must be ... as well as he can ... he must ... there is no ... he must be ... as well as he can ... and when he's not ... when he's not ... a good teacher for me it's ... it's a sin ... it's... like a crime ... more than that... more than that.</p>			ə
		'prɒfɪʃən	prə'feʃən	o for ə ɪ for ə
		æz	əz	æ for ə
		'edʒəkət	'edʊkət	j for -
		wel	wel	clear l for dark l
		no	nəʊ	o for əʊ
		for	fə	o for ə r for _
		ðæn	ðæn	æ for ə
128.	Teacher: Miss 11.			
129.	Miss 11: I don't agree with her at all when she said that the teacher shouldn't link his private life with	æt	ət	æ for ə
		'tɪtʃə	'ti:tʃə	ɪ for i: t for t
		'prɒfɪʃənəl	prə'feʃənəl	o for ə

	his professional one, because as far as this private life influence his professional one, we cannot separate the two. She has ... she was speaking about the problems of the teacher , I think that if the teacher has problem ... he cannot ... I don't know ... what p ... what ... what kind of problems but ... he cannot separate the ... his personal problem and his professional life ... because he is a human being ... and ... I ... he cannot be as perfect as ...			i for ə
		'sɪpəreɪt	sepə'reɪt	i for e a for ə
		ɒf	əf	ɒ for ə
		wɒz	wəz	ɒ for ə
		dɒn	dəʊnt	ɒ for əʊ - for t
		wæt	wɒt	æ for ɒ
		æz	əz	æ for ə
130.	Teacher: Mr. 9.			
131.	Mr. 9: I agree with the next lady ... that's 11.			
132.	Teacher: The next one??			
133.	Mr. 9: Yes, the lecturer or the teacher should be prepared psychologically ... and when he came ... to teach ... he ... should left outside his problems ... and just care ... yes ... his problems outside ... and just care and take very	'tɪtʃə	'ti:tʃə	i for i:
		seɪkɒl'ɒdʒɪklɪ	səɪkə'lɒdʒɪklɪ	eɪ for aɪ o for ə ʒ for dʒ
		tɪtʃ	ti:tʃ	tʃ for t i for i:
		ænd	ənd	æ for ə
		ˌkɑnsɪdə'reɪʃn	kənˌsɪdə'reɪʃn	a for ə

	consideration to his lecture in front of his students ... not link his problems with ours ... students.	tʊ	tə	ʊ for ə
		ɒf	əv	ɒ for ə f for v
134.	Teacher: Have you finished? Miss 7.			
135.	Miss 7: Yes, he said that... he ... agreed with Miss 11, but, in fact, he doesn't agree with her because she said that ... a teacher ... he cannot separate the pscholo ... the ... psy ... psychic ... comment dire? ...	ðæt	ðæt	æ for ə
		'tɪtʃə	'ti:tʃə	ɪ for i:
		'psɪjɪk	sɑɪkɪk	p for - i for aɪ i for ɪ
136.	Teacher: Comment dire.			
137.	Miss 7: Yes, we c ... I think the teacher ... as anybody, has problems so, if because of problems, he doesn't ... make ... he cannot ... master his lecture or he cannot give his lecture perfectly because of his problems ... so ... others people ... in every field of life ...	ɒf	əv	ɒ for ə
		'pɜ:fɛktlɪ	'pɜ:fɪklɪ	e for r for -
		'ɒðəz	'ʌðəz	ɒ for ʌ
		fi:ld	fi:ld	clear l for dark l
		ɒf	əv	ɒ for ə f for v
138.	Teacher: Yes, carry on, please.			
139.	Miss 7: who has got ... who have got problems are not going to do their jobs	ɑr	ə	a for ə r for -
		'prɒfɪʃən	prə'feɪʃn	ɒ for ə ɪ for ə

	perfectly ... I think we have to separate our prob ... the teacher has to ... to ... hasn't to link his own problems with his profession.			
140.	Teacher: Anybody else? Mr. 3.			
141.	Mr. 3: I want to ... I want to ... to add something that ... the ... the teacher should warn a student about the coming lecture in order that ... the ... the student will ... will work on it ... and will ... will be well prepared ... in order ,for example ... in the coming ... in the coming lecture ... when the ... the teacher begins to explain the lecture ... it will be easier for the student to assimilate it ... and ... and ... and it will be easier for the ... the teacher to ... to ... convince ... , for example, the student about a cer.. a given idea. That's all.	'tɪtʃə	'ti:tʃə	ɪ for i:
		ðæ?	ðæt	æ for ə ? for t
		wɪl	wɪl	clear l for dark l
		wel	we l	clear l for dark l
		for	fə	o for ə r for -
		'asɪmlɪt	ə'sɪmlɪt	a for ə
142.	Teacher: Miss 2.			
143.	Miss 2: I think that the teacher will ... will be ... a ... a good a real	'tɪtʃə	'ti:tʃə	t̥ for t ɪ for i:
		wɪl		clear l for

	teacher ... when ... when he ... when he ... has all the ... the necessities ... that 's to say he's housed, he's well paid, he's ... and he's considered as he really deserves: a teacher at the university. Here, he has ... he must ... he must be ...		wɪ	dark l
		'haʊsəd	haʊzd	s for z ə for -
		wel	wel	clear l for dark l
		ænd	ænd	æ for ə
		'kɔ̃sɪdrəd	kən'sɪdəd	ɔ̃ for ən r for -
		æz	əz	æ for ə
144.	Teacher: Now, Miss 2, when I say lecturing I do not mean just ... at the university level.			
	Miss 2: Ok. Housed, well paid and considered as he deserves. Here, he will be a good teacher, but the sin, as Miss 14 spoke about, the sin ... is ... is stated when he is ... he has all the necessities and he ... he doesn't accomplish well his tasks. Here ... is ... here the sin is stated... so when we want to speak about good teacher ... we had ... we had first to speak to ... how to say? to ... to give him all ... all what he nee ... all what needs ... because the	'oke	əʊ'keɪ	o for əʊ e for eɪ
		bʌt	bət	ʌ for ə
		'akɔ̃plɪʃ	ə'kɔ̃mplɪʃ	a for ə ɔ̃ for ɔ̃m
		wel	wel	clear l for dark l
		'stɛɪtəd	'stɛɪtɪd	ə for ɪ
		spɪk	spi:k	ɪ for i:
		wæt	wɒt	æ for ɒ
145.		'faktoz	'fæktəz	o for ə

	teacher ... the teacher is also a human being, he needs ... some ... some ... permanent factors, so when we ... when he had all what ... what ... what he needs ... he will, I think, he will teach without any problem, he will be as good as ... as ... he must be.			
146.	Teacher: Miss 15, Can you tell us about ... give us a brief description ... of ... the best lecturer you've ever had before coming to this university? Ok? Before coming to this university; that means secondary level ... intermediate level ... and ... primary level.	'sʌkəndrɪ	'sekəndrɪ	ʌ for ə
147.	Miss 15: A good lecturer in this three levels ... must be ...			
148.	Teacher: No, I am not asking ... I am not saying ... I am not saying ... what should be a good lecturer ... in one of these levels ... at one of these levels? ... I am asking/ the question is: can you give us a	wæt	wɒt	æ for ɒ
		æt	ət	æ for ə
		'dju:rɪŋ	'dʊərɪŋ	u: for ʊə g for -

	brief description of the best lecturer you've ever had during those years of study, before coming to this university? Ok? So, you should exclude all lecturers in this university.			
149.	Miss 15: Heu ... heu ... the ... there are two ... teachers ...in the ... heu ... heu ... in ... int ... intermediate ... heu ...			
150.	Teacher: Intermediate school, yes?			
151.	Miss 15: She ... she was a lady ... she was a perfect ... a perfect teacher ... heu ... sh ... she ... she ... had ... the capacity ... of teaching ... she ... she was a good ... in good... contact with us ... she helped us ... in ... in a good understanding of ... of her lecture ... she ... and the second... was in the secondary school ... was a teacher of ... s ...science ...	wɒz	wəz	ɒ for ə
		'pɜːfekt	'pɜːfɪkt	e for ɜː r for - e for ɪ
		'tɪtʃə	'tiːtʃə	ɪ for iː
		'kæpəsɪtɪ	kə'pæsɪtɪ	a for ə
		ɒf	əv	ɒ for ə
		ʌs	əs	ʌ for ə
		'helpəd	ʒelpt	ə for - d for t clear l for dark l
		ˌædər'stændɪŋ	ˌʌndə'stændɪŋ	æ for ʌ r for -

		schu:l	schu:l̩	clear l for dark l
152.	Teacher: And what about the first one? What was she teaching you?			
153.	Miss 15: Science also.			
154.	Teacher: Science also ... Natural science? What? Physical Science? What was it?			
155.	Miss 15: Natural science.			
156.	Teacher: Right ...			
157.	Miss 15: I found them ... they were ... similar in their teaching ... they ... they were competent ... really competent in the ... they ... they did ... did ... their jobs in a very good way.	ðem	ðəm	e for ə
		wɜ:	wə	ɜ: for ə
158.	Teacher: Were they very generous in marks?			
159.	Miss 15: No ... very correct ... very correct ... they ... they give us ... our real marks.	'kɔ:rekt	kə'rekt	ɔ for ə
		rɪəl	rɪəl̩	clear l for dark l
160.	Teacher: Right. Is there anybody else who can tell us about the best lecturer he's ever had ... or he'd ever had ... before ... coming to this university? Is	ɔ:r	ɔ:	r for -

	there somebody who was really fascinated by one of his lecturers ... or her lecturers? Yes, Miss 1.			
161.	Miss 1: Yes, It was a lecturer in the secondary school ... of history and geography ... he ... he let ... he used to let us the task of choosing the titles of the lectures and ... we had ... we used to have two hours, I think, and after eleven clock he gave us a break of five minutes and, in fact, it lasted one hour. He didn't ask us about ... copybooks ... about anything, and ... I myself had... he never saw me ... never ... never ... I was at the back ... working ...	wɒz	wəz	ɒ for ə
		sku:l	sku:l	clear l for dark l
		ɒf	əv	ɒ for ə
		ʒɪ'ɒɡrəfi	dʒɪ'ɒɡrəfi	ʒ for dʒ ɒ for ə
		ænd	ənd	æ for ə
		klɒk	əkɒk	- for ə
		'lɑ:stəd	'lɑ:stɪd	ə for ɪ
		ʌs	əs	ʌ for ə
		'tʃʊzɪŋ	'tʃu:zɪŋ	ʊ for u:
		'kɑ:pɪbʊks	'kɒpɪbʊks	a for ɒ
		'eniθɪŋk	'eniθɪŋ	k for _
		wɒz	wəz	ɒ for ə
		æt	ət	æ for ə
162.	Teacher: Well, you mean he never paid attention to you, not he never saw you.			

163.	Miss 1: Yes ... he never saw me speaking or ... answering during his lecture and I had seventeen over twenty and always he was praising me and I never never spoken ... spoke d ... during his lecture, and it was the case of many ... many students in me ... that's why.	'ɒvə	'əʊvə	ɒ for əʊ
		'mɪni	'meni	ɪ for e
164.	Teacher: Right. Are you trying to be ironical when you say that he was the best lecturer or are you really serious?			
165.	Miss 1: Yes, I'm serious.			
166.	Teacher: Quite serious? You were quite ... amazed by ... this lecturer. Right. Miss 7.			
167.	Miss 7: Yes, I was fascinated by the same teacher my ... my friend spoke about in the secondary ... in the secondary ... in the secondary school ... the teacher of science and that was adding to what she said that she was competent and	wɒz	wəz	ɒ for ə
		'adɪʃən	ə'dɪʃn	a for ə stress
		tʊ	tə	ʊ for ə
		'wɜ:rkɪŋ	'wɜ:kɪŋ	r for - g for -
		hɜ:	hə	ɜ: for ə
		'pɒʃəz	'pɒʃɪz	ə for ɪ

	she was very ... she was competent ... enfin ... and ... in a .. in a ... in addition to that ... in addition to that ... she ... we ... we like ... we like ... working with her ... she ... she ... she ... she pushes us to ... to work ... to ... to work ... to ...to work ... to work ... yes, she... she gave us ... works ... and we ... we ... we enjoy... we enjoyed doing that ... we ... we prepared the lecture before coming to the ... to the ... before coming to the classroom ... and we in classroom it was ... we ... we gave many informations ... adding to the informations she gave ... she gave us.	ʌs	əs	ʌ for ə
		ænd	ənd	æ for ə
		ɪn'fɔ:rmɛɪʃənz	ɪnfə'mɛɪʃən	ɔ: for ə r for -
168.	Teacher: Miss 11.			
169.	Miss 11: The best teacher I have ever had was my teacher of English in the lycée .. he was from the pedagogical point of view ... he was very good teacher ... my teacher of	'tɪtʃə	'ti:tʃə	ɪ for i:
		ɒf	əv	ɒ for ə
		pedə'gɒdʒɪkl	pedə'gɒdʒɪkl	a for ə
		'kɔ:səz	'kɔ:sɪz	ə for ɪ
		'lɪmɪtəd	'lɪmɪtɪd	ə for ɪ

	English ... he was very ... his courses were not only limited in ... in grammar ... or all what is related to English ... but he also gave us ... this kind of general culture ... he was ... he was very good teacher in the sense that he mastered his courses ... and apart from this he was very dynamic ... he was very helpful ... and whenever we had problems, he was the only one who helped us ... and ...			
		'græma	'græmə	a for ə
		rɪ'leɪtəd	rɪ'leɪtɪd	ə for ɪ
		tʊ	tə	t̩ for t ʊ for ə
		bʌt	bət	ʌ for ə
		ʌs	əs	ʌ for ə
		'dʒɪmɪrəl	'dʒenrəl	ɪ for e ɪ for -
		ðæt	ðət	æ for ə
		'mæstrəd	'mæstəd	r for -
		kɔ:səz	kɔ:sɪz	ə for ɪ
		fɹəm	fɹəm	ɒ for ə
		'helpfəl	'helpfl̩	clear l for dark l ʊ for -
		'helpəd	'helpt	clear l for dark l ə for - d for t
170.	Teacher: That's all?			
171.	Miss 11: Yes.			
172.	Teacher: Mr. 12.			
173.	Mr. 12: I think ... the only one teacher I ... the best one I have ... is ... in my	'ɒnlɪ	'əʊnlɪ	ɒ for ə u
		'tɪtʃə	'ti:tʃə	ɪ for i:

	secondary school ... I don't know the division is not the same in my country than here in Algeria, I don't know it's the same ...	sɪ'kɔ̃dəri	'sekəndri	ɪ for e ɔ̃ for ən ə for -
		sku:l	sku:l	clear l for dark l
174.	Teacher: Well, anyway, it is not very important, isn't it?	æl'ʒeria	æld'ʒiəriə	e for ɪə a for ə
175.	Mr. 12: Ok ...	'o ke	əʊ'keɪ	o for əʊ a for eɪ
176.	Teacher: The main thing is that it was prior ... to the university level.			
177.	Mr. 12: Yeah, it was ... he was my geography ... geography ... teacher ... I can say this ... why I liked him ... it was because of his way of teaching ... there is what you call in French matériel didactique ... I don't know how to call it in English ... matériel didactique ...	ɪt	θ	- for ɪ
		wɒz	wəz	ɒ for ə
		dʒɪ'ɒɡrəfi	dʒɪ'ɒɡrəfi	a for ə
		kæn	kən	æ for ə
		lɑ:kɪd	lɑ:kt	d for t
		ɒv	əv	ɒ for ə
		frenʃ	frentʃ	ʃ for tʃ
		dɒnt	dəʊnt	ɒ for əʊ
178.	Teacher: Hum.			
179.	Mr. 12: Yeah.	æt	ət	

	Because if in every lecture ... he used to come with many, I can say full of matériel didactique ... because at that level we are starting to learn ... to study about the world geography. In this way, it's not easy to understand for example when the ... when ... I don't know how to call the globe it is round for example ... at that level it is not easy to understand ... but for him he use I don't know which ... at that time we were studying the Jamaican geography ... he used to bring many many material didactique ... at that time, really I can say, one can feel he's ... in that environment ... in that place he is teaching about ... this is why ... this is why like him very much.			æ for ə
		tʊ	tə	ʊ for ə
		glɒb	gləʊb	o for əʊ
		bʌt	bət	ʌ for ə
		fɔ:	fə	ɔ: for ə
		hɪm	ɪm	h for -
		kæn	kən	æ for ə
		'zɑ:mɑ:kən	dʒə'meɪkən	ʒ for dʒ and a for ə
		fi:l	fi:l	clear l for dark l
		'tɪ:tʃɪŋ	'ti:tʃɪŋ	ɪ for i:
180.	Teacher: Right, Mr. 12, is French your second language?	'sʌkənd	'sekənd	ʌ for e
		'læŋgwɪdʒ	'læŋgwɪdʒ	ɪ for l

181.	Mr. 12: Yeah.			
182.	Teacher: Miss 16, is that right?			
183.	Miss 16: Yes.			
184.	Teacher: Good. Now, Miss 16, you are going to tell us about the worst lecturer ... you've ever had ... before coming to this university... Can you remember a very awful ... lecturer?			
185.	Miss 16: I ...I didn't have ... any worst lecturer.			
186.	Teacher: All of them were ... brilliant ... are you sure?			
187.	Miss 16: Yes.			
188.	Teacher: Or is it just...?			
189.	Miss 16: I ... I never ... I was never against any teacher?	'tɪtʃə	'ti:tʃə	ɪ for i:
190.	Teacher: Are you sure?			
191.	Miss 16: Yes.			
192.	Teacher: Isn't this to avoid answering? Are you sure? Right. Now, who can tell us about ... a very bad experience ... he or she lived ... as far as lecturing ... is concerned? Heu ... Sorry ... What is your name, please?			

	Please ... could you, please, move on to another one? ... because your microphone is not ... all right. Now, who else ... w ... wanted to say something? Yes, Miss 14.			
193.	Miss 14: It is till about the question the best lecturer ...	'kwestʃən	'kwestʃən	ʃ for s
194.	Teacher: Oh, you want to talk about the best lecturer? OK, go ahead before ... Mr...	bɪ'fʊ:	bɪ'fɔ:	u: for ɔ:
195.	Miss 14: I think ... the best lecturer I have ... I have ... was ... w... before ... I ... is Mr. Bully ...			
196.	Teacher: No need for names, please.			
197.	Miss 14: I ...			
198.	Teacher: Do not tell us about names.			
199.	Miss 14: Is ... mathematics teacher, but unfortunately he was not an Algérien ... an Algerian teacher ... he was French one.	mætəmə'tɪks	,mæθə'mætɪks	t for θ e for ə
		tɪʃə	ti:tʃə	ɪ for i:
		æfɔ:tʃɔ'neɪtlɪ	ʌn'fɔ:tʃənətɪ	æ for ʌn t for tʃ j for - eɪ for ə

		wɒz	wəz	ɒ for ə
		æl'ʒerɪən	æl'dʒɪəriən	e for ɪə ʒ for dʒ
200.	Teacher: Why is it so unfortunately?			
201.	Miss 14: Because ... I think ... I have never seen ... a lecturer like him.	sn	si:n	ɪ for i:
		hm	ɪm	h for -
202.	Teacher: So, you wished ... him to be Algerian.			
203.	Miss 14: Specially he was Christian ... and ... he was Christian ... and I was ... in this year ... in the ... terminal ... terminal ... last year in the lycée ... and ... and we ... he tried to help me ... but ... but I saw him like my ... how to say? ... my enemy ...	'speʃəlɪ	ɪ'speʃəlɪ	- for ɪ
		'krɪstɪən	'krɪstʃən	t for tʃ ɪ for -
		wɒz	wəz	ɒ for ə
		ænd	ənd	æ for ə
		bʌt	bət	ʌ for ə
		hm	ɪm	h for -
204.	Teacher: Why?			
205.	Miss 14: In the first I was ... very ... fanatic... and ... naïve ... I think so ... and	fana'tɪk	'fænətɪk	a for ə
206.	Teacher: You hated Christians?	'krɪstɪən	'krɪstʃən	t for tʃ ɪ for -
207.	Miss 14: No, I hated ... who ... who believe in	heitəd	heitɪd	ə for ɪ
		ə'nɒðə	ə'nʌðə	ɒ for

<p>another god apart my god. I ... so I was always guesting.... but he tried to ... to ... to help me and ... in everything ... he ask me to ... forget ... the idea about ... this ... the idea of the difference between the two religions. I was always guesting ... but after ... after the lycée ... I ... I ... I very ... I really admired his ... his way of teaching ... he was very very competent ... vital ... and ... he never ... he really ... gave ... hi ... his experience to the students about his ... his ... long way of teaching ... like ... for example ... his ... the org ... how can the student be organized ... how can he... how can he ri... how can ... he ... rit ... reach the high level of good spirit and ... of ... of ... of acquiring any knowledge ... he's very ... I regret ... to be against him.</p>			ʌ
	tʊ	tə	ʊ for ə
	help	help	clear l for dark l
	'evrɪθɪŋ	'evrɪθɪŋk	k for -
	'fɔ:ɡet	fə'ɡet	ɔ: for ə
	aɪ'diə	aɪ'dɪə	a for ə
	rɪ'lɪʒənz	rɪ'lɪdʒənz	ʒ for dʒ
	'ɑ:ftər	'ɑ:ftə	r for -
	'vɪrɪ	'very	ɪ for e
	'vɪtl	'vaɪtl	clear l for dark l ɪ for aɪ
	'nevər	'nevə	r for -
	'tɪʃɪŋ	'ti:tʃɪŋ	ɪ for i:
	kæn	kæn	æ for ə
	rɪtʃ	ri:tʃ	ɪ for i:
	ɒf	əv	ɒ for ə
rɪ'ɡrɪt	rɪ'ɡret	e for ɪ	
208.	Teacher: Now, you are saying		

	that he was teaching you mathematics ...			
209.	Miss 14: Yes.			
210.	Teacher: How come that you spoke about religion? Was it during ... the lecture?			
211.	Miss 14: No ...			
212.	Teacher: Outside of it.			
213.	Miss 14: Outside the lecture.			
214.	Teacher: Right ... Right, Oh sorry your microphone is not all right ... heu ... could you please choose another one ... see another one ... heu ... Yes, Mr. 10.			
215.	Mr. 10: Yes, I ... I want to speak about the worst ... teacher ... I had never ... never seen ... is ... he was not bad, but he was very aggressive ... and ... i...i... in his matter he was excellent, but he was very aggressive ... so aggressive that ... we cannot ... we cannot follow him ... and we cannot ... I don't know ... he was ... he was ... and I remember one time he hanged me ...	spɪk	spi:k	ɪ for i:
		'tɪtʃə	'ti:tʃə	ɪ for i:
		hæd	həd	æ for ə
		wɒz	wəz	ɒ for ə
		'ɑɡresɪv	ə'ɡresɪv	ɑ for ə stress
		'ɪksɪlənt	'eksələnt	e for ɪ ɪ for ə
		ðæt	ðət	æ for ə
		fə'ləʊ	'fələʊ	ə for ɒ
		dɒn	dəʊnt	ɒ for əʊ - for t

	yes.	ænd	ænd	æ for ə
		'hæŋgəd	'hæŋgd	ə for -
216.	Teacher: He Hanged you???			
217.	Mr. 10: Yes ... not only me but ... he was so aggressive that ... anybody ... no one can talk with him or ... wallah keina manha	'əʊnlɪ	'ɒnlɪ	ʊ for əʊ
		bʌt	bət	ʌ for ə
		kæn	kæn	æ for ə
		hɪm	ɪm	h for -
218.	Teacher: Right. Miss ...			
219.	Miss 17 : (whispering) Manasmaa Walou			
220.	Teacher: Can you hear me?			
221.	Miss 17 : Tsts			
222.	Teacher: Nothing?			
223.	Miss 17: Nothing.	'nʊθɪŋ	'nʌθɪŋ	ʊ for ʌ
224.	Teacher: Well, we hear you all, but you can't hear us. So, you're very unlucky ... now, could you, please, come here to C1. Could you please come here ... over here to C1? Right, in the meantime somebody wishes to say something. Yes, Mr. 5.			
225.	Mr. 5: I want to ... to speak about	tʊ	tə	ʊ for ə

	my mathematics teacher ... he was the worst ... the worst teacher ... I've r ... I have ever met ... He was ...			
		,mæt'matiks	,mæθə'mætiks	t for θ - for ə
		'tɪtʃə	'ti:tʃə	ɪ for i:
		wɒz	wəz	ɒ for ə
		wɜ:rst	wɜ:st	r for -
226.	Teacher: Which level was it?			
	Mr. 5: Secondary school ... first year of secondary school ... he was a ... he wasn't competent in his work, and whenever we ... we face a problem in mathemaki ... in mathematics ... he ... he s ... he says to us ... to take it as a homework ... and apart of this ... he is always ill ... he says in Arabic Indi hassassia filhalq.	sku:l	sku:l	clear l for dark l
		fɜ:rst	fɜ:st	r for -
		wɒ'zent	'wɒzənt	e for ə
227.		wɜ:rk	wɜ:k	r for -
228.	Teacher: Right. Heu ... Ok, ...			
229.	Miss 17: I had ...			
230.	Teacher: Now, what's your name, first?			
231.	Miss 17: 17.			
232.	Teacher: 17. Yes, Ok, go ahead.			
233.	Miss 17: I had a teacher in	'tɪtʃə	'ti:tʃə	ɪ for i:

<p>secondary ... secondary ... level ... she teach us French. She was, in fact ... a ... a severe person. She was a ... a woman ... she was very severe ... and she was also a lazy one. Yes ... she didn't explain very well her lectures and she is always staying ... she don't move ... from ... her place ... she was static person ... Yes. And she was very severe with us ... specially in ... in exams.</p>	sɪ'gɔ̃dəri	'sekəndri	ɪ for e g for k ɔ̃ for ə ən ə for -
	'lɪvɪ	'levɪ	ɪ for e clear l for dark l
	tɪtʃ	ti:tʃ	ɪ for i:
	ʌz	əs	ʌ for ə z for s
	wɪz	wəz	ɪ for ə
	wɒz	wəz	ɒ for ə
	'persn	'pɜ:sn	e for ɜ: r for -
	'wɪmən	'wʊmən	ɪ for ʊ
	'vɪri	'veri	ɪ for e
	'ɔ:lsɒ	'ɔ:lsəʊ	ɒ for əʊ
	wel	wel	clear l for dark l
	her	hə	e for ə r for -
	ænd	ənd	æ for ə
	dɒnt	dəʊnt	ɒ for əʊ
	mʊv	mu:v	ʊ for u:
fɹɒm	fɹəm	ɒ for ə	

		'spɪʃəli	ɪ'speʃəli	- for ɪ ɪ for e
234.	Teacher: Right. Any other awful qualities that she had? Nothing. Right. Miss 11.			
235.	Miss 11: The worst teacher I have ever had she was a Bulgarian one. She was my teacher of science. Not only she had a very bad French but also his lecture ... her lectures were ... were not prepared at all. His French was very bad and he ... he didn't ...	wɜ:rst	wɜ:st	r for -
		'tɪʃə	'ti:tʃə	ɪ for i:
		hæv	həv	æ for ə
		wɒz	wəz	ɒ for ə
		bʌl'gəriən	bʌl'geəriən	a for eə
		ɒf	əf	ɒ for ə
		'ɒnli	'əʊnli	ɒ for əʊ
		frenʃ	frentʃ	ʃ for tʃ
		bʌt	bət	ʌ for ə
		'ɔ:lsɒ	'ɔ:lsəʊ	ɒ for əʊ
		wer	wə	e for ə r for -
		æt	ət	æ for ə
		ænd	ənd	æ for ə
236.	Teacher: Chut ...Tststs ... let her speak, please.			
237.	Miss Chaib: Her ... her lectures were not ...	her	hə	e for ə r for -

	comprehensible ...			
238.	Teacher: Go ahead, go ahead, yes.			
239.	Miss 11: And she ... she didn't bear that we ... we ... we claimed about her incompetence ... and she hated me in particular because one day ... she told us ... she told us that we will have ... an exam ... the ... the next week for example and it was a reflex I have said inshallah and she didn't bear that I said ... I said this ... inshallah and she told me we will have the exam even ...	bɪə	beə	ɪə for eə
		ðæt	ðæt	æ for ə
		kleɪməd	kleɪmd	ə for -
		pə'tɪkjʊlə	pə'tɪkjʊlə	- for j
		təʊld	təʊld	ɒ for ə clear l for dark l
		wɪl	wɪl	clear l for dark l
	'i:vən	'ɪvən	ɪ for i:	
240.	Teacher: Now, did she understand what inshallah meant?			
241.	Miss 11: Yes, yes she understand ... and the next week we didn't have the control ... and I have told her "Miss I told you inshallah and you didn't bear". From this day she didn't ... She was always ... against me in everything whenever I tried to participate or ... or to say something ...	ʔɛdə'stændz	ʌndə'stændz	ʔɛ for ʌn
		kɔ'trɒl	kən'trəʊl	ɔ̃ for ə ɒ for əʊ
		bʌt	bət	ʌ for ə

	something she was always against ... and I was not the only one because she ... she knew that she was a bad teacher... but ... she was not ab ... able to ...			
242.	Teacher:Right. Heu ... Miss 18 who seems to be already on holiday. Yes.			
243.	Miss 18: ... My worst teacher was an Egyptian ... he was mathematic teacher ... apart of being very fat ... he was ... very ... very lazy ... I ... I think that ... I ... I haven't learn anything about ... concerning mathematic ... wi ... with him. He was always ... staying on ... his chair ... giving us exercises to do ... do them ... we correct them ...and everyday the same thing ... and during examination ... I think that ... he never correct ... our ... our copies ... because he didn't ... we didn't ... see them ... he came and ... looking at ... everyone of us ... and he gives	werst	wɜ:st	e for ɜ:
		wɒz	wəz	ɒ for ə
		ɪ'zɪpʃn	ɪ'dʒɪpʃn	ʒ for dʒ
		mætɛma'tɪk	,mæθə'mætɪk	t for θ e for ə i for ɪ
		'kɔ̃sɜ:nɪŋ	kən'sɜ:nɪŋ	ɔ̃ for ən Stress
		'kɔrekt	kə'rekt	ɔ for ə

	any mark he wants ...			
244.	Teacher: So you do not like fat people. Now, what is wrong with being fat?			
245.	Miss 18: He is not dynamic ... he is always ... I think he shouldn't have this job.			
246.	Teacher: Right, Miss 19, is that right?			
247.	Miss 19: The worst teacher I have seen is in secondary school ... she was a ... a teacher of science ... she was fir ... worst because she first she has no pedagogy and she was ...	werst	wɜ:st	e for ɜ: r for -
		'tɪtʃə	'ti:tʃə	ɪ for i:
		hæv	hæv	æ for ə
		sku:l	sku:l	clear l for dark l
		wɒz	wəz	ɒ for ə
		ɒf	əv	ɒ for ə f for v
		ferst	fɜ:st	e for ɜ: r for -
		pedagɒʒi	'pedəgɒdʒɪ	a for ə ʒ for dʒ

Appendix 4

Word List for the Confirmation Test

divided	shut	wood	Portuguese
built	cultivate	peaceful	what
events	countries	wolf	upon
especially	country	Jewish	population
extent	cover	second	pedagogical
foreign	government	present	body
miracle	judge	Thames	often
financial	suffocate	French	political
women	worried	didn't	qualities
similar	none	develop	respond
relationship	London	develop	swallow
responsibility	rugby	secondary	follow
diseases	outcome	ready	policy
guilt	southern	question	common
respect	gulf	unless	knowledge
European	nourish	separates	scientifically
revenge	club	empire	quantity
pilgrimage	hurry	said	nobody
risen	dove (n)	developing	forget
Christian	question	student	success
division	unless	America	gentleman
religion	defence	segregation	listened
responsible	situation	sweat	support
finance	should	defence	correct
natural	useful	situation	together
than	Muslim	should	majority
ambassador	woman	useful	themselves
arrows	football	Muslim	separation
rational	wolves	woman	ok
Iranians	Kuwait	football	great
language	Portuguese	wolves	Israel
nothing	monarchy	Kuwait	sacred
herself	Penelope	broadcast	Israeli
famous	continue	called	change
mathematics	Asia	altered	faint
certificate	focus	chance	pagans
medium	interpreter	karate	separates
speakers	nationality	heart	ancient
parental	teach	France	laidback
postpone	media	worst	exposé
condition	seize	journey	steak
Russia	female	confirmed	maniac
previously	demon	work	Jamaica
blasphemous	feisty	prefer	also

soldiers	group	Germany	whole
regionalist	superior	journal	program
social	resolution	circumstances	no
kingdom	manoeuvring	worship	soul
forlorn	suitcase	deter	focus
sufficient	school	cited	nobody
Switzerland	supreme	Allies	spoke
abolished	tomb	allied	phonological
survive	juice	lie	whole
morality	call	alibi	chosen
fortune	before	Nile	their
Arabs	launch	client	vary
specific	pause	allow	bear
television	also	doubt	declared
permitted	war	outrageous	prayer
outrageous	rewarded	devout	share
operation	ball	oust	diehard
intimacy	pour	arrange	twenty
album	wrought	change	but
agree	Bulgarian	afraid	that
Finland	pear	royal	time
compassion	idea	loyal	traced
ambassador	prepared	bomb	arsenal
complete	idea	tomb	category
community	experience	anything	to
		psychic	postpone
convince	material	secondary	take
concentrate	variable	cat	etc.
until	Algeria	heartache	don't
continue	pear	masochist	Britain
conceit	curiosity	execute	cannot
Florence	curious	cake	teaching
unless	European	patriarch	preached
condition	Europe	doing	tea
responsible	curate	thing or not	apostle
contemplate	Eurocentric	targets	tame
identify	society	gang	well
sentimental	require	thing is	language
principle	pioneer	gigabyte	world
environment	bias	psychic	half
linguistic	acquire	paper	filthy
encamp	diocese	psywar	possibility
impractical	number	prepare	tackled
imbecile	slumber	disagree	calf
suitable	function	question	these
suicide	pronunciation	parts	worthy
spiritual	unfortunately	paradise	feather
nuisance	sunder	suggestion	smooth
intuition	fundamentalist	question	fact
nuclear	uncomfortable	resources	robbed

experience	translate	translate	banks
audience	gracious	standard	bonds
months	invasion	play	bank
think	corrosion	pray	belt
three	censure	pure	bent
think	French	schwa	best
mathematics	mixture	shrink	books
catholic	troops	skin	bump
threaten	Christianity	slow	fifths
wealthy	archer	smell	helped
proof	stricture	snow	lapsed
of	trance	sphere	next
first	job	spin	twelfth
practise	procedure	stick	prompts
Prague	vestige	suit	sixths
iron	soldier	swear	texts
brilliant	beauty	three	twelfths
Chris	bleak	train	prisoner
honest	break	tune	adolescence
hypocrites	clay	twelve	considered
Swahili	cute	view	girls
heir	drain	sclerosis	real
hybrid	due	scream	thing
King Hussein	dwell	skew	obligatory
written	few	spew	essence
quotation	flew	split	altered
wrench	fry	spring	never
banquet	glue	square	political
failure	grey	stew	sling
occur	huge	strike	question
luxurious	mute	bags	suggestion
abjure	new		

Appendix 5

The Sentences Used in the Confirmation Test

A man of ninety and a woman of seventy.

They haven't been beaten yet.

Tea for two and two for tea; me for you and you for me.

This is the cat that killed the rat that ate the malt that lay in the house that jack built.

I think I saw three wealthy men on Thursday. Both of them thought of pulling their teeth out.

His birth is on the ninth of this month.

Birds of the same feather flock together.

This is rather a hot weather. My mother, father, and brothers are there.

My brother will write a brief but relevant article.

I disagree with that boring writer.

Never trouble trouble until trouble troubles you.

I think we have got to help him both you and I as soon as we can do that.

A man is as old as he feels and a woman as old as she looks.

Appendix 6

The Story Used in the Confirmation Test

The Story of Arthur the Rat

There was once a young rat named Arthur, who would never take the trouble to make up his mind. Whenever his friends asked him if he would like to go out with them, he would only answer: "I don't know". He wouldn't say "yes" and he wouldn't say "no" either. He could never learn to make a choice. His aunt Helen said to him: "No one will ever care for you, if you carry on like this; you have no more mind than a blade of grass". Arthur looked wise but said nothing.

One rainy day the rats heard a great noise in the loft where they lived. The pine rafters were all rotten, and at last one of the joists had given way and fallen to the ground. The walls shook and all the rats' hair stood on end with fear and horror. "This won't do" said the old rat, who was chief, "I'll send out scouts to search for a new home." Three hours later, the seven scouts came back and said: "We've found a stone house which is just what we wanted: there is room and good food for us all; there is a kindly horse named Nelly, a cow, a calf, and a garden with an elm tree." Just then, the old rat caught sight of young Arthur. "Are you coming with us?" He asked; "I don't know." Arthur said, "The roof may not come down just yet." "Well," said the old rat angrily, "we can't wait all day for you to make up your mind". "Right, about face! March!" And they went off.

Arthur stood and watched the other rats hurry away. The idea of an immediate decision was too much for him. "I will go back to my hole for a bit," he said to himself, "just to make up my mind."

That night there was a great crash that shook the earth, and down came the whole roof. Next day some men rode up and looked at the ruins. One of them moved a board and under it they saw a young rat lying on his side, quite dead, half in half out of his hole.

Appendix 7

The Word List of Teacher 1 and 2 Once Recorded as Students

Teacher 1

interested	allies	basing
issue	changed	based
losses	Israel	hate
nothing	change	to make
public	only	painful
country	no	world
said	experience	calm
didn't	understand	full
painful	complete	Arsenal
Kuwait	concerning	oil
was	experience	impossible
occurred	until	proof
success	confronting	hours
objectivity	concern	Christian
specifics	confession	occurred
speak	difference	French
war	experience	reject
France	wrong	strong
occurred		

Teacher 2

included	protected	base
rated	obliged	basing
needed	religious	disagreed
protected	fortune	liked
religious	American	asked
little	familiar	all
Algeria	attached	girls
nothing	themselves	field
money	condition	build
another	specific	building
other	continue	still
religion	perhaps	steal
empire	medicines	will
forgotten	stadium	field
forbidden	feel	little
successful	teach	world
sufficient	teams	justifies
upon	steal	logic
studied	perfect	obliged
attached	lives	respect
asked	Christ	shuffled
obliged	afraid	wished
supporters	soul	perchance
supported	chosen	pause
supremely	concerning	outrageous
supreme	continue	heir

solution

principles

saviour

opinion

anything

heartache

Appendix 8

The LMD Syllabus for Oral Expression and Listening Comprehension

(Original in French)

PREMIER SEMESTRE

Oral : Techniques de l'Expression Orale	3h
---	----

DEUXIEME SEMESTRE

Oral : Techniques de l'Expression Orale	3h
---	----

TROISIEME SEMESTRE

Oral : Techniques de l'Expression Orale	3h
---	----

QUATRIEME SEMESTRE

Oral : Techniques de l'Expression Orale	3h
---	----

OPTION

SCIENCES DU LANGAGE (S5 ET S6)

Oral	4h	3	5	Compréhension et production de la langue dans des situations authentiques.
------	----	---	---	--

OPTION

LANGUES, LITTERATURES ET CIVILISATIONS (S5 ET S6)

Oral	4h 30	1	4	Familiariser l'étudiant à l'anglais parlé authentique et développer ses capacités à comprendre et à utiliser la langue en situation de discours.
------	-------	---	---	--

OPTION
LANGUES APPLIQUEES (S5 ET S6)

Oral	4h 30	3	5	Familiariser les étudiants à l'anglais parlé authentique (authentic colloquial R.P.) et leur permettre de renforcer leurs capacités à comprendre et à utiliser la langue en situations de discours
-------------	-------	---	---	--

CONTENU DES CURSUS

DE LICENCE EN LANGUES
ETRANGERES

PREMIER SEMESTRE

Oral : Techniques de l'Expression Orale

- Phonétique (apprentissage des sons/ Laboratoire).
- Construction de phrases orales à partir d'un thème défini.
- Contextes d'utilisation du langage.
- Productions langagières en situation de discours.

DEUXIEME SEMESTRE

Oral : Techniques de l'Expression Orale

- Phonétique (apprentissage des sons/ Laboratoire).
- Construction de phrases orales à partir d'un thème défini. - Contextes d'utilisation du langage.
- Productions langagières en situation de discours.

TROISIEME SEMESTRE

Oral : Techniques de l'Expression Orale

- Phonétique (apprentissage des sons/ Laboratoire).
- Construction de phrases orales à partir d'un thème défini.
- Contextes d'utilisation du langage.
- Productions langagières en situation de discours.

QUATRIEME SEMESTRE

Oral : Techniques de l'Expression Orale

- Phonétique (apprentissage des sons/ Laboratoire).
- Construction de phrases orales à partir d'un thème défini.
- Contextes d'utilisation du langage.
- Productions langagières en situation de discours.

OPTION : LANGUES, LITTERATURES ET CIVILISATIONS ETRANGERES

CINQUIEME SEMESTRE

Oral : Littératures Orales

- Phonétique (apprentissage des sons/ Laboratoire).
- Construction de phrases orales à partir d'un thème défini.
- Contextes d'utilisation du langage.
- Productions langagières en situation de discours

OPTION : LANGUES, LITTERATURES ET CIVILISATIONS ETRANGERES

SIXIEME SEMESTRE

Oral : Littératures Orales

- Phonétique (apprentissage des sons/ Laboratoire).
- Construction de phrases orales à partir d'un thème défini.
- Contextes d'utilisation du langage.
- Productions langagières en situation de discours.

OPTION : SCIENCES DU LANGAGE
CINQUIEME SEMESTRE

Oral : Littératures Orales

- Phonétique (apprentissage des sons/ Laboratoire).
- Construction de phrases orales à partir d'un thème défini.
- Contextes d'utilisation du langage.
- Productions langagières en situation de discours.

OPTION : SCIENCES DU LANGAGE
SIXIEME SEMESTRE

Oral : Littératures Orales

- Phonétique (apprentissage des sons/ Laboratoire).
- Construction de phrases orales à partir d'un thème défini.
- Contextes d'utilisation du langage.
- Productionslangagières en situation de discours.

OPTION : LANGUE APPLIQUEES
CINQUIEME SEMESTRE

Oral : Techniques de l'expression orale

- Phonétique (apprentissage des sons/ Laboratoire).
- Construction de phrases orales à partir d'un thème défini. - Contextes d'utilisation du langage.
- Productions langagières en situation de discours.

OPTION : LANGUE APPLIQUEES
SIXIEME SEMESTRE

Oral : Techniques de l'expression orale

- Phonétique (apprentissage des sons/ Laboratoire).
- Construction de phrases orales à partir d'un thème défini. - Contextes d'utilisation du langage.
- Productions langagières en situation de discours.

PROGRAMMES
DE L'ANNEE DE SPECIALITE DE L'OPTION 'LANGUE APPLIQUEE AU
DOMAINE DU TOURISME'

CINQUIEME SEMESTRE

Anglais/langue2

- Entraînement à la Communication Orale à partir de Situations Professionnelles
- 11h Anglais

SIXIEME SEMESTRE

Anglais/langue2

- Entraînement à la Communication Orale à partir de Situations Professionnelles
- 11h Anglais

Appendix 9

The Questionnaire Provided to the Teachers of the Department of English

QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire is set to investigate the phonological interlanguage of the students of English as a foreign language at the department of Languages. Your help to complete this research work is greatly needed and will be so much appreciated. It will be extremely kind of you to answer all questions to the best of your knowledge. Please fill in the blanks and draw a circle around the letter that applies best in the following:

Rank: **a. Vacataire b. titulaire c. chargé de cours d. maître de conférence
e. professeur**

1. How many years have you been teaching?
..... years.

2. How many years have you taught oral expression and listening comprehension?
..... years.

3. What are the classes that you have taught? Please, indicate between parentheses the number of years for each class.

a. 1st year (.....) b. 2nd year (.....) c. 3rd year (.....)

4. What objectives among the following have you often set for your oral expression and listening comprehension course?

a. Correct and accent free English b. intelligible English c. accurate comprehension d. overall comprehension

5. What is the language variety that you have often used in your teaching?

a. Standard b. substandard c. a mixture of both

6. Whatever your answer is, please justify why.

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

7. What is the standard or substandard variety that you have often set as a model?

a. British English b. American English c. a mixture of both

8. Whatever your answer is, please justify why.

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

9. What kind of teaching materials have you often used?
a. Authentic materials b. non-authentic materials c. both (% of a.....)
10. Which of the following have you often used during the classroom sessions?
a. Text study b. language games c. discussions d. verse and rhymes e. dictation
f. role-play and simulations g. problem solving tasks h. reports and assignments
i. reading. j. pictures k. storytelling. l. reciting m. other
means.....
.....
.....
11. Which of the following have you often used in the laboratory sessions?
a. Pronunciation drills b. conversations c. radio programmes d. songs e.
videos.
f. other means
.....
.....
12. How many times have you let your students listen to a recorded material in the laboratory before answering written or oral questions?
a. Once b. twice c. thrice d. many times
13. What have your questions about the recorded materials targeted?
a. The gist b. the main facts and ideas c. the minute details
14. Which of the following approaches has applied most to your teaching of the oral skills?
a. Structural b. functional and communicative c. situational d. notional
e. eclectic
15. What has your approach to the errors made by the students been?
a. They are obstacles to learning and must be eradicated b. They are part of
learning and must be overlooked. c. Some are serious and need to be eradicated,
but some are not and can be overlooked (Examples
.....
.....
16. What have you often corrected in the performance of your students?
a. Errors of fact and logic b. errors of grammar c. errors of articulation c.
other types of errors.....
.....
.....
17. When have you often corrected your students?
a. Promptly b. when the student's turn is over c. in special feedback sessions
18. How would you qualify the manner in which you have corrected your students?
a. Direct and explicit b. subtle and implicit
19. Have you used the International Phonetic Alphabet in your teaching, correction, and assessment of oral expression and listening comprehension?
a. Yes b. no
20. What is the percentage that you have allocated to pronunciation in your course?

..... %

21. How have you tested the performance of your students?

- a. Tête-à-têtes
- b. pronunciation drills
- c. dictations
- d. readings
- e. written tests using the Roman alphabet
- f. written tests using the phonetic alphabet
- g. written tests using both the Roman alphabet and the phonetic one.

22. How would you rate your accent in English?

- a. Native
- b. near native
- c. foreign

23. What are the languages that have interfered on the pronunciation of your students? Please write the percentage of each.

- a. Dialectal Arabic.....
- b. Berber ... %
- c. Standard Arabic..... %
- d. Standard French..... %
- e. English itself..... %

24. Can you provide one example of each of the above sources of influence that you have selected?

- Dialectal Arabic.....
-
- Berber.....
-
- Standard Arabic.....
-
- Standard French.....
-
- English itself.....
-

25. What is the best score and the worst one that your students have obtained?

Best score...../20 worst score...../20

26. Classify in order of importance the elements that you have assessed in your students' performance (please, assign one letter to each class below):

- a. Knowledge
- b. reasoning line
- c. coherence, brevity and conciseness
- d. articulation of segments
- e. mastery of the suprasegmental aspects (stress, intonation, and other aspects of connected speech)
- f. syntax
- g. vocabulary
- h. fluency

1st 2nd 3rd 4th 5th 6th 7th 8th

27. List the practical and theoretical references that have inspired you in the selection, grading, and implementation of your teaching materials.

- a.....
- b.....
- c.....
- d.....

28. Indicate the percentage that you allocate to each of the following aspects in your course:

- a. Listening.....%
- b. reading.....%
- c. speaking%
- d. theoretical input.....%

29. What is the nature of the topics with which you have mostly dealt in your course?
a. General b. political c. social d. scientific e. literary f. historical
g. linguistic
h. other types.....

30. Have you sometimes used Arabic or French when addressing the students? Why?
a. Yes b. no

31. Whatever your answer is, please justify why
.....
.....
.....

32. Have you tolerated that the students sometimes use Arabic or French when performing in English? Why?
a. Yes b. no

33. Whatever your answer is, please justify why
.....
.....
.....

34. What has the percentage of the students who are usually reluctant to participate in your class been?
.....%

35. How would you explain their reluctance?
a. Lack of knowledge and culture b. weak linguistic competence c. psychological factors
d. other explanations.....
.....
.....

36. What has the percentage of your participation in the class, when explaining, directing, and providing feedback generally been?
.....%

37. Have you sometimes recorded the students' performance for review, analysis, and feedback?
a. Yes b. no

38. Have you sometimes recorded yourself for self analysis and improvement?
a. Yes b. no

39. Have some of your students mixed between American and English forms of pronunciation?
a. Yes b. no c. I am not sure

40. Have you devoted part of your course to some theoretical input?

ملخص الرسالة

تهدف هذه الدراسة إلى وصف علمي للغة البيئية الفونولوجية التي تميز طلبة ليسانس اللغة الإنجليزية على مستوى دائرة اللغة الإنجليزية في جامعة قسنطينة. يتم هذا الوصف من خلال تحليل أخطاء نطق الأصوات ونطق العناصر التي تتعدها كالنبرة في اللغة الإنجليزية. ويساهم هذا البحث بصفة عملية في تقديم بعض النصائح والتوصيات بشأن إعداد برنامج تدريس للنطق والتعبير الشفهي يكون أكثر فعالية وملائمة. ولا يتم وصف هذا النظام البيئي دون فهم كامل ودقيق لظاهرة التحويل الفونولوجي بصفة عامة واستراتيجيات الطلبة في تعلم نطق اللغة الإنجليزية بصفة خاصة. وتشكل هذه اللغة البيئية منطلقا لإيجاد طريقة أحسن لتزويد الطلبة بمعطيات نظرية أكثر ملائمة تكون كفيلة بتحسين نطقهم للغة الإنجليزية وفهم من يحسنون نطقها.

إن أغلبية الأخطاء التي يرتكبها الطلبة في نطق اللغة الإنجليزية تنسب في اللغة الإنجليزية نفسها. ويرجع هذا إلى تصور خاطئ من قبل هؤلاء الطلبة للعلاقة بين الأصوات من جهة والكتابة من جهة أخرى. ومما يعقد الأمر تأثير اللغة الفرنسية لغتهم الأكاديمية الثانية بعد اللغة العربية وانسجام كتابتها نسبيا مع نطقها. ويؤدي هذان العاملان معا إلى جعل اللغة الفرنسية أول مصدر للأخطاء في اللغة الإنجليزية من ضمن المصادر اللغوية الخارجية. ويدعم هذا الأمر تصور خاطئ للمتعلمين بأن اللغة الفرنسية أقرب إلى اللغة الإنجليزية من اللغة العربية التي يتقنونها أحسن بصيغتها الدارجة والفصحى. ويؤدي هذا إلى تأثير اللغة الفرنسية على نطق اللغة الإنجليزية بنسبة تفوق كثيرا لغة فطرتهم. وباستقرار هذا التصور الخاطئ تستقر هذه اللغة البيئية وتصبح أكثر انتظاما وتقاوم مختلف العوامل الخارجية. ولذلك يستدعي كل مجهود بيداغوجي تصحيح هذه التصورات في أذهان الطلبة بادئ ذي بدء.

Résumé de la thèse

La contribution théorique de ce travail de recherche consiste à décrire de manière scientifique l'interlangue phonologique des étudiants de licence au département d'anglais université de Constantine. Cette étude porte aussi bien sur les sons de l'anglais que sur des éléments de prononciation au delà des sons tels que l'accent. Sa contribution d'ordre pratique est de suggérer une alternative à la manière avec laquelle la prononciation est enseignée comme partie du module d'expression orale. La description de l'interlangue phonologique ne peut se faire sans comprendre le phénomène de transfert phonologique de manière général et en particulier les stratégies adoptées par les étudiants de licence dans leur apprentissage de la prononciation de la langue anglaise. C'est sur la base de cette interlangue, une fois décrite, qu'un programme plus adéquat d'enseignement de l'oral et de la prononciation sera conçu; un programme qui accordera plus d'importance à l'aspect théorique et formel de la prononciation qui tend à être négligée au nom d'une approche pseudo fonctionnelle et communicative, mais sans pour autant négliger l'aspect intellectuel et psychologique.

Les résultats de la recherche montrent que la plus grande partie des erreurs commises par les apprenants investigués est d'ordre intralingual. Ceci est dû à une conception erronée de la relation entre graphème et phonème dans la langue anglaise. Cette conception est compliquée par un rapport plus régulier entre prononciation et orthographe dans la langue française, leur deuxième langue académique après l'arabe académique qu'ils maîtrisent plus. La conséquence de cette vision plutôt complexe du système des sons anglais en relation avec les orthographes anglais et français est que la langue française devient la première source d'erreurs de nature interlinguale. Cette fausse conception est stimulée par une certaine notion inhérente à leur performance qui est que le français est plus proche de l'anglais que les deux variétés de l'arabe et, donc,

plus apte au transfert. La persistance de cette fausse conception lors de la performance contribue énormément à la stabilité de cette interlangue qui en résulte, sa systématique, et sa résistance à divers variables. Tout effort pédagogique visant à enseigner ou à améliorer la prononciation et l'oral en langue anglaise devrait se concentrer sur la correction de telles conceptions dans l'esprit des étudiants.