Some Difficulties Of Teaching/learning

English Speech Sounds For Students Whose Native Language Is Arabic

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Section One

1.1. The Problem:

(Kelly, Gerald 2000: P13-14)

Problems and approaches in pronunciation teaching: there are two key problems with pronunciation teaching. Firstly it tends to be neglected. And secondly when it is not neglected, it tends to be reactive to a particular problem that has arisen in the classroom rather than being strategically planned

(Ken worthy 1987: P4-8) states that:

Native language is one of the six variables that affect learning the pronunciation of a target language. Different languages have different phonological systems and different sets of phonemes.

Therefore, teaching a new language entails teaching the phonemes of that target language. Since there are common phonemes between any two languages, thus focus must be done on the different ones and especially the phonemes of the target language which are not available in the native language of the learner. Therefore, an English teacher who teaches pupil's/student's whose native language is Arabic must take this factor into consideration. This could be emphasized by focusing on the similarities and differences between English phonemes and Arabic.

Because of the presence of such a case, teachers teach English in Iraq face this problem in the present study, we try to shed light on this area with appropriate solutions.

Richards Jack on p: 175-176 states that:

Phonology includes the role of individual sounds and sound segments, that is features at the segmental level, as well as suprasegmental features such as stress, rhythm, and intonation. The fact that few second language learners are able to speak a second language without showing evidence of the transfer of pronunciation features of their native language is evidence of the difficulty of acquiring a nativelike pronunciation, but also of the goals learners set for themselves. Many learners are quite comfortable to show evidence of their native language on their second language phonology, since it is sometimes viewed as a core part of their cultural identity. Within the field of language teaching ideas on the value of teaching pronunciation are often at variance. Some believe that teachers can do little to
influence the natural cause of L2 phonological with its often less than satisfactory results; others believe that teaching can play an important role not only in helping learners develop ways of improving their pronunciation, but also in shaping their attitudes toward the nature and importance of pronunciation


Diagnosing learners spoken English the phonological features we focus or need to be related to the 'problems' the learners are encountering.(1) by collecting date of the learners' general speaking habits, so that we can identify individual learner 'problems' and those common to the group.

(2) Collecting samples of learners' speech, on cassette or video. For the first analysis, it is probably least traumatic for the learners if we collect a monologue of learners speaking about themselves for 1 minute.

At a later date we can collect spontaneous samples of dialogues between learners.

We have devise a one–page diagnostic learner profile with the following headings:

Clarity, speed, loudness, breathing, fluency, voice, gestural expressions, eye gaze, intonation, stress rhythm, consonants and vowels. Diagnose learners speech according to these categories it has been found

Firth's(1987) diagnostic profile particularly useful for determining those elements which reflect the needs of the majority of learners in the class. P:(189–190).

Problems of Teaching English Speech Sounds to Arab Students

Herbert (1993:15–22) in her paper argues that teachers often neglect pronunciation or focus on problems of single sounds at the expense of more significant global features. In addition to teaching learners how to produce specific sound teaching must also address the prosodic features of language such as stress and rhythm, intonation, pitch variation, and volume Herbert shows how teacher can construction diagnostic profile of their learners pronunciation difficulties as a basis for providing feed back and for planning instruction she provides an approach with some detailed examples of how to teach these global features.

Brown (2001:283–5) state that

On some factor with in learners that affect pronunciation and how can you deal with each of them?

Below is a list (adopted from Kent worthy 1987:4–8) of variables that you showed consider:

the native language is the most influential factor affecting a learners pronunciation, if you are familiar with the sound system of a learners native language, you will be better able to diagnose student difficulties.
Exposure:

It is difficult to define exposure one can actually live in a foreign country for some time but not take advantage of being "with the people". Research seems to support the notion that the quality and intensity of exposure are more important than mere length of time if class time spent focusing on pronunciation demands the full attention and interest of your students then they stand a good chance of reaching their goals.

1.2: The aim

The current study aimed at preparing and classifying the difficulties faced by pupils’ who suffer from the pronunciation difficulties which native speaking child encounter in teaching and learning to write. These difficulties lie at points where the phonemes and the written letter symbols don’t quite parallel each other.

Actually, this phonetic is used in two quite different senses, and as a language teachers will need to tell them a part (Stevick Earlw (1985) : p 165).

Section Two

The phonological system of modern standard Arabic is made up of 28 consonants and 6 pure vowels. Fifteen of the consonants in addition to two diphthongs are very much like English sounds and raise no difficulties. The remaining ones differ from English consonants in one way or another in their articulations to different extents. The speech sounds of standard Arabic are described phonetically in List (1) according to AL–Ani’s classification (1970:29). The standard Arabic consist of 36 speech sounds. The consonant sounds will be only described phonetically. According to Table (1) the Arabic consonants are described and classified in the following main features in distinguish each one from others. Therefore, the Arabic consonants can be categorized into two groups according to their place and manner of articulation as listed in Table (1).

2.1: The similarities and differences between Arabic and English consonants:

There are 28 consonant sounds in S.A. as in list (1). They are classified into groups according to their place and manner of articulation as in Table (1).

List (1) KEY TO ARABIC phonological symbols

Arabic consonants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Arabic</th>
<th>English</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[ʔ]</td>
<td>‘father’</td>
<td>[ʔab]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[b]</td>
<td>‘country’</td>
<td>[balad]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[t]</td>
<td>‘dates’</td>
<td>[tamr]</td>
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<td>[θ]</td>
<td>‘valuable’</td>
<td>[θamiin]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[d]</td>
<td>‘new’</td>
<td>[d adiid]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[h]</td>
<td>‘war’</td>
<td>[harb]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
[x] خ as in [xubz] 'bread' خ
[d] د as in [dubb] 'bear' د
[ð] ذ as in [ð ay] 'tail' ذ
[r] ر as in [raff] 'shelf' ر
[z] ز as in [zuhur] 'flowers' ز
[s] س as in [sayf] 'sword' س
[∫] ش as in [∫ imaal] 'north' ش
[s] ص as in [sabr] 'patience' ص
[d] ض as in [dayf] 'guest' ض
[t] ط as in [taalib] 'student' ط
[ð] ظ as in [ð ill] 'shadow' ظ
[∫] غ as in [∫ am] 'flag' غ
[∫] غ as in [∫ uyuum] 'clouds' غ
[f] ف as in [fa?s] 'axe' ف
[q] ق as in [qamar] 'moon' ق
[k] ك as in [kalb] 'dog' ك
[l] ل as in [lisaaan] 'tongue' ل
[m] م as in [miizan] 'balance' م
[n] ن as in [nawm] 'sleep' ن
[h] ه as in [huwa] 'he' ه
[w] و as in [waqt] 'time' و
[y] ي as in [yad] 'hand' ي
Table (1)

The Arabic Consonants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>q</th>
<th>k</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>d</th>
<th>b</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Vi. Stops</td>
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<td>Vd.</td>
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<tr>
<th>h</th>
<th>x</th>
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<th>f</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>Vi. Fricatives</td>
<td>Vd.</td>
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<th>n</th>
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<tr>
<td>Nasals</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lateral</td>
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<th>Y</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Semi–vowels</td>
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</table>

2:2: Stop Consonants:

Al–Ani(1970:31) defines the stop consonants physiologically according to two terms: “the first is the formation of a closure with in the vocal activity by one or more articulators where the diving pressure is blocked and the second term by the sudden release of that pressure”. As described by Al–Ani(ibid:30), the main points of articulation as follows:

/p/ is a voiceless bilabial stop in English. For example, p pupil’[pjui:p], pp: apple ’[apl] whereas no (p) sound in Arabic. Sometimes there is only ‘b’ which occurs as an interference may affect the production of this sound.

1–[b] This consonant sound is a voiced bilabial stop in Arabic. The two lips come together with a complete closure then the breath stream is released, e.g:


Whereas [b] is a voiced bilabial stop in English. for example, buy /bai/, able /’eibl/, robe /roub/.

2–[t] is a voiceless dental stop in Arabic sound. For example,[tuut] ‘blackberries’,
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3–[d] is a voiced dental stop in Arabic sound. For example, [dubb] 'bear', [hafiid] 'grandson', [?asdiqaa] 'friends'. /d/ is a voiced alveolar stop in English sound. For example, day [dei], middle ['midl', paid[peid]. Whereas /k/ is a voiceless velar stop in Arabic. This consonant sound is produced when the backpart of the tongue touches the soft palate (Abdul Jalil, 1998:178), e.g.: [kabiir] 'big' [fakk] 'jaw'.

4–[k] is a voiceless velar stop in Arabic. This consonants sound is produced When the back part of the tongue touches the soft palate (Abdul Jalil, 1998:178) e.g: [Kabiir] 'big' akiy] 'intelligent' [fakk] 'jaw'.

Whereas [k][j] is a voiceless alveolar stop in English. For example, come[ ], school [sku:l], sick [sik].

5–[q][؟] is a voiceless uvular stop in Arabic. The production of this consonant sound lies in the area of the uvula, when the back part of the tongue touches the soft palate. For example, [qaala] 'he said' [suuq] 'market', [taqra?] 'She reads'. Whereas no [q] sound in English. Nori (1991:90) states that [q] is the mufakhamm 'counterpart of [k], e.g.: [kalb] 'dog', and [qalb] 'heart',

6–[؟][ع] is a voiceless stop in Arabic consonants. For example, [t؟aam] 'food'. There is no[؟][ع] sound in English.

But according to Al-Ani's acoustical analysis, it is a voiceless stop. However, this consonant sound needs further intensive physiological investigation and careful acoustic analysis (1970:32), e.g.: [؟al] 'name of a boy' [tat؟aam] 'food' [؟][ل]: it is a voiceless glottal stop in Arabic. (Nasr, 1967:24). This consonant sound is produced when the vocal cords are completely close together and then they are released (Nori, 1991:86), e.g.: [samaa?] 'sky' [؟asmaa?] 'name of a girl'.

Fricative consonants

Fricatives are produce when two organs come together that the air moving between them produces audible friction (Crystal, 1991:143).

/ f / is a voiceless labio- dental fricative in Arabic.

This consonant sound is produced by touching the lower lip with upper teeth; the air stream passes with some friction (Erwin, 1963:6).

e.g: [ fagiir ], poor ' [ xaafa ], afraid ' [ xariif ], autumn '
Whereas \[f\] is a voiceless labio-dental fricative in English. For example, initially ‘father’, medially ‘elephant’, finally ‘laugh’.

\[\theta\] [ث] It is a voiceless interdentally fricative in Arabic. This consonant sound is produced when the tip of the tongue is between the upper and lower teeth and the air passes through a narrow obstruction (Bishr, 1975:118)

e.g. [Maθal] ‘proverb’. Whereas /θ/ [ث] is a voiceless dental in English, for example, three /θri:/

familiar with the sound system of a learner’s native language, you will be better able to diagnose student difficulties.

\[\delta\] [ذ] It’s a voice interdental fricative in Arabic. This consonant sound is the voice counterpart of \[\theta\] (ibid.)

e.g. [ð anb] ‘guilt’ [xu ð ] ‘take’. Whereas [ð ] [ذ] is a voiced dental fricative, for example, this /ð is/, father /fɑː ð /, with [wiː ð ]

\[s\] is a voiceless dental fricative in Arabic (Beeston 1970:17).

This consonant sound is produced when the tip and blade of the tongue touch the gum, so that the air passes though a narrow gap that produces audible frication (Abdul Jalil, 1998:164)

e.g. as in [sayf] ‘sword’, [ʃams] ‘sun’

Where as [s] in English is voiceless alveolar fricative.

(example words: ‘sip’, ‘facing’, ‘rice’).

\[z\] [ز] It’s a voiced dental fricative in Arabic. This consonant sound is the voiced counterpart of [s] (Al-Ani, 1970:34),

e.g. [zayt] ‘oil’, [mawz] ‘bananas’

Where as [z] is voiced alveolar fricative in English, for example, zoo /zuː/, dizzy /ˈdɪzi/.\[ʃ \] is a voiceless palatal fricative in Arabic (Beeston, 1970:18).

As in [ʃimaal] ‘north’

Where as [ʃ, ʃː] a voiceless, palato-alveolar in English.

(example words: ‘ship’).

\[x\] [خ] is a voiceless velar fricative in Arabic. This consonant sound is produced when the back part of the tongue approaches the roof of the mouth in the area of the soft palate and the air stream passes through a narrow passage with frication

e.g. :- [ xaali ] ‘empty’

[axras ] ‘dumb’

[ʔax ] ‘brother’.

there is no [x ] [خ] sound in English.
[\La] \text{[\La]} : is a voiced velar fricative in Arabic. This consonant sound is the voiced counterpart of [x] (Bishr, 1975: 121),
e.g.: \text{[\La}aali] 'expensive',
[lu \La a] 'language',
[bali \La] 'eloquent'.
Whereas there is no [\La]sound in English.
\[h\] it is a voiceless pharyngeal fricative in Arabic. This consonant sound is produced by narrowing the gap of the air stream in the pharynx and then the air passes causing friction (Abdul Jalil, 1998: 182).
Similarly, mahdi, (1985: 10).
Emphasizes that this sound is produced when the roof of the tongue retracted towards the back wall of the pharynx, passing the air stream through narrow passage with friction.
For example:-- \[hatab\] 'firewood'
[lahm] 'meat'
[sabaah] 'morning'
\[h\] is a voiceless glottal fricative in Arabic. This consonant sound is produced when the air stream passes through the glottal with a slight friction,
e.g. \[haa\La a\] 'this'
[maahir] 'skilful'
Where as [h] is voiceless glottal fricative in English.
(For example:-- 'head'; 'ahead'; 'playhouse')
The place of articulation of this consonant is glottal, this means that the narrowing that produced the friction noise is between the vocal folds.

**Affricate Consonants**

[d3][\La] is a voiced palatal affricate in Arabic sound. This consonant sound is produced when the tip and blade of the tongue touch the roof of the mouth mainly in the area just behind the upper teeth and then the tongue releases its contact slowly causing audible friction. (Bishr, 1975: 122).
e.g. \[d3anna\] 'haven'
[\La\La ad3ara] 'tree'
[zawaad3] 'marriage'
[d3][\La] is a voiced palato-alveolar affricate in English.
e.g. just /d3\La st/
'soldier / sould3a /
'suggest' / sad3est /.
Whereas / tʃ / is a voiceless palato-alveolar affricate in English, there is no / tʃ / sound in Arabic.

e.g. for English affricate:  
‘Child’ [tʃ aild]  
‘watch’[wo tʃ]  
‘mischief’[mistʃif]

[tʃ],[dʒ] are the only two affricate phonemes in English. t$ is slightly aspirated in the positions where p, t, k are aspirated, but not strongly enough for it to be necessary for Arabic learners to give much attention to it (Roach Peter, 2000: p:54).

**Nasal consonant**

[ m ] is a voiced bilabial nasal in Arabic sound. This consonant sound is produced when the lips completely close and the air stream passes the nose.

e.g.: [mataar] ‘airport’ [samak] ‘fish’ [summ] ‘poison’.

/ m / is a voiced bilabial nasal in English sound.

For example:  
Move [mu:v]  
Camel [k æml]  
Him [him]

[ n ] is a voiced dental nasal, it is produced when the front part of the tongue touches the upper gum where the teeth emerge, closing the oral passage and the air stream passes through the nose.

e.g. [nahr] ‘river’,  
[banaat] ‘girls’,  

[ n ] is a voiced alveolar nasal in English sound.

e.g.  
‘know’ [nou],  
‘many’[mani],  
‘sign’ [sain].

**Trill**

/r/ is a voiced dental trill in Arabic sound. This consonant sound is produced by touching the tip of the tongue the gum behind the upper teeth, the tongue tip makes a series of taps against the gum ridge, while the air stream passes over the central part of the tongue that causes it to vibrate (Mahdi, 1985:12)

e.g. [ra?ṣ] ‘head’;  
[?ażraq] ‘blue’,
[ barr ] 'land'.
Where as /r/ is a voiced post alveolar fricative in English sound.
e.g. red [ red ]
' carry ' [ kari ];
' very ' [ veri ].

Notice that in connected speech / r / is pronounced when it is immediately followed by a vowel sound.

Notice also that / r / is pronounced as one tap trill in words like very /'veri/ , l. e. , the tip of the tongue strikes the alveolar ridge only once.

Laterallateral \l\ is a voiced dental lateral in Arabic sound, in the production of this consonant sound, bishr writes, cited in Ali Zaynab (2005) p:53, the Impact of Articulately problems on speech production.

The tip of the tongue touches the upper gum where the teeth emerge just a further back than [ n ] and the airstream passes out of the sides of the tongue. (1975:12), for example:[ layl ] 'night.

Whereas \l\ is a voiced alveolar lateral in English sound.
e.g. ' like ' [ laik ] , ' wall ' [ wo:l ] , ' early ' [ 3li ].
notice \l\ occurs before vowels and the simi–vowel \j\, it is called light \l\.
light \l\ occurs only in initial and medial position.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Initial</th>
<th>medial</th>
<th>final</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Listen \ , lisn \</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laugh \ la:f \</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>co lour \ k^l \</td>
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<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

When \l\ occurs before consonant and at the end of words, it is called dark \l\. 
e.g. build \bild \ , killed \kild \ , wall \ wo:l \.
dark \l\ occurs in medial and final positions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>initial</th>
<th>medial</th>
<th>final</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>almost \ 'o:lmoust \</td>
<td>school \ sku:l \</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>else \ els \</td>
<td>tell \ tel \</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notice that in connected speech dark \l\ at the end of words becomes light when followed by a vowel sound or the semi–vowel \j\.

Semi–vowel
Semi–vowel are also called sonorants and some phoneticians call them approximants. Semi–vowels are those sounds that are phonetically similar to vowels but phonetically they function as consonants. There are two semi–vowels in Arabic consonants:
A. [w]:is a bilabial semi–vowel in Arabic. This consonant sound is formed when the lips
are rounded and the back part of the tongue is high (Mahdi, 1985:12), e.g.  [walad] 'boy'  
[law] 'if'.

\w\ is always followed by a vowel sound, so it dose not occur in word – final position.

B.[y]: is a voiced palatal semi-vowel in Arabic sound. In the production of this  
consonant sound, the front part of the tongue is high and it touches the area just behind the  
gum, and the lips are rounded(Bishr, 1975:133), e.g.[miyaah] 'waters'

e.g. y  yes  \jes\ 
\y\ occurs only before vowels. So it dose not occur in word – final position in English.

For example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Initial</th>
<th>medial</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yet</td>
<td>\jet\</td>
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<tr>
<td>beyond</td>
<td>\b\jond\</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.3: The English speech sounds

English speech sounds are classified into two class consonant and vowels. The following diagram shows the detail classification of English speech sounds.

A. English speech sounds classified into consonant and vowels.  
B. English consonants classified into V.L and voice.  
C. English voiceless consonants are classified into voiceless consonants

\P\, \T\, \K\, \F\, \TH\, and \H\  
D. English voiced Consonants.

2.4: Consonant Sounds

Speech Sounds Classification

There are certain methods of classifying consonant sounds.

Consonants are classified according to the organs articulating them and according to  
the manner of their articulation.

is also possible to combine the movement of the vocal cords with the articulation of any  
consonant, i.e. , consonants can be either voiced or voiceless. ' In most languages there  
occur numbers of pairs of consonants by lips, tongues, teeth, etc. in exactly the same way  
and differing in the presence and absence of voice / p b , f v ; O , s z, etc/.

It should also be noticed that voiceless consonants require more force of exhalation  
than voiced constants and are articulated with greater vigour; there is a tighter closure for  
plosive and a sharper release, and for the fricatives a smaller opening. ( Ward, 1972: 129  
; Roach, 19). this is what is called fertislenis dichotomy

2.2 Standard English and Standard Arabic Consonant. For English,The notation used in the  
consonant of English is based on the consonant of British English, in A.C. Gimson's
International Phonetic Alphabet are as follows:

**The consonant of English**

The consonants of British English, in A. C. Gimson’s International Phonetic are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CONSONANTS</th>
<th></th>
<th>CONSONANTS</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>P</strong></td>
<td>as in pen/pen/</td>
<td><strong>s</strong></td>
<td>as in so/or/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>b</strong></td>
<td>as in bad/bed/</td>
<td><strong>z</strong></td>
<td>as in zoo/zoo/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>t</strong></td>
<td>as in tea/ti/</td>
<td><strong>ð</strong></td>
<td>as in she/ði/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>d</strong></td>
<td>as in did/did/</td>
<td><strong>3</strong></td>
<td>as in vision/v3n/</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>k</strong></td>
<td>as in cat/kæt/</td>
<td><strong>h</strong></td>
<td>as in how/hau/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>g</strong></td>
<td>as in got/gu/t/</td>
<td><strong>m</strong></td>
<td>as in man/maen/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>t3</strong></td>
<td>as in June/dʒu:n/</td>
<td><strong>ŋ</strong></td>
<td>as in sing/snŋ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>f</strong></td>
<td>as in fall/fɔ:1/</td>
<td><strong>l</strong></td>
<td>as in leg/leg/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>v</strong></td>
<td>as in voice/ʋau/s/</td>
<td><strong>r</strong></td>
<td>as in red/red/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>θ</strong></td>
<td>as in thin/θi:n/</td>
<td><strong>j</strong></td>
<td>as in yes/jes/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ð</strong></td>
<td>as in then/ðen/</td>
<td><strong>w</strong></td>
<td>as in wet/wet/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2:5: O’connor J.D. (2003: P39–60) There are four pairs of phonemes containing stops /p, b/ /t, d/, /k, g/ and t$, 3/, and like the friction consonants one of each pair is strong and the other weak stop consonants in English. /p, b/ /p/ is a strong stop consonant and /b/ is a weak one. /t/ and /d/ /t/ is a strong stop consonant and /d/ is a weak one.3/ /k/ and /g/ /k/ is a strong stop consonant and /g/ is a weak. /t$ / and /d$ /

As the phonetic symbols suggest, /t$ / and /d$ / are stop consonants of a special kind. The air is trapped as for all the stop consonants, but it is released with definite friction of the /$ , 3/ kind.

O’connor J.D. (1980: 138–140) states that:

The difficulties of English pronunciation for speakers Arabic focus on some of the consonants and vowels are referred to as equivalent in English and the other language. But this does not mean that we need not bother with these sounds. It means that these sounds are independent in the language concerned, that they are a useful starting point for acquiring the correct English sound and they will probably not cause any misunderstanding if they are used in English.

In some cases an equivalent sound may be very different from the English one, e.g. the tongue-tip roll or tap for /r/ in Arabic, but English listeners will nevertheless recognize it as /r/.
The main difficulties are listed and speakers of Arabic language are advised to pay special attention to this part which deal with these difficulties, but do not assume that these are the only difficulties; for everyone, the only reliable guide is a critical ear and, if possible, a good teacher.

**Nasal Consonants**

There are three phonemes in English which are represented by nasal consonants /m, n, ŋ/ in all nasal consonants the soft palate is lowered and at the same time the mouth passage is blocked at some point, so that all the air is pushed out of the nose.

-/m/ and /n/ All languages have consonants which are similar to /m/ and /n/in English.

/ŋ/ this is the third English nasal consonants and the only one likely to cause trouble, because many languages do not have a consonant formed like /ŋ/.

First of all that the letters /ng/ in words like sing represent only one sound for most English speakers.

**Lateral Consonant**

One English consonant –/l/– is formed laterally, that is, instead of the breath passing down the centre of the mouth, it passes round the sides of an obstruction set up in the centre.

**Gliding Consonants**

There are three consonants which of a quick, smooth, non-friction glide towards a following vowel sound, the consonants /j, w, r/.

/j/ This consonants is a quick glide from the position of the vowel /i:/ or /I/to any other vowel.

/w/ This consonants consists of a quick glide from the vowel /u:/ or /u/ to whatever vowel follows.

/r/ This is the third of the gliding consonants, but it does not resemble one of the English vowels as /j/ and /w/ do.

**Baghdadi Arabic**

B. A. is the most famous dialect in Iraq which well understood by all Iraqies.

2:6: **Consonants:**

EQUIVALENTS: /f, s, z, h, t, k, b, d, g, t, m, n, l, j, w, r/

2:7: **DIFFICULTIES AND SOLUTIONS**

1. /f/ and /v/ may be confused, /f/ being used for both, but /v/ may occur in Arabic in borrowed names.

2. /θ/ and /ð/ occur independently in some forms of Arabic (Iraqi, Saudi Arabian, Kuwaiti, etc) but not in Egyptian Arabic, where they are replaced by /s/ and /z/.
3. /3/ occurs in Arabic only in borrowed words and is often replaced by either /s/ or /z/.
4. /p/ and /b/ are confused /b/ being used for both.
5. /t∫/ and /d/ are dental stops in Arabic.
6. Stops are not generally exploded in final position in Arabic and the strong stops are often unaspirated.
7. /t/ and /d/ may be confused, /t/ being used for both, though in practice /d/ does not usually give difficulty.
8. /ŋ/ does not occur independently in Arabic and is replaced by /ŋk/ or /ŋg/.
9. /r/ is a tongue-tip roll or tap in Arabic and is often used before consonants and before a pause.
10. /l/ occurs in both its clear and dark forms in Arabic, but they are distributed differently and may sometimes be interchanged in English.

Sequence of three or more consonants do not occur in many forms of Arabic and careful attention must be paid to these, especially in order to prevent the occurrence of a vowel to break up the consonant sequence.

Stevic Earl w. (1982: P: 166–167, 181–182) states that:

To show the differences in training the production of the phonemes of the target language

Languages differ according to which physical (and which potentially audible) differences they train their speakers to notice, and which ones they train them to ignore. Much of your work as a teacher of pronunciation will come from the fact that your students, in their experience with their native language (s), have acquired the skill of overlooking differences which they must pay attention to in the language you are teaching them.

(1) The difference between p with and without a puff of air, then, is 'not phonemic' in English.

(2) The difference between the first sound of pie and buy, on the other hand, is an example of a feature which is phonemic in English. In pie, we form the consonant more than in buy, and the vocal cords begin to vibrate a tiny fraction of a second later. (This feature, in turn, is not phonemic in some languages.)

(3) In its second, more technical meaning, then, phonetic means 'a difference between two sounds seen without regard to whether that difference is phonemic in one language or another. The nontechnical sense, on the other hand, refers to the overall relationship between the phonemes of a language and the writing system that people use in under to
represent them on paper.

(4) few phonemes are made up of an even smaller number of 'distinctive features.' The difference between the consonant sounds of pie and buy is actually the same as the difference between two and do or between seal and zeal or between coal and goal.

For the fundamental concepts: phoneme, phonemic, phonetic (in two senses) and distinctive feature.

Section Three

Speech sounds pronunciation

Conclusion

The description and comparison of the consonants in English and Arabic leads to finding many differences in the articulation of such speech sounds in the two languages. These differences, though not phonemic for the most of cases, make Arab learners having as foreign accent via reflecting many aspects of their native language in the production of the foreign language by such learners. This foreign accent can be easily diagnosed by native speakers of English.

In order to be more effective in teaching English to speakers of Arabic, the teacher of English ought to have some understanding of the native language of the learners as compared with that of the target language. A well-qualified teacher of English is the one who can interpret these differences and assimilate them in the teaching–learning process.

It has been noticed that the consonant sounds in both languages, i.e., Arabic and English, can be classified into three kinds:

A. Consonant sounds that are found in Arabic only. These include the following: /t/ , /d/ , /q/ , /X/ , / / , / / , /h/ , // and /S/ .
B. Consonant sounds that are found in English only. These include /p/ , /g/ , /tS/ , /3/ , /l/ , /v/ .
C. Consonant sounds that are found in both languages show some differences and similarities according to their place and manner of articulation.

As far as the differences are concerned, the following has been noticed:

(1) Stop consonant
(a) Although /t/ , /d/ both exist in English and Arabic, while in Arabic they are dental.
(b) The glottal stop /?/ is a distinct consonant sound that's often used, to start syllables beginning with vowels in Arabic yet, in English is not so.
(c) Voiceless stop consonants are aspirated in both languages the environment, the environment of the presence of this features is different.

(2) Fricative
(a) The phonemes /s/ and /z/ are both found in the two languages but with a slight
differences in the place of articulation: while in English the tip of the tongue approaches
closely the alveolar ridge, it approaches the upper front teeth in Arabic.

(b) The /θ/ and /ð/ are interdentals in Arabic as the air stream intervenes through the
upper front teeth, while in English they are dental.

(c) /h/ is heard to be more emphatic in Arabic than in English.

(d) /r/ is flap whenever pronounced in Arabic, i.e., the tongue tip touches the alveolar
ridge once. Yet, it is in English retroflex, i.e., the tongue is curled back with its tip
pointing towards the hard palate.

(3) Nasals

Both /m/ and /n/ are found in both languages, but they may act as syllabic in
English only. While /ŋ/ is a distinct phoneme in English, it is only on allophone of /n/ in
Arabic for example: sing /siŋ/ , singing /siŋiŋ/.

(4) Laterals

English has two variants of /l/ dark and light, in Arabic only the dark /l/ accurs in the
word [ alːaːh ] (= God). Moreover, /l/ is syllabic in English but not in

Suggestions and Recommendations


1–To make learners aware of phonological concepts, the learning process becomes more
comprehensible and enjoyable.

2–It's not only about putting (s) on plurals /s/, /z/, /iz/, or making past events with past–tense
markers /t/, or /d/.

3–By making learners aware of the role of phonological elements in discourse, we provide
them with a means for decoding and encoding meaning in exchanges: who the people
are, what their perceived status is, how they feel about what they are saying, cues for
signaling a change in topic, the status of the message ("I'm imparting information, you
listen", 'I'm asking you, answer me' or 'I'm not sure about what I'm saying') and boundary
marking ("I'm finished", 'I'm not finished yet').

4–Finally, we provide learners with a key to how the culture is articulated through language
and how to use language. Without this key, it is difficult to understand 'why and how'
people convey their intended meanings.

Jones (1997 p: 103–112) :-

Reviews the recent research into the acquisition of second language phonology and
examiners if and how these research findings are reflected in currently used pronunciation
teaching materials. Suggestion are made for developing materials that incorporate activities
more fully, addressing the communicative, psychological, and sociological dimension of pronunciation.

Reference

