Chapter -1

INTRODUCTION

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The first chapter introduces the languages to be investigated, i.e. Palestinian Arabic, British English, and Indian English. A brief outline of Palestinian Arabic (PA) is presented; British English and Received Pronunciation (RP) model are selected for the study; some significant phonetic features of Hindi are also outlined. The problem under study, on the other hand, is clearly stated. The objectives of the study are made clear. The significance of the study (i.e. Linguistic, social, pedagogical and national significance) is also introduced in this chapter. The last section of the chapter deals with linguistic and geographical limitations of the study, then comes a conclusion.

1.1 The Languages Under Study

This is a multilingual situation study where PA, British English, and Indian English are examined to account for the errors in phonology committed by adult Palestinian Arab learners of English.

1.1.1 Palestinian Arabic

It was Broselow’s (1980) article ‘Syllable Structure in two Arabic Dialects’ which provided strong evidence for dialect-based Arabic studies. Earlier, researchers studying Arabic used to collect their data from informants (subjects) belonging to different Arabic dialects without taking into account the linguistic, particularly phonetic, differences between these dialects, hence inaccurate results.
Studying Iraqi Arabic and Egyptian Arabic, Broselow showed that the two dialects differ in respect to the epenthesis rule (vowel insertion) in three consonant clusters occurring word medially. She observed that in Iraqi Arabic the epenthesis rule applies after the first consonant of the three-consonant cluster, whereas in Egyptian Arabic the rule applies after the second consonant of the cluster. Based on such dialectal differences, her recorded errors have also been found different. For example the word 'street' was recorded as [sitrit] and [istrit] by Iraqis and Egyptians respectively.

As a result the present study will focus only on PA, that is, my subjects will be only native PA speakers. Nowadays PA is spoken by nearly four million people inside Palestine and its neighbouring countries particularly Jordan.

1.1.1.1 Palestinian Arabic Phonology in Brief

In this section the researcher does not intend to analyze contrastively the PA phonology and English phonology, nor is such an analysis needed, at least at this particular stage, because this is simply not a contrastive study between the two phonologies. However, I will here briefly outline the phonology of PA, namely the consonants, vowels, diphthongs, consonant clusters and stress. Any reference to English phonology is made only when necessary. More comparisons however will appear in the body of the study while discussing the results.

1.1.1.1.1 Palestinian Arabic Consonants

There are twenty eight contrastive consonants in PA; English has twenty four distinctive consonants. The twenty eight consonants are divided into six groups and distributed as follows:

1. The first group consists of two nasals, one bilabial / m / and one dental / n /; note that PA does not have the velar / ɳ /.

2. The second group consists of eight plosives distributed as follows: one voiced bilabial / b /, two dentals / t,d /, two pharyngeal-dentals / t, d /, one
voiceless velar / k /, one voiceless uvular / q /, and the eighth is the glottal stop / ? /. Note that / t,d,q,? / are absent from English phonology, whereas / p,g / are absent from PA phonology. When sounds are represented in pairs, the first is voiceless and the second is voiced.

3. The third group consists of one voiced palato-alveolar affricate / dʒ /. In addition to / dʒ / English has also / tʃ / in PA / tʃ /, a social variable of / k /, appears only in the speech of nonurban people.

4. The fourth group consists of thirteen fricatives: one is voiceless Labiodental / f /, two are interdentals / θ,ð /, one is voiced pharyngeo-interdental / ħ,ʕ /, two are alveolars / s,z /, one is voiceless palato-alveolar / ʃ,ʒ /, two are uvulars / x,ɣ /, two are pharyngeals / h,c /, one is voiceless pharyngeo-alveolar / s,ʃ /, and the last fricative is the voiceless glottal / h,ɦ /.

Note that English has nine fricatives; two of them, namely / v,ʒ / do not exist in PA phonology. On the other hand, English phonology does not have the following fricatives / ʒ,ʂ,ʐ,ɣ,ɣ,ɦ,ɜ,θ,ð /.

5. The fifth group consists of one voiced alveolar lateral / l /.

6. The sixth group consists of three approximants: one is labio-velar / w /, one is post-alveolar / r /, and the last is palatal / j /.

Note:

1. The articulation of the pharyngeo-dentals and pharyngeo-alveolars simultaneously involves a primary articulation and a secondary articulation. The primary articulation involves the following:

a) For producing / t,d / the blade of the tongue first makes firm contact with the upper teeth.

b) For producing / ʒ / the tip of the tongue first enters between the teeth.
c) For producing / ø / the blade of the tongue first approaches the alveolar ridge too closely so that friction can be caused.

1. In the secondary articulation, which is the same for all the sounds above, the root of the tongue is drawn back so that the pharynx is slightly narrowed to some extent which does not produce pharyngeal friction. Note that the friction in / ð, ø / is caused only by the primary articulation.

2. It is good to note that the pharyngeo-dentals and pharyngeo-alveolar (new terms adopted by the researcher) are known in the Arabic linguistics as the 'emphatic consonants', and Arabic scholars usually use the subscript [ . ] to symbolize them. However in this study I follow Ladefoged and symbolize pharyngealization or the emphatic consonants by the IPA diacritic [ ~ ].

3. The articulation of / q / involves full contact between the back of the tongue and the uvula.

4. In articulating / x, y / the back of the tongue approaches the uvula so closely narrowing the passage between the two articulators so that the airstream is partially obstructed and friction is produced.

5. In articulating / ʕ, ʕ / the root of the tongue approaches the back wall of the pharynx so closely narrowing the distance between them and as a result producing friction or a turbulent airflow.

Down below is a phonetic chart illustrating the distribution of the PA consonants.
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<tr>
<th>Place of Articulation</th>
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<td>Glottals</td>
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Fig 1.1 A phonetic chart of PA consonants

1.1.1.1.2 Palestinian Arabic Vowels

There are eight pure vowels in PA, unlike English which has twelve distinctive vowels. These vowels are distributed as follows:

1. The first vowel is front high long unround / iː/. In unstressed syllables particularly in word final positions this vowel is usually shortened to [ i ] which is phonetically slightly longer and more tense than the usual short lax /i/.  

5
2. The second vowel is front mid-high short unround /ɪ/; however the front part of the tongue can also be lowered to produce a front mid short unround [e], a free allophone of /ɪ/. Note that /ɪ/ and /e/ are distinctive in English.

3. The third vowel is slightly centralized-front mid long unround /eː/. This sound does not exist in English. Note that /eː/ in unstressed syllables is usually shortened to [e].

4. The fourth vowel is centralized-front mid-low long neutral /æ/; however the back part of the tongue can also be raised toward the hard palate to produce a back low long neutral [aː], an allophone of /æ/ occurring with uvular and pharyngealized consonants. In unstressed syllables particularly in word final positions /æ, aː/ are also reduced to short [æ, ɐː] respectively. Note that /æ/ and /aː/ are distinctive in English.

5. The fifth vowel is a central mid short /ə/ yet the central part of the tongue can be lowered to produce a central low short [ɐ], an allophone of /ə/ occurring with uvular and pharyngealized consonants. In word final positions /ə/ may variably be phonetically realized as [e] if the preceding consonant is not uvular or pharyngealized i.e., /q, ʰ, ʡ, x, ɣ, h, ʧ, ʤ, ɕ, ʂ/. However this subvariant [e] is hardly replaced by [ɪ]. Notice that /ə/ and /ɐ/ are distinctive in English.

6. The sixth vowel is a back mid long less round /ɔː/.

7. The seventh vowel is a back mid-high short less round /ʊ/, yet the back of the tongue can be lowered fair enough to produce a back mid low short less round [ʊ], a free allophone of /ʊ/. Note that /ʊ/ and /ʊ/ occur in English distinctively.

8. The last vowel is a back high long less round /uː/. This vowel however is reduced to [ʊ] in unstressed syllables particularly in word final positions.
It is worth mentioning here that fronting, centralising, or backing of vowels in PA mutually depend on the immediate adjacent consonants. Lowering and raising of vowels however occur in free variation. Below is a phonetic chart illustrating the distribution of vowels in PA.

![Phonetic chart of PA vowels](image)

**Fig 1.2 A phonetic chart of PA vowels**

### 1.1.1.1.3 Palestinian Arabic Diphthongs

Generally speaking the diphthongs of PA inherited from Classical Arabic are reduced to long vowels especially in word medial positions; in word final positions however the diphthongs are retained. Like English but unlike Classical Arabic which has only two diphthongs PA has eight diphthongs distributed as follows:

1. Three out of the eight diphthongs glide towards / ɹ /. The first diphthong moves from the low / æ / towards / ɹ / producing / ɹæ /, as in [d3æ1] ‘coming’, with different qualities of fronting, backing, lowering, and raising. The second movement starts from the back high / uː / towards / ɹ / producing the diphthong / uɹ / as in [xʊɹ] ‘my brother’. This diphthong is common among the nonurban people. [ɹ] is an allophone of / uɹ / and
occurs very rarely as in [bi] 'my father'. The third diphthong glides from the mid /a/ towards /\l/ producing /æl/, as in [fei] 'shade', retained word finally and often reduced to long /e\l/ in word medial positions. Note that /e1/ is absent from PA as /\l/ and /e1/ are absent from English.

2. Three diphthongs glide towards /o/. The first one glides from the mid /a/ producing /æo/, as in [da\o] 'weather', occurring most frequently word finally, and reduced word medially to long /æ/. The second diphthong moves from the low /æ/ or any of its allophones producing /æo/ as in [hælævə] 'kind of sweet'. The third one glides from the front high /i:/ producing /io/ as in [xi\o] 'silence'; this diphthong does not exist in English.

3. The last two diphthongs glide towards the /ə/. The first one glides from the back high /u:/ forming the diphthong /ʊə/ as in [doʊl] 'countries'. The second one glides from /i:/ forming /iə/ as in [ləm] 'values'. Note that /eə/ does not exist in PA.

Below are phonetic charts illustrating the distribution of diphthongs in PA.

A: Diphthongs gliding towards /u/  B: Diphthongs gliding towards /\l/
1.1.1.1.4 Palestinian Arabic Consonant Clusters

The syllable system of PA as argued by some writers does not seem to have surface structures of the form [ccv-]; Abu Salim (1982), for example, argues that such two-initial clusters are represented only at deep structures. In this study however I claim that two-initial clusters are phonetically possible, yet restricted in their distribution. The first consonant of a two-initial consonant cluster must be an oral stop. For instance, /tr-/ as in [tra:b] 'soil' is phonetically possible, whereas /st-/ as in [sta:ra] 'curtain' is not. As apparent, then, PA unlike English does not allow more than two consonants initially, however restricted in distribution. English allows upto three consonants word initially with the proviso that the first consonant of three-initial consonant clusters must be /s-/.

In word final positions the PA phonotactics may allow clusters of at most two consonants. Such two-final consonant clusters may also be heard variably with inserted vowels. That is final clusters in PA are optional but phonetically possible. Note that English final consonant clusters are more complex allowing up to four consonants.
1.1.1.5 Stress in Palestinian Arabic

Word stress in PA unlike English is almost always predictable. Stress assignment is generally explained in the following statements:

1. Stress falls primarily on the last strong syllable of a word. A strong syllable is defined as follows:

   a) an open syllable with a long vowel, however this kind of final long vowels rarely occurs in PA as final long vowels are usually reduced to their short counterparts,

   b) a closed syllable with a long vowel plus one or two consonants, or

   c) a closed syllable with a short vowel plus two consonants.

2. If the word does not have a strong syllable the primary stress falls on the first syllable.

3. Strong syllables other than the last one may receive secondary stress.

4. Syllables with initial glottal stops may carry the primary stress or at least a secondary stress if the primary stress falls on a strong syllable.

5. The primary stress falls on the last word of a phrase.

6. In normal connected speech the primary stress falls on the last word of affirmative sentences. In negative sentences, the negative particle may receive the primary stress, and in interrogative sentences it may fall on the interrogative word.

7. As far as intonation of PA is concerned, statements are usually expressed in falling tones, yes-no questions in rising tones, and wh-questions in variably falling or rising tones.
1.1.1.6. Important phonetic Rules of PA

i. The denti-alveolarization rule: The term 'denti-alveolarization', adopted by the researcher, in fact indicates a combination of two rules. The first rule only socially motivated changes the interdental fricatives /θ, ð, ð/ into the dental stops /t, d, d/ respectively. However, for more social reasons the dentalization rule has been optionally modified, and the interdental fricatives have been subjected to another alveolarization rule. This second rule changes the interdentals /θ, ð, ð/ into the alveolars /s, z, z/ respectively. Which rule is chosen by whom is not so important at least to this study; more important is that either rules are employed only by urban citizens, i.e., the people residing in the centres of cities. This phonetic change however has not affected the speech of the nonurbans particularly the villagers.

ii. The glottalization rule: This rule also socially motivated changes the voiceless uvular plosive /q/ into the glottal stop /ʔ/. The rule also affects only the urban people. Among the nonurban citizens /q/ is variably heard as [q] and [k].

iii. The Fricativization rule: This rule changes the voiced palato-alveolar affricate /dʒ/ into the voiced palato-alveolar fricative /ʒ/. The rule socially motivated affects only the speech of the urban people. Originally /ʒ/ does not exist in PA; it might have entered the language of the urban people through the effect of Egyptian Arabic on PA; /ʒ/ is very common in Egyptian Arabic.

iv. The affrication rule: This is the main rule marking the speech of nonurban people particularly the villagers. The rule changes the voiceless velar stop /k/ into the voiceless palato-alveolar affricate /tʃ/. Based on social motivations, the rule affects only the language of nonurban people.
1.1.2 British English

As a first language English is spoken in several different countries of the world; for instance Britons, Americans, Australians, New Zealanders and Canadians speak English natively. However such geographical differences usually lead to language differences among people though they belong to one language. The most affected part of language subjected to geographical differences is often the spoken part of language mainly represented in pronunciation. Thereby, the English spoken in Britain is different, for example, from that spoken in America or Canada.

In fact all the different dialects of English can equally serve the same purpose, i.e. linguistic, social or even pedagogical goals. Nevertheless, the selection of one standard dialect is inevitably necessary for facilitating language learning-teaching process. The selection of the standard dialect primarily depends on political and economic dominance of the people of that dialect and the needs and familiarity of the dominated people with the dialect. The standard dialect should best facilitate communication between the native and nonnative speakers of English. It should also be dominating the language learning and teaching situation in the non-English speaking country, and it should necessarily be internationally widespread.

Taking these criteria into consideration, British English serves well as standard in many countries including Palestine. It is predominant in Palestine due to the British mandatory which had ruled the area for several decades, hence it is British English dialect that is selected as standard in this study. Besides, British English has long become familiar to Palestinian academic institutions.

1.1.2.1 The Need for a Model

Having selected a standard dialect does not solve all the problems as far as language teaching is concerned because, on the one hand, regionally linguistic differences are also possible in the same standard dialect and on the other hand one cannot afford to teach all such linguistic differences as it is
usually not easy for a second language learner to acquire the different accents and pronunciations spoken in different provinces of the same country. Therefore, the need for a single variety to serve as a model becomes very essential. The selection of a model mainly depends on social and academic bases.

The model should be socially prestigious and able to cope with the widest range of functional roles in the community. It should ease the language learning teaching operation and should be reasonably acquired by the second language learners. It should also serve as a means of communication not only between native and nonnative speakers but also among the people of minor languages. For these reasons the model should on the most part be free of localization which may complicate the second language learning process.

1.1.2.2 RP As a Model

In light of what has been said on the selection of a model variety, the British variety most likely to serve as a model is the Received Pronunciation (RP) basically spoken by the upper classes of the South-East midlands of Britain. Bronstein (1960) remarks that RP is commonly spoken by Parliamentary leaders, bankers, and professionals. Jones (1972) attributes the superiority of RP over any other type of English to the fact that RP is easily understood in all parts of English speaking countries. Abercrombie (1976) recommends RP for foreign learners as it is the obvious choice due to its social prestige. Gimson (1982) reports that RP is no longer confined to the region of its emergence, i.e., its use is socially determined rather than geographically; therefore, RP is nowadays spoken by highly educated people regardless of their regions.

Moreover RP seems to play a universal role as far as international communication and education are concerned. Ioratim-Ubu (1995) mentions that RP is favoured by the majority of nonnative speakers of English for instrumental motives. The superiority of RP is perhaps attributed to the unintended efforts made by the BBC news bulletins which familiarize RP and make it daily available to millions of people in the world. Needless to say, RP has very often been the
choice of researchers in their contrastive studies and error analyses (Paul 1972; Bhalla 1980; Jindal 1985) to name few.

RP seems to have acquired popularity especially at schools and universities in the Arab countries and Palestine as well. Quoting Al-Sawaf (1979:288) "most books on English pronunciation and other teaching materials at our disposal are based on this type of English (RP)." I have accordingly selected RP as a point of reference since it is the only common pronunciation through which the Palestinian Arab learners learn English.

Down below are provided the phonetic symbols of English RP. These symbols, quoted from D.Jones’ (1994) ‘Everyman’s English pronouncing Dictionary’ 14th edition, are also used to transcribe phonetically the data of the present research. RP symbols are represented as follows:

i. RP consonants: The following consonant symbols have their usual English sound values: p,b,t,d,k,m,n,l,r,f,v,s,z,h,w. The remaining consonants have the following symbols:

- g as in ‘game’
- ŋ as in ‘game’
- tʃ as in ‘chain’
- dʒ as in ‘June’
- η as in ‘long’
- θ as in ‘thin’
- δ as in ‘then’
- j as in ‘ship’
- ɹ as in ‘measure’
- ʃ as in ‘yes’

ii. RP vowels: The following symbols indicate the English vowels:

- iː as in ‘bean’
- aː as in ‘barn’
- ɔː as in ‘born’
- uː as in ‘food’
iii. RP diphthongs: The English diphthongs are symbolized as follows:

- ei as in 'bay'
- ai as in 'buy'
- œi as in 'boy'
- œ as in 'no'
- au as in 'now'
- œ as in 'peer'
- e: as in 'pair'
- u as in 'poor'

1.1.2.3 English Language in Palestine

The use of English Language in Palestine goes back to the advent of the British colonization to the Arab world after the first world war. When the Israeli colonization has replaced the British colonization in Palestine in 1948, English however did not seem to occupy a strong position. It has remained as a foreign language of less importance to the Palestinian people. Its use has been functionally restricted to academic purposes. Now English is taught as a compulsory subject at public schools; right from the fifth grade, by that grade the students turn nearly ten years old, up to the twelfth grade, the students learn English Language with more focus on syntax and reading and writing skills.
At colleges and universities English becomes optional; students who select English can attend either a two-year college course and get a diploma in English language and literature or a four-year university course and get a bachelor degree in English Language and literature. Some universities can also offer master degrees in English linguistics and literature.

Though English is not a means of communication in Palestine, there very recently seems to be an increasing demand for spoken English in the country. Moreover, most of the educated Palestinians can nowadays speak English and communicate through it when necessary.

1.1.3 Indian English

The third language examined in the present study is what I call Indian English (IE). The researcher is aware of the subimpossibility of having one Indian English variety like for instance Italian or Spanish English; perhaps this is due to the fact that India has many spoken languages. Nevertheless, the term 'Indian English' is appropriate at least for me to distinguish it from British and Palestinian English. The need to examine Indian English arises from the claim made by the researcher that the English spoken by the Palestinian students residing in India might be coloured by Indian English.

1.1.3.1 Indian English Phonetic Features

The study will only focus on the important phonetic differences between RP and the Indian English which is influenced by the linguistic habits of the Indian Languages particularly Hindi, Urdu, Telugu, and Kannada. It is appropriate to note here that my subjects who have been residing in India for nearly five years speak workable Hindi or/and Urdu, hence much influence is expected from these two languages. Here are some relevant phonetic features of Indian English, i.e., Hindi English, Telugu English, etc. I have got these pieces of information through personal communication with Dr.Depti, my Hindi teacher, Mrs. Asma, my Urdu teacher, and Dr.Krupanandam, a Linguist and native speaker of Telugu. See the differences below:
1. The RP interdental voiceless fricative /θ/ is perceived and produced as an aspirated voiceless alveolar plosive /tʰ/ in Indian English particularly Hindi and Urdu English. Note that RP /ð/ is usually replaced by I E /dʰ/ by English speaking Indians, however, this feature is irrelevant to this study.

2. The RP /v/ and /w/ are perceived and produced as [w] and [v] respectively particularly in Hindi and Telugu English.

3. The RP /z/ is perceived and produced as [dʒ] especially in Telugu English.

4. Front-vowel-initial words are usually introduced by a phonetic glide [j] particularly in Telugu English.

5. Double consonants are usually stressed especially in Telugu English.

6. The RP /ɔː:/ is perceived and produced as [aː] particularly in Hindi and Urdu English.

7. The RP /ɔ/ is perceived and produced as [ə] especially in Hindi English.

1.2 The Problem Under Study

The present study attempts to give a descriptive and analytical account of the phonological-phonetic errors committed by adult Palestinian Arab learners of English. The study will also investigate the influence of Indian English on the phonological aspect of the spoken English of the Palestinian learners residing in India.

More specifically four major phonological areas are selected for investigation. First, a detailed account of consonantal errors is given; second, errors in vowels and diphthongs are described and analysed; third an examination of errors in consonant clusters is provided; finally an analysis of stress errors in words, phrases, and sentences and a brief note on rhythm and intonation errors are also taken into consideration.
1.3 The Objectives of the Study

The study attempts the following objectives:

1. To find out and classify the contrastive (phonemic) and noncontrastive (allophonic) errors in the phonological areas mentioned in the previous section.

2. To account for the elicited errors psycholinguistically and statistically.

3. To examine the gravity (seriousness) of the errors based on their frequency so as to build up a hierarchy of the errors.

4. To examine the influence of the Palestinian geographical backgrounds of the learners, in question, on their pronunciation of English.

5. To examine the influence of Indian English on the English pronunciation of the learners in question.

1.3.1 Hypotheses and Questions

In light of the results to be obtained from the study, the following hypotheses and questions will be investigated. A description of the first two hypotheses is found in the second chapter; for CAH and MDH see sections (2.1.1) and (2.5.4.2.3.2) respectively.

1. The contrastive analysis hypothesis (CAH)

2. The markedness differential hypothesis (MDH)

3. PCV-Hypothesis: The researcher hypothesizes that two-initial consonant clusters starting with oral plosives are captured and pronounced by the Palestinian Learners more easily than two-initial nonplosive starting consonant clusters. This hypothesis is based on another postulation claimed by the researcher that: [ccv-] in PA is a possible surface syllable structure with the proviso that the first consonant is an oral plosive.
4. Arabic is a diglossic language having two varieties, high and low; it would be interesting, then, to know which variety (i.e. Standard Arabic or PA) affects the IL phonology of the Palestinian Learners.

5. Which aspects of IL phonology are most influenced by L1?

6. Does international communication with English native or nonnative speakers affect the learners' pronunciation?

1.4 The Significance of the Study

1.4.1 Linguistic Significance

Half of my subjects particularly those residing in India have ceased to learn regular English at classrooms at least for seven years. In India however they have continued to speak English relying perhaps on their previous school knowledge of English. If I am right, such kind of learners is called noncaptive, i.e., freely learning English from streets, markets, offices, etc. Such kind of free language learning has so far been given less emphasis by researchers who focussed instead on regular classroom learners of English. Therefore, Linguistically significant the study will hopefully contribute to the general understanding of second Language learning and acquisition process, and it may reveal some new learning strategies employed by this sort of L2 noncaptive learners. Needless to say, the study may also support or dissupport some psycholinguistic theories particularly CAH.

1.4.2 Social Significance

Since the study focuses broadly on pronunciation, it is always important for the people to have a good pronunciation. In many cases addresses and listeners may react ridiculously or ironically when they face or hear bad pronunciation. They may for example burst in laughter or beg the speaker's pardon to repeat what he says. Consequently a poor speaker, who cannot express himself well, or
who knows that his pronunciation is not good enough to be heard or understood, may feel inferior to others, hence preferring to keep silent. Psychologically speaking the personalities of such speakers will negatively be affected. And socially speaking poor pronunciation may block the progress of people whose speech reflects their social status and profession, hence preventing them from obtaining what intrinsically they may be capable to achieve. It is socially significant then to improve the pronunciation of any speaker, and this can hopefully be done by proper instructions and recommendations.

1.4.3 Pedagogical Significance

The study will also be pedagogically significant for both teachers and students. The results of the study will be of great benefit for the teachers who can accordingly put their fingers on the major problems that may face their students. Consequently they can devise their teaching materials emphasizing some items more than others. They may also revise their teaching methods and syllabuses and their teaching plans. The correction of the errors can also serve as a feedback to the students who can then identify their errors and avoid them as much as possible. They can also testify their hypotheses about the language. They will know how much they have learned and how much they need to learn.

1.4.4 National Significance

Studies dealing with IL phonology particularly pronunciation are very rare in Palestine; there is indeed a national demand for such studies. As far as language planning including preparation and revision of English textbooks and teaching syllabuses in Palestine are concerned, the present study is hoped to serve as a point of reference. Though the study is basically meant for Palestinian Arabs, other Arab countries may find it helpful to their people especially students who wish to improve their pronunciation because Arabic dialects, though different, have much in common.
1.5 The Scope of the Study

1.5.1. Linguistic Limitations

Previous studies have focussed on syntactic errors made by Palestinian Arab Learners of English; for more information see (2.6.2.). The present study therefore will not deal with syntactic, spelling, or lexicon-semantic errors; instead it is restricted to the phonological errors of the learners in question. Again no promises would likely be given to discuss all aspects of phonetics and phonology with respect to error analysis because, on the one hand, the research time is limited, and on the other the work would run too long.

Accordingly no accounts of acoustic or audible phonetics will be presented in this study. Instead, the study will focus on the articulation of segmental sounds; see (1.2.). At the suprasegmental level, syllable errors or consonant cluster errors will be discussed, however syllabification errors, i.e. the way the subjects syllabify words, are not included in the study. The analysis will also focus on stress errors at the level of the word, phrase, and sentence; for convenience, short notes, however not in detail, will be given on intonation and rhythm errors which may serve as a feedback for further research.

1.5.2. Geographical Limitations

As far as the geographical background of my subjects is concerned, the following steps are taken care of. First, the Palestinian subjects residing in India are selected, for no reason, nearly equally from three Indian areas, namely Hyderabad, Bangalore, and Mysore. Second, all the sixteen Palestinian subjects including those residing in India must have lived originally in Palestine till the day they left to India; some subjects must have urban background, i.e. city residents, and others must have nonurban (rural) background, i.e. villagers. Third the students or learners who belong to any other Arab nationality are exempted from the study. Likewise, the Palestinian Arab students who have never lived in Palestine or have just paid short visits to it are also exempted from the study.
1.6 Conclusion

As we have seen the chapter opens with some discussion on the languages that are referred to in this study, namely PA, British English and Indian English. The consonants, vowels, and diphthongs of PA are briefly outlined along with illustrating phonetic charts. There are forty-four phonemes in all: twenty-eight consonants, eight vowels, and eight diphthongs. Brief notes on Palestinian Arabic consonant clusters and stress are also given. British English and RP model are defended and selected as points of reference. The superiority of RP over any other type of English is due to the fact that RP is easily understood in all parts of English speaking countries. On the other hand, some phonetic features of Indian English which are necessary for the discussion are also outlined.

The next section deals with the problem under investigation. The problem is clearly stated; five phonological areas are selected for study, namely consonants, vowels and diphthongs, consonant clusters, and stress of English. In the third section the goals of the study including some hypotheses and questions are made clear. A brief discussion on the significance of the study is presented in the fourth section. Linguistically speaking the study is hoped to contribute to the general understanding of the second or foreign language learning process and may reveal new learning strategies the L2 learners may employ. Pedagogically speaking the study will be significant for both teachers and students. The study is also expected to work as a feedback as far as national language planning in Palestine is concerned.

The last section deals with linguistic and geographical limitations of the present research. The study concentrates only on phonological errors which include errors of consonants, vowels, diphthongs, consonant clusters, and stress. Geographically limited, in order to have a homogeneous group of learners, all the subjects participating in the study must be Palestinians who have lived originally in Palestine till the day they left to India.