

# **How colloquial Iraqi Language affects the Pronunciation of English Language learners**

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## **Abstract**

This study is an attempt to answer a nagging question asked by both teachers and learners of English whether or not the colloquial Iraqi Arabic (CIA) has an impact on the pronunciation of English. Pronunciation is one of the important features of spoken language. Pronunciation is crucially important, as it is usually the first thing people notice about language learners. The accurate pronunciation of Iraqi learners for English sounds means either they have acquired them (English sounds) well enough or they have similar sounds in their own language. While the wrong pronunciation may mean that the similarity is not always a good factor for precise pronunciation neither they have those sounds in their language. 100 Iraqi subjects from governmental schools participate in this study. All of them are at 15/16 years old and in fourth/fifth secondary class. Contrastive Linguistics and Error Analysis are used to analyze students' errors. Based on the findings, the study concluded that factors such as Interference, the differences in the sound system in the two languages, inconsistency of English sounds and spelling militate against Iraqi learners of English competence in pronunciation.

**Keywords:** colloquial Iraqi Arabic (CIA), Pronunciation, Contrastive Linguistics, Error Analysis, interference.

## **1. Introduction**

There is no doubt that since the establishment of contrastive studies as a special branch of Applied Linguistics in the late fifties, an impressive amount of research has been done in this field by a great number of scholars in various countries. During the late sixties, especially in the U.S.A., contrastive linguistics was widely accepted as sophisticated and reliable method for predicting and explaining learning difficulties. Researchers working in contrastive area attempt from an educational point of view to contrast languages, concentrating on the differences between them to be taught for second language (L2) (ESL) or foreign language (FL). According to Momani and Althaher(2015: 2) Fries, Lado and James are considered as the proponents of CA or the field study.

### **1.1 Contrastive Analysis**

The main idea of contrastive analysis, as propounded by Robert Lado in his book *Linguistics Across Cultures* (1957), was that it is possible to identify the areas of difficulty a particular foreign language will present for native speakers of another language by systematically comparing the two languages and cultures. Where the two languages and cultures are similar, learning difficulties will not be expected, where they are different, then learning difficulties are to be expected, and the greater the difference, the greater the degree of expected difficulty.

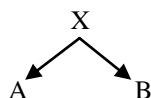
On the basis of such analysis, it was believed, teaching materials could be tailored to the needs of learners of a specific first language. While, Gass and Selinker (2008, p: 96), by contrast, consider contrastive analysis as: “ a way of comparing languages in order to determine potential errors for the ultimate purpose of isolating what needs to be learned and what does not need to be learned in a second- language-learning situation.”

The above definitions might mean that linguists, who believed in that, thought that the areas of similarities in languages would be facilitative and help the learner acquire or learn the target language easily. Whereas, it was supposed that areas of differences are the problematic ones. For instance, Fries (1945, p: 9, in Fisiak, 1983) thought so highly of CA that he pointed out “ the most efficient materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner”.

### **1.2 Kinds of Contrastive Analysis**

There are two types of contrastive studies: theoretical and applied. Theoretical contrastive studies give an exhaustive account of the differences and similarities between two or more languages, provide an adequate model for their comparison, and determine how and which elements are comparable, thus defining such notions as congruence, equivalence, correspondence, etc. In phonology, theoretical contrastive studies operate with phonological primes i.e., features and specify how these features function in the two or more languages being compared. In other words, theoretical contrastive studies are language independent. They do not investigate how a given category present in language A is presented in language B. Instead, they look for the realization of a universal

category X in both A and B. Thus theoretical contrastive linguistics does not have a direction from A to B, but rather as in fig 1:



Contrastive analysis is seen as an attempt to predict where learners may have difficulties and as a result making mistakes. The branches which contrastive analysis is involved with are translation, teaching, linguistics, textbook writing and error analysis. Contrastive analysis pays attention to different languages at phonological, lexical, syntactical and semantic levels. Applied contrastive studies provide a framework for comparison of languages, selecting whatever information is necessary for a specific purpose, eg teaching, bilingual analysis, translation, etc. They are concerned with 'how' and 'what' more than 'why' in the field of application. They deal with similarities in addition to differences. In other words they deal with surface representation of languages rather than do theoretical contrastive studies.

### 1.3 Error Analysis

Pit Corder, the British linguist, who re-focused attention on error from the perspective of language processing and language acquisition. In his seminal (1967) paper "The significance of learners' errors" he emphasized the learner's positive cognitive contribution to learning. His view was that the learner is engaged in a process of discovering the language. The learner forms hypotheses based on language input and tests those hypotheses in speech production. In this view errors are not only an inevitable but also, very importantly. It consists of a comparison between the errors made in the target language and that target language itself. It is important to note here that interference from the learner's mother tongue is not only reason for committing errors in his target language. Errors are classified by Richard (1971) into:

a) Overgeneralization, covering instances where the learners create a deviant structure on the basis of his experience of other structure of the target language; b) Ignorance of rule restriction, occurring as a result of failure to observe the restrictions or existing structures; c) Incomplete application of rules, arising when the learners fail to fully develop a certain structure required to produce acceptable sentences (Sharma1980); d) False concepts hypothesized, deriving from faulty comprehension of distinctions in the target language. Some errors can be attributed to weaknesses or failure of memory (Gorbet, 1979). He added that the theory of error analysis proposes that in order to learn a language, a person creates a system of 'rules' from the language data to which he is exposed; and this system enable him to use it.

### 1.4 Interference theory:

One of the important factors in studying contrastive analysis is paying attention to the definition of "interference Theory". In learning a foreign language, It was assumed in 1950s and 1960s that the L1 influences the acquisition/ learning of an L2, whether positively (if there are similarities between them which is called transfer) or negatively (if they are different which is called interference). Despite the myriad of transfer studies that had been conducted over the past four decades, there still remains a surprising level of confusion and uncertainty in this field concerning when, where, in what form(s) and to what extent L1 influence manifests itself in the L2 learners use of the target language, Jarvis (2000).

Base on Psycholinguistics: You look at the second language through filter/glasses of the first language. The rules of the first language are matched with the rules of the second language. (You see that the rule systems of the source and target languages are different and sometimes the rules of languages are interfered with each other). So studying contrastive analysis can help you to understand and know these interferences.

## 2. Literature Review

### 2.1 Outside Iraq

Hassan's study (2014) investigates the problems in English pronunciation experienced by learners whose first language is Sudanese Spoken Arabic. In other words to find the problematic sounds and the factors that cause these problems. Find some techniques that help the Sudanese Students of English improve their pronunciation. The subjects for the study were fifty students from University of Sudan of Science and Technology (SUST), and thirty university teachers of English language from the same university. Njeru (2013) in his study states that in Kenya, most people from the rural areas face dialect problems in speaking English because they grow up in the villages where only one language is used, therefore face difficulties in acquiring the second or third languages. Depending on Selinker's (1972) Interlanguage theory approaches second language learning through a detailed analysis of the learners' own speech. Interlanguage refers to the systematic linguistic behavior of learners of second language and looks at the language of the learner as the interim grammar advancing towards the target language. Geertzen, Alexopoulou, Post, and Korhonen (2012) in their study investigate longitudinal aspects of word pronunciation acquisition for learners of English as a

second language (L2). By using automatic speech recognition (ASR), they obtained an accuracy measure of how closely the learners' pronunciation resembles that of first language (L1) speakers, and used this measure to look for differences between four L1's: Russian, German, Italian and French.

## **2.2 Inside Iraq**

Mahdi's study (1985) is a comprehensive study concentrates on the sound system, morphology and syntax in Basra. The area under investigation comprises urban Basra and the suburbs, districts, (nawāhi) outskirts and provinces (aqdiya) around it, namely from al-Fau at the head of the Shat al-Arab to al-Hārtha, when the two rivers Tigris and Euphrates now meet (the Euphrates having changed its course from where it used to meet the Tigris at al-Qurna) Al-Siraih (1977, p. 32). Kareem's study (2014) is concerned with sound perception and recognition of English vowel shortening in isolated words as well as in sentential contexts as recognized by Iraqi learners of English. Shortening vowel is a process in which a long vowel in potentially occurring CVVC syllable shortens as CVC( Kager et al, 1999, 88 ).

## **2.3 The languages of Iraq and the origin of Iraqi Arabic**

Arabic was the only official language of Iraq until the 2003 invasion when Kurdish was officially added as a second language in 2004 by the new constitution, and when Assyrian Neo-Aramaic (also known as Syriac, with Chaldan and Ashuri as its main varieties) and South Azeri (also known as Turkmen) gained official status as regional languages (Jastrow, 2005). In addition to the variety of languages spoken in Iraq, Arabic speakers are known for a local dialect variety called Iraqi, or 'Mesopotamian' Arabic (see: Van Ess, 1918; O'Leary, 1925; Blanc, 1964; Jastrow, 1994; Versteegh, 2001). Mesopotamian is one of five major Arabic dialects according to Versteegh (2001: 145); these are: dialects of the Arabian Peninsula, Mesopotamian dialects, Syro-Lebanese dialects, Egyptian dialects, and Maghreb dialects. Each of the areas containing these dialectal groups was arabicised in two separate processes, the first resulted in innovative sedentary dialects and the second "brought into being local rural and nomadic dialects", which in a way preserved some features of Old Arabic (ibid: 145). Mesopotamia underwent two stages of 'arabisation'. The first was as early as the Arab conquest around military centres founded by invaders such as Basra and Kufa where urban varieties of Arabic emerged; the second was a 'layer' of Bedouin dialects of tribes migrating from the peninsula (ibid: 156).

Present-day Iraqi Arabic shows cross-linguistic influence in the form of many loan-words from such languages as Persian, Turkish (due to having borders with Iran and Turkey respectively), and English (due to the British invasion during the past century, but also due to the dominant use of English in technology and the world wide web). Other dialectal influences are due to being in contact with neighboring Arab countries such as the Gulf countries in the South and South West, i.e. Kuwait and Saudi Arabia, plus others to the West and North West, i.e. Jordan and Syria. Some of the vocabulary unique to IA speakers has been traced back to languages of ancient civilizations of Mesopotamia such as of Sumer and Akkad.

## **2.4 Dialectal divisions in Iraq: qeltu vs. gelet**

Detailed investigations of Iraqi Arabic(IA) have led to the identification of distinctive features between regions of Iraq or communities within one region. The main distinction so far has been made on the basis of two dialectal types: qeltu (or qiltu as is referred to in some of the literature) and gelet (or gilit, also used in some of the literature). The words qeltu and gelet are derived from qultu meaning 'to say' in the first person singular of the present perfect tense in Standard Arabic. The word qultu is used as a representative of a vast number of vocabularies containing the Arabic phoneme /q/ that are realised differently among each dialectal group, with [q] and [g] as the main variants. In the case of the qeltu-group, speakers tend to mostly preserve the Classical Arabic[q] and only use [g] in loan-words; whereas in the case of the gelet-group, speakers tend to use [g] in most contexts but also preserve the [q] in many Classical Arabic origin words.

The distinction between the two dialectal groups was originally made by Blanc (1964) when he investigated the dialect of Baghdad and found that it varied across religious communities rather than regions. Blanc (ibid) found three types of communities of speakers who, although living in the same city, had dialectal differences, namely the Muslims (Sunnis and Shiites), the Christians and the Jews. The division was made on the basis of one main characteristic Blanc (ibid: 3) refers to as "the unusually profound and sharply delineated dialectal cleavage that divides these populations into three nonregional dialect groups, corresponding to the three major religious communities". He (ibid) found that the non-Muslim groups, Christians and Jews, had slight differences and shared most characteristics; thus they were deemed to belong to the same qeltu dialectal type; while all Muslims of Baghdad shared the same gelet dialectal type.

From the speech of the few non-Baghdadi speakers he also investigated, Blanc (1964) found the same qeltu-gelet pattern existed in other Iraqi areas. However, the divisions beyond Baghdad included geographical as well as religious

distinctions, which led Blanc (ibid: 181) to divide the whole of Iraq on the basis of the above classification into two linguistic areas corresponding roughly to the geographical areas bordered by sides of the two rivers: Upper Iraq and Lower Iraq. These two areas are also referred to as Upper Mesopotamia and Lower Mesopotamia, to cover the areas upper to the two rivers and those from Tikrīt [tɪkri:t]) to the Persian Gulf, respectively. Two main dialectal groups exist within both areas. The first group, the qeltudialects, are spoken by the non-Muslim population of Lower Iraq and the sedentary population (Muslim and non-Muslim) of Upper Iraq (mainly all people of Mosul, ‘Ana ([ʕa:nɛ:]), Tikrīt and Hīt ([hi:t])); whereas the second group, the gelet-dialects, are spoken by the Muslim population (sedentary and non-sedentary) of Lower Iraq and by the non-sedentary populations in the rest of the area (ibid: 5-6). According to Blanc (ibid: 6), the qeltu dialects are related to the Aleppo region dialects, while the gelet ones are related to the Bedouin dialects of the Shāmīya ([ʃa:mɪɛ:]), and those of Kuwait, Khūzistān ([xu:zɪsta:n] and the Persian Gulf area. However, despite the vast variation of boundaries separating communities and the existence of non-Arabic communities on the land, Blanc (1964: 5, 181) considered the area as sharing one Mesopotamian Dialect, denoting that it covers “all the Tigris and Euphrates valleys and the areas between them, from the sources on the Anatolian plateau down to the Persian Gulf”. A detailed account of the phonological features of IA in general.

In the study of Southern Iraq and Khūzistān, Ingham (1997: 13-14) offers what he considers as a more detailed classification of the gelet dialects, dividing them into two types: Southern gelet, which refers to characteristics of speakers of Basra, Nasiriya and ‘Amara; and Central Mesopotamia, which includes characteristics of speakers of Baghdad, Mussayab, Hilla and Karbala (also referred to in Bellem, 2007: 229). From an early stage of investigation when Ingham (1969) studied the dialects of Khūzistān, he found links between these dialects and the one across the Shaṭṭ al-‘Arab ([ʃaʔalʕarab]) towards Arabia. Ingham (1997: 31) found phonological, morphological and lexical patterns which correlated with regional and occupational (nomadic vs. sedentary) factors.

### **3. Methodology**

#### **3.1 Data Collection Procedures and Instruments**

Two steps are used to collect the data. The first step, the researcher examined the learners with TOFEL test and scored their papers. This test will measure the learners’ proficiency of English language. While the second step was recording the learners’ sounds reading two printed texts: Colloquial Iraqi text and a Standard English one. The researcher will listen to their reading many times and will write their mispronunciation on their papers that she already acquired for each learner then will analyze and classify them. The researcher has copied 100 versions for the learners to make data analysis easier. Mobile recorder has been used for recording. Most of the learners are familiar with it so that nothing makes them feel strange or upset. Their sounds’ file will be reserved at a CD and at the computer.

#### **3.2 Data Analysis Procedure**

The data is grouped and categorized in tables according to the error type made by the learners and the repair strategy they adopted. In order to cater for pronouncing the words they are learning, the learners of a second language adopt some strategies in their interlanguage phase to help them pronounce these words properly. These repair strategies describe the mechanism of how they avoid these target lexical items or phonemes. Thus they make phonological changes that lead to changes in the syllable structure. In this section a brief description of only three repair strategies will be shown as below:

1. Substitution occurs when the Iraqi learners in colloquial dialects pronounce [ʔibi:r] or [kbi:r] which means (big) while [kabi:r] in standard language. All pronunciations are acceptable in colloquial language.
2. Devoicing occurs when the [v] is replaced by [f] as in the word “video” when it is pronounced as “\*fideo”. Here the speaker invented a new word that does not exist in English, miscommunication might take place.
3. Deletion is another strategy learners adopt to facilitate pronunciation if the sound does not exist in their dialect or sometimes it is difficult for them to pronounce consonant cluster. [ʒ] is found in some variations of Iraqi language particularly in rural areas besides marshlands. It is found in these words.

#### **3.3 Description of the Test**

The aims of the pretest and a posttest are diagnostic. The first is designed to measure the learners’ proficiency in English language as a whole system (structure, vocabulary, and reading comprehension) whereas the posttest consists of a recording text that includes all English sounds.

The learners are required to read the two texts respectively while the mobile recorder is recording their voices. The researcher later is able to analyze the learners' pronunciation according to their names that already have been recorded by listening to their reading and diagnose their errors over 100 pages which include the text.

Then the researcher transcribes the context of errors in order to know exactly the context of errors or what the learners have done. Later the researcher analyzes and classifies the errors and finds out which error happens more than other.

### 3.4 The Subjects (the learners)

100 learners share in the experiment. They belong to Basra Secondary Schools in Iraq. They are either 15 or 16 years old. (35) Learners are in fifth scientific branch and (65) are in fourth scientific one. The classification of the learners according to their gender, number and class is illustrated in table (1):

Table (1) Students' Characteristics

Gender	Fourth Class	Fifth Class
Males	40	10
Females	25	25
Total	65	35

### 4. Data Analysis

The printed text that is given to the learners contains 231 words. Some of these words are easy to Iraqi learners to pronounce such as "great, article, having" and some are not like "exhibition". The learners face a real problem in its pronunciation. The researcher is going to analyze the words that are most common errors for the learners to the least one as they are pronounced and as they are connected with each other by having the same problematic area.

The words are classified into two categories according to: consonants alterations and vowel alterations. These Words are put in tables. Each table contains 7 columns. They include the sound position, the word number, the input (the original English word), the output (transcription of the deviated pronunciation) and the repair strategy (description of what the participants did to pronounce the word), the numbers of error words and their percentage.

The words below are examples picked from a large corpus of data.

#### 4.1 Consonant Alteration

The word "Babylon" is found four times in the text thus every learner is going to read it four times and that's why in the column of error number includes the times of error divided on 400. The interesting thing is that the learners substitute the sound that is found in their Standard and colloquial languages i.e., [b] into [p] which is not found in their Standard one.

Table (2) Classification [b] in words initially, medially in one syllable word and more the one syllable.

		Input	Output	Repair Strategy	Error N.	Perc.
Initially	1	Babylon	Pabilon	Consonant substitution [b]→[p] If we analyze "Babilon" phonemically, we'll see 16% has changed the initial voiced plosive [b] with voiceless plosive [p]. It is an interesting point in the sense that Standard Arabic language has the voiced stop consonant [b] but not [p]. But through the investigation in this study, the researcher has found out that [p] is exist in colloquial language. It is used in loan words (Mahdi: 1985). It is an acceptable pronunciation if the learner pronounced the word with [b] or [p] such as 'parda' which means curtain or 'barda' which means a wave of cold	67/400	16%
			babljon	Vowel insertion [o]→[iə] [bab lyon] Here the learners pronounce [b] correctly in the initial and medial position but they omit the short vowel [i] between the middle [b] which is the coda of the second syllable and the lateral [l]. They also insert the semivowel [y] before the short vowel [o]. The learners have such a	77/400	19%

			sound in their Standard and colloquial language such as “يُوحى” which means “implies”.		
		Pabiljon	Consonant substitution[b]→[p] + Vowel insertion [j] [pabilyon] Here the learners substitute between the first and second mispronunciations. In other words, they pronounce [p] initially instead of [b] and they also use the semi-vowel [y] after the lateral [l] and before the short vowel /o/ to pronounce a diphthong that is found in their Standard and colloquial languages as in the first syllable of “يوسف”.	12/400	3%
		Bæ bil iən	Vowel insertion [i] [bæbilibiən] Here, the learners pronounced [b] correctly in two positions: initially and medially but they change the short vowel [o] with [ə] and inserting [i] before it to make a diphthong which is found in their Standard and colloquial languages as in “ايين” which means “have come” for plural females.	3/400	0.75%
		Pæ pil iən	Consonant substitution[b]→[p] +vowel insertion[o]→[iə] [pæpilibiən] Here, only one learner pronounced this pronunciation in the text. She substitutes the two [b] into [p] respectively and has inserted a short vowel [i] before the voiced nasal sound[n], so there is a diphthong before the last consonant. This diphthong is also found in their Standard and colloquial language such as the first syllable of the word “ياتي”. This pronunciation means that this learner does not sense the difference between the voiced, plosive consonant[b] and the voiceless plosive[p] one because they have the same place of articulation but they are different in voicing.	1/400	0.25%
		Bæpilon	Consonant substitution[b]→[p] Here the learner substitute the second [b] with[p] in second syllable.	1/400	0.25%
		mæbilon	Consonant substitution[b]→[m] [mæbilon] It is an interesting pronunciation in the sense that the learner has changed a voiced plosive consonant into a voiced nasal plosive consonant[m]. Linguistically speaking, the learner has brought a sound which has the same characteristics (place of articulation, voicing) of the sound but not the manner of articulation.	1/400	0.25%
		not pron.		2/400	0.50%
2	been	pi:n	Consonant substitution[b]→[p] Here the learners substitute the familiar sound that is found in their both languages Standard and colloquial[b] with [p] which is found only in colloquial one. This change doesn’t affect on the following vowel sound. This means that a learner tends to interpret sounds heard in terms of his own speech , i.e. in terms of his own motor patterns (Lieberman andBlustein , 1963 : 53 )	15/200	7.5%

			pein	Consonant substitution[b]→[p]+ vowel change[i:]→[ei] Here the learner has changed the voiced[b] with voiceless[p] which also affected on the following sound and changed it from long vowel[i:] into diphthong [ei]	2/200	1%
			beən	Changing long vowel into diphthong Here the learners have changed the long vowel [i:] with a diphthong[eə] which is found in their colloquial language as in “وين” which means “where”	4/200	2%
			biən	Changing long vowel into diphthong Here also the learner has changed the long Vowel [i:] with [iə] which is also found in their colloquial language especially who lives in rural areas.	1/200	0.50%
	3	both	poθ	Consonant substitution[b]→[p]+vowel change[əu]→[o]	18/100	18%
	4	bought	po:t	Consonant substitution[b]→[p]	10/100	10%
	5	Bilal	Pilæl	Consonant substitution[b]→[p]	5/100	5%
	6	brilliant	prilient	Consonant substitution[b]→[p]	31/100	31%
medially	7	about	əpaut	Consonant substitution[b]→[p]	8/100	8%
	8	Labanese	Lepæni:z	Consonant substitution [b]→[p]	12/100	12%
	9	fabulous	fæpjuləs not pro.	Consonant substitution [b] +vowel insertion[j]	22/100 5/100	22% 5%
	10	embarrasd	Im pæ risid	Consonant substitution[b]→[p]	71/100	71%
	11	exhabition	Iks peiSin	Consonant substitution[b]→[p]	57/100	57%
			Iks hæbiSin	Pronouncing silent letter[h]+vowel insertion[æ]	11/100	11%
			Ig zæmbtin	Consonant substitution[h]→[z],adding[m]	1/100	1%
			Not pron.		1/100	1%

The learners made errors in pronouncing [b]initially less than medially according to what the results reveals i.e., the percentage of error number in pronouncing [b] in the middle position is more than with pronouncing [p] in the same position.

In the table below we see the learners have changed [p] into [b]. The most important thing is that number of errors in comparison with errors of substituting [b] into [p] is less than expected.

Table(3) displays the some words that start with [p], one syllable word and more than one initially and medially.

		Input	Output	Repair Strategy	Error N.	Perc.
Initially	12	point	biont	Consonant substitution[p]→[b]	16/100	16%
	13	practice	bræ ktis	Consonant substitution[p]→[b]	10/100	10%
	14	pictures	bik tʃərz	Consonant substitution[p]→[b]	7/100	7%
	15	program	bro græm	Consonant substitution[p]→[b]	4/100	4%
	16	professional	bro fiSinəl	Consonant substitution[p]→[b]	3/100	3%
	17	people	bi:bl	Consonant substitution[p]→[b]	2/100	2%
	18	ps	bi: si:	Consonant substitution[p]→[b]	21/100	21%
			Not pron.		7/100	7%

If we take the word “practice” as an example, ten percent mispronounce it. They are from two genders: five girls and five boys. Seven learners are from fourth secondary class whereas three are from fifth secondary class. They come from different areas: from the highest town in Basra to the lowest one economically.

When we take the moderate rate between the minimum and maximum errors in pronouncing [p] initially is 10%. Looking at the demography of those learners; nine of them are born in Basra and only one born at Karbala<sup>1</sup>.

In this table we see the different kinds of pronouncing (festival). Nearly 20% of the learners substitute the voiceless fricative [f] with the voiced labiodentals [v] in the initial position whereas they have the former sound in their Standard and colloquial languages. The reason behind that may be because they don't have this sound [v] in their Standard and colloquial languages.

Table (4) shows some words that start with [f] and have [v] at the same time in the same word.

		Input	Output	Repair Strategy	Error N.	Perc.
<b>Initially</b>	19	Festival	vestivil	Consonant substitution[f]→[v]	54/300	18%
			vistəl	Consonant substitution[f]→[v]+ deletion[v]	2/300	0.0066
			vestərl	Consonant substitution[f]→[v]+Deletion	1/300	0.0033
			festəl	Consonant deletion[v]	2/300	0.0066
			not pro.		1/300	0.0033
	20	famous	veiməs	Consonant substitution[f]→[v]	3/100	0.03%

This table is about [f] changed with [v] medially. It is vice the rule that the learners have [f] but they change it into [v] which does not exist in their standard and colloquial language.

Table (5) shows the [f] in a word medially.

		Input	output	Repair Strategy	Error N.	Perc.
<b>Medially</b>	21	Latifa	lætivə	Consonant substitution[v]	1/100	0.01%
			laif	Changing short vowel into diphthong	1/100	0.01%
			left	metathesis	2/100	0.02%

## 5. Conclusion

It has been observed that Iraqi learners of a second language may encounter difficulty in pronouncing second language words due to the first language they already acquired which includes Standard and Colloquial and they face a difficulty in pronouncing some consonant sounds rather than others such as [b], [p], [f], [v] etc.. This situation is known as interference and it can occur at different levels i.e. morphological, phonological and syntactic. Phonological level is the concern of this study to suggest ways in which this problem can be tackled. It appears that Iraqi learners and especially who live in Basra Governorate confuse between [b] and [p] not because the latter is not found in their standard language but because it is found in their colloquial one i.e. the reason for shifting from [p] to [b] is the fact that the two sounds are regarded, as they are two allophones of one phoneme. Another problem the Iraqi learners face is that because English is non-phonetic and spelling (orthography) violates pronunciation in other words there is no one to one relationship between English letters and their sounds such as 'exhibition' that most learners mispronounce it. In addition, accent is another problem with non native teachers of English while teaching English language. Most often, non native teachers of English are fond of including their first language accent consciously or unconsciously as they give English commands to their pupils. Pronunciation is a serious problem associated with learning the second language for both teachers and pupils.

<sup>1</sup> Iraq has 18 governorates. Basra is one of the southern governorates of Iraq whereas Karbala is from the middle Euphrates of Iraq. The learners are living in different areas in Basra.



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