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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

(This chapter is divided into two parts: Part I gives a general background of the study and part II describes data collection and the choice of speakers).

Part I

1.0. Contrastive Analysis

Second or foreign language learning context involves a confrontation between two languages: a learner who already has a language (the first language) comes to learn another language. In such a situation, how does his knowledge of first language either facilitate or hinder the learning of the second language? This question has attracted the attention of linguists for quite some time and varied answers have been given. Contrastive analysis has been an offshoot of this interest.

Interference of the mother tongue in Yemeni English can be seen prominently at three–levels -- syntactic, lexical and phonological – but significantly at the phonological level because it is at this level that the source language remains most predominant. Yemeni learners are not exposed to the native variety of spoken English as most of the English teachers are either Yemenis or from other Arabic countries such as Egypt, Sudan and Iraq. Therefore the English spoken by Yemenis has absorbed many phonological features of the Arabic language, which is the source language. The segmental and the suprasegmental features of the source language interfere with the target language, that is English. The interference of the source language is quite significant with regard to the non–segmental features. What Corinne Adams (1979:4)
says in this regard is true: "the non-segmental features acquired in L1 (source language) become a major obstacle to proficiency in L2 (target language)."

Originally, all contrastive studies were pedagogically motivated and oriented. In recent years, however, distinctions have been drawn between "theoretical" and "applied" contrastive studies (see Fisiak 1981:2-9). According to Fisiak

> Theoretical contrastive studies give an exhaustive account of the differences and similarities between two or more languages, provide an adequate mode for their comparison, determine how and which elements are comparable, thus defining such notions as congruence, equivalence, correspondence, etc...

Applied contrastive studies are part of applied linguistics. Drawing on the findings of theoretical contrastive studies, they provide a framework for the comparison of languages, selecting whatever information is necessary for a specific purpose, e.g., teaching, bilingual analysis, translating, etc. (Fisiak 1981:9).

Fisiak (1975a:344) also indicates that applied pedagogically oriented phonological contrastive studies will contain maximum information about the phonetic rules (e.g. voice assimilation) and phonetic features and segments, which makes it crucially important for foreign language teaching.
1.1. Yemen

Yemen, /jeman/, a republic in the Middle East, is situated in the southeastern corner of the Arabian Peninsula. The Arab name for Yemen is al-yaman. The country is bounded on the north and north east by Saudi Arabia, on the east by the Sultanate of Oman, on the south by the Arab Sea and on the west by the Red Sea. Sana'a, Yemen's official capital, is situated in a plateau 7,260 feet above sea level and has a population of about one million. Taizz /taizz/ another city, rises 4,600 feet and has a population of some one and a half million.

Roughly, the population consists of: (1) Lords (saada) who descended from the Prophet Mohammad and were considered to be the custodians of religion. They lost, however, this religious state after the 1962 revolution; (2) tribesmen, mostly in the highlands and the eastern deserts; and (3) a mixed population along the coast with a strong commercial relations with Saudi Arabia and the Gulf countries.

Until September 1962 the government of Yemen was an absolute monarchy with patriarchal features. Yemen was one of the few Muslim lands that had not opened to modernizing influences. Up to 1962 only a few schools and hospitals were established. Education used to follow the traditional type, centering in mosques or mosque schools, (mišla:mah). Thus literacy was very low, about 5 percent.

On September 26, 1962, only a few days after the death of the Imam (monarch), a military coup overthrew the monarchy and a republic was proclaimed. However, the country experienced eight years of civil war which ended in 1970 when the republican system was firmly established.
TD = Ta'izzi Dialect
SD = Sana'ani Dialect
MD = Tihami Dialect
HD = Hadhrami Dialect
After the revolution, the situation has tremendously changed and the country has been widely opened to the outside world. Millions of children have joined schools and one university was inaugurated in 1970. Nowadays Yemen is proud of having seven governmental universities and quite a few private universities.

1.2. Arabic Language

Arabic, Himyaritic (south Arabic), and Ethiopic belong to the southern group of Semitic languages, of which Phoenician and Hebrew form the western, Aramaic the northern and Accadian (Assyro-Babylonian) the eastern groups. Arabic shares with its sisters the characteristic features of Semitic speech, which include triconsonantal roots, inflectional endings, meagerness in mood and tense but richness in aspect, and capacity for expressing variation in meaning by a system for vocalic changes and by prefixes, suffixes and other affixes. But it surpasses them all in its conservatism, copiousness of vocabulary, possibilities of syntactic distinction, and elaborateness of verbal forms – all of which combine to make Arabic the best surviving representative of the original Semitic speech, despite the fact that its recorded literature is one of the youngest of Semitic literatures.

1.2.1. Grammar

Arabic grammarians classify all the words of the language under three main categories: noun, verb, and particle. The noun induces adjectives and adverbs. All derived words, whether nouns or verbs, stem from a triconsonantal root. The root is
the verb in its perfect form, third person masculine singular. By manipulating the root
according to a recognized pattern, a modification of the basic meaning associated with
that root is effected. Thus [qatala] ‘killed’ (he) may become

(1) /qattala/ (he) massacred
     /qa:tala/ (he) fought
     /?inqatala/ (he) suffered killing
     /qita:1/ fighting
     /qa:til/ killer
     /maqtu:1/ he who is killed, and so on.

1.2.2. Alphabet

The Arabic alphabet, consisting of 27 characters, is an adaptation from the
Aramaic alphabet, which in turn comes from the Phoenician. Arabic characters are all
consonantal, the vowels are represented by diacritics which are inserted above or
below the letters as follows:

/ ꞌ ꞌ = /a/
/ ꞌ ꞌ = /i/
/ ꞌ ꞌ = /u/
/ ꞌ ꞌ = /a:/
/ ꞌ = /i:/
/ ꞌ = /u:/
/ ꞌ ꞌ = syllabic consonant or a sign of pause
/ ꞌ ꞌ = geminated consonant
1.2.3. Classical and spoken (colloquial) Arabic

The classical is the form that, since the commencement of Arabic literature about a century and a half before the rise of Islam, has been used by the Arabic writers in all their literature. Originally, the classical form was used for poetical composition among the tribes of Arabia in pre-Islamic days. It was later standardized by the Qur'a'an.

The Qur'a'an was the first monumental work, and remained the model work in Arabic. Its rhymed prose has set the standard that practically every conservative Arabic writer strives to imitate even today. It is this book that has established the norm for the Arabic language and preserved its unity. Because of it alone, the various modern dialects of the Arabic-speaking peoples have not fallen apart into distinct languages, as has been the case with Romance languages.

Arabic is a diglossic language, i.e., there is a clear-cut distinction between literary Arabic and spoken Arabic, (See Ferguson, 1959:616-30). Literary Arabic at present does not serve as a medium of general oral communication and is used only by politicians, in newspapers, radio and television and in religious ceremonies. Today the Iraqi may find it difficult to fully understand the spoken dialect of a Yemeni, but he would have no difficulty in understanding his written language, since in both countries – as well as in all other Arabic-speaking lands – modern standard Arabic (henceforth MSA), is closely followed.
1.2.4. Dialects in Yemen

Located in the southern corner of the Arabian peninsula, Yemen is a country from which the Arabic language is historically known to have sprung. Thus we can say that some of the regional dialects spoken in Yemen are closely similar to MSA. These regional dialects are the Sana'ani, (henceforth SD) the Ta'izzi, (henceforth TD) the Tihami and the Hadhrami dialects, (see map showing dialects in Yemen on P:Sa). Broadly speaking, there are similarities among these dialects that are practically possible. For the purpose of the present study, we shall squeeze the number of the overwhelmingly dominant dialects in Yemen into two: the SD and the TD.

1.2.5. Sociolinguistic Status of YA

Whatever dialects of Arabic are spoken in Yemen, one thing is sure: the dialect of Arabic spoken in Yemen today is very much similar to the MSA in some aspects of phonology, morphology, syntax and vocabulary. It is also clear that due to geographical and historical factors, Yemen, as mentioned above, has remained closed to the winds of modernization and thus the linguistic contacts with foreigners were little. Hence the language has remained purely Arabic and it has been somehow difficult to find clear foreign phonological morphological and syntactic traces as it is the case in, for instance, Egypt or Morocco.

After the 1962 revolution, and due to the extensive contacts between Yemenis and outsiders, especially other Arabs, and due to the spread of education and media, linguistic changes are taking place.
1.3. English In Yemen

Before the 1962 revolution, the Imam and, following him the Yemeni people, used to see the west and the western foreign languages as an enemy that had to be abandoned. To them, dealing with non-Muslims (unbelievers) was considered a wrong deed, which might affect the belief of the Muslim. Due to this narrow view, English was not introduced to Yemen until 1963 when the republican system was proclaimed. However, the situation was remarkably different in the eastern and southern provinces where these districts were under the British colonization up to 1967.

Since the 1960s English has been taught as a compulsory subject from the seventh class only. English is thus a foreign language in Yemen which is taken seriously only by the English departments in the universities. The only dominant language is Arabic, which is used, in every-day situations. The medium of instruction in schools and universities is Arabic. English, however, is used in the faculties of Medicine and Engineering for academic purposes.

Hence, English is a compulsory subject for pupils from the seventh intermediate level to the first year of the degree course, and as an associate language for some tradesmen and diplomats. It is in this capacity that English functions in Yemen today.
1.3.1. Spoken English in Yemen

Spoken English in Yemen had never been used in a large scale even as a medium of instruction in private schools, not to mention its restricted role as an instrument of trade and commerce in the southern and eastern provinces before independence in 1967.

Understandably, as English is taught as a compulsory subject in the curriculum only after the sixth class, it is forced into cloistered seclusion within the four walls of a few institutes and some diplomatic missions' schools such as the British mission, the Indian Embassy school and the Pakistani school in Sana'a.

So today, apart from the teachers of English at the higher levels of education and teachers and students in the American Institute (YALI), (MALI) and in the British council, the only people who speak English 'on occasions' are the English Departments' students at the universities. As expected, when the people have to speak English, they do a lot of 'code-switching' from English to Arabic and vice versa.

There is another category of people who speak English a little more 'regularly' under a self-imposed professional compulsion. They include some travelling sales representatives, salesmen at fashionable emporiums and tourists guides and some travel agents.
1.3.2 Women and Language

Yemen is a traditional and conservative society in which the women tend to assume mainly the role of the housewife. Their relations are usually limited to their family and a few female friends. However, the man moves around freely tying to earn bread for the family and getting involved in experiences that affect his scope of knowledge and his behaviour. As a result of this social structure, women tend to be less venturesome and more conservative than men in their use of language.

However, in the last few years women are struggling their way to change their position in the society and thus their presence in universities and other aspects of life is becoming increasingly conspicuous.

1.4. Aim of the Study

The present study has two aims and several objectives: (the objectives are listed as subheadings under the aims)

1) To make a phonetic and phonological analysis of the TD, (as spoken by the author) which has been taken as a representative of the YA.
   (a) to contrast the TD with the Received Pronunciation of England (RP) – which is usually considered as a good model for comparison.
   (b) to find out whether the knowledge of the first language facilitates or hinders the second language learning.

2) To describe the Yemeni English (henceforth YE) as spoken by 20 Yemeni graduates in order to:
   (a) explore the problems that these Yemeni speakers face in the
pronunciation of English.

(b) compare their spoken English with the RP English.

(c) reveal the pedagogical implications that result from the comparison.

1.5. Limitations of the Study

The study is limited only to YA and there is no intention to discuss any deviant forms found in other Arabic dialects as, say, Saudi, Egyptian or Morocco. Thus, wherever 'Arabic' is used in this study, it refers back to YA, and specifically to Ta'izzi dialect. TD, one of the two mainly dominant dialects in Yemen, is taken as a representative of the YA. However, if any serious deviation from this dialect arises in the SD, it will be highlighted.

The model of analysis adopted here is the phonemic analysis. For the reasons why this model is adopted see 1.7.4. below.

1.6. Questions of the Study

The study attempts to answer the following questions:

1. What are the phonological similarities and differences between the YA and the RP English?

2. Do the differences between the two languages facilitate or hinder English language learning in the Yemeni situation?

3. What are the pedagogical implications that emerge from the comparison?
1.7. Models of Analysis

The study of the phonology of a language demands a close examination of the 'form' and 'function' of the phonological elements that operate in that language. In other words, it involves a description of the 'general phonetic nature' of these elements and the function they perform in the phonological structure of that language.

There are various theories of phonological analysis, each presenting a different model of, or approach to, phonological analysis. Three of the important schools of phonological analysis are:

(i) Phonemic Analysis
(ii) Prosodic Analysis
(iii) Generative phonology

1.7.1. Phonemic Analysis

In terms of the phoneme theory and by means of phonemic analysis languages can be shown to organize in selection they make of the available sound differences in human speech into a limited number of recurrent distinctive units.

The phonemic analysis, which has come into being as a result of the search for adequate and efficient broad transcriptions centers round the phoneme concept and still today the majority of linguists base their phonological analysis and derive their principles of phonology from the theory of the phonemes, (Robins, 1972:121). Starting with J.R. Firth, who first specifically formulated the idea of prosodic analysis in 1948, several distinguished linguists like R.H. Robins, John Lyons and S.R. Anderson have been at pains to impress the methodological superiority of prosodic analysis over
phonemic analysis. However, to the best of my knowledge, no single language in the
world has been fully analyzed according to prosodic analysis. On the contrary, most of
the languages in the world have been phonemically analyzed. Furthermore, prosodic
analysis has no pedagogical importance. Nevertheless, it must suffice here just to
underline the essential identifying features of the two models.

The phonemicist sets up one over-all inventory of phonological units, i.e.
phonemes, for the language he sets out to describe. In other words, the primary aim
of the phonemic analysis is to set up the overall inventory of the phonemes (which are
defined as the minimal distinctive sound units) of the language it describes. The aim
is “to describe language utterances, on the phonological level as a uni-dimensional
sequence of discrete units, every one of which is in opposition with every other of the
inventory in at least one pair of distinct utterances of the language”, Lyons
(1972:175-276). In other words, the phonemic analysis gathers all the phonic material
that is regarded as relevant to individual segments, except for pitch, stress, and
length, which he treats as belonging to units higher than segments, i.e.
suprasegmental.

1.7.2. Prosodic Analysis

The prosodist, on the other hand, describes his data in terms of two
fundamentally different kinds of elements, ‘phonematic unit’ and ‘prosodies’.
Phonematic units, in most general terms, constitute the consonant and vowel elements
of a phonological structure; but a greater part of the phonetic material is described as
prosodies, whose domain of relevance extends beyond the individual segments over
structure of any length up to sentences.
Lyons proposed to derive prosodies into two different kinds of phonological units (Lyons, 1972: 275–276) 'prosodic' and suprasegmental. According to him, the first category would comprise stress, pitch and length; the second would include 'long components' such as retroflexion, palatalization, velarization, nasalization, glottalization, aspiration, assimilation (e.g. vowel harmony in Turkish, syllable initiality, syllable finality etc). Lyons, however, admits that neither the prosodic approach nor the phonemic one is 'completely satisfactory as a general theory of phonological structure' (Lyons 1972:270–279). He adds that some languages are better described by the one than the other.

1.7.3. Generative Phonology

The approach of generative phonology has been developed and applied to English by Chomsky and Halle in the *Sound Pattern of English*, (1968). As against minimally distinctive phonological oppositions, generative phonology uses distinctive features as the basic building blocks of sequences of discrete segments. Distinctive features, in other words, are the minimal elements of which phonetic, lexical and phonological transcriptions are composed by combination and concatenation”. (Chomsky & Halle, 1968:64).

Secondly, generative phonology is based on the concept of underlying phonological representations and a set of rules that convert them into their phonetic (or surface) representations. These representations correspond to the levels of 'systematic phonemics' and 'systematic phonetics'. The intermediate phonemic level,
the *sine qua non* of the phonemic model of analysis, has been described as it 'complicates the grammar in a counterinitiative way'. (Johns, D.A. 1972:549).

In point of fact, the generative phonologists have no objection to the use of phonemic level as a heuristic device, and linguists of all persuasions do make use of the phoneme and the phonemic level, to something like the phoneme, may only in the analyst's mind. The main contention of the generative phonologist seems to be that the postulation of the phonemic level of linguistic description confuses rather than explains linguistic phenomenon and should therefore be dispensed with. While it is still controversial that the postulation of the phonemic level for the purpose of phonological description is unrevealing and unnecessarily complicated, it would be well to observe that generative analysis, based as it is on a set of distinctive phonetic features, which could presumably be reduced a universal set of features for the analysis and description of all languages, is geared to a search for language universals rather than to describe specific languages.

1.7.4. Model of Analysis Adopted in the Present Study

The system of analysis adopted here is 'phonemic'. The phoneme, which is taken as a phonetic reality, has been adhered to which many American linguists would call 'segmental phonemes', i.e. vowel and consonant phonemes only. The minimal distinctive elements are segmental phonemes; several features of prosodic analysis, e.g. gemination, velarization, and pharyngealization are analyzed here, as opposed to Firth (1948), as belonging to segments rather than to higher units. Other features such as emphasis and stress will be dealt with as suprasegmental rather than phonemic entities.
Generative phonological analysis will not be dealt with here. As stated above, it may explain certain linguistic phenomenon much better than any other mode of description, but it cannot be used to advantage when the object is to describe a dialect of a language with a pedagogical purpose in mind, which is precisely the aim of the present study. Thus, it is largely for pragmatic reasons that phonemic analysis has been used for the purpose of describing the YA.

1.8. Criteria of Phonemic Analysis

The phoneme has been established by means of six criteria set out by Hockett (1942:3–21) which are: similarity, non-intersection, contrastive and complementary distribution, completeness, pattern congruity and economy.

**Similarity**

'If "a" and "b" are members of one phoneme, they share one or more features'.

For example, in English, [l] and [ɹ] share the features of alveolarity, lateralness and voice.

**Non-intersection**

This refers to the belief that a particular phone cannot go to phoneme A in one context and phoneme B in another, i.e. no intersection is permitted.
Contrastive and Complementary Distribution

The phonologists tried to establish the phonemes of a language by examining the distribution of the sounds. "If two sounds which are phonemically similar occur in the same phonetic environment, and if a substitution of one sound for the other results in a difference in meaning, then these sounds are assigned to different phonemes" (Hymes. 1975:60) Two such words, which differ only in one segment in the same environment, are called a minimal pair. Two sounds are in complementary distribution if their occurrence is conditioned, i.e., one occurs only when the other does not occur.

Completeness

This means that no sound of a language can be left out. All sounds of a language must go to one or the other phoneme of the language. Otherwise, the analysis is incomplete.

Pattern Congruity

There is a pattern in the organization of the sounds in a language.

Economy:

When two equally good descriptions are possible, the one that gives a lesser inventory of phonemes is economical and to be preferred over the other.

Word accent and intonation have been taken up separately as suprasegmental features. Other phonetic features such as assimilation, emphasis and gemination, which are attested phenomena in YA, are also discussed.
1.9. Phonetic Analysis

The analysis of the YA is based on the following:

1) The intuition and observations of the author who is a native speaker of Arabic and who has lived in Ta'iz, Yemen for more than twenty years.

2) Data collected from twenty Yemeni graduates to study their spoken English.

4) Spectrograms are obtained to provide instrumental evidence concerning vowels and consonants of YA, the duration of gemination in vowels and consonants, and certain other phonetic features. Mingograms are also obtained for extra evidence concerning duration of single and geminated consonants. To determine the place of articulation of some consonants, palatograms are obtained.

1.10. Importance of the Study

The importance of the study derives from its being a pioneer effort in attempting to bring the TD of the YA to light so that it can take its rightful place among Arabic dialects studies. Other dialects of Arabic such as Egyptian, Moroccan, Damascus etc. have been exhaustively studied; but little has been done as far as the YA is concerned. Even the neighbouring dialects like the Saudi, Omani and Kuwait dialects have been investigated thoroughly. The present study discusses the phonological system of the YA with a pedagogical perspective in mind.

The study also gives a clear picture of the nature of the phonetic problems that the Yemeni students encounter when learning spoken English. It makes it possible to have a comparative analysis of YE with the RP spoken English and to determine the similarities and differences that either facilitate or hinder the communication.
1.11. Review of Literature

The researches done on YA in English language have been little. It is hard to find extensive work done in this respect, not to mention some articles written about Sana'ani and Adani dialects. On the contrary, a lot of work has been done in the standard Arabic and other dialects such as Egyptian, Moroccan, Damascus, Omani, Saudi And Sudanese dialects. In this section, we will review some work done on the Yemeni dialects.

Jane Watson (1994) wrote an article on 'the definition of dialect with reference to Yemeni dialects of Arabic'. In this article, she collected some data from speaker-defined area dialects of YA. These dialects include varieties spoken in Kusma, Jabub, Jabinin, Hubaish, together with the Sana'ani, spoken in the capital of Yemen. The data are derived principally from oral recordings made during fieldwork conducted between 1985 and February 1987 and between May and July 1991; she also considered newspaper cartoons for Sana'ani dialect. The article has a sociolinguistic (dialectology in particular) orientation. Nevertheless the article includes some interesting data of the spoken dialects under discussion.

Charles A. Ferguson (1956:446-452) wrote an article on the ‘Emphatic [t] in Arabic’. He asserts that almost all the descriptions that have been made from a structural point of view have generally regarded the emphatic [t] as an allophone of the usual /l/, not an independent phoneme, both in classical Arabic and in the dialects. The purpose of his article was to gather some data to prove that the emphatic [t] is phonemic which brings about change in meaning in classical Arabic and in some if not all the modern dialects. Of the examples he gives are:
The above two minimal pairs are not true minimal pairs. The first one in the first group is a particle followed by a noun, while the second one is a verb in its perfect form followed by a subject infix and an object suffix. In the second pair, the first word is again a particle followed by a noun, while the second word is considered as a particle followed by a verbal noun. Thus the similarity between the two pairs is not specifically met.

The writer gives also a valid analysis for the distribution of the emphatic [‡] when it occurs in the environment of pharyngeal consonants: The phoneme /l/ has a velarized allophone [‡] under the following circumstances:

(a) next to pharyngealised consonant, C- or -C.
(b) separated from a velarized consonant by one short vowel other than /i/, CV- or -CV;
(c) preceded by a long vowel other than /i:/ which is in turn preceded by a velarized consonant, CVV-.

The whole discussion has been completely in terms of contrasting sets of nonemphatic and emphatic consonant phonemes where the quality of velarization is regarded as a distinctive feature of all the consonant system. In view of the extensive quantitative variation of the vowels, it is conceivable, according to Ferguson, that emphasis (velarisation) in Arabic should instead be regarded as a distinctive feature of the vocalic system, with contrasting sets of nonemphatic and emphatic vowels.
As a matter of fact, Ferguson tries hard to consider [h] as an independent phoneme, but we do not think that he has succeeded. Although he tries to give some examples to prove his point, his analysis violates some of the criteria proposed by Hockett (1942) for considering two sounds as independent phonemes, i.e. similarity. [l] and [h] are similar because they share all of the attributes except that one of them is dark and the other is clear. The following data shows that it might sound odd to pronounce [l] as [h], this shift, however, does not bring about change in meaning:

(3)  
\[
\begin{array}{ll}
\text{[bas\textsuperscript{a}h]} & \text{onions} \\
\text{[bas\textsuperscript{a}l]} & \text{onions} \\
\text{[s\textsuperscript{a}lla]} & \text{prayed (he)} \\
\text{[s\textsuperscript{a}lla]} & \text{prayed (he)} \\
\end{array}
\]

In the above two examples, the pharyngealised alveolar fricative /s\textsuperscript{f}/ has been changed into /s/ the meaning would completely change, but this is not the case with [l]. The writer concludes his article by regarding emphasis in Arabic as a prosodic feature, 'a suprasegmental phoneme'. This suggestion has been, however, proposed by Firth, (1948:2–26).

1.12. Outline of the Present Study

The study is divided into six chapters. The introduction is divided into two parts: part one gives a background of Yemen, the present language situation and the dialects spoken by the Yemenis. It also includes the situation of the spoken English in addition to a brief sociolinguistic profile of the Yemeni people. It also includes a
review of literature and the framework of analysis. The second part of this chapter describes the data collection and the choice of the speakers in detail. The second chapter presents a phonemic description of the vowels and consonants of the YA and draws a comparison of YA, YE and RP. The third chapter discusses syllable and word structure compared with the English RP as well as word accentuation in Arabic and English.

The fourth chapter deals with the analysis of intonation in YA and YE, and compares them with RP. The fifth chapter discusses the major phonological and phonetic processes operating in YA: gemination, emphasis and assimilation. The sixth and the final chapter summarises the major findings of the previous chapters with pedagogical implications for the Yemeni learners regarding the spoken English.
Part II

1.13. Data Collection and the Choice of Speakers

The practical part of this thesis is to describe the Yemeni English (YE) used by Yemeni speakers and to envisage the degree of influence of the source language on their production of the target language. Specimens of English spoken by educated Yemeni speakers were recorded. By 'educated', we mean that the speakers were all graduates. The speakers were chosen at random, which means no pre-conceived notions about the proficiency of the speakers in English were borne in mind. Twenty speakers were recorded. The professions of the speakers vary from teaching at the university level to working on Ph.D. or MA dissertations on English, management, computer science etc. Many of the speakers have had previous training in phonetics. They were 17 males and 3 females and their age ranges from 25 to 45. All the speakers belong to the Taiz province where the Taizzi dialect is spoken. (see Appendix I).

A record of each speaker's particulars was kept on the form reproduced below:

Recordings of Spoken English:

Serial Number:
Date:
Place:
Tape number:
Speed:
Playing time:
Name of the speaker:
Age:

Sex:

Mother Tongue:

Other Languages known:

Place of Birth:

Place where he/she has lived more than a year

Medium of instruction in school:

(a) in School

(b) in college

Qualification:

Has he/she had any special training in phonetics or spoken English:

Occupation:

Recording done by:

Comments:

1.13.1. The Text

The text used for all recorded specimens comprises three sections:

Section I: A word list comprising forty-four words.

Section II: A word list comprising fifty words.

Section III: Twenty Sentences.
Section I

The forty four words of this section are reproduced below:

1. bit 23. mass
2. shout 24. pain
3. pear 25. wood
4. pen 26. charge
5. wife 27. room
6. tea 28. bud
7. ball 29. tour
8. young 30. zip
9. home 31. judge
10. oil 32. size
11. card 33. lock
12. red 34. about
13. hit 35. here
14. shirt 36. mouth
15. tide 37. this
16. measure 38. think
17. mean 39. noise
18. day 40. veil
19. mess 41. fear
20. sure 42. leisure
21. cord 43. song
22. girl 44. care
The main objective behind this word list is to observe the phonemic inventory. The words are chosen in such a way that each one of them has a particular RP phoneme under study. The phonemes under consideration in each word in the list are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word Number</th>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Test Phoneme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>ɳ</td>
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<tr>
<td>44</td>
<td>care</td>
<td>eə</td>
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Each phoneme was repeated at least twice in different words for the sake of counter-checking. All the words given in the list are simple words of day-to-day usage, and excepting two, all are monosyllabic.

Section II
The fifty words of this section are reproduced below:

1. idea
2. certify
3. arrive
4. economic
5. rhythm
6. decision
7. reply
8. information
9. cigarette
10. yesterday
11. important
12. button
13. identify
14. impossible
15. unfortunate
16. photographic
17. appetizing
18. misrepresent
19. idea
20. certify
21. arrive
22. economic
23. rhythm
24. decision
25. reply
26. information
27. cigarette
28. yesterday
29. important
30. button
31. identify
32. impossible
33. unfortunate
34. photographic
35. appetizing
36. misrepresent
37. idea
38. certify
39. arrive
40. economic
41. rhythm
42. decision
43. reply
44. information
45. cigarette
46. yesterday
47. important
48. button
49. identify
50. impossible

26. profile
27. invoice
28. export (noun)
29. export (verb)
30. reconsider
31. understand
32. personnel
33. telephone
34. encounter
35. uncertain
36. remarkable
37. photography
38. unimportant
39. participate
40. helicopter
41. affiliation
42. objectivity
43. degree
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<td>19.</td>
<td>interdependence</td>
<td>44.</td>
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<td>20.</td>
<td>rehabilitate</td>
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<tr>
<td>21.</td>
<td>inferiority</td>
<td>46.</td>
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<td>22.</td>
<td>meteorological</td>
<td>47.</td>
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<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>autobiographic</td>
<td>48.</td>
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<tr>
<td>24.</td>
<td>antique</td>
<td>49.</td>
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<tr>
<td>25.</td>
<td>invent</td>
<td>50.</td>
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</table>

The words were listed randomly. The primary objective behind the word list of the section was to observe the word accentual patterns of Yemeni speakers and so words of various accentual patterns in English were included in the list. The patterns are shown below:

1. Words with prefixes re-, im-, in-, un-, mis-, en-
   e.g., reconsider, important, information, uncertain, misrepresent, encounter etc.

2. Words with suffixes -fy, -ic, -sion, -tion, -ette, -ant, -ible, -able, -ence, -ate, -ical, -ain, -ity, -ian, ically. e.g., certify, economic, decision, information, cigarette, important, impossible, remarkable, interdependence, rehabilitate, meteorological, uncertain, custodian, enthusiastically, etc.

3. A pair of words differentiated in stress in RP on the basis of the grammatical function (noun/verb) also was included.

Section III

This section contains 20 sentences:

1. How long have you been on the road?
2. Don't spill your orange juice.
3. There is no hurry
4. Did you see anything unusual?
5. Buy the best you can afford.
6. I have done it well.
7. I don’t understand.
8. What a shame!
9. May I ask you a question?
10. It doesn’t look good, does it?
11. Don’t forget your books.
12. It’s quite easy.
13. Where can I get some orange juice?
14. You decide for her.
15. I’m going home tomorrow.
16. Do you like swimming?
17. How nice of him!
18. Would you mind coming with us?
19. If it’s convenient, let’s meet at five o’clock.
20. Those who live in glass-houses, shouldn’t throw stones at others.

The objective of this section is to find out the intonation patterns used by the speakers. The sentences belong to the following sentence types: positive statements, negative statements, informative questions, confirmatory questions, tag questions, commands, requests, exclamations, warnings, and assurances.
1.13.2. Recording

The speakers were recorded in quiet surroundings. The tape-recorder that was used for recording all the twenty speakers was a Philips Automatic Recorder, Model: RR 571.

Each speaker was provided with a copy of the text a few minutes before he/she was recorded. They were asked to go through the text carefully and to read out the text quite naturally. The speakers were asked to mention their names before reading out the text. They were specially requested to pause a little after each word or sentence. After each recording was over, it was played back and checked that the recording was properly done. Depending on the convenience of the speakers, the recording was done in different sittings, but all within a span of three days, the researcher personally recording all speakers.

1.13.3. Analysis of Recordings:

Section I of all the recordings was phonetically transcribed on the basis of auditory impression. Special attention was paid towards the test item (phoneme) in each word. Any deviation from the RP phoneme was noted. It was also checked whether the speaker deviated from the RP phoneme when the same test item occurred in another place in the word list. If there was a consistent deviation from the RP phoneme, the deviant form was included in his phonemic inventory (ex: RP /eə/ realised as /e:/ by most speakers).
Accent was marked by listening to each word of section II. The primary accent as used by the speaker on each word was marked. Secondary accent, if any, was not taken into account. Any pattern in the way the words were accented was noted.

In section III, the tone group division, location of the tonic accent, and the type of tone were taken into account for each sentence, and they were marked on the sheet for each speaker. The marking was based on auditory impression of the researcher.

Each speaker's recordings were described and his phonemic system worked out. Divergences from RP were noted for each speaker.

1.13.4. Charts and Graphs

For ready reference and convenience charts and graphs were prepared on the basis of the analysis of the recordings. The majority pattern used by the largest number of speakers was marked for each item. The following charts and graphs were prepared (As indicated in the contents, Tables and Figures): (See Appendix II: 407-412)

1. Vowels and diphthongs used by all the speakers.
2. Consonants used by all the speakers.
3. Words as stressed by the speakers
4. Intonation patterns as stressed by the speakers
5. Degree of conformity with RP in vowels, diphthongs,
6. Degree of conformity with RP in Word Accent
7. Degree of conformity with RP in intonation