UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHAMPTON

FACULTY OF HUMANITIES

MODERN LANGUAGES

Thesis for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Modern Languages

TEACHER-STUDENT PHONOLOGICAL TRANSFERENCE IN A SAUDI ARABIAN EFL CONTEXT:

A CASE STUDY OF PHONOLOGICAL AND ATTITUDINAL INFLUENCES

by

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29 January 2018

ABSTRACT

In the context of teaching pronunciation of English as Foreign Language EFL, many studies have investigated a range of factors that affect pronunciation (see 2.4). It is considered by Gilakjani (2012) and Ahmadi (2011) that the influence of learner's mother tongue (L1) is one of the most significant factors on students' pronunciation. However, among other factors, little research has investigated EFL teachers' L2 accent, as a cause of L1 influence (see 2.2.1), on their students' L2 outcome (Levis et. al, 2016). This case study examines whether or not there is any significant segmental phonological influence of Arabic-speaking teachers' language variety in terms of their dialectal accents on students' L2 English pronunciation of ten consonants /dʒ, ʒ, v, tʃ, ŋ, ɹ, Θ, ð, p, g/. The original contribution to knowledge of this study is to explore the factors that may affect Saudi students' L2 English pronunciation linking this to their attitude towards Arabian teachers' accented English. Different theoretical frameworks are investigated including Transfer and Markedness theories as well as Contrastive and Error Analysis Hypotheses. The main data collection methods were student surveys (n=118), recordings of teacher (n=6) and student pronunciations (n=120, 20 students per a teacher) and students' follow-up interviews (n=15). Based primarily on clarity of accent, the results of the survey indicate a clear student preference for Saudi and Jordanian teachers' oral articulations of English. Data analyses also reveal no direct relationship between the teachers' L1 Arabic dialectal accents and their students' L2 pronunciation, which contradicts the hypothesis that there is an influence from the teachers' L1 dialects on the students' L2 pronunciation. The main source of the students' deviations counts on the students' L1 and their previous L2 education in school more than their teachers' L2. Also, the findings show that in this time of speed technology and social media, the teacher is not the only pronunciation ideal model in the class as freshman students are exposed to other sources of English. Moreover, the findings highlight that the students' negative attitude towards certain accented English does not count for the students' L2 accented pronunciation. It is revealed that students' accented English claim to their previous education aligning with the Critical Period Hypothesis (see 2.2.6). A key implication of this research is to consider the dialectal variation among the teachers' and students' L1 in teaching L2 pronunciation. Moreover, it may be helpful to stakeholders that the teachers' native-like English pronunciation is not a vital criterion for their students' proficient pronunciation. Thus, the incidence of having multi-varieties of Englishes in EFL environment could be concluded as being a healthy condition.

Keywords: Sociolinguistics, English pronunciation, Arabic accented teachers of English, Arab learners of English, Arabic phonetics, Error Analysis, students' attitude.

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DECLARATION OF AUTHORSHIP

I, ...

declare that this thesis and the work presented in it are my own and has been generated by me as the result of my own original research.

TEACHER-STUDENT PHONOLOGICAL TRANSFERENCE IN A SAUDI ARABIAN EFL CONTEXT:

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Acknowledgements

In the Name of Allah, the Most Beneficent, the Most Merciful

"And among His Signs is the creation of the heavens and the earth, and the difference of your languages and colours. Verily, in that are indeed signs for men of sound knowledge."(Holy Qur'aan, 30:22)

This work would not have seen the light of day without the limitless help of Almighty Allah, who provides me with hope and strength to complete it.

First and foremost, to the first person who helped me in translating my early English lessons, and who inspired me with his accuracy, personality and his English language skills. Special thanks to Dad for his infinite support.

An exceptional thanks to the one who taught me to appreciate the beauty of reading and instilled the desire for knowledge, the one who used to start her day with a newspaper and end it with stories from the "One-Thousand Nights and Nights" in my bedtime "Thank you" Mum for your unconditioned love.

I would like to also thank Dr. Jaine Beswick, my supervisor, because without her, this thesis would not have been possible. Thanks to her for being so generous with her time, reading draft after draft of my thesis.

I would also like to thank Dr. Vicky Wright and Dr. Robert Biard. Their dedication, insight, and motivation were paramount in the completion of this thesis.

Infinite thanks to the anonymous partner, who pours me with his care, love, loyalty and reliability of the heaviest responsibilities in my hardest times; my lovely husband, Muhammad.

I dedicate this work to my little bright precious pearls, to my dear two daughters, Norah and Loulwa, who kept asking their innocent question, "Mum! Ask your teacher when you are going to finish!!"

I would also like to thank all my siblings who shared, and still share, me my hard and happy moments of this PhD journey

"Thank you" to my mother-in-low, Mama Hayya, who took good care of my child when she was zero-aged, and for her continuous prayers.

"Thank you" to my spiritual/academic mother, my MA supervisor and my boss, Dr. Ebtissam Fakaahni for believing in me.

My sincere gratitude extends to all participants, teachers and students, who donated their time to being subjects of my study.

Lastly but importantly, I would especially like to thank the one who seeded this passionate curiosity for studying phonology; the one who graded me with "F" in my MA phonology course, to Dr. Ahmed Mussa.

Abbreviations

AOL	Age of Learning
CA	Contrastive Analysis
CAr	Classical Arabic
CAH	Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis
CPH	Critical Period Hypothesis
CLA	Contrastive Linguistic Analysis
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
CS	Code-Switching
EA	Error Analysis
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ESL	English as a Second Language
IPA	International Phonetic Alphabet
IOH	Input/ Output Hypothesis
L1	Language 1; First (or Native) Language
L2	Language 2; Second (or Target) Language
LOL	Length of Learning
MDH	Markedness Differential Hypothesis
MSA	Modern Standard Arabic
NTL	Non Target Like
NLCL	Native Language Neural Commitment
NEST	Native English Speaking Teacher
NNEST	Non-Native English Speaking Teacher
PAI	Pronunciation Attitude Inventory

RP	Received Pronunciation
SA	Saudi Arabia
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
TESOL	Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages
TL	Target Like

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

This chapter sets the context of the study through an initial discussion of the wider phenomenon of the global spread of English, its impact on pronunciation, the significance of this and the challenges involved (see 1.2). In the specific context under study, which pertains to female Saudi learners of English in Saudi higher education, it is noted that Saudi students experience difficulties in their English pronunciation. This can lead to further problems, such as comprehension problems, as found in a study on Saudi EFL students (Hamouda, 2013). Section 1.3 on 'Rationale' gives an overview of this central issue which is explored later in the literature review and empirical research. The significance of the study (see 1.4) is also established to justify the research and highlight its potential contribution to the field. Details of this study in terms of its scope and limitations are also presented (see 1.5), including a brief outline of the mixed-methods approach, research participants, and the specific factors and variables of interest. This is followed by a specification of the study aims and objectives, the main research question under factors, segmental consonants, and possible relationships, and the research hypothesis to be tested. This study investigates the relationship if any, between Arab teachers' L1 varieties and students' L2 pronunciation in terms of segmental consonants, and examines the students' attitude towards their teachers' accents and how this may influence the outcome of the students' pronunciation.

1.2 Pronunciation

1.2.1 Definition

Pronunciation is "the production and the perception of the significant sounds of a particular language in order to achieve meaning in context of language use" (Seidlhofer, 2011). It is a necessary part of the speaking aspect of communication as it involves producing the sounds of a language and knowing how sounds are combined during speech including the use of stress and intonation meaningfully (Boyer and Boyer, 2001). Pronunciation can therefore be defined as “the process of uniting vowels and consonants into syllables, or the way the sounds of a language are articulated and enunciated” (Ross, 1975: 11). A broader definition of pronunciation would include both segmental and suprasegmental features, as in practice, both are exercised in combination whilst speaking, so both are usually best learned as an integral part of spoken language (Gilakjani, 2012).

1.2.2 Issues Related to Pronunciation

English has become a very important global language in the present age. Unlike Chinese, which has a greater number of L1 speakers worldwide, English has a larger number of non L1 speakers worldwide. It is also recognised as a global language on the basis of it being adopted widely as either an official or co-official language, or used in administrative, educational or legal contexts (Low, 2014).

The global nature of English has significant implications for the way the language is pronounced, both with respect to its segmental features (related to consonants and vowels) as well as its suprasegmental features (related to stress, rhythm and intonation and other features of connected speech). The spread of English as a global language has led to diversity in the way the language is pronounced. There are also ongoing debates about accent such as what would be considered as 'standard', where the divide between 'native' and 'non-native' exists (Canagarajah, 2005; Hyltenstam and Abrahamsson, 2000), the desirability of acquiring native like proficiency, and whether this ought to be taught to learners of English as a second or foreign language. Pronunciation is also associated closely with a speaker's identity and has an impact on the comprehensibility and intelligibility of speech. This assertion leads to recognising that foreign accents may display unusual traits other than the issue of intelligibility (Jenkins, 2000). It is argued that the contextual clues convey a speaker's actual intention, and that audible segmental features are therefore an unnecessary communicative element as regards comprehensibility. However, it has been shown in many studies that learners of English like and aspire to acquire a native or native-like accent (Chien, 2007, cited in Sowden, 2012; Al-Dosari, 2011, Dalton-Puffer, Kaltenboeck and Smit, 1997; Alseweed, 2012).

As Canagarajah points out, “pronunciation is perhaps the linguistic feature most open to judgment” (2005: 420). This is because it is a feature of language that is most noticeable due to it being a surface structure phenomenon, and because it therefore evokes people’s biases easily. On the other hand, the marked differences in regional variations provide criteria for determining the place of origin of a speaker although some regional variants tend to be stigmatised when used outside their normal context (Gelderen, 2014). For instance, a study by Heblich, Lameli and Riener (2015) found that individuals matched in groups with the same accent are significantly more cooperative than if matched with speakers from outside their home region, and further, that stigmatization can lead to social discrimination and it also influences economic decisions.

The famous English novelist, Joseph Conrad, whose works became classics in English literature had a Polish accent due to Polish being his L1. Indeed, Moyer (2014) argues that some features of the English language such as lexicon and syntax are easier to acquire than others such as

phonology. Meanwhile, we can assume that accents are not implied to language difficulties only but could be traced to other social factors. Therefore, L2 pronunciation could be regarded as an important negotiable concept along with other language skills.

A related fact to consider is the spread of English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) and how it increasingly becomes as a popular topic in applied linguistics (Zoghbor, 2010). It has been suggested by Jenkins (2000) that the native-like pronunciation is not an important factor in everyday communications. However, from EFL prospective, English learners' preference to the "target model of pronunciation" is still a reality, in most instances, in L2 classrooms. Thus, in the time that students wish to have that "native-like" pronunciation, research has shown that students' perception and attitude towards native/non-native accents do have an effect on their language learning (see 2.4.2.1). Moreover, although EFL teachers as well are aware of the importance of the ELF paradigm, they are in favour of a native speaker-oriented perspective when teaching the language (Kuo, 2006; Norrish, 2008). According to the aforementioned studies results, the participants of their studies explained their wish to learn and speak ‘native-speaker version of English’. Arguably, Cogo (2012) asserts that these perceptions of both non-native speaker learners and teachers of English are not surprising because they are in the field which is dominated by native speaker ideology and all the teaching/learning materials are prepared and designed by ‘inner-circle’ professionals (see 2.4.1.3 teacher's factor on L2).

If this is the target of a learner, the apparent difficulty of attaining native-like pronunciation is often a major challenge in L2 learning. The many possible factors that may affect the acquisition of pronunciation, the theories that may be useful in explaining how pronunciation is acquired and why different pronunciations occur while learning, is the focus of this study within the context of English learning in Saudi Arabia (SA). This context is detailed further in the following section.

1.2.2.1 English in Saudi Arabia

1.2.2.1.1 Modernization and Saudization

Following the oil boom in the 1970s, SA has initiated a process of modernization in all fields of life. Under this progressive transition, foreign labour was continuously hired, and waves of new workers arrived from various parts of the world, including non-Arab countries (Alessa, 2010). For centuries, the constant influx of foreign pilgrims to the Hijaz region to visit the holy cities of Makkah and Madinah has also been a prominent factor in making the acquisition of English as an L2 vital to the economy of the Saudi kingdom. Subsequently, several foreign language programmes have been devised over the years to manage and cater for this diversity.

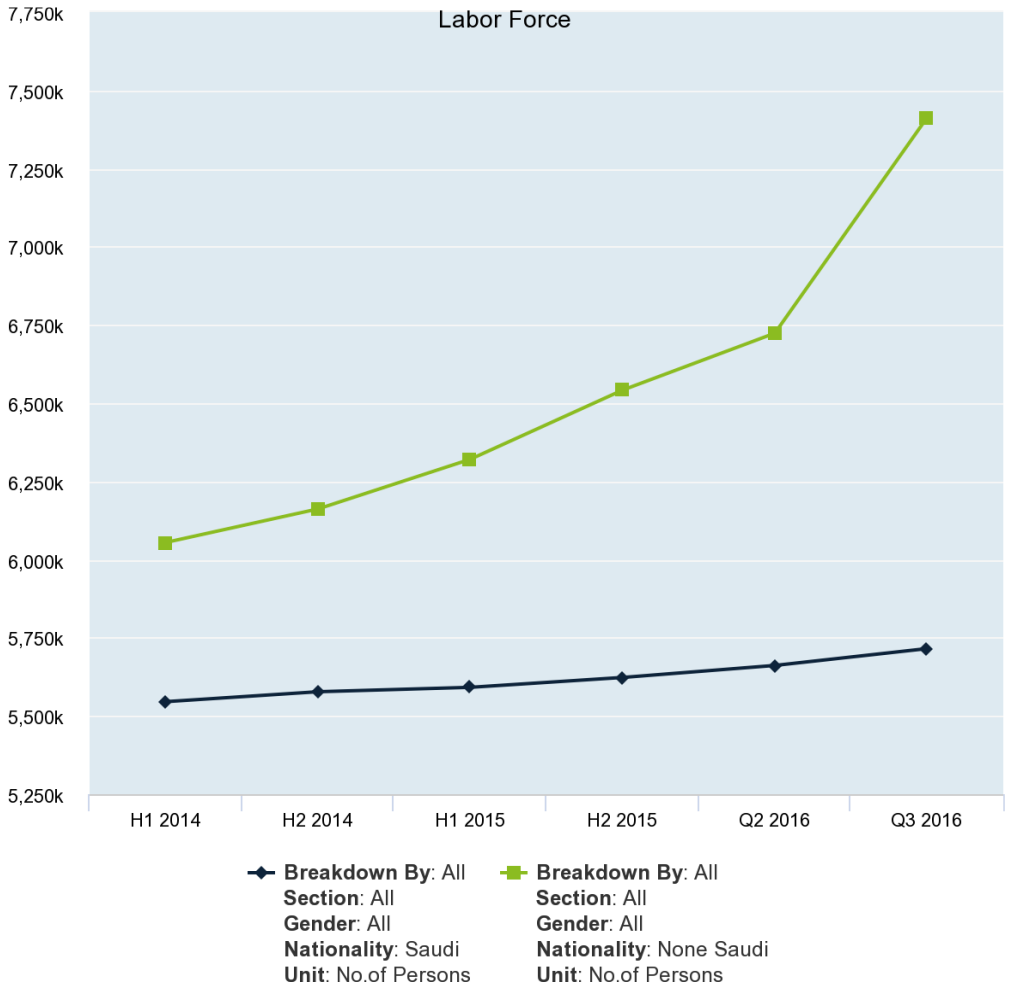
For the purpose of ensuring the long-term economic survival of the kingdom without over-reliance on the oil industry, the government has realised that two goals must be achieved. Firstly, the skills of graduates must match with the needs of the employment market, and secondly, adequate employment opportunities should be created by increasing the proportion of native Saudis in the workforce (Prokop, 2003). Also, it is worth mentioning that the highest proportion of the Saudi General Statement Budget goes towards the Education sector, and it reached some 210 billion Saudi Riyals in 2014 according to the Ministry of Finance. Thus, new rules, regulations and considerations are applied yearly in order to develop this fundamental sector in terms of preparing novice teachers, enhancing the existing curricula and improving the educational production/outcome in order to fulfil a need in the job market.

In recent years there has been a drive for "Saudization" in the kingdom;" a phenomenon that rose to the surface during the 1980s and refers to the compulsory inclusion of Saudis on the staff of companies as a way to overcome the rising unemployment in the kingdom. The aim is to reduce the existing expatriate work force to replace them with more Saudi nationals, as the government sees this as a way of improving employment levels for indigenous Saudis and maintaining a healthy and productive workforce that contributes to wealth generation for the kingdom itself. As per the Saudization policy, qualified Saudi citizens are given preference for being employed over employing non-Saudis across all sectors. Besides implementing quotas, the Saudization policies are enforced by restricting visas and increasing their costs (Faqeeh, 2009).

As enlightened by Alrashidi and Phan (2014), an effort for building a pool of Saudi qualified labour was actually initiated in the kingdom’s first five year plan of 1970-1975, but it was only given priority since the late 1990s in the face of budget deficits, rising unemployment rates, and rapidly growing young population. The initial plan stipulated for 75% of workers to be Saudis and for them to be paid 51% of total salaries. With a growing population, it became difficult for the Saudi government to maintain a balance, so the campaign became more intensified over the years and was accelerated further in 2003 out of economic necessity. The private education sector is one sector in which the government is keen on increasing employment for Saudi citizens, as illustrated by Faqeeh (2009) and importantly, the government also seeks to restrict employment to Saudis only in future.

It is clear that the Saudi work growth has been positively affected by this strategy. The following diagram (Figure 1) demonstrates how Saudi citizens have represented less than 5,750,000 persons of the labour force in comparison to non Saudis with 7,500,000 persons from 2014 until 2016.

Figure 1: Saudi Arabia Labour Force Growth (2014-2016)



Source: Saudi General Authority for Statistics, 2017, https://www.stats.gov.sa/en/814

In spite of this government initiative of Saudization, there has been little impact on lowering unemployment or increasing skills. Employers find that there is usually a mismatch between skills of school leavers and the labour market, and that Saudis tend to lack motivation and 'work ethic' and even refuse certain jobs that are considered 'beneath them' (Al-Harbi, 2015). Moreover, the economy continues to confront a significant gap between the graduate output and market needs. This situation is also felt in the educational sector, in particular with regards to teaching English in SA. The following section provides an overview of the past and current situation of teaching English is SA.

1.2.2.1.2 English language teaching in Saudi schools and universities

According to Ahaydib (1986, cited in Liton, 2012), English language teaching was first introduced in 1925 in SA as a foreign language (EFL) in specialist language schools to meet the new challenges that Saudi Arabia has undergone such as great political, social and economic development. English language teaching was subsequently introduced in public schools in 1954 (Al Hajailan, 2003) when

the Saudi government realised its importance for training its citizens to communicate across the globe (Al-Seghayer, 2012).

Until recently, English in Saudi Arabian formal educational contexts was taught from the 6th grade up to the final 12th grade of secondary school as a core subject (Al-Sahayer, 2012). These grades come under the intermediate and secondary high school stages, which are preceded by preschool and elementary, and followed by higher education. Currently however, SA is undergoing a revolution in the teaching of English. English was introduced in primary schools in 2003 due to social and political pressure (Azuri, 2006), and since 2012, English has been introduced in the 4th grade in all public elementary schools. Consequently, many present-day Saudi students will eventually spend 9 years studying English (3 at each of elementary, intermediate and secondary levels).

Al-Seghayer (2005) claims that the methods employed in teaching English in Saudi Arabia are the audio-lingual method and, to some extent, the grammar translation method. During the 70s, the Aural-Oral Approach and the Grammar-Translation Approach were used in schools across the country until this day (Al Hajailan, 2003). In addition, the Ministry of Education (MoE) has considered the importance of teaching English in terms of communicative competence, as it is considered as the most efficient approach in the field to teach language since it was first introduced in the late 70's / early 80's (Sofi, 2015) and because of the outcome of general education lacks of the basic ability to form/pronounce a full intelligible sentence in communication. However, English classroom in SA is still teacher-centered, and English language teaching is still mostly done through lectures. A communicative approach is rarely observed in public classrooms (Alharbi, 2015).

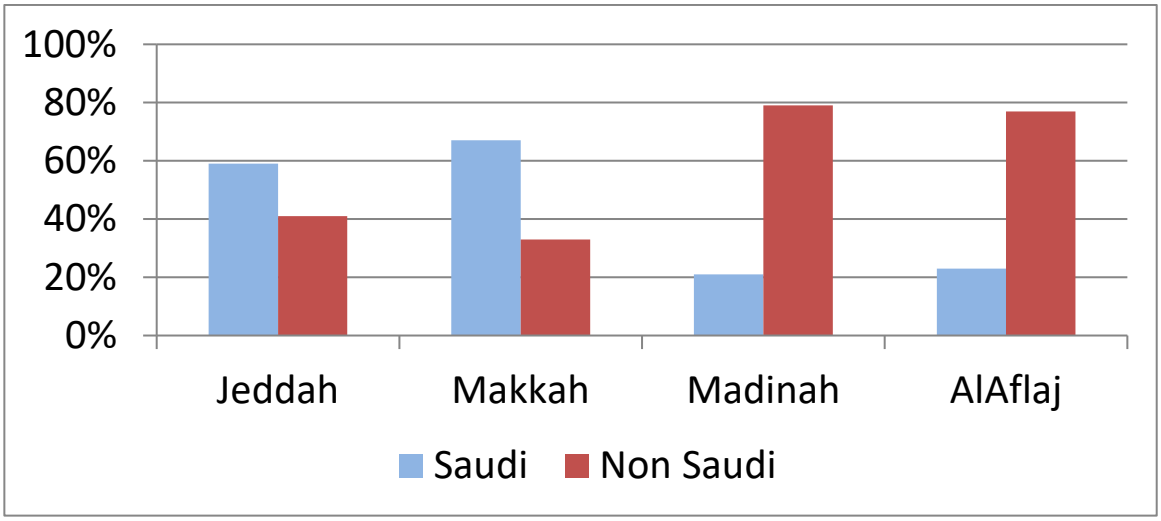
Although some English lessons are taught accompanied with audio recordings (which never been used/not usually used) the accent of the teacher may be more important in terms of its impact on a student's pronunciation because it is usually the only or main source of exposure to listening to the language. In public schools, students learning English are taught by Saudi teachers. That is, at the aforementioned (elementary, intermediate and secondary) levels, English is mainly taught and administered by Saudi nationals. In the private sector, the situation is more likely to be different wherein it is common to find teachers of other nationalities. Regardless, English is treated as an essential language in the kingdom in both public and private schools. Generally in both sectors, "teaching English in SA is like teaching math" (Al-Seghayer, 2005: 2)

One of the general objectives of teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in the schools of SA is "to develop students' linguistic competence that enables them to benefit from nations with citizens that speak the English language, which increases the idea of cooperation, respect and

understanding of differences in cultures "(Al Zayid, 2012; UrRahman and Alhaisoni, 2013). Based on the previous objectives, textbooks were designed by MoE. Through the years, the textbooks have been revised and renewed. The latest version, called “English Language Essentials”, is published by Teachers Created Materials, Inc. (MoEAdminstration, 2010) stresses that teachers must duly complete teaching of all the unit content provided in the textbooks, and due to time limit, which is 45-minutes lessons of 8 lessons a week, students do not have enough and sufficient time of English exposure.

After graduating from high schools, a great number of students join higher education institutions (Al-Hazmi, 2012). It is for this reason that this context was chosen for investigation in this study. Moreover, as pointed out earlier, it is important to study the pronunciation difficulties faced by Saudi learners of English because mispronunciation can lead to further problems such as unintelligibility and misinterpretation, which are barriers to communication (Hameed and Aslam, 2015). To give an idea of the relative proportion of Saudis and non-Saudis teaching in higher education institutions, Figure 2 outlines EFL teachers specified by Saudization four major cities. At the latter stage in universities, English is the language of instruction for various majors and is widely used in hospitals, banks and other administrative places in the kingdom.

Figure 2: English institutes teachers specified by Saudization



Source: Language Institutes (King AbdulAzzi University, Um-AlQura University, Taiba University and Salman bin AbdulAziz University, 2011)

In spite of the tremendous efforts in teaching English and enhancing the language learning process in SA, it is felt that the quality of EFL programmes remain unsatisfactory. It is argued by Al-Seghayer (2014a) that Saudi university graduates who seek to be future English teachers, usually lack fundamental teaching skills as they have not undertaken any English teaching preparation course or TESOL program while studying at the universities.

According to Fareh (2010), these have failed to deliver as expected given that learners' proficiency is generally inadequate, and he attributes the cause to a number of challenges still being faced in the Arab world as a whole. Major challenges identified are lack of motivation of language learners, inadequate preparation of teachers, the adoption of teacher-centred methods, and use of inadequate assessment techniques. The situation in SA specifically is no different. In fact, Khan (2011) considers the planning, curriculum, and textbooks to be satisfactory and English language teachers in SA to be adequate. However, learning difficulties in English are still common in the Saudi context. Important underlying factors behind the aforementioned challenges are attitudes and perceptions towards the English language, which are discussed next.

1.2.2.1.3 Attitude and Perception towards English

Another important dimension of English in SA is the attitudes and perceptions of instructors and learners towards the teaching and learning of English in the kingdom since these are strong. English in KSA is not considered neutrally; it is laden with socio-cultural, political, religious and other overtones. Although modernization and globalization influences have made English compulsory, there is also widespread resistance to English in the kingdom. This tension is also reflected in national policies and educational programs. The aim of teaching has been stated explicitly by the Saudi Ministry of Education, as follows:

> The aim of teaching English in the secondary schools is to have the public attain a standard which will permit him to make ready use of desired materials in English and which will enable him to communicate satisfactorily, according to his needs, in both spoken and written forms (MoE 2002).

Moreover, English is given importance because SA relies heavily on its foreign companies, and large proportions of its workforce in critical organisations such as hospitals are expatriates. Saudization has increased the importance of learning English for Saudi nationals because they have to take over the positions previously occupied by foreigners. Furthermore, English is also tied to the development of SA as a military power. Individually however, English language learners do not generally tend to give serious attention to learning English because it is not seen as being immediately relevant to their needs, and their efforts are largely confined to gaining minimal competency for passing their exams (Al-Seghayer, 2014b). There is a lack of intrinsic motivation among Saudi students generally for learning English (Liton, 2012), and they lack of opportunities to speak English outside of the classroom.

With respect to curricula, early versions were characterised by deletions of references to Western culture, such as co-education, drinking alcohol and dating. Since then however, some references

related to Western ways of behaving and thinking have been gradually introduced (Elyas, 2008). On one hand, there is pressure from the West for the curriculum as a whole to be secular throughout the Muslim world, as well as for more 'critical and creative thinking' (Al-Miziny, 2010) and "better" quality English instruction (Al-Seghayer, 2005). On the other hand, there is concern that the teaching of English is introducing 'alien ideologies' (Al-Brashi, 2003), and extreme views are of English as a missionary language (Wong and Canagarajah, 2009); an 'imperialistic tool' and a language of 'the infidels'. Among the most vocal opponents is Karmani (2006) who sees teaching English as a means of spreading Western ideologies (Kabel, 2007).

Some see a compromise solution in promoting an Islamic perspective to teaching English by making the English curriculum reflect the aspirations of Muslims (Karmani, 2006), for instance, the Islamic costumes, greetings, history, topics and holy events like Ramadan and Hajj are introduced clearly in the English textbooks, and for it to consolidate mother-tongue teaching and have more 'learner-relevant content' (Zughoul, 2003: 145). Scholars such as Elyas (2008) accept that learning English helps to develop tolerance for different cultures and their points of view, and that does not necessarily mean accepting it. Others such as Harwood and Hadley (2004) have advised for teachers to 'think globally and teach locally', and this approach is reflected in many English textbooks devised locally in recent years.

1.2.2.1.4 The English Language Institute (ELI)

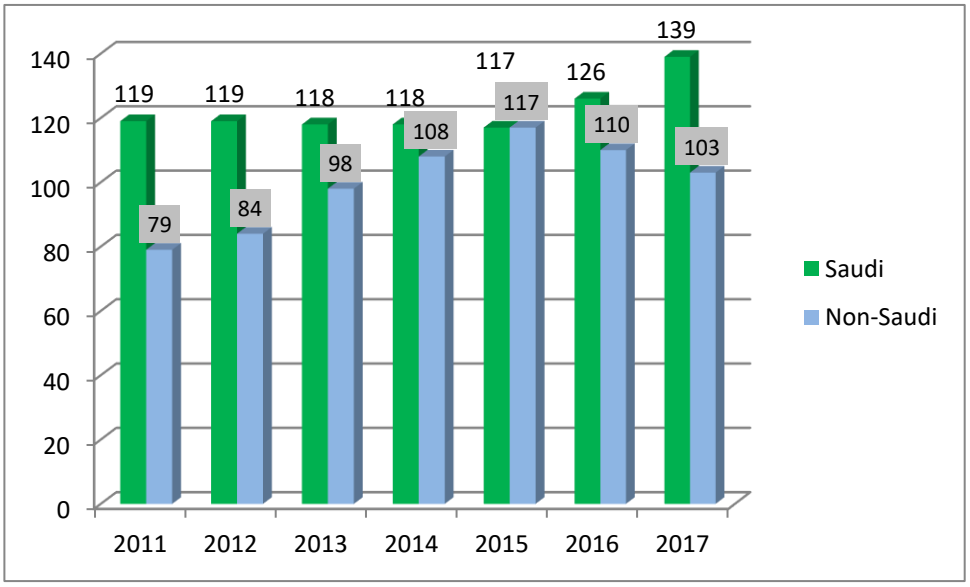
This sub-section describes the English teaching environment at a selected language institution in one of the Saudi universities in Jeddah, the western region of SA. This institution (English Language Institute, ELI) was accessible to the researcher and considered as being a representative sample of English language institutions in the Saudi kingdom.

Teachers appointed at this language institute have different nationalities and backgrounds. Although the majority of hired teachers are native Saudis as per the 2017 statistics (English Language Institute, 2017), and those who are likely to have a native Saudi Arabic dialect, others usually comprise Egyptians, Tunisians, Jordanians, Sudanese and Yemenis (see Table 1 below). This makes the teaching profession diverse in the Saudi kingdom, and notably, the influence of the teacher's pronunciation uncertain for English language learners and this can have a potentially adverse impact on intelligibility.

The institute provides a good sample of a multinational language teaching staff, as it is comprised of members having different nationalities and backgrounds. Despite the recent and ongoing process of Saudization in the kingdom, there are still many nationalities represented in the higher education sector. Actually, the number of non-Saudis has increased yearly since 2011. Figure 3

below shows that in the time that non-Saudis proportion enlarges, the number of Saudi instructors declines, and by 2015 both groups become equal.

Figure 3: Saudis and non-Saudi Teachers



Source: ELI, 2017

Although, Saudi teachers increased in the last two years, 2016 and 2017 in the above figure, as the new specification requires the greatest number of appointments be given to Saudi teachers (Table 1), at present about 40 (30%) of Saudi teachers are studying abroad enrolled in scholarship programs, so the teaching profession comprises a large proportion of non-Saudis some of whom are non-L1 Arabic speakers.

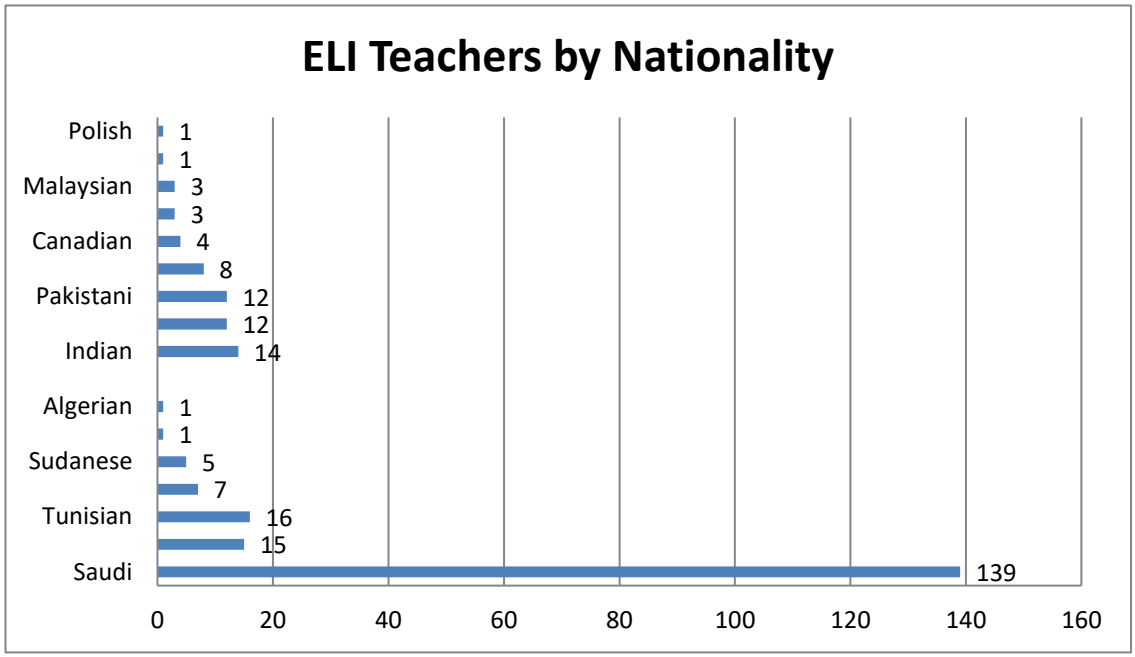
Table 1: ELI Teachers Specified by Saudization

Nationalities	Proportion	Actual number	Comment
Saudi	139	99	Scholarship teachers 40
Non-Saudi	103	103	Included native and non-native
Total	**242**	**202**	-

Source: ELI (2017)

Currently, there are 27 native English teachers constitute around 11% of the total number of ELI teachers. These statistics show that the vast majority of Arab teachers hired are Saudis, compared with 15 Egyptians, 16 Tunisians, 7 Jordanians, 5 Sudanese, 1 Algerian, and 1 Yemeni. The remaining non-Arab teachers comprise 14 Indian, 12 Pakistani, 12 American, 8 British, 4 Canadian, 3 South African, 3 Malaysian, 1 Polish and 1 Swiss (Figure 4). These teachers have either English (different dialects), Arabic (different dialects), Urdu, Malaysian, German and Polish.

Figure 4: ELI Employment Based on Nationalities



Source: ELI (2017)

1.3 Rationale

In general, Saudi learners of English are not given sufficient opportunities to speak in English, and are not explicitly taught pronunciation in schools. According to Alfallaj (2013), pronunciation is given almost no place in the teaching activities of most schools and institutes, so most learners are left to develop this skill on their own without guidance. One reason for this is that it is often sacrificed for developing other language skills due to limited classroom time (Altamimi, 2015). Also, the general attitude towards English, though it may be improving somewhat over time, may not be helpful in this regard, which is of a prevailing cautiousness that the learning of English should not interfere with, i.e. take precedence over, the first language of Arabic (Moyer, 2007). Al Jarf (2003) argues that English should not be at the expense of Arabic language which must be the medium of communication at home. Speaking in English is therefore not generally encouraged outside of the classroom environment. In terms of Kachru's circles of English, SA comes within the third 'expanding circle' of countries in which English is very much treated as a foreign language (Ho-Abdullah, 2010; Jenkins, 2000). According to Moag (1982), this means that as a foreign language, the factors favourable to acquiring English are relatively slight compared to an ESL context, the extent of attitudes is uncertain, language variation within English is also slight, and the interlanguage features are extensive. This makes learning English difficult, and the problem is compounded by the curriculum and teaching materials not being suitable for teaching pronunciation; rather, they are seen as obstacles in learning English pronunciation, a finding

based on interviews with university students in SA (Alghazo, 2015). Moreover, Arab learners of English tend to relate their pronunciation to their own syllable system, which is simpler, hence the difficulty of acquiring a more complicated system of pronunciation. In spite of these difficulties, Saudi students prefer to be able to speak in English with excellent pronunciation, and more so than writing with grammatical correctness (Algonhaim, 2014), so the issue of learning pronunciation is important to them.

The variation in the pronunciation abilities and dialects of teachers appears to compound the situation further. Although there may be external influences as well, being in a learning environment where they do not get enough opportunities outside of the classroom, teacher's bear an important influence in guiding students to gauge how to pronounce. As described earlier, the teaching of English in SA is characterised by diversity in the form of a multi-cultural and multi-linguistic environment. Importantly, this makes the influence of teachers' pronunciation on their English learners uncertain. The associated difficulties experienced by students and the obstacles faced in learning English have been acknowledged in several studies. For instance, a study by Al-Seghayer (2014b) identifies a number of constraints, such as limited teaching time, especially for speaking activities and using technological aids, inadequate curriculum with respect to learners' needs, and notably, the presence of teachers with specific accents. Although having a non-standard or non-native accent is not the only factor that can affect a student's learning (Arboleda and Garces, 2012), familiarity with a certain accent is positively correlated with increased comprehensibility and acceptability of the teacher (Ballard, 2013).

Studies show that Saudi students prefer native models of pronunciation due to their originality (Ghobain and Grami, 2012). Poor pronunciation of English teachers is known to lead to problems such as demotivation among students (Kikuchi and Sakai, 2009). Having worked at the ELI, I have personal experience of some students' perceptions towards these teachers, which verify the aforementioned findings. For instance, one of the students once said, "Do you want a teacher, who says /zɪs ɪs e bu:k/, teaches me?" Consequently, numerous underlying questions could be elaborated from the above mentioned quote, such as, why did the student claim this? Does this attitude applied only to a specific group of teachers? To what extent would that affect the students' pronunciation? If so, what are the affected features? What sounds could be affected? What possible linguistic or social factors that may play a role on a freshman students' L2 pronunciation? All these questions, and possibly others, which are embedded in that quote drove me for research investigation.

As for fresher student's attitudes towards English teachers and the associated issues, these usually include low levels of English proficiency, lack of effective teaching methodologies, and the

use of accented English especially among those from Asian backgrounds (Al-Shahrani and Al-Shehri, 2012). Consequently, Saudi learners also tend to experience pronunciation difficulties during their L2 learning (Ahamd, 2010; Bibturki, 2008). Many other studies have also focused on other factors that lead to their prevalence, such as foreign pronunciation and age of learning (AOL) (see 2.4.1.4)

Within this context, it may be hypothesised that the accent of a language teacher bears a degree of influence on the pronunciation of his or her L2 learning students. And, given that a teacher's own pronunciation in English is most likely shaped by their own Arabic dialect, it is pertinent to investigate the relationship between teachers' L1 Arabic dialect/accent/variety and their students' L2 English pronunciation.

Moreover, this relationship deserves to be examined due to its potential negative impact on intelligibility. Initially, there is no universally agreed upon definition of what constitutes intelligibility, nor is there an agreed upon way of measuring it (Jenkins, 2000). It was based on regarding the non-standard forms of English, or those spoken outside of the inner circle, as being unintelligible and in need of remediation (Kachru, 1985). According to Bamgbose (1998: 11), intelligibility refers to “a complex of factors comprising recognizing an expression, knowing its meaning, and knowing what that meaning signifies in the sociocultural context”, whereas Munro, Derwing and Morton (2006: 112) describe it simply as “the extent to which a speaker’s utterance is actually understood”. This need to ensure intelligibility, as well as comprehensibility, acceptability and motivation, underlies the goal of this research on pronunciation.

1.4 Significance

Pronunciation is a very important aspect of a language that is often neglected in language learning. This is usually due to uncertainty over how to teach it (Kelly, 2006) or lack of classroom time (Altamimi, 2015), and learners are therefore normally left to acquire it themselves. It may be important not only for the speaker, but also for their interlocutors who need to understand what a speaker says, and for the speaker to correctly understand others too. In other words, it is important for ensuring comprehensibility and intelligibility on both sides. And this requires at least a certain degree of uniformity and would not be possible in the case of widely divergent pronunciations (Ibid), which may make meanings less predictable and possibly cause more confusion.

In the context under study, studying pronunciation is vital because, as it is found by many studies (see 2.4), L2 learners of English tend to mispronounce or misunderstand certain sounds and words, which is due to dissimilarities or even similarities in the phonological features of the two

languages (see 2.3). These mispronunciations are recognised as divergent pronunciations rather than errors or as unacceptable mistakes per se. Pronunciation can be affected by a range of factors (Table 8), one of which is the pronunciation of the teacher (Ramirez-Verdugo, 2006). Once made habitual, faulty or rather, divergent pronunciation is hard to correct because pronunciation 'errors' can become unchangeable over time (Acton, Baker, Burri and Teaman, 2013) and therefore require a substantial effort to correct (Demirezen, 2000), or change. And, according to the Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH), acquiring native-like proficiency would have to be achieved before the end of the critical period of learning a L2, which occurs at puberty (Binturki, 2008). On the other hand, recognising what constitutes a divergent pronunciation can sometimes be ambiguous and depend on experience and tolerance as well as the extent of knowledge of the L1 (Chiu, 2008; Al-Omrani, 2008; Barratt and Mahboob, 2014).

Given the diversity in the background of Arab teachers in terms of both their English accents and their Arabic dialects, the study could provide valuable insight into their impact on students' learning and acquisition of English pronunciation. It may seem that the status of variation in pronunciation can be overcome by authorising or promoting only one form of pronunciation as standard throughout the kingdom, and/or by reducing or restricting the number of teachers with variant accents. In this context it is worth mentioning that Saudi society, especially in major towns and cities, is diverse comprising of people from various Arab and non-Arab nationalities. Although the current process of Saudization is reversing this trend by promoting the Saudi accent (Naffee, 2014), there are still large numbers of non-Saudi teachers practising the profession in the kingdom. Hiring teachers from different backgrounds is not only out of necessity; there is also a need to retain at least some English speaking, high quality teaching staff, and to deliberately provide students with the opportunity to be exposed to a variety of accents to cope with life in the real globalised world. Ballard (2013) argues that, “students should be exposed to a range of different accents, as familiarity with an accent facilitates comprehension” (p. 47). Thus, understanding the role of pronunciation in language learning could also encourage a greater focus on this aspect of communication.

Valuable research has been conducted in the two areas of students’ attitude and students’ L2 pronunciation separately. However, previous studies have been mostly restricted to one area only and not joining both, namely L2 students’ phonological pronunciation in consideration with their attitude towards teachers’ accented English. Some research accounts investigate the students’ attitude towards English varieties and accented English while other focus on students’ attitude and how that could influence their progress in learning in general, such as Elliot (1995), Awan (2014), Ballard (2013), Mousso (2008), Buckingham (2014) and others, see section 2.4.2. Alternatively, other studies concentrate on the phonological production of the students in

relation with other factors, such as Binturki (2008) Al-Badawi and Salim (2014), Hyde-Simon (2012), Ahmad (2010), Singer (2006) and Zoghbor (2010), see section 2.4.1.8. The most related studies to this work are Zoghbor's (2010) which investigates the students' pronunciation intelligibility in the frame of LFC (Lingua Franca Core), Singer's (2006) which relates immigrant Somali students' attitude with their L2 pronunciation and Fareh's (1986) that correlates a relationship between teachers' accented English and their students pronunciation. Each of these three studies has a limitation that is considered to be covered in the current study. Zoghbor (2010) discusses Omani students' L2 phonological difficulties outlined by LFC. She focuses on how students' pronunciation intelligibility could be manipulated according to the effectiveness of a pronunciation syllabus based on ELF prospective. Apart from Zoghbor's study, this research focuses on the students' pronunciation difficulties from the angle of EFL. Discovering the relationship between the students' attitude and their English pronunciation, Singer (2006) conducted his study in USA where all participants (n=5) were Somali immigrants. Thus, we assume that living in an English speaking country and learning English by NESTs may affect the students' output. Unlikely, this study is conducted in an expanding circle country, Saudi Arabia, where English is considered as a foreign language and all participants are taught by NNESTs. As for the impact of a teacher's dialect on a student's pronunciation in other languages, specifically the phonetic-phonological level, Fareh (1986) found that there is a positive relationship between Jordanian teachers' dialect and their Jordanian students' English pronunciation (see 2.4.1.3). However, O'Brien and Smith (2010) mention "the influence of L1 into L2 is not a *direct* transfer", so any such possible transfer has not even been seriously considered yet. Overall, these studies highlight the need for a research in the area of phonological transfer of the teacher's "L1 dialect" and the attitudinal factors of the students. This study has been inspired by both positions for investigating the possible linguistic and sociolinguistic factors that may affect Saudi students' pronunciation of English.

1.5 Context and Scope

The study was conducted with Saudi female fresher undergraduate students in the freshman year of their Bachelors degree at a university in Jeddah, a city located to the west of SA. In the orientation or preparation year, students have to pass four English modules administered by the English Language Institute (ELI), two in each semester. However, all of these students started learning English at the 6th grade (as its introduction in the 4th grade was only recent as mentioned earlier). So, their age of learning (AOL), approximates between 12 and 14 years old, a factor delimited in this study by selecting students who have studied in governmental education where teaching English begins at intermediate school.

At this institution, all the candidates take the Oxford Placement Test, and are ranked according to their level of proficiency in English, as either beginner, intermediate, upper intermediate or advanced. The students involved in this study were those placed in the pre-intermediate stage of their course and were striving to improve at A2Waystage level as per the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) moving into the B1 Threshold level of CEFR. This is a seven-week modular course involving 18 hours of instruction per week (ELI Instructional Pack, 2013).

The textbook examined in this study was New Headway Plus Pre-Intermediate, a special edition prepared for Saudi and Gulf regions by John and Liz Soars (2011), published by Oxford University Press. It is supplemented by a workbook and a DVD-ROM containing speaking material, a writing pack, and an aid pack for learning management systems. It should be noted that the English accent of this textbook and the audio materials represent the RP accent. This information is not mentioned in the textbook syllabus guidelines but I had contacted the publisher, personally, and they stated this via official email.

In this text, all English skills are taught in an integrated manner. For instance, grammar is taught through completing conversation dialogues. Classrooms are also equipped with boards, projectors and Internet connected computers, and there are 15 language labs used for testing students' listening, reading and writing skills, with speaking skills tested by two face-to-face assessors. As regards the speaking aspect of language learning, the course objective is “to have conversation, express personal opinions and exchange information on familiar topics” (ELI, 2013: 2).

In preparation for this, students at ELI normally receive “training and practice in performing similar speaking tasks they will be asked to perform in the final speaking exam” (ELI, 2013: 4). They also receive feedback on their performance using the same rubric applied for grading in the final exam. The assessment procedures include a mid-term exam (20%), final exam (40%), a speaking exam (10%), one writing exam (10%), and supplementary programmes for reading, writing and speaking (20%), see Appendix A.

Within the above context, this research attempts to investigate the possible linguistic or sociolinguistic factors that might influence Saudi students' pronunciation in English. In particular, due to study focus, this research examines in depth the linguistic features of the segmental voiced and non-voiced consonants (Gilakjani, 2012), recommending for further study in the areas of vowels and other suprasegmental features, "which seem to be extremely hard for learners acquire" (Binturki, 2008). In addition, it attempts to identify possible relationships between the mentioned segmental features present in L1 teachers' dialects with the factors that may shape Saudi students' pronunciation in terms of English language teaching in light of the students'

attitude towards teachers' English accents. It is worth mentioning that identity is related to accent, however, it is not studied within the remit of the current study due to time constraints, and also it is not the narrow focus of my research. The theoretical scope of this study therefore encompasses two key areas, namely phonology and attitude, which encourages further work in studying identity as factor in teacher-students phonological influence.

1.6 Research Design

1.6.1 Methods and sample

The study adopts a mixed-methods research design presented in three phases. The specific methods adopted were two qualitative research methods of interviews and supplementary classroom observations, and two quantitative research methods of surveying and quantitative analysis of audio recordings. The specific methods involved diachronically were (1) a survey of 118 students, (2) analysis of audio recordings of 6 teachers and 120 students, (4) 12 classroom observations and (4) follow-up interviews with 15 students. Further details on each of these methods including the aims behind each selection are given in Table 10. The precise methodology followed is covered in detail in Chapter 3: Methodology.

In order to delimit the variables that may possibly influence students' L2 pronunciation, the researcher enlarged the sample to ensure validity. The selected participants were all born and raised in Jeddah where the Saudi- Hijazi dialect is the regional dialect. The teachers were selected on the basis of the number of representatives of their local Arabic dialect among the instructors of ELI. The three categories of teachers include Saudi teachers, Egyptian and Tunisian, the higher employment rank of non-Saudi teachers.

The study methodology was carried out audio recording the students' and their teachers' pronunciation of list of words containing 10 sounds to be tested, which are listed and justified in 3.5.2.1.2, /dʒ, g, ʒ, θ, ð, r, p, tʃ, v, ŋ/. As examined in the literature review, subsets of this list of sounds have been investigated by various scholars, mostly to identify which of them are difficult to pronounce by Arab learners of English. In this study, the pronunciation of these sounds by teachers and students was analysed through audio recording samples. The pronunciation by teachers was analysed for being target like (TL) or non target like (NTL), and those by students during the pre-test and post-test phases. Evidence of teacher-student transfer was investigated using ANOVA tests. Then, follow-up interviews were conducted in order to reveal the students' attitude towards their teachers' English accents. The final stage is to investigate if there is a link between students' attitude towards their teachers and their actual pronunciation.

1.6.2 Hypothesis and Objectives of the study

It is hypothesized that teachers' L1, teachers' local dialect in L1 and students' exposure to different English accents all have an effect on students' attitude towards their teachers (Moussu, 2006; Moyer, 2007; Davies, 1991; and Bolton and Kachru, 2006). Many studies explore the socio-linguistic factors that may affect how students learn English pronunciation (see 2.4.2). This research aims to fill a gap in the literature by linking phonological aspects with attitudinal ones in terms of L2 pronunciation. The research objectives rely on investigating the relationship, if any, between Arab teachers' L1 varieties and students' L2 pronunciation in terms of segmental consonants. Furthermore, it seeks to study the relationship between students' attitude towards their Arab teachers' English accents and the students' L2 pronunciation. These two objectives are:

- To investigate the relationship, if any, between Arab teachers' L1 varieties and students' L2 pronunciation in terms of segmental consonants;
- To study the relationship between students' attitude towards their Arab teachers' English accents and the students' L2 pronunciation.

Accordingly, the main research question to guide this study is:

What are the possible linguistic and sociolinguistic influences that may shape Saudi students' English pronunciation in their preparation year?

1.7 Conclusion

This study is divided into six chapters. As presented in Chapter One, a research in the area of students' English pronunciation was defined by giving an introduction to the research topic, describing the background, rationale, significance and scope of the study. Chapter Two reviews relevant theoretical and empirical literature for the purpose of developing the theoretical and conceptual framework of this project. Chapter Three describes the methodology and the research design and methods of analysis in chronological order.

Further Attention should be paid to Chapters Four and Five where the data are presented and discussed according to the research questions. Following the same order of Chapter Three, Chapter Four presents the results and findings of the research. In Chapter Five a detailed discussion of the results is provided in light of the research questions. Lastly, Chapter Six, concludes this study by providing the research summary, highlighting the limitations, and suggesting some recommendations for future implications.

Chapter 2: Review of Literature

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a comparative overview of the related literature. The chapter is broadly organised into four sections. The first section reviews the issues relevant to conceptual and theoretical framework of this topic. Specifically, it presents an in-depth review of the main theories of second language acquisition (SLA). The second section examines the related languages/varieties to this study, namely English and Arabic. After contrasting phonetic systems of English and Arabic, this section gives a comprehensive view of the linguistic phenomenon, diglossia, which leads us to discuss the Arabic distinguished case and therefore the dialects referred to in this study, the reason to refer to them as "dialects" and the segmental features of each. This is followed by section three which is a detailed examination of the influences which determine pronunciation with a focus on influence of linguistic oriented factors and social oriented ones. This literature review also presents previously conducted studies on Arab learners of English with the aim of identifying specific non-segmental and segmental features that may cause potential difficulties in pronunciation. Finally, section four examines the research theoretical framework in light of the theories that are reviewed in section one of this chapter, focusing on the gaps in the studies on the area of students' pronunciation.

2.1.1 Research approach

This research case study follows an abductive approach, as this approach systematically combines the processes of induction and deduction (Dubois and Gadde, 2002). Abduction refers to the creative inferential process adopted for generating new theories and hypotheses, and abductive analysis arises from the social and intellectual positions of actors (Timmermans and Tavory, 2012). This adopted research design of GT in line with the abductive approach is explained in detail in the methodology chapter.

2.2 Related Theories and Hypotheses

This section explores the key theories, hypotheses and relevant concepts related to second language learning with respect to the possible impact of the first language. There are at least six overlapping theories or hypotheses of second-language phonological acquisition which are relevant to explaining the difficulties Arab learners experience in acquiring English pronunciation: Transfer Theory, Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH), Error Analysis (EA), Markedness Theory,

Input-Output Hypothesis and Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH). The first four theories take L1 into account in terms of its impact on L2, and the latter two are more concerned with other factors that may affect the development of pronunciation of L2. The aim of this section is to revisit the theoretical frameworks in the literature and relate the same to the following specific research question of this study:

What are the possible linguistic and, sociolinguistic influences that may shape freshman Saudi students' English pronunciation in their preparation year?

An important aspect of second language learning is the extent of involvement of the first language, which is under focus in this study. Other possible aspects include the age and cognitive skills of the learner, which may also influence the learning of a second language. Another main quantitative aspect is the pace at which the language is learned, and some possible important qualitative aspects are the way the language is learned (pattern of acquisition) and the types of 'error' committed while learning. First language usually has an interference in second language acquisition and makes the experience of second language learning very different from when learning the first language (Derakhshan and Karimi, 2015), hence the need to examine the habits that may have been formed as a result of learning the first language (Gass and Selinker, 2008).

In recent years, there have been some important modifications to the way in which academics have analysed how much, and to what extent, there is an impact of a first language on the learning of a second. According to contrastive analysis theory, prominent in the 1960s, it was believed that the first language impacts significantly on the learning of the second. This position was almost totally rejected in the 1970s based on studies of what was then referred to as learner 'errors', when it was thought that a second language is acquired directly without any mediation of the first language (Hakuta and August, 1997; Derakhshan and Karimi, 2015). Analysis of these so-called 'errors' revealed that not all of them were attributable to language transfer. Another paradigm shift then occurred with the emergence of the concept of 'interlanguage', regarded as a linguistic system to each learner uniquely who has not yet achieved full competence in the target language (Saville-Troike and Brato, 2016).

2.2.1 Transfer Theory

The transfer hypothesis in language learning was first put forward by Lado (1957), notably at a time when it was not uncommon for learners to lack or even fail to have access to native speakers of the target language. As Lado understood it, learners resort to borrowing structures of their own native language in order to deal with the challenge:

"... since the learner tends to transfer the habits of his native language structure to the foreign language, we have here the major source of difficulty or ease in learning the structure of a foreign language" (Lado, 1957: 59).

Transfer theory thus asserts that language skills from the first language get transferred to the second (Li and Edwards, 2011). It suggests that information pertaining to the native (or other) language is involved during the acquisition of the second (or additional) language (Flynn, 1988). This assumption is also supported by (Derakhshan and Karimi, 2015) that by learning L2 habits, the habits of L1 are also transferred and then the errors occur. Variables that are believed to affect L1 transfer are proficiency, age and length of L2 exposure (Jarvis, 2000), typological similarities, language distance and degree of markedness (Kellerman, 1983; 1995) or as claimed by (Derakhshan and Karimi, 2015), "The degree of difference between the two languages shows the degree of difficulty… and the degree of similarity shows the degree of simplicity" (p.2112). Importantly, the mechanism by which the transfer occurs is cognitive, so the transfer depends on an active mental engagement on the part of the learner, rather than a simple mechanical transference of structures.

Transfer theory by its nature allows for some learning characteristics such as likely errors pertaining to the second language to be predicted. With transfer theory, an important concern is to know what is transferred. Flynn (1988) and recently identified the following phenomena as being able to be explained by language transfer:

- Delayed rule restructuring;
- Transfer of typological organisation;
- Different paths of acquisition;
- Avoidance;
- Overproduction of certain elements;
- Additional attention paid to target language for rapid learning;
- Differential effects of socially prestigious forms.

The transfer of certain elements of the first language to the second has been viewed as both a facilitator and as a constraint in language learning. Jarvis and Pavlenko (2008) classify a large variety of cross-linguistic dimensions under the term 'linguistic transfer', which includes various subtypes: phonological, orthographic, lexical, semantic, morphological, syntactic, discursive, pragmatic, and socio-linguistic. Within these areas, Selinker (1983) regarded transfer as being positive for processes in which knowledge of L1 facilitates the acquisition of L2, and as negative for processes in which knowledge of L1 interferes with the acquisition of L2. For instance, an early study by Ard and Homburg (1983) compared Arabic and Spanish learners of English with respect

to vocabulary acquisition. The differences between the two comparison groups were understood to be indirectly related to the structures of the two languages, which led to the conclusion that a general resemblance between the first and target language being learnt does influence the learning, even if there are no overt similarities. Thus, any interference or errors that occur in the second language are often attributed to grammatical differences between the two languages. And transfer theory also explains why it might take longer to learn a language that is typologically different from to the native language. In other words, negative transfer and errors are inevitable when L1 differs structurally from L2, but are positive when the structures are similar. Another recent study in L1 transfer to L2 was conducted by Karim and Nassaji (2013). As they investigated L1 transfer in L2 writing, it is found that learners' L2 writing had affected by their L1. Likely, Al-Mehmadi (2013) had found the same result on Saudi students' English writing, which was influenced by their L1 Arabic writing system, see 2.4.1.2. Moreover, Fatemi, Sobhani and Abolhassan (2012) examined the differences in consonant clusters orally in both language, and indicated that learners face pronunciation difficulties due to L1/L2 unfamiliarity phonological rules.

As for constraints, these are seen as transcending any linguistic similarities or dissimilarities between the two languages, and affect the decision making process (Kellerman, 1983 and Rahman, 2015). In this regard, two major factors determine the transferable elements, namely learner perception of L1-L2 distance, and degree of markedness of the first language's (L1) structure. Markedness theory is covered in detail in the next sub-section. According to Fries (1957), who was a leading behaviourist, the constraints imposed by the first language have also been regarded as interference and therefore a 'major problem' for those learning a second language. Research, however, shows that transfer is more likely to take place for cognitively demanding and contextually reduced linguistic skills (August and Shanahan, 2006). Not all aspects of second language development are therefore determined by the first language. Also, as Bailey, Madden and Krashen (1974) showed, the target language itself has a greater effect during its acquisition than the learner's first language.

The importance of transfer theory has declined since the 1960s due to lack of evidence of any relationship between errors and language transfer, but more recently the presence of transfer has been accepted as part of a range of factors that work together in impacting on second language learning. It can be seen that the theory of L1 language transfer itself has also undergone several changed perspectives. It has also been applied in different language contexts, including writing (Karim and Nassaji, 2013). More recently, transfer theory has been placed within a cognitive approach to language learning in which the learner is seen as someone who decides what should or should not be transferred whilst learning the second language (Gass, 2000). Since then, it has

also been viewed as part of a repertoire of learning strategies available to L2 learners (Mu and Carrington, 2007). Schachter (1983), for instance, regards it as a strategy in which the learner plays a constructive role throughout the learning. As with Selinker (1983), Faerch and Kasper (1987) and recently Zoghbor (2010) highlight the development of interlanguage skills on the part of L2 learners based on previously acquired linguistic knowledge. They distinguish between three types of transfer mechanism, namely strategic transfer, subsidiary transfer and automatic transfer. In strategic transfer, there is a focus on particular communication problems and their solutions, which is not present in subsidiary transfer, but accidental in automatic transfer whilst attention is on other aspects.

2.2.2 Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

When we try to speak a foreign language, we may make some deviations because of the influence from our mother tongue in some language levels, or maybe all, as pronunciation or grammar. Thus, realizing the difference/similarities between both is essential in order to learn the foreign language. Contrastive analysis (CA) is the systematic comparison of two or more languages, with the aim of describing their similarities and differences. The contrastive analysis hypothesis (CAH) was presented by Lado (1957). It is also referred to as contrastive linguistic analysis (CLA) (Fries, 1957), or simply contrastive analysis (CA) (Gass and Selinker, 2008).

CA has often been conducted for practical/pedagogical purposes (Al-khresheh, 2016) and it was formed as a way of explaining the role that the first language (L1) plays on learning the second (L2) and why certain features of the target language are more difficult to acquire than others, and it came about as a critical response to the audio-lingual method. It is essentially a behaviourist perspective in which the development of language is seen in terms of habit formation, and it assumes that L1 habits interfere with the learning of L2. The fundamental ideas for CA are describing and comparing L1 and L2, predicting points of difficulty and using the results in order to improve teaching materials. This sort of approach was developed in the United States in the 1940s and 1950s by two key names; Charles Fries and Robert Lado, who explained the rationale for applied CA in this way:

“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”. (Fries 1945: 9)

“The plan of the book rests on the assumption that we can predict and describe the patterns which will cause difficulty in learning and those that will not cause difficulty” (Lado 1957, Preface).

Although CAH was influential in the 1950s and 1960s, this influence quickly declined in the 1970s, as the next section on criticisms shows. Nevertheless, CAH states that the productive and receptive skills of L2 learners are influenced by their L1 patterns, and that the similarities/differences between L1 and L2 are important predictors of the ease/difficulty of learning the second language. Gass and Slinker (2008) highlight some potential aspects of CA as one does a structure-by-structure comparison of the sound system, morphological system, syntactic system, and also the cultural system of both languages for the purpose of discovering similarities and differences.

Lado claimed that similarities facilitated learning whereas differences indicated areas of potential difficulty, based on the contrastive analysis. That is, elements in L2 that are similar to L1 are easy for the learner to acquire L2 structures, but those elements that are different are difficult. The purpose of the analysis is to make foreign/second language learning more effective.

As described by Odlin (1989), CAH has the characteristic of involving a “systematic comparison of two or more languages”, which highlights both positive transfer as well as negative transfer, such as production of errors, as well as the lengths of acquisition. As negative transfer is valid in SLA (Celce-Murcia, Brinton, Goodwin, and Griner, 1996), it is considered by Lado as a "significant factor in accounting for foreign accent" (1995: 20). Rahman (2015) provides some examples of negative transfer as overproduction, underproduction, the production of errors and misinterpretations. The following three key assumptions underlie the CAH:

- The native language is the major source of error in the production/reception of a second language;
- Errors can be accounted for by considering the differences between the two languages (L1 and L2);
- In learning a second language, one needs to learn the differences.

The third assumption refers to the dissimilarities between the two (native and target) languages, which could be a source for potential confusion, whereas noting similarities is not as important as far as avoiding potential difficulties while learning the second language is concerned. Importantly, as Littlewood (1984) views them, errors made by second language learners are not necessarily signs of failure. Rather, they provide evidence of active construction, and researchers also gain insight into how to analyse the errors. Littlewood also distinguishes between interlingual and intralingual errors, where the former are believed to be due to transfer rules (from L1 to L2) and the latter to an outcome of processing the second language based on its own terms, such as by making oversimplifications and overgeneralisations. Thus, it could be concluded that there are two major causes of errors. The first major cause, according to some scholars, as Lado (1957), Fries (1957), Gass and Selinker (2008) and Yildiz (2015), is interlingual, i.e., interference from the

first or native language of the learners. The second major cause of errors is intralingual, i.e., the difficulty comes from the second language itself. For instance, if an English learner pronounces the voiced labio-dental fricative in the word that as /zæt/, this deviation is considered as interlingual. However, pronouncing the voiceless bilabial stop in *put* as /put/ without aspirating the /p^h/ is considered as an intralingual one given that aspiration is a marked/complex feature in English (target language). Another example that illustrates phonetic or phonological errors result from language transfer can be derived from Arabic native speakers who learn English. Generally, all Arab students confused the English /p/ and /b/ since Arabic has one bilabial letter (Al-Khawalda and Al-Oliemat (2011).

Based on such recent studies, three versions of the CAH are now recognised, namely the original strong version, a moderate version, and a weak version. In the moderate version, items of L2 that are different from L1 are viewed as more likely to be noticed and categorised rather than as necessarily causing difficulty (Tajareh, 2015). It is the similar items that are therefore more likely cause a problem. The weak version explains linguistic difficulties deductively rather than predictively so that the sources of errors can be understood.

Nonetheless, recent researchers whose findings support at least a moderate version of the CAH include Ziahosseini (2006) who investigated the cause of spelling errors among learners of English as a second language, Bada (2001) who investigated native language influence on the production of English sounds by Japanese learners, and Zheng and Park (2013) who analysed errors in English writing committed by Chinese and Korean university students.

Generally, the earlier studies of CA focused on the linguistic system, i.e. grammar and the lexicon ('microlinguistics', in James' 1980 terms) while in the 1980s and 1990s matters of language use discourse structure ('macrolinguistics') came to the fore and new fields such as contrastive sociolinguistics (Al-khresheh, 2016). The former dimension, micolinguistic contrastive analysis focused on the phonology, grammar, lexis and such questions are arised in this research; what are the consonant phonemes in languages X and Y? How do they differ in inventory and distribution? What is the tense system of languages X and Y? What are the verbs of saying in languages X and Y? The latter dimension, macrolinguistic, studied research questions such as; how is cohesion expressed in languages X and Y? How are the speech acts of apologizing and requesting expressed in languages X and Y? How are conversations opened and closed in languages X and Y? (Johansson, 2008).

Nevertheless, this analysis can only be useful if contrastive analysis is applied soundly through a comparison of the structures of both languages (Odlin, 1989). If the contrastive analysis is conducted properly, both teachers and learners could benefit from the identification of

potentially difficult language learning areas. Al-Khawalda and Al-Oliemat (2011: 34) assert that, “CA could be so important to simplify the situation for both teachers and students and show the situation when transfer will or will not occur”. In other words, CAH, at least theoretically, could help by predicting possible areas of difficulty, as well as cross-linguistic similarities that could result in positive transfers.

2.2.2.1 Criticisms and Usefulness of Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

In practice, CAH has been criticised due to its lack of predictive power and also the behaviourist interpretation of the L1-L2 relationship. Not all predicted errors tend to materialise or be difficult for students, and many errors that do arise are not always predicted by CAH (Larsen and Long, 1992). Early on, there is evidence, for instance, that certain difficulties with aspects of L2 do not result from differences from L1 (Richards, 1971). In another study by Bayraktaroglu (1985), which analysed errors committed by Turkish speakers of English, it was found that not all errors were predicted by a CA of the two phonetic systems.

The CAH cannot therefore be sustained by empirical evidence. It is also unduly focused on the interference type of error (Abbas, 1995). It is illustrated by Yildiz (2015: 58), “Although errors are windows into the language the learner’s mind, CA does not provide sufficient reason behind these errors. Error Analysis scrutinizes the learners’ errors to shed light on the learners’ in-process interlanguage system”, for EA, see section 2.2.3. Eckman (1977) thus revised the original hypothesis by making it incorporate a notion of degree of difficulty in the form of typological markedness that can be determined independently of the language and also in relation to second language acquisition. By incorporating CAH in typological markedness, which will be discussed later in 2.2.4, it is thought that CAH can then be used to predict areas of difficulty faced by second language learners. Although CAH has been displaced to an extent by more thorough error analysis (EA) (Corder, 1967), the original hypothesis is still useful for predicting the types of error second language learners tend to make and for identifying the possible areas of difficulty.

In the case of Arab learners of English in SA, the CA hypothesis could be useful because the Arab learners will have mastered Arabic structures and typically have late and limited exposure to the English language. Its usefulness has been confirmed, for instance, in a study by Abdullah (2013), which compared the syntactic systems of Arabic as L1 and English as L2. The structural comparisons between the two languages were shown to help avoid or otherwise lessen the impacts of negative transfers. The error analysis, however, showed inconsistencies that led the researcher to regard the 'internal syllabus' concept of Littlewood (1984) as more appropriate, as not all predicted errors occurred, and those that did occur were not all predictable.

The existence of such an internal syllabus is assumed by the creative construction hypothesis, and is believed to determine the learner's path of learning (Littlewood, 1984), but as a classroom learner, there is also an 'external syllabus'. Nonetheless, the learner herself, when engaged in active strategies such as generalisation and transfer, creatively constructs her own rules that are superimposed on those of the second language whilst learning. This viewpoint underlies the Error Analysis Hypothesis.

2.2.3 Error Analysis (EA)

Before discussing this theory, it is appropriate to differentiate between errors and mistakes. In the mid 20th century, under the view of behaviourist learning theory, errors were considered as 'bad habits' (Miller, 2004). Distinguishably, errors reflect gaps in a learner's knowledge, i.e. lack of knowledge, while mistakes reflect the learner's occasional inability to perform what s/he knows. In other words, errors are tempted to be systematic and, consequently, predictable, while mistakes are made occasionally (Ellis, 1997).

EA is defined as "A systematic investigation of second language errors, Corder (1967) was the first to focus attention on the importance of investigating learners' errors" (Miller, 2004). This approach involves gathering, organising and tabulating the errors made by second language learners (Flynn and O'Neil, 1988). It provides a systematic way of investigating learners' errors through focusing exclusively on the actual language produced by the learners, referred to as the 'interlanguage'. It takes the position that errors produced during acquisition of the foreign language are caused by unconscious transfer of mother tongue structures to the target language, and that considerable contrasts between the two results in negative transfers and errors in target language performance (Spillner, 1991). The errors analysed are then interpreted as patterns that may be related to processes and problems in learning (Beatty, 2013).

As illustrated by Al-Badawi and Salim (2014), it is an important instrument in first and second language learning research, as it assists in understanding the interlingual, and intralingual factors concerning the types of error. Whereas the former includes learners' difficulties based on the distinctive linguistic features of the L2, the latter involves the direct transfer from L1 to L2, i.e. negative transfer, as discussed in section 2.2.2.

This approach contributes in three areas. Firstly, for researchers, EA conceptualises the reasons behind learners' errors and the linguistic theories that could be applied to language learning. Secondly, in the learner's area, EA will help them to know when they self-correct their errors. Thirdly, this approach assists teachers in identifying and explaining the kinds of error made by the students. Mainly, error analysis provides teachers with an overall view of students' performance

and progression. Moreover, by recognizing the rationale of errors, the teacher could accept some of these errors or conceive students' errors as valuable feedback, requiring instructors to apply remedial teaching based on the nature of their errors. Additionally, some errors need to be handled before they are fossilized (Ellis, 1997; Al-Shuaibi, 2009).

EA has been applied to investigating errors made by Arab learners of English (Scott and Tucker 1974; Kharma and Hajjaj 1989; Al-Khawalda and Al-Oliemat, 2011). However, previously conducted error analyses have shown that the majority of errors made by second language learners do not originate from their first language (Mitchell, Myles and Marsden, 2013). Despite the possible usefulness of error analysis, it has not completely replaced CAH (Fisiak, 1981). Consequently, some scholars recommend combining both types of analysis. Whilst error analysis can help identify actual errors committed, CA can be used to explain those errors. The two can therefore be viewed as complementary. Besides, as this study is concerned with pronunciation divergences (as 'errors'), CA could be applied usefully because it is most predictive with respect to phonology (and least predictive at the syntactical level) (Schackne, 2002). As James (1977) points out, by using the error analysis approach as a starting point, the positive transfer is neglected. Thus, the next stage is to apply CAH in order to find the interaction between L1 and L2.

2.2.4 Markedness Deferential Hypothesis (MDH)

The fourth theory that has contributed to the field of SLA is MDH which pertains to the structural features of language. The concept of “markedness” can be traced back to 1930s when it was originally put forward by Trubetzkoy, to examine, within an individual language, linguistic symmetrical features of phonological systems for which he distinguished marked and unmarked features. Later in 1960s, markedness, regarded as a universal property of a conceptual category, was examined cross-linguistically. It found its way in the study of SLA in late 1970s, particularly, in the investigation of language transfer (Deng, 2016). The original hypothesis proposed by Eckman (1977) claimed that acquiring common sounds, which are considered unmarked features of a language, is relatively easier than acquiring those that are less common and considered marked features. Eckman suggested that the MDH should be incorporated into the CAH to help indicate the relative difficulty in SLA. Hence, it is illustrated by Celce-Murcia et al. (1996:22) that "Eckman's theory is a direct response to the criticism of CAH, specially, that it did not (1)accurately direct which areas of the target language phonology would be most difficult for learners…or (2)predict which exact sounds would be substituted by the learners." As a remedy to this deficiency, Eckman (1977) constructed a hierarchy of difficulties of phonological acquisition that applies Markedness Theory perspectives, which states that affricates are more marked than fricatives and fricatives are more marked than stops.

Additionally, Kellerman (1983) described the highly marked features of a language as irregular, infrequent or semantically opaque. These features are considered to be less transferable than those that are regular and frequent. Those that are less transferable are specific or unique to the language in question, whereas those elements that are characterised by regularity and frequency are language neutral, as they are common, at least between the native and target languages.

The concept of markedness itself has thus been variously defined. Markedness has been claimed to be determined in one of three main ways: (1) psychologically, (2) typologically, or (3) grammatically.

(i) Psychologically determined markedness

Markedness is determined psychologically when the second language learner knows which characteristics of his/her native language are marked intuitively, and also knows that these characteristics cannot be carried over to the second language. This kind of markedness has been studied extensively by the likes of Jordens and Kellerman (1981), White (1987), and more recently by Yang and Peng (2011) in their investigation of Chinese learners of English, amongst others. Kellerman, for instance, introduced the concept of 'psychotypology' to explain how the perception of learners of the distance between the two (native and target) languages could be an important factor in determining whether a certain feature is transferred or not.

(ii) Typologically determined markedness

Markedness is determined typologically by comparing the languages in order to discern the marked and unmarked elements through inference. An element is not considered to be marked unless a corresponding unmarked variation does not also exist. This kind of markedness has been studied extensively by the likes of Eckman (1985, 1991), who claimed that studying this type of markedness is necessary for explaining the difficulties faced by learners rather than relying on L1 and target language differences alone. In addition, Jin (2005) examined typological markedness in the context of Chinese learners of English and recommended this to be noted for raising instructional awareness.

(iii) Grammatically determined markedness

Markedness is determined grammatically by examining the complexity of the structure. A certain structure may be complex if, for instance, it relies on morphological additions, or there are otherwise complex grammatical rules for explaining it. This kind of markedness has been studied extensively by the likes of Greenberg (1966).

2.2.4.1 Criticisms of markedness and L2 acquisition

Although markedness may be apparent in a language, its various definitions are not satisfactory, and the features of markedness may be more usefully regarded as part of an input model in which markedness is determined by frequency (Ketterman and Wieden, 1993). The justification for this is that when two possible structures are present to express the same and one is used more often than the other, then the latter can be regarded as marked. Frequency has the advantage of being an objective measure, which means that markedness can be easily determined empirically.

In relation to transfer of markedness, it is thought that either there is no transfer from the native language, or that only unmarked forms from the native language are transferred to the second language. Evidence for no transfer of markedness has been presented, for example, by Mazurkewich (1985) in a study involving English learners of Dutch, and White (1987), who suggested that transfer does not take place unless and until the marked structures are indicated to the learner, either explicitly or implicitly. Another study by Ülkersoy (2007) on how well the MDH explains phonological errors committed by Turkish EFL learners showed the same finding, that markedness alone does not have a determining effect on the level of difficulty in pronunciation. Rather, the environment was also found to play an important role. Besides the effect of the L1, other important factors that contribute to the difficulties experienced in pronunciation include orthography and "fossilised incorrectly learned forms" (see section 2.4)

That unmarked forms are also transferred has been supported in early studies by Cook (1976), Rutherford (1982), Kellerman (1983) and Eckman (1985). Eckman (1985), who defined markedness typologically, considered a structure as unmarked if it is a preferred form in most languages, and as implying the existence also of a marked structure, where only the unmarked structure is transferred.

2.2.5 Input and Output Hypothesis (IOH)

The input/output hypothesis is connected with the natural order hypothesis in suggesting that learners receive and process comprehensible input as they develop (Mitchell et al., 2013). Comprehensible input is considered to be L2 input that is just beyond the current L2 competence of the learner; that is, input that is still understandable but which contains linguistic evidence for the next step in the developmental sequence. Thus, input that is either too simple or too complex would not be useful for acquisition. An implication of this input/output hypothesis is that it is not necessary for learners to produce utterances in the second language (L2), i.e. output, for developing; rather, regular parsing and interpreting a suitable input is sufficient for developing the interlanguage system.

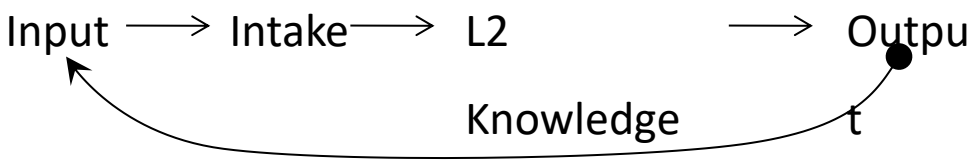
The input/output hypothesis is a central feature of Krashen's (1985) model of second language acquisition (see Figure 1). This model suggests, for instance, that speech emerges naturally from building competence through comprehensible input, and that grammar is also provided automatically if the input is understood and it is sufficient. It suggests therefore that it is sufficient for learners to be exposed merely to comprehensible input in order to acquire the second language. The comprehensible input is described by Krashen as "i+1", where "i" is regarded as the current competence level of the learner and "1" refers to an input that is just beyond the current L2 competence level. Krashen's model is criticised on the grounds of being based on circular logic and for its vagueness in determining the current competence and comprehensible input for a particular learner.

Input→ intake (short term memory)→ L2 knowledge (long term memory) →output

A computational model of L2 acquisition (Ellis, 1997, p.35)

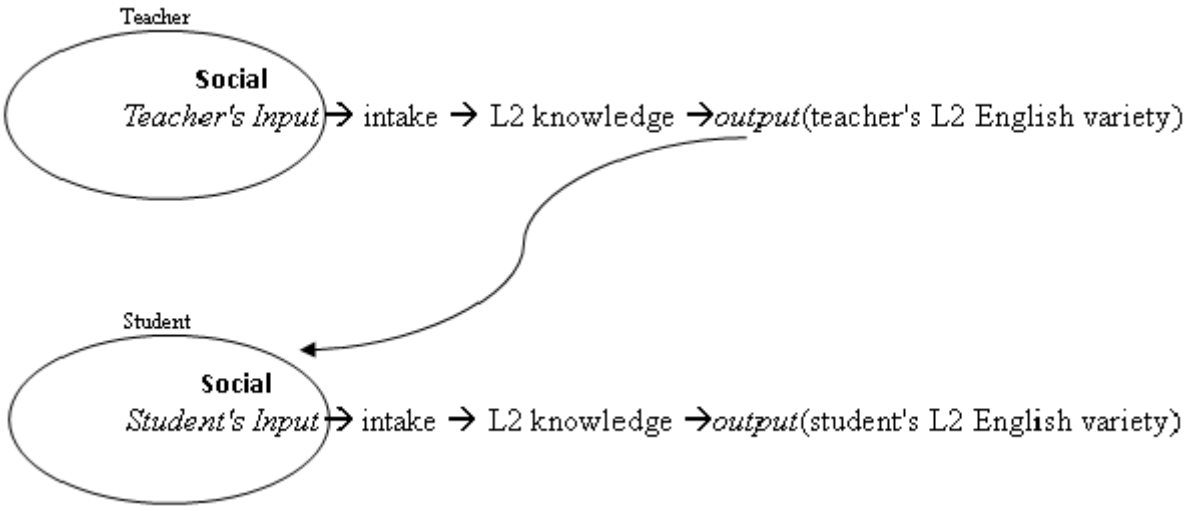
In the framework of SLA, Ellis (1997) recommended that the social context can also be added in order to show how the nature of input may differ from one environment to another. This is illustrated by drawing a line from output to input to show that a learner's production can itself be used as input (Figure 5)

Figure 5: A developed model of the computational model of L2 acquisition



However, if we apply the same model to the current study, we can assume that we have two models in this context, the teachers' model and their students' model. It can be said that one of the language sources for the input that the students are exposed to is the teachers' output, which is the teacher's own English language variety, whether it is accented on non-accented, native or non-native. Thus, we can generate the following diagram (Figure 6) from the previous.

Figure 6: A derived model of the computational model



The model could be valid if it is assumed that the human mind functions in a way such that whatever input it is exposed to - in this case, the output of the teachers' L2 English variety - is regarded as correct and the student attempts to emulate this as a perfect production. However, input alone may be insufficient in determining success (Ellis, 1997), as evidenced by the errors committed by children during the acquisition of their native language. If children hear from the elders around them correctly, then they should be able to reproduce the speech with exactly the same quality, but this is not always the case. Children are known to utter simplified speech in the form of ungrammatical sentences and pronounce some sounds incorrectly, i.e. noticeably differently, which may be due to insufficient learning of or exposure to the target language. As illustrated by Ellis earlier that the social aspects should be attached to the learner' input, bearing in mind the different socio-linguistic factors that may influence the learners' outcome. Also, as demonstrated earlier in the previous chapter attitude is one of these major factors that may construct the production of lL2 learning. Thus, this research tries to investigate the possible relationship between students' attitude towards their teachers' accents and their English pronunciation.

2.2.6 Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH)

First, what is a critical or sensitive period? "A critical period for language acquisition can be found when there is a correlation between the age at which language acquisition has started and the proficiency of language" (Lim, 2003).

It is claimed that second language pronunciation learning is traced to one of the two main views surrounding the learner's age. The first is the critical period hypothesis, which asserts that it is hard for adults to acquire a native-like phonological pronunciation in a foreign language (Burrill,

1985. Recently, Derakhshan and Karimi (2015: 2114) asserts that “Adult language acquisition typically falls far short of native like competence”, and the second is that a native-like pronunciation could be acquired by older learners (Krashen, 1982). The former approach argues that children can acquire native-like pronunciation due to the success of imitation approach (Jones, 2002). However, Kuhl et al. (2008) assert that it is rooted to the concept of NLNC, native language neural commitment. He studies the effects of language experience on the brain of young learners and contrasts this to adults'. He declares that "the brain's early coding of language affects our subsequent abilities to learn the phonetic scheme of a new language. NLNC describes a process in which initial language exposure causes physical changes in neural tissue and circuitry that reflect the statistical and perceptual properties of language input. Neural networks become committed to patterns of native language speech producing bi-directional effects. Relating this to infants’ speech production, he argues that the reason why adults experience difficulties in pronunciation is that "early exposure to language shapes these attention networks, and that in adulthood, they make second language learning difficult. Early in infancy, neural commitment is a 'soft' constraint; infants' networks are not fully developed and therefore interference is weak and infants can acquire more than one language" (Kuhl et al., 2008).

The other view, spearheaded by Krashen (1982) disagrees with the concept that native-like pronunciation is an impossible desire to accomplish. Unlike children, adult learners do have the ability to compare, contrast and recognise speech patterns; therefore, native-like pronunciation could be learned (Pennington, 1995). Moreover, researchers (Krashen, 1982; Jones, 2002; Brown, 1992) believe that near native pronunciation is possible in adult foreign language classrooms by utilising different analytic descriptive teaching approaches, and task types.

2.3 Related Languages and Varieties

Since this research is conducted for the freshmen Saudi students who are taught English by Arab teachers, the main languages under study are English and Arabic in general. This section illustrates the main phonemic features of both languages and particularly which variety/s of each and the rationale behind this selection.

2.3.1 English Language

"Currently, there are approximately 75 territories where English is spoken either as L1 or L2" (Jenkins, 2009a: 2), and according to this huge number of English speakers around the world, many English varieties are classified as languages or dialects or accents. At first, it is valuable to

differentiate between the last two terms. The Miriam-Webster Online Dictionary (Miriam-Webster 2016) defines accent in part as:

> A distinctive manner of expression: as a: an individual's distinctive or characteristic inflection, tone, or choice of words -- usually used in plural b: a way of speaking typical of a particular group of people and especially of the natives or residents of a region

However, The Cambridge Dictionary of American English (Landau, 1999) defines accent as "the way in which people in a particular area or country pronounce words." Although the Miriam-Webster reference leaves open the prospective for accent to include vocabulary aspects, which lead to the difficulty in defining terms related to language, the Cambridge reference treats accent as the phonological insight of the language. Thus, accent is referred as a variety differing from others only in phonological respects, not in grammar or lexis (Malmkjaer and Anderson, 1991). Standard British English is a dialect of English, just as other dialects as the Scottish British English and American English (Hughes, Trudgill and Watt, 2013). Berkling (2001) considers accent as articulation (phone inventories, syllable structure), intonation and rhythm, and also discusses how accent can be described in terms of phoneme substitutions, insertion and deletions. An accent is thus characterised by the phonological features of speech, so everyone who speaks does so with a certain accent. A formal dictionary definition of accent is that accent is “... the cumulative auditory effect of those features of pronunciation which identify where a person is from, regionally or socially” (Crystal, 2003). Accordingly, an accent may be classified as either a 'regional accent', identified by a country, city or other region, which is the sense referred to in this study, or as a 'social accent', such as Received Pronunciation (RP)in English which will be discussed shortly in this section.

Although some accents may be determined by geographical location or social status, in the case of L2s, accents may arise as a result of transfer of phonological features from the L1 (Barratt and Mahboob, 2014). This study is interested in this latter type. Accent has an important bearing on such issues as intelligibility and comprehensibility of the intended communication and may depend on how well other people understand the accent as different from their own (Barlow, 2009). A related concept to accent is that of idiolect. An idiolect is the speech of one individual pronounced in a definite and consistent style (Malmkjaer and Anderson, 1991). In common parlance, somebody would be described as having an accent if that accent is other than the standard accent. This is not the view of linguists, as even speakers of RP for instance, would be identified as having a British accent in the presence of speakers of other varieties of English, such as American or Australian English. Furthermore, whereas previously, differences from the standard pronunciation were seen as mispronunciations, the prevailing view is that there is no

particular accent that is linguistically superior to another. On the other hand, Dialect is defined in The Miriam-Webster Online Dictionary as:

> A regional variety of language distinguished by features of vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation from other regional varieties and constituting together with them a single language (2016)

Dialect is used to describe a variety of a language usually pertaining to a particular region or social group" Some dialectologists define dialect as any variety associated with speakers of a given type, whether geographically or otherwise defined, e.g. members of a given social class, males/females, and people of shared ethnic back-ground" (Malmkjaer and Anderson, 1991: 94). As such, it “is created whenever anyone speaks in a language not his own”, and it is clearly distinguished in terms of pronunciation, use of certain idioms, etc. Similarly, a dialect is defined in the Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics as a regionally or socially distinctive variety of a language that is identified by a particular set of words and grammatical structures (ipid).

Interestingly, if all the information pertaining to a linguistically regional variation is gathered together, then a map showing areas with differences in vocabulary, grammatical usage and pronunciation would look rather like a spider's web. This case is defined as an isogloss which is "A term that refers to the boundary lines that mark the areas in which certain dialect words are used" (Holmes, 1992: 140).This is because there is typically a great deal of overlap between different areas, so defining precise boundaries is not at all straightforward.

Dialect refers to a particular form of a language in which linguistic elements are found that pertain to phonological, grammatical and lexical aspects, whereas an accent is merely the phonetic or phonological component of a dialect (Wray, Trott and Bloomer, 2006). However, the term 'spoken dialect' is also used in reference to a distinctive pronunciation or accent (Crystal, 2011). To illustrate the difference between an accent and a dialect, an American speaker who pronounces the /r/ at the end of *jar* /dʒaɹ/ and an English speaker who does not /dʒa:/, differ in that respect only in the accent. However, the difference between British Eng. *rubber* and American Eng. *eraser* is a lexical one and hence one of dialect.

In the established view, varieties of English would include: British, American, Australian, and Canadian accents although some linguists, such as Kachru (1997), still consider Standard British English (SBE) as the only 'correct' variety of the numerous varieties of English. Trudgill and Hannah define Standard English as "the variety of the English Language which is normally employed in writing and normally spoken by 'educated' speakers of the language", giving further discussion to the main two varieties of Standard English; North American English (GA)and British English (BE)

(2013:4-5). Wardhaugh (1998:43) notes "it is impossible to speak English without an accent, and there is no such thing, therefore, as 'unaccented English'. Thus, just as Standard English can be spoken with a British, American, Pakistani, or Korean accent, non Standard English can also be spoken with these same accents." It is argued by Schmitz (2015) that BE and GA are considered as standard (for good or bad) due to the political and economic power of the United Kingdom and the USA. The issue is political and not linguistic for the other varieties are viewed as inferior. This entails to ask who is the native speaker (NS) then? And subsequently who is the non-native speaker (NNS)?

A native speaker is defined as someone who has spoken a particular language since they were a baby, rather than learned it as a child or adult (Online Cambridge Dictionary, 2017). At the outset, there is a universal debate of "nativeness" which is a still a liveable issue in linguistics since 30 years. The first publication on the topic, lies in the fact that Coulmas (1981) and the participating authors examine critically the notion of what NS is or is not. Coulmas does not deny that the "native speaker plays a part in the study of language". After that, Paikeday (1985), in his book *The Native Speaker Is Dead*, was the first to point to the construction of NS concept to discriminate against equally qualified NNSs. For him, NS concept is a "myth", arguing that most of the English speakers nowadays are not originated from English speaking countries, nor their L1 is English. As an effect, we can find that the number of 'non-native' ELT instructors is larger than the assuming 'native' ones (Jenkins, 2009a). Davies (1991:35) asserts NSs "move from a position of insecurity to one of security, while NNSs move in the reverse direction". Assuring that NSs have control of their L1, he also adds that, "learning of an L2 on their part requires them to abandon the security of their L1 to become less and less sure in the L2 of what was so familiar in the L1". In other words, NSs have the sensation that their L1 is more controlled and secured than NNSs in towards their L2. Thus, in Kachru's (1992) mapping of English into three concentric circles, as introduced in 1.3, different researchers situate themselves in the world and how they view their world. Many of them come from countries where English is considered a foreign language (expanding circle countries, Japan, Argentina and Italy). Others may come from the outer circle (India and Philippines) where English is institutionalized as the language of government, business and higher education. Cater and Nunan (2001) have a logical distinction between considering NS language variety as a *norm* or as a *model*. They declare that, "taken as a norm, this variety has to be imitated independently of any considerations of language use strongly connects it with ideas and correctness. Taken as a model, on the other hand, could be used as a point of reference, to which learners can approximate more or less closely, depending on the need of the specific situation." (2013: 60). This latter consideration of NS as a model is the one which is used and applied in this research although English in Saudi Arabia is a norm dependant as argued by Elyas (2015).

Returning to defining the NNS, this traditional views suggest English NS are speakers of English who belong to the “inner circle,” countries that are the “cultural and linguistic bases of English” (Kachru, 1992: 356), such as England, the United States and Canada, theorizes Kachru in his well-known profile of World Englishes. Alternatively in ELT, Medgyes (2001) defines non-native English speaking teachers (NNEST) as someone the one whom English is his second or foreign language, who works in an EFL environment, whose students are a monolingual group of learners and who speaks the same L1 as their students. Similarly, Al-Omrani (2008) defines the NNEST as the teacher who is able to work in ESL or EFL environment, who teaches English to learners come from different backgrounds and who may or may not speak the same L1 of his students. However, no definition was asserted if the teacher speaks different "variety" of the same L1 of his/her students. This research will shed a light on this area and study the students' attitude towards their teachers' accents and examine if this could be considered as a factor that may shape their English pronunciation. This thesis will propose new empirical data relating to NNESTs' accent and pronunciation in EFL classrooms.

2.3.1.1 **Difference between Native and Non-Native Speaking Teachers**

According to Jenkins (2000), NNEST's, even if they have a high level of competency, learners typically process speech through a 'bottom-up' approach because they need to make sense of the underlying context in terms of linguistic and extra linguistic dimensions. Consequently, it is difficult for them to process speech through a top-down process, as they do with their L1, and as native speakers do habitually. She also suggested this may explain why NNEST's tend to prioritise segmental features compared to suprasegmental ones, i.e. on features relating to consonants and vowels rather than aspects such as word stress and intonation (Zoghbor, 2010).

Based on her research on English pronunciation among NEST and NNEST, particularly on data gathered on 'miscommunication' and 'accommodation', Jenkins (2000) introduced a list of phonological features which she regarded as a minimum for ensuring intelligible communication by non-native speakers. This list is known as the Lingua Franca Core (LFC). Although the LFC is seen by some academics as a model or even variety, Jenkins (2008) herself described it as core features for designing a pronunciation syllabus for EFL learners, and for the sake of promoting intelligible communication more so than teaching native-like pronunciation. Sobkowiak (2005) for instance, argued that the corpus should not be treated unquestioningly and made a part of the curricula on the presumption that it meets the needs of language learners with respect to learning pronunciation. Nonetheless, the existence of such lists and the use to which they tend to be put even if that was not the original intention, shows the value attached to acquiring a native accent. As pointed out by Ali (2009), this issue of attachment of importance is compounded by the

preference of employers as well for native over non-native speakers. Correspondingly in ELT, Cater and Nunan (2001) reassure of the importance of considering learners' attitudes towards their teachers' English varieties and how this may influence pronunciation teaching and recommend for teachers' awareness of this area.

2.3.1.2 Varieties of English

Moreover, it is worth noting that the issue of native/non-native is confused with that of standard/non-standard varieties. A Standard language is defined as a language variety used by a population for public purposes or as a variety that has undergone standardization. In other words, some language varieties become standardised as an effect of their local usage in government and the media, in schools and for international communication (Finegan, 2007). However, Trudgill and Hannah claim that, "although Standard English is the kind of English in which all native speakers learn to read and write, most people do not actually speak it" (2013: 45).

The two major English varieties around the world are British English (BE) and General American (GA). For centuries, the Southern British Standard or Received Pronunciation (RP) is the accent of British English usually chosen for the purposes of description and teaching (Roach, 2009). It is frequently recommended as the most suitable form of British English for broadcasting and as the model for both first and second language instruction (Macaulay, 1988). It is defined by Davenport and Hannahs as "a non-regional pronunciation found mainly in the United Kingdom, sometimes known as BBC English or the Queen's English"(2010: 7). Some, as (Roach, 2009), said it is minority while others argue it is spoken all over UK (Barlow, 2008). Even if few people actually speak with it, it is one that is commonly heard through the media. This may be especially true for second language learners who need and desire an accent to target, a point Wardhaugh (1998:43) echoes when he notes that "for many students it [RP] is the only language they are prepared to learn." Also, in most of the linguistic study, RP is the standard variety to be used as a benchmark to refer to (Trudgill, 1979). On the other hand, GA refers to "the standardised form of North American English, often associated with broadcast journalism and sometimes known as network English" (Davenport and Hannahs, 2010: 7). Hence, there are some distinctions that discriminate one from the other. In terms of geographical regions, RP is spoken in scattered places throughout Britain with little regional variation (Roach, 2009). It is only spoken natively by up to around 5% of the population, mostly among the upper classes, but it is also the accent usually taught to foreigners, as it is considered to be the correct form of pronunciation. Similarly, GA is the American equivalent taught to foreigners, but less universally than RP and with some variations. It is used mostly in the American media, and is spoken mostly in the central and western areas of the USA (Rogers, 2014). Linguistically, these two accents are distinguished in some phonological features, as the former is considered as non-rhetoric accent while the latter is rhetoric. In non-rhotic

varieties, as RP and dialects spoken in New Zealand, Australia and South Africa, speakers no longer pronounce /r/ in postvocalic environments- that is, when it is immediately after a vowel and not followed by another vowel. For instance words like *hard* and *butter* are pronounced /ha:d/ and /bʌtə/. However, they still pronounce the linking /r/ in phrases like *butter and jam* as /r/ is followed by a vowel in this case (Skandera, and Burleigh, 2011).

It is pointed out by Rogers (2014) that RP is associated with the social, educational status of its speakers while GA lacks this feature, i.e. RP is spoken among the upper-class and well educated people and "unlike Britin, there is no single prestige accent for the entire country of USA, rather each geographical region has a certain amount of social variation although generally less than in Britain" (p. 18).

In the context of this research, RP is the variety which will be obtained as a model (bench mark) to compare the closeness of the participants' pronunciations to its phonological features. The most essential rationale behind this choice is that this variety (RP) is the one which is used in the Saudi educational sector. For instance, these are some examples demonstrate that the RP existence in the current high school textbook; (1) The frequent use of continues past participial tense over the past participial in grammar level. i.e. *have been studying* and *have studied*, (2) The use of British lexis such as, *chips* and *rubber* instead of *French fries* and *eraser* in the vocabulary level and (3) the variation of pronouncing the final /r/ at the end of the word *rubber* (Saudi Ministry of Education, English School Textbook, second year secondary, term 1, 2016). As it is mentioned in 1.5, RP is the academic accent in the Saudi higher education textbook. GA, in contrast, is the accent of media and internet in Saudi Arabia. Many Arabic and Saudi television satellite channels broadcast American movies and some, as MBC2, DubaiOne, are specialized in this kind of entertainment. This point was addressed by Elyas (2008), "The new trends of western involvement taking place through the popular American media such as Hollywood movies and MTV, and the adoption of Western clothes and way of eating through the spread of McDonalds, KFC, Starbucks come alive"(p.40). Moreover, the general direction for most of the Saudi industrial, petrochemicals and aviation big companies such as, ARAMCO, SABIC and Saudia Airlines is the "American" education as these companies prefer to hire graduates from the American universities, "Note to mention that American graduates are usually hired by big companies such as ARAMCO, Shells, Western Banks, and Saudi Airlines" (ibid: 41). Therefore, such version of English among these employees is American accent and this appears in their daily life and business communication.

Another point to shed a light on is the use of technology and internet among Saudis. Al-Seghayer (2012) assures that in 1995, Saudis were introduced to English through the World Wide Web and

had access the global network and according to Internet World State (2016) there were over 20 million Saudi users of the Internet as of 2016. This exposure to the internet, media and music riches the Saudi vocabularies with American, rather than British, terminology. In a restaurant context, for instance, words like *French fries, utensils*, *cookie,* and *check* are commonly used more than *chips, cutlery*, *biscuits* and *bill*. Also, some American words are frequently used to refer to cloths as *pants* and *sweater* other than *trousers* and *vest*. The next section provides the second language under this study, Arabic, as it represents all participants' L1.

2.3.2 Arabic Language

Arabic geographically is one of the widespread languages of the world. "It is not easy to give the exact number of speakers; estimates from 1999 count 206 million L1 speakers, a figure that today seems too low rather than too high"(Behnstedt and Woidich, 2013: 300). In approximately 23 countries, Arabic is used in each where there are two main varieties: Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) and Non-Standard Arabic (NSA) (Mahmoud, 2000). This section grants a review of Arabic Language through presenting a comparative overview between the two languages, namely RP and MSA, diglossia phenomenon of Arabic, and a deep investigation on the three Arabic dialects under research.

2.3.3 Arabic and English Phonetic Systems

2.3.3.1 Number of Phonemes

It is necessary to make a distinction between consonants, which are sounds produced by obstruction of the speech airstream, and vowels, which are sounds produced without any obstruction of air (Roach, 2009). As is typical with Semitic languages, Arabic has a wide ranging consonantal system but a limited vocalic system. In contrast, English belongs to the Germanic family of languages, has fewer orthographic consonants, but many more vowels, diphthongs and triphthongs. In their alphabets, English has 26 letters five of which are recognised as vowels and Arabic 28 including three long vowels plus the 3 short vowels, indicated by inflections above or below the letters (Moosa, 1979, Brierley, Sawalha, Heselwood, and Atwell, 2014 and Eid, 2006), Appendix B. On the other hand, the actual number of consonant and vowel phonemic sounds in English includes additional sounds that are represented by the same limited set of graphemes. That is, many of the same graphemes, and combinations thereof, actually represent several more phonemes. This is one of the major features of the English language that makes it difficult for non-natives to work out the pronunciation or spelling of a word. In Arabic there is a stricter one-to-one

correspondence between graphemes and phonemes. For a fuller account of Arabic and English orthography and spelling (see 2.4.1.2).

In British English, and most other English accents, a total of 44 sounds or phonemes are normally recognised, which are represented using the set of 26 letters of the alphabet, either individually or in combination. Out of these, 24 (Burleigh, 2011) or 25 (Blevins and Garrat, 1998: 44) are usually identified as consonants. Longer lists usually contain up to 52 phonemes of which 32 are consonants, as given, for instance, in Chambers English Dictionary (1992). Table 2 gives a breakdown of the number of consonants and vowels in Arabic and English for comparison. If the number of distinct consonants in English is accepted as 32, then there are more consonants in English than in Arabic.

The number of distinct vowel phonemes in British English is 20, including diphthongs. There are fewer vowels in GA (15) (Ladefoged and Disner, 2012 as not all Americans distinguish between certain vowels, eg *mary*, *merry* and *marry:* other sources mention 17 to 19 vowels (Chambers, 1992; Blevins and Garrat, 1998). If we accept that there are 20 vowels, 12 are monophthongs consisting of seven short vowels and five long vowels, and there are eight diphthongs (Burleigh, 2011). In addition, there are also five triphthongs, but they are not included in the total count of 20 as they are not usually analysed as separate vowel phonemes. A triphthong is defined as, "a glide from one vowel to another and then to a third without interruption" (Roach, 2009: 18-19). All these diphthongs end with a mid-central vowel (schwa /ə/). Thus, the word 'royal', for instance, which contains a triphthong between the first and last letters in the orthographic script, would be analysed as consisting of four phonemes, instead of three, (/r/, /ɔɪ/, /ə/, /l/). However, Roach (2009) argues that this is not always an accurate representation of the pronunciation according to the difficulties facing English foreign learners to distinguish the vowel quality. Also, the number of word syllabus plays a role on this ability.

Table 2: Number of consonants and vowels in Arabic and English

Sounds	Standard Arabic	Arabic Dialect*	English
Consonants as letters	28	28	21 (of which 2 can also function as vowels)
Consonants as sounds	28	30	24/25/32
Vowels as letters/markings	6 (3 short, 3 long)	8 (6 standard vowels+ 2 diphthongs pronounced as /o/ and /e/)	5 + 2 semi-vowels (w and y)
Vowels as sounds	“	“	12 (7 short, 5 long)
Diphthongs	2 /aʊ/ and /aɪ/	0	8

Sounds	Standard Arabic	Arabic Dialect*	English
Triphthongs	0	0	5
Total number of phonemes	36	38	44 normally stated; 52 in total (disregarding triphthongs)

*The additional consonants are /g/ and /ʒ/

Notably, in Table 2, the number of actual consonant phonemes especially is disputed. This matter was noted by Ladefoged and Johnson (2010), in which they identify 44 distinct sounds (comprising 23 consonants, 12 vowels and 9 diphthongs). This is in accordance with RP. On the other hand, the IPA, 0, differentiates between 52 different sounds for English (divided equally between consonants and vowels). But if further fine distinctions are made, there are even more phonemes than this figure of 52. For example, the combination 'ng' is usually treated as one discrete sound, as in 'bring' and 'sing'. Similarly, Arabic presents problematic phonemes. Although there are 28 recognised consonant phonemes in standard Arabic (as represented by graphemes), in practice additional phonemes are included as a result of dialectal variations, such as /g/ and /ʒ/, for further information on the sounds under the scope of this study see 2.3.5.2. Moreover, sounds like /ŋ/ and /tʃ/ are pronounced in various Arabic dialects as result of phonological assimilation, refer to 2.3.5.2.

2.3.3.2 **Comparison of Consonantal Phonemes**

Consonants are distinguished with respect to their point or place of articulation and by the manner in which the sounds are produced (Brooks and Kempe, 2012). In spite of the roughly similar number of consonantal phonemes in the two languages, the two sets of phonemes are also markedly different such that some of them exist in one language but not in the other. Table 3 and Table 4 below list consonants in Standard Arabic that have no equivalent in English and vice versa; i.e. consonants in English that have no equivalent in Arabic. A section of comparison between English and Arabic dialects will be presented later, adapted from Khan (2011).

Table 3: Consonants in Standard Arabic and English with no equivalents

Consonants in Arabic with no equivalent in English			
ء	Glottal stop	/ʔ/	Exists as an allophone of /t/ in certain regional British accents (Hughes and Trudgill, 1979)
ح	Voiceless pharyngeal fricative	/ ħ/	(no equivalent)

Consonants in Arabic with no equivalent in English			
خ	Voiceless velar fricative	/ χ /	resembles /χ/ in Scottish loch
ص	Voiceless velarised alveolar fricative	/S/	(no equivalent)
ض	Voiced velarised alveo-dental stop	/D/	(no equivalent)
ط	Voiceless velarised alveo-dental stop	/T/	(no equivalent)
ظ	Voiced velarised inter dental fricative	/ð̲/	(no equivalent)
ع	Voiced pharyngeal fricative	/ʕ/	(no equivalent)
غ	Voiced uvular fricative	/ɣ/	(no equivalent)
ق	Voiceless uvular stop	/q/	(no equivalent)

Table 4: Consonants in English with no equivalent in Standard Arabic

Consonants in English with no equivalent in Standard Arabic			
	A voiced velar stop	/g/	Usually substituted by /dʒ/ or /ʒ/, but it exists in some dialects
	A voiceless bilabial stop	/p/	Usually substituted by /b/
	Post alveolar approximant	/ɹ/	Usually substituted by Alveolar trill /r/
	A voiced labiodentals fricative	/v/	Usually substituted by /f/
	A voiced alveo-palatal fricative	/ʒ/	Usually substituted by /dʒ/, but it exists in some dialects
	A voiced velar nasal	/ŋ/	(no equivalent), Usually substituted by a cluster of /ng/or /ŋg/ as mentioned earlier

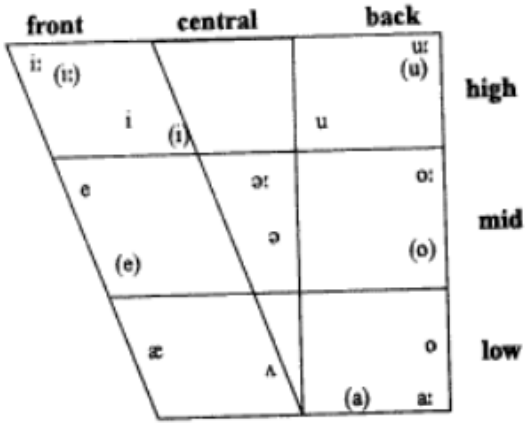
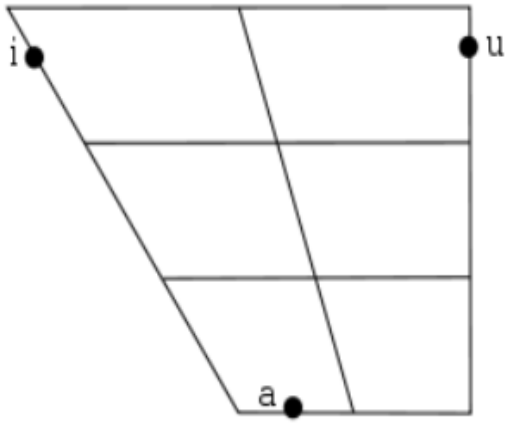
The Arabic group includes the glottal stop, sounds produced from the throat, and emphatic equivalents of /s/, /d/, /t/ and /dh/. The emphatic /d/, a voiced velarised dento-alveolar stop, in particular (ض), is said to be so difficult for foreigners to pronounce that Arabic is also known as the 'Language of Dād'. The consonants present in English but not in standard Arabic are /g/, /p/, /r/ and /v/, and the additional phonemes /ʒ/ and /ŋ/. The first four are usually substituted by Arab speakers with /dʒ/, /b/, Arabic /r/ (a trill), and /f/ respectively (Table 3). Both groups of speakers usually need practice in reproducing the L2 sounds that have no L1 equivalents. An

understanding of the fact that differences are often the cause of potential difficulties is in line with the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis CAH (see 2.2.2.). However, differences in accents means that this does not necessarily apply to all Arabic and English speakers. For instance, the glottal stop is commonly produced in regional British accents as an allophone of /t/ as bottle /bɒʔl̩/ (Hughes et al., 2012: 67), although other English speakers can easily produce this sound. A sound roughly similar to the Arabic, voiceless velar fricative /χ/ is present in the Scottish accent, as in 'loch', and the English /g/ sound is present in Egyptian Arabic as an allophone of /dʒ/ and in Saudi Arabic as an allophone of the voiceless uvular stop (see 2.3.5.2).

2.3.3.3 **Comparison of Vowel Systems**

The two vowel systems differ significantly not only in number, but also in their distribution (Table 5). English, with 12 distinct pure (or simple) vowel sounds (monophthongs), has double the number of Arabic vowels, and unlike Arabic (3:3), the ratio of short to long vowels (7:5) is unequal. English vowels cover all areas of the vowel chart with the exception of the central high position, but are distributed unevenly. In contrast, the three Arabic vowels are distributed evenly in a triangular formation, and each of them has a corresponding long vowel. This makes the Arabic system more flexible with a higher range for tolerance, whereas English makes much finer distinctions, not all of which are even represented by distinct graphemes. Similarly, only long vowels are represented as graphemes in Arabic text, as the three short vowels are represented by diacritic marks above or below consonants, as discussed earlier (Eid, 2006; Moosa 1979). They are usually only included to help beginning or poor readers with pronunciation (Abu-Rabia, 2000, cited in Bowen, 2011). In fact there are only three possible short vowels. On the other hand, the shortage of vowels in Arabic compared to English makes it difficult for Arabs to distinguish between the different vowel sounds and it is a common mistake for the Arab learners to pronounce caught as coat (Fareh, 1986). Regarding the Arabic diphthongs, there are two main in Standard Arabic /aʊ/ and /aɪ/ which, as result of weakening the diphthong, are replaced by the short vowels /o/ and /e/ respectively in the Non-Standard Arabic (NSA), i.e. Arabic vernaculars. Thus, refereeing to table 2, Arabic dialects have the same number of vowels of the Standard Arabic, 6 vowels and additional two as a result of this phonological process.

Table 5: Comparison of vowel charts of English (left) and Arabic (right)

Vowel chart of English	Vowel chart of Arabic*
	
12 monophthongs indicated	3 indicated (short only)

*Only the three short vowels are indicated, which have three corresponding long vowels.

Source: adopted from Javed (2013)

By delineating the factors that may affect students' pronunciation, Bowen (2011) traced the reason for students' L2 difficulties to the diglossia between colloquial and literary Arabic. The following section will shed some light on this phenomenon and the dialects under study.

2.3.4 Diglossia and Language Varieties

The following section discusses the conceptualization of the term "diglossia" with particular regard to the Arabic situation. A brief comparison between "accent" and "dialect" will be provided, with a detailed listing of the phonological features of each dialect in the context of this study.

2.3.4.1 Diglossia in World Languages

Although the term "diglossia" was introduced by Marcias in 1930 (Kaye, 2001), it was first used by the Greeks to indicate the two different varieties of their own language. Diglossia “describes any stable linguistic situation, in which there exists a strict functional differentiation between a (socially) 'L(ow)-variety' and a distinct 'H(igh)-variety'” (Bussmann, 2006: 345). The latter is differentiated from the former by being more grammatically complex, standardised and formal.

This feature of certain languages was examined by Ferguson (1959) who identified Swiss German, Haitian Creole, Modern Greek and Arabic as diglossic. Gumperz (1964) considered linguistic societies diglossic if functionally distinct varieties of the same language were found, whereas Fishman (1967) related diglossia of different language varieties closely to bilingualism (see also Kremnitz (1987) and Willemyns and Bister (1989)).

2.3.4.2 **Diglossia in Arabic**

"Arabic is considered to be diglossic, meaning that the spoken form is very different from its literary form which is the language of books and school instruction" (Abu-Rabia, 2000: 44). There are two official varieties in concurrent use, namely Classical Arabic (CAr) and Modern Standard Arabic (MSA). Both of them are usually referred to as Al-lughah Al-fusha, or fusha /fuSħa/ for short, meaning 'pure' or 'most eloquent', but Badawi (1973) distinguishes between Fusha Al-turath for CAr and Fusha Al-a'asr for MSA (Ryding, 2005: 4), referring to historical and cultural differences, as CAr pertains to Arab heritage (Al-turath) and MSA pertains to the modern era (Al-a'asr). Whereas MSA has many speakers, CAr has far fewer fluent speakers. CAr is the variety that is mostly used in various forms of religious discourse, whereas MSA is the form that is used for formal interactions including the media, educational instructions, and political speeches and debates. Also, CAr is regarded by Muslims in general as the purer form because it is the form in which the Holy Quran and Prophet Muhammad's quotes (pbuh) are written. CAr has remained intact, and its form is the same globally, whereas the lexicon and few structural inconsistencies share both CAr and MSA (Bassiouney , 2009; Albirini, 2016; Ali, 2007). It is uncertain when and how the other varieties came about and there is a debate as to which form should be taught to foreigners (Abdalla, 2006: 317); the scope of the term *fusha* is not universally agreed upon; the exact definition of MSA remains unclear, and so on. There have also been significant historical and political influences that have shaped the development of the Arabic language that need to be understood before any language policies are implemented. The diglossia, or polyglossia as will be discussed further, is also blamed for the poor quality of education in the Arab world (Maamouri, 1998), especially in terms of reading comprehension (Abu-Rabia, 2000). Kaye (2001) develops the claim that diglossia can "border … bilectalism" (p.118) since some speakers of Arabic hardly understand a radio or TV news broadcast in MSA. With regard to the consonantal features between both varieties, Kaye (2001) claims that although MSA does share all CAr's consonant sounds, some Arabic dialects lack the existence of two consonants, the voiceless uvular stop /q/ and the voiced post alveolar affricate /dʒ/ and replacing the inter-dental sounds /Θ/, /ð/ and /ð̲/ differently from one dialect to another, for elaboration see 2.3.5.2 below. This study investigates this variance of L1 dialects and how it may influence L2 learning.

Arguably, based on Ferguson's (1959) definition, Arabic is considered as a diglossic language. However, the realistic situation of the use of Arabic in its countries reflects that there are two high varieties and one low. This view is carried out by Bassiouney, claiming that, "the term *diglossia* is too narrow for the type of situation which exists…as Ferguson considered switching between both varieties in the same stretch of discourse" (2009: 12). As Albirini (2016), the term polyglossia could resemble the case of Arabic. Though, beyond those limited uses, CAr, specifically, is never used as spoken form and is treated as a dead language since it is codified and written but not spoken natively (Salameh, 2011). Dead languages are defined as "languages which are no longer used as an everyday means of communication in a speech community" (Malmkjaer and Anderson, 1991: 73). Another definition, also, highlights the 'every day spoken use' (en.oxforddictionaries.com). A further definition claims that the dead language is related to the existence of its native speakers, "Dead language occurs when nobody speaks it any more" (Crystal, 2011). Additionally, Holmes (1992: 53) describes the real situation of CAr by giving a rationale of the death of languages,

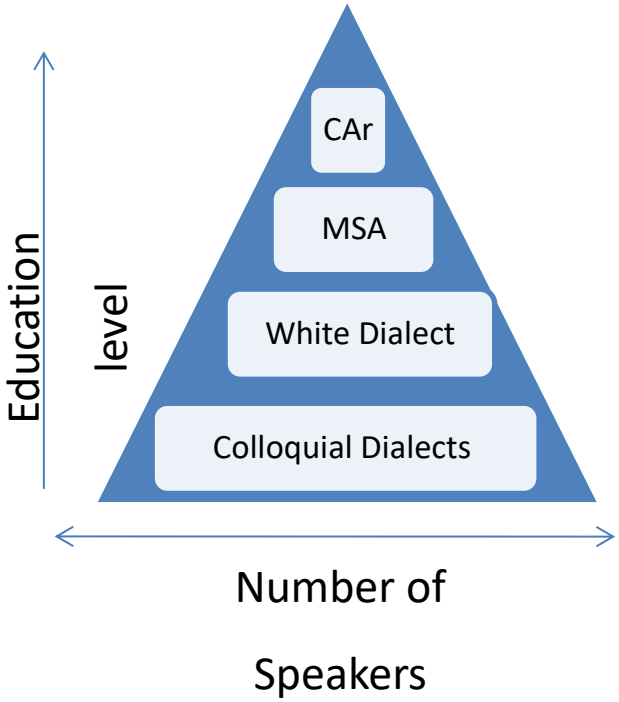
> "When all the people who speak a language die, the language dies with them. With the spread of a majority group language into more and more domains, the number of contexts in which individuals use the ethnic language diminishes. The language usually retreats till it is used only in the home, and finally it is restricted to such personal activities as counting, praying and dreaming."

By restricting the case of CAr to this framework of definitions, it is considered then as a dead language. On the other hand, its daily use in the media, newspaper, or religious prays actually contradicts this definition, and it will be alive as the use of its authentic corpus, The Holy Qura'an, is still active to this moment.

Besides CAr and MSA, there are various dialectal varieties and colloquial forms of Arabic, as with many other languages. Notably, these other varieties are distinct enough “so as to obstruct mutual intelligibility” (Tan, 1999: 264) but they are of greater practical benefit than both of the literary varieties in terms of useful communication. The CAr and MSA both require a minimum base of education as they are learned in formal education or heard in the media. However amongst themselves, Arab speakers tend to speak in the White Dialect, a general dialect spoken in the Arab regions, so a person from the Arabian Gulf can understand another one from Morocco. It also connects the local dialects to the high varieties, i.e. CAr and MSA (Al-Sa'adi, 2012). For instance, at the yearly pilgrimage in Saudi Arabia, this dialect is used as a lingua franca since it considered as a medial dialect which is understood by all Arabs regardless of their geographical regions or educational levels. Based on the eloquence scale and because it includes

some features of the surrounding levels, the White dialect is positioned as a third level after CAr and MSA followed by local colloquial dialects (Saleh, 2010). Accordingly, levelling the Arabic language could be resembled by a pyramid where its wide base reflects the huge number of colloquial speakers and the top of it resemble the CAr, see Figure 7 below.

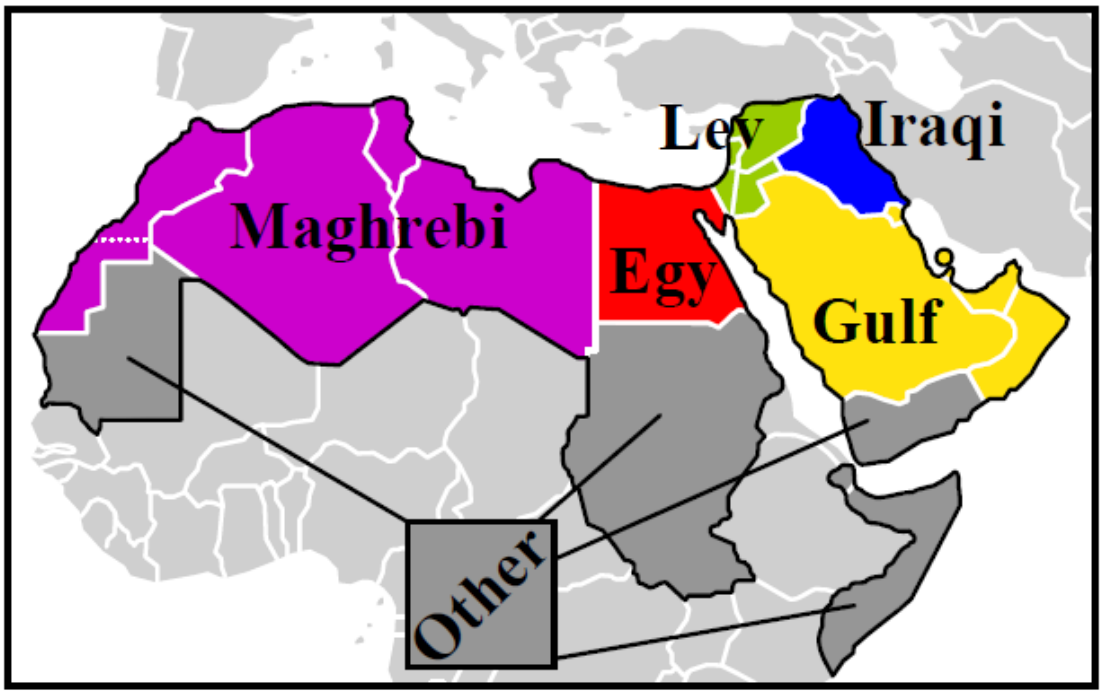
Figure 7: Arabic Language Levels



2.3.5 Arabic Dialectical Regions

There are many classifications of Arabic dialects, a popular one stipulating five regional zones; Egyptian, Gulf (including Yemen), Laventine (spoken in Jordan, Syria, Lebanon and Palestine), Maghrabi and Iraqi. This taxonomy is made not only for geographical reasons but also reveals the large number of shared linguistic features (Albirini, 2016). According to Zaidan and Callison-Burch (2013), spoken Arabic can be identified as belonging to one of six possible main groups: Maghrebi (Western), Egyptian, Levantine (Jordanian, Syrian, Lebanese and Palestine), Gulf, Iraqi, and others. These six main regional dialects are identified in the map in (Figure 8) below.

Figure 8: Arabic dialect geographical distributions



Source: Zaidan and Callison-Burch, (2013)

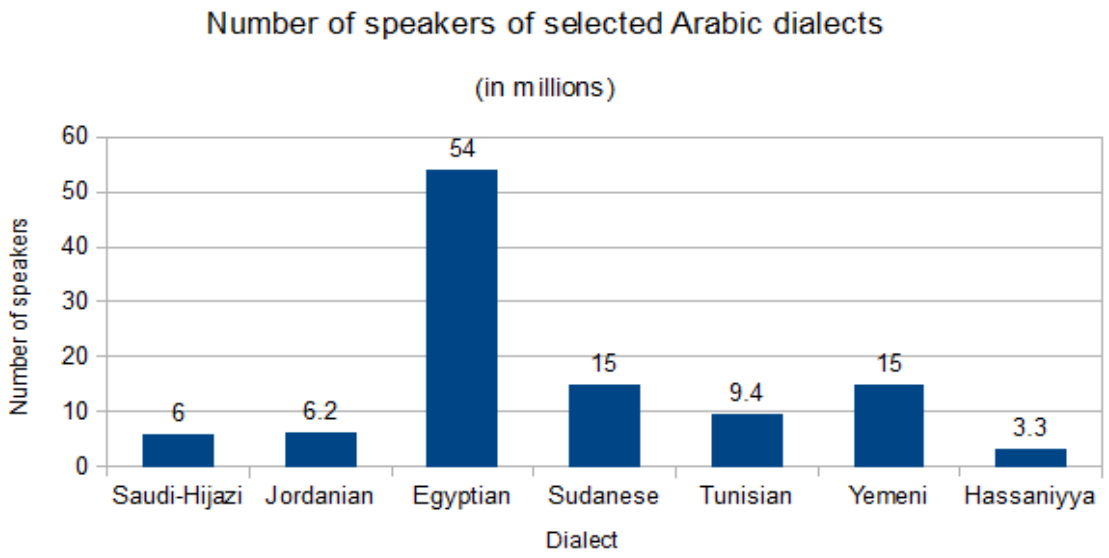
Some sources, as (Mitchell, 1990), combine Iraqi with other dialects, so the different Arabic dialects are also usually divided as belonging to one of five geographical regions: (1) Arabian Peninsula and the Arabian Gulf, (2) Levantine (Syria, Jordan), (3) Egyptian, (4) Western (Maghrebi), and (5) Other (including Iraqi). Accents from all four of the aforementioned regions were included in this study as follows:

- Arabian Peninsula/Gulf: *Saudi-Hijazi, Yemeni*
- South Levantine: *Jordanian*
- Egypt: *Egyptian*
- Western (Maghrebi): *Tunisian*
- Other: None selected, but these would include *Sudanese*, *Somali, Mauritanian, Iraqi*

Another way of distinguishing between the dialects is according to whether they are used by urban, rural or Bedouin populations. In the current study, the distinction is made on geographical regions along with linguistic contrast among the three Arabic dialects; Tunisian, Egyptian and Saudi-Hijazi. Most importantly, due to their large representation among teachers at ELI, this study bases its selection of these Arabic dialects to examine the sounds that coexist in their phonetic systems and RP English in order to investigate that on L2 learning.

In terms of the number of speakers in general, the Egyptian dialect has by far the most due to the country's large population (Figure 9). This dialect also exerts the most pervasive influence on MSA (Modern Standard Arabic) due particularly to Egypt's film industry, see Egyptian dialect below.

Figure 9: Numbers of Speakers of selected Arabic dialects



Source: About World Languages (2013)

2.3.5.1 Dialects Selected for Study

In the case of the Arabic language and the context of this study, there are three prominent dialects, Saudi-Hijazi, Egyptian-Cairene and Tunisian. They are referred to as dialects rather than accents because they are clearly distinguishable in terms of their vocabularies, grammatical structure and pronunciation and they pertain to specific regions. For instance, there are certain phonemes present in some but not others, such as /g/ in Egyptian Arabic.

Given this multidimensional nature of a dialect and its regional/social association, the three dialects selected for examination can be safely confirmed as such. Many studies have also focused on one or more of these specific dialects, such as Alotaibi (2009), Al-Jahdali (2009), Johnstone (1967), Alessa (2010), Alezetes (2004), Alqarni (2013) and Banjar (2002) on Saudi dialects, and Zoghbor (2010) on Egyptian dialect, Scholes and Abida (1966) and Ibn-Alkhoja (n.d.) in Tunisian, Mamdi, Nasr, Habash and Gala (2015), Miller (2004) and Brustad (2000) on Arabic dialects generally.

2.3.5.1.1 Hijazi-Saudi Dialect

The Saudi dialect can be divided into three main sub-dialects (Alessa, 2010; Prochazka, 1988 and Ingham, 1994):

(1) Hijazi –spoken in the Hijaz region located in Western SA in which lie the cities of Jeddah, Makkah, Madinah and Tiaf;

(2) Najdi - centred on the capital city of Riyadh and includes the north central region;

(3) Sharqi - spoken in the Eastern parts of the kingdom.

The Hijazi sub-dialect is generally considered to be the most popular in the Arabian Peninsula for a combination of religious, commercial and economic reasons. Due to the strategic geographical location of Jeddah and the religious status of the two holy cities of Makkah and Madinah visited by more than 3,000,000 pilgrims every year, Hijazi-Saudi Arabic has also become enriched over time with many lexical borrowings, especially from Egyptian and Levantine Arabic. As far as its phonological features are concerned, the Hijazi dialect is characterised by the following three main distinguishing features:

- Hijazi speakers tend to substitute some sounds with others. For instance, they pronouncethe inter-dental fricatives /ϴ/ and /ð/ as alveolar fricatives /s/and /z/ or dental stops /t/ and /d/.
- The CAr voiceless affricate/dʒ/ is reduced to alveo-palatal fricative /ʒ/ in all word positions.
- The trilled alveolar /r/ is a unique feature of the Hijazi speaker.

2.3.5.1.2 Egyptian (Cairene) Dialect

For historical reasons, Egypt also enjoys a privileged status among the countries of the world and has a burgeoning tourist industry. Arabs refer to Egypt as the Hollywood of the East: the most pervasive influence on MSA is exerted by the Egyptian dialect (Albirini, 2016), due particularly to "its history in movie-making and television show production, and their popularity across the Arab world" (Zaidan and Callison-Burch, 2013: 3). Thus the Egyptian dialect has a distinguished and prominent status among the various Arab dialects.

The Cairene-Egyptian dialect in particular, spoken in the capital city, Cairo and the surrounding areas of the north part of The Nile River, is easily understood by all Egyptians and also by Arabs generally. Phonetically, the Egyptian dialect is most noticeably distinguished from other Arab dialects by having three additional consonantal phonemes with respect to pronunciation not represented by distinct graphemes (Kaye, 2001):

- The substitution of the CAr voiceless uvular stop /q/ with the glottal stop /ʔ/;

- The CAr post alveo-palatal affricate/dʒ/ is substituted by the voiced velar stop /g/;
- The CAr voiced inter-dental fricative /ð/ is substituted by the voiceless alveolar stop /d/ or the voiced alveolar fricative /z/.

Relating to Egyptian dialect, Zoghbor (2010) asserts on that there are some sounds that do not exist in the Egyptian dialects:

> "The sounds which exist in MSA but not in Egyptian dialect are:
>
> - Voiced velarised inter dental fricative /ð̲/ (presented in Arabic by the letter: ظ).
> - The voiceless uvular stop consonant /q/ (presented in Arabic by the letter ق) (i.e. /qælæm/ or 'pen').
> - The voiceless inter-dental fricative /θ/ (i.e. 'three' in English and /θælæθæ/ in Arabic which also means 'three'
> - The voiced inter-dental fricative /ð/ (i.e. 'the' in English and 'ðækɪ' in Arabic which means 'clever').The voiced post-alveolar fricative /ʒ/ (i.e. 'television' in English and /ʒəmiil/ in Arabic which means 'beautiful')" (p.46)

Although some of the above sounds do exist in English as the / θ/ and /ð. Also, it is claimed by Watson (2002) that some Arabic dialects have the /tʃ/ sound (e.g. Egyptian Arabic), see section 2.3.5.2.

2.3.5.1.3 Tunisian Dialect

The Tunisian dialect is one of several Maghrebi dialects belonging to Arab countries located in North Africa and is recognised as the most distinctive dialect among all Arabic dialects generally (Zaidan and Callison-Burch, 2013), due to the unique syllabic system of Maghrebi dialects and their typically rapid articulation of speech.

This dialect is spoken widely in Tunis, located to the east of Libya and the west of Algeria. It is referred to locally as Al-lugha Ad-darija, which means the local language. As pointed out by Zaidan and Callison-Burch (2013) and Bassiouney (2009), the Tunisian dialect is heavily influenced by French and Berber languages. The French influence in particular is noticeable in its vocabulary by the large scale use of borrowed words, for example [ʔaSanSer]= ascenseur 'lift' and [ʔokazion]=occasioc 'sale' (Albirini, 2016). In contrast, Ibn-Alkhoja (n.d.) maintains that it is the nearest dialect to Classical Arabic (CAr) among the different Maghrebi dialects because it is still very rich with classical lexicon. This is also evident in the clearly distinguished pronunciation of the consonants /Θ, ð, q/ without any substitutions. However some Tunisian cities, such as Gabis,

Midneen, Qblli, Tozar and GafSa, are famous for their pronunciation of the English voiced velar stop /g/ and for this reason, their speakers are known as /yiħku bel ge/, meaning "speakers of /g/". Furthermore, other cities such as Tozar, are famous for their substitution of the /t/ sound with /tʃ/. For instance, they pronounce the word /tamr/ 'dates' as /tʃemər/ (Bin Farah, 2008).

The subsequent section compares these three dialects with respect to their segmental consonants.

2.3.5.2 Segmental Features of the Selected Dialects

This sub-section compares the three selected dialects on the basis of segmental features and number of speakers. Various models have been devised to explain the entire Arabic linguistic system. Among these is Badawi's (1973) five-tier model for describing Egyptian Arabic based on sociolinguistic factors. Another variation of this model is Keith Walters' model, specifically devised for describing Tunisian Arabic, but which can also be applied to other varieties. Continuum-based and other models are discussed by Badawi and Elgibali (1996) in 'Understanding Arabic'. In the following lines, an overview of some studies that examined the English sounds which do not exist in a specific dialect. With regards to the Saudi dialect, Altaha (1995) mentioned that /ʧ/, /v/ and /p/ are the most difficult sounds for Saudi learners to produce because they are not exist in Saudi dialect. He claims that Saudi participants had problems with some pairs of consonant sounds (i.e. /ʧ/ and /ʃ/ as in *chair* and *share*; /v/ and /f/ as in *van* and *fan*; /p/ and /b/ as in *pat* and *bat*).

However, the previous study lack mentioning three English sounds that do not exist in CAr and in all Arabic dialects; /p/, flapped /r/ and /v/. Moreover, in review with the Tunisian dialect, Hamdi et. al (2015) has manifested that " Tunisian dialect has all phonemes that exist in CAr. Though, Tunisian has three extra phonemes /p/, /v/ and /g/" (p.36).

Notably, although the three selected dialects (Hijazi, Cairene and Tunisian) share most of the CAr consonants, there are some sounds that are pronounced differently which are a distinguishing factor for them. The reason for this is that the sounds of some CAr consonants are reproduced exactly only in one dialect and not in the others. Also, the second reason relies on the type of segmental deviation, which in this case is substitution (Jenkins, 2000). That is, a substitution applied in one dialect to a specific consonant is not applied in another. Table 6 below represents the CAr letters and how each one differs among the three Arabic dialects, noting that the highlighted cells signify the difference between the CAr phoneme and its local counterpart.

Table 6: CAr letters, comparison of three dialects

Arabic letter	IPA symbol	CAr	Saudi-Hijazi	Egyptian	Tunisian
أ	/ʔ/	/ʔ/	/ʔ/	/ʔ/	/ʔ/
ب	/b/	/b/	/b/	/b/	/b/
ت	/t/	/t/	/t/	/t/	/t/
ث	/Θ/	/Θ/	/t/,/s/	/t/,/s/	/Θ/
ج	/dʒ/	/dʒ/	/ʒ/	/ʒ/	/ʒ/
ح	/ħ/	/ħ/	/ħ/	/ħ/	/ħ/
خ	/χ/	/χ/	/χ/	/χ/	/χ/
د	/d/	/d/	/d/	/d/	/d/
ذ	/ð/	/ð/	/d/, /z/	/d/, /z/	/ð/
ر	/r/	/r/	/r/	/r/	/r/
ز	/z/	/z/	/z/	/z/	/z/
س	/s/	/s/	/s/	/s/	/s/
ش	/ʃ/	/ʃ/	/ʃ/	/ʃ/	/ʃ/
ص	/S/	/S/	/S/	/S/	/S/
ض	/D/	/D/	/D/	/D/	/D/
ط	/T/	/T/	/T/	/T/	/T/
ظ	/ð̟/	/ð̟/	/z/	/z/	/ð̟/
ع	/ʕ/	/ʕ/	/ʕ/	/ʕ/	/ʕ/
غ	/ɣ/	/ɣ/	/ɣ/	/ɣ/	/ɣ/
ف	/f/	/f/	/f/	/f/	/f/
ق	/q/	/q/	/g/	/ʔ/	/q/
ك	/k/	/k/	/k/	/k/	/k/
ل	/l/	/l/	/l/	/l/	/l/
م	/m/	/m/	/m/	/m/	/m/
ن	/n/	/n/	/n/	/n/	/n/
هـ	/h/	/h/	/h/	/h/	/h/
و	/w/	/w/	/w/	/w/	/w/

Arabic letter	IPA symbol	CAr	Saudi-Hijazi	Egyptian	Tunisian
ي	/y/	/y/	/y/	/y/	/y/

From the above table, it could be concluded that there are five phonemes that pronounced differently among the three dialects; /dʒ, Θ, ð, ð̲, q/. It is worth mentioning that as this study is concerned only with the influence of the teachers' dialects on the production of some consonants which exist in the two forms, (1) CAr and English or (2) local dialects and English, thus the sound /ð̲/, voiced velarised inter dental fricative, is ignored as it does not exist in English. Therefore, the following table, Table 7, exhibits only these controversial consonants, with specific Arabic words containing those consonantal sounds as examples. Although vowels are considered as a rich area to study between English and Arabic, they are not part of the scope of the present study.

Table 7: Sounds that exist in CAr and dialects

CAr	CAr e.g., translation	Hijazi-Saudi	Egyptian	Tunisian	Phonological substitution
/dʒ/	/masdʒɪd/, mosque	[masʒ̲ɪd], [maʒ̲ɪd] for shortening	[masgɪd]	[masʒ̲ɪd]	/dʒ/= [ʒ], [g]
/Θ/	/kaΘiir/, a lot	[katiir], [kasiir]	[kɪtiir]	[kΘ̲iir]	/Θ/= [t], [s], [Θ]
/ð/	/haða/, this	[hada], [haza]	[hað̲a], [də] for shortening	[hæða]	/ð/= [d], [z], [ð]
/q/	/qaalat/, she said	[g̲ælat]	[ʔ̲ælɪt]	[qaalat]	/q/= [q], [ʔ], [g]

From above, it is illustrated that the four CAr consonants, /dʒ/, /Θ/, /ð/ and /q/ transpire differently among the three dialects. As-Sammer (2010) argues that /dʒ/ pronunciation ranges between /dʒ, g, ʒ, j/ in all Arabic dialects. However, in the above example, it is pronounced as [ʒ] in Saudi and Tunisian dialects while it is replaced by [g] in Egyptian dialect. It is worth noticing that /ʒ/ and /dʒ/ in Saudi dialect differ in their classification as typically being of an urban/sedentary or rural/Bedouin variety (Eid, 2006).

Another example is presented in pronouncing the sound /Θ/ in the word /kaΘiir/ means 'a lot'. This voiceless inter-dental fricative is replaced by [t] and [s] in Saudi-Hijazi dialect, only [t] in Egyptian and it pronounced as is in Tunisian dialect. In the word /haða/ means 'this', the sound

/ð/ is replaced by[d] and [z] in Saudi-Hijazi dialect, only [d] in Egyptian and it pronounced as is in Tunisian dialect. The last example of this table illustrates how the /q/ sound is presented differently in the three dialects. This voiceless uvular stop consonant is replaced by velar stop [g] in Saudi, glottal stop [ʔ] in Egyptian and remains as is in Tunisian.

Despite prior evidence, there are some English sounds that do not exist in CAr and do in local dialects; namely /ʒ/,/tʃ/ and /ŋ/ . For instance, the voiced alveo-palatal fricative/ʒ/ is pronounced in all the three dialect as a substitution of the voiced affricate /dʒ/, as the example of /masdʒɪd/ above. The two other sounds /tʃ/and /ŋ/ do exist in local dialects but as result of a phonological assimilation. For instance, the nasal sound/ŋ/ exists as a result of the Nasal Place Assimilation, when the nasal sound is followed by a velar consonant (Youssef, 2013). The alveolar nasal /n/ in the verb /ʔɪn.katab/ (has been. written) changes to velar nasal /ŋ/ because of the following velar stop /k/ [ʔɪŋ.katab]. Bauman-Weangler (2009) considers [n] and [ŋ] as allophones of the same phoneme /n/. Another example illustrates the presence of the sound /tʃ/ in Arabic is shown in the verb [mɪt.ʃæl] as a result of merging the dental stop /t/ with the palatal alveolar fricative /ʃ/, [mitʃæl] (Youssef, 2013; Abu-Salim, 1987). Watson (2002) in his study of Arabic phonology and morphology asserts that /tʃ/ sound exists in some Arabic dialects as the Cairene dialect but speakers of such dialects treat this sound as two phonemes by breaking it with epenthetic vowel, i.e. inserting a vowel between the /t/ and /ʃ/ within a word. Another incidence for /tʃ/ is presented in most of the Arabian Gulf dialects as it is considered as an allophone for the velar stop /k/, the word /samak/ (fish) is pronounced as [samatʃ] (Holes, 1984). But these cases are not under the scope of this study and thus will not be counted as independent phonemes.

In light of signifying the role that dialect background plays in the variable realization of English consonant pronunciation, this section has pointed the different phonemic features in the three dialects. The following section, 2.4, elaborates on a range of different factors of foreign languages pronunciation which entail to define the rationale behind the selection of sounds under investigation.

2.4 Possible L2 Pronunciation Influences

Recent developments in the field of ELT have led to a renewed interest in exploring the factors that may play a role in the learners' L2 pronunciation. Most of these factors are overlapped and the presence of one may/may not affect the other. Trofimovich (2011) contends that L2 phonological learning, specifically, is shaped by variables such as training, input, cognitive processing and the social context of learning.

As we will see later in the current section, L2 variants seem not to be directed by L1-L2 transfer only. Various factors can affect the pronunciation of learners of a second or foreign language, and these are empirically supported by several studies such as AOL, age of leaning, or LOL, length of learning and exposure to target language (Table 8).

Table 8: Examples of supporting studies for major factors that affect pronunciation

Factor	Supporting studies (of significant effect)
Mother tongue influence /L1 transfer	Cook (1992), Major (2001), Barros (2003)
Age at first exposure /Length of exposure	Piper and Cansin (1988), Thompson (1991), Piske et al. (2001), Shively and Cohen (2008), Gilakjani (2012)
Pronunciation of teacher	Ramirez-Verdugo (2006), Moussu (2010)
Exposure to accented teachers	Moussu (2010), (Leikin et al., 2009)
English use outside class /Exposure to target language /Experience (abroad)	Piske et al. (2001), Lafford (2006), Moyer (2007), Shively and Cohen (2008), Gilakjani (2012)
Attitude towards English /Motivation	Suter (1976), Sparks and Glachow (1991), Elliot (1995), Bernaus et al., (2004), Gatbonton et al. (2005), Moyer (2007), Tanner (2012), Gilakjani (2012)
English language orthography	Bowen (2011), Al-Mehmadi (2013), Moosa (1979)
Curriculum (integration)	Gilakjani (2012)
Extent of instruction /Focused instruction	Graeme (2006), Ramirez-Verdugo (2006), Shively and Cohen (2008), Rose (2010), Tanner (2012)
Cultural sensitivity	Tanner (2012)

Factor	Supporting studies (of significant effect)
Style variation	Diaz-Campos (2006), Shively and Cohen (2008)
Knowledge of grammar	Gahl and Garnsey (2004), Tily, Gahl, Arnon, Snider, Kothari, and Bresnan (2009)

An examination of the literature by Piske, MacKay, and Flege (2001) found that the most significant of these are the age at which L2 learning begins and the amount of continued L1 use. Several other factors such as gender, length of residence, self-estimated L1 ability etc. were also identified in the review, but the foreign accent experiment carried out in Piske et al.'s study found some of them to have no significant independent effects on the overall pronunciation accuracy of L2. In addition, other known factors mentioned in the review that were not tested were formal instruction, motivation and learning aptitude. Notably, the context of this study was confined to Italian learners of English in Canada.

Gilakjani's (2012) study also attempted to identify the range of factors that affect the learning of a specifically English pronunciation, and he found that attitude, motivation, instruction, exposure to the target language and the integration of English pronunciation in the curriculum were key. Other studies have found support for factors such as extent of instruction (Rose, 2010; Tanner, 2012), motivation (Gatbonton et al., 2005), cultural sensitivity (Tanner, 2012), style variation (Diaz-Campos, 2006; Shively and Cohen, 2008), L1 transfer (Major, 2001), knowledge of grammar (Gahl and Garnsey, 2004) and experience abroad (Lafford, 2006).

Knowledge of grammar referred to above is in terms of the probabilistic tendencies of syntactic structures (Gahl and Garnsey, 2004). Consequently, "when speakers choose a less probable construction, they are more likely to be disfluent, and their fluent words are likely to have a relatively longer duration" (Tily, et. al., 2009: 1). In the aforementioned study by Tanner (2012), the strongest factors found to affect pronunciation were level of instruction and motivational intensity. Accuracy of pronunciation was evaluated by scoring, by a panel of native speakers tasked with rating a one minute segment of recording of the learner using a 100-point scale, the same method as adopted, for example, by Derwing et al. (2004). The participants were 102 adult Spanish learners, both with and without extensive experience abroad. The relationships of the dependent variables being tested are examined using multiple regression analysis.

In this literature review, some factors are selected for in-depth examination by providing major works in the area of L2 learners' pronunciation challenges. Due to the context constrain, the following reasons provide the rationale of this selection. First, EFL teachers and their students

come from different L1 backgrounds and share one target language, so (1)the influence of mother tongue, (2)language orthography and (3)the teacher's pronunciation are investigated. Second, since all Saudi freshman students participated in this research have learned English in later age, (4)age of study and length of learning are also examined. Third, because of the limited exposure and use of English in an expanding circle- country, as Saudi Arabia, (5) use of English outside classrooms and (6) exposure to accented teachers are reviewed. Lastly, referring to the student's quote, " Do you want a teacher, who says /zɪs ɪs e bu:k/, teaches me?", see 1.3, this literature review highlight the social oriented factors that may outline the students' pronunciation as, (7)students' attitude and perception towards native and non-native teachers of English. These influences are classified into linguistic oriented influences and social oriented influences. The linguistic influences are those related to language production and all factors that may affect it, such as L1 influence, and exposure to target language. However, the social oriented influences are the ones shaped by the sociolinguistic influences as students' attitude and perceptions.

2.4.1 Linguistic Oriented Influences

This section focuses on linguistic factors that may affect the pronunciation of L2 language learners. The factors examined are L1-L2 interference, language orthography, teacher's pronunciation, age of learning, exposure to L2, potential difficulties in pronunciation due to suprasegmental and segmental differences, and problematic phonemes that tend to specifically affect Arab learners of English. It thus deals with linguistic aspects to explain how the pronunciation of students may be shaped.

In what follows, I shall concentrate on the first major cause of deviations made by Arab learners of English, namely, the interlingual errors or interference from Arabic. Scott and Tucker (1974) suggest that interference in written English by Arab learners comes from the high variety, while interference in spoken English by learners results from the interference of colloquial Arabic. This view is logical as Arabic high variety is the type used in written forms while the low variety is the one used in spoken form.

2.4.1.1 L1 interference to L2

The phonetics and phonology of the L1 tend to bear a strong influence on the pronunciation of a L2 (Odlin, 1989). Learners usually have no difficulty in reproducing the sounds used to communicate in their L1 after a certain age, but when exposed to another language, certain phonetic features in the two languages clash with each other. The sound differences often pose a difficulty to the L2 learner in reproducing the L2 sounds correctly. An intuitive phonological awareness related to the first L1 is usually well established. The presence of the L1 is therefore

present in the minds of L2 learners whether the teachers would like it to be so or not (Cook, 1992). The influence of the mother tongue is usually unavoidable, as knowledge of L1 becomes inextricably connected with knowledge of the L2. Inevitably, certain features of L1 get transferred onto the L2, which typically results in mispronunciations due to similar features not being present in L2. This kind of transfer error or feature is called phonological 'interference' (Meng et al., 2007; Al-Badawi and Salim 2014).

Divergent pronunciation of the L2 can also arise in other ways. Avery and Ehrlich (1992), for instance, identified at least three ways in which the L1 influences the pronunciation of the target language. These ways are (1) interference, (2) sound combining rules for forming words, and (3) stress patterns and intonation, are explored further under Language Orthography section 2.4.1.2. Other than these, general explanations for the difficulties in pronunciation due to differences between L1 and L2 and influences of the mother tongue have been offered in the form of the contrastive analysis hypothesis (CAH) (Lado, 1957) and the markedness differential hypothesis (MDH) (Eckman, 1977), examined above.

The influence of L1 accent was also looked at and examined by some researchers. Flege, Frieda and Nozawa (1997) assume that after the critical age of eleven L2 learners may not be able to hear some of L2 sounds due to them not being available in their L1. Thus, they suggested that L2 learners will transfer their L1's accents when they use L2 and this might be the cause of the difficulty non-native speakers of L2 have when they try to achieve a native like accent.

The influence of the Arabic accent on L2 (English) has been studied by some researchers (e.g. Crowther and Mann (1994); Flege and Port (1981); Munro (1993); Port and Mitleb (1980; cited in Cox and Palethorpe, 2006). It was found that "Arabic accented English" has some features that appear in L2 learners' accent as a result of L1 transfer to L2, including " reduced short / long vowel contrast, spectral influence from Arabic in vowel space, reduction of diphthongs and reduced cues to final stop voicing" (Cox and Palethorpe, 2006: 9). Not only L1 spoken or written forms could affect L2, both language orthography and spelling systems do influence L2 outcome, which leads to the section below.

The first of the three reasons for errors in pronunciation mentioned earlier was interference from the features learnt while acquiring the mother tongue. That is, a certain feature present in L1 but not in L2 (interference) gives one explanation for the difficulties, and the situation can also be reversed, that is, the feature is not present in L1 but is in L2. This causes learners to fail to produce or perceive certain sounds. Examples of such sounds for Arabs learning English are the /p/ and /tʃ/ sounds that are not present in standard Arabic, so words like *pin* and *chair* would tend to be pronounced as indistinguishable from *bin* and *share*. Other ways in which the influence of L1

on L2 can occur are due to the rules of combining sounds into words and stress patterns and intonation.

Differences between the two languages with respect to phonotactic constraints (i.e. sound combination rules) also cause difficulties for many learners, because the rules are typically language specific and do not necessarily apply to the other language, which may have a different rule. For example, consonant sequences in Arabic and English differ greatly. Arabic has no sequence of more than two consonant phonemes in the initial position whereas English has as many as four consonant phonemes with no vowel intervening between them. The consonant cluster in Arabic word initial syllable may be CV, CVV, or CVC (Watson, 2002). It is common in Arabic to prefix certain words with the consonant 'hamza', which is the equivalent of a glottal stop in English /ʔ/. This feature, as present in Arabic, is called prosthesis, which is "the requirement for a syllable to take an onset is met through prosthesis of the minimal consonant, a glottal stop" (Watson, 2002: 66). Thus, by applying their L1 rules on their L2, the word *school* in English, which has the initial combined sound of /sk/, would be pronounced differently according to learners' L1 dialect. Avery and Ehrlich (1992) investigated how this example is pronounced in different Arabic dialects, it is pronounced in Egyptian dialect as /siku:l/ while it is in Iraqi dialect as /ʔɪsku:l/. This also, applied to all English loan words in Arabic, for instance [ʔɪstidyo] *studio* and [bɪlastɪk] *plastic* (Watson, 2002). An exception is made here for the Maghrabi dialects in general, including Tunisian local dialect, where it is allowed to start with a consonant cluster as [qbal] means *before*, or [drb] means *hit* (Bin Farah, 2008).

The third explanation for the influence of the mother tongue on stress and intonation patterns relates to the rhythm and melody of a language. This necessitates learners to become acquainted with any differences that exist if they are to recognise and adopt the rhythm and melody of the target language. For example, the standard pronunciation of <market> would require stress on the first syllable <mar> instead of on <ket>, but it is not uncommon for Arab learners of English as a L2 and others to stress ~~on~~ the second syllable instead, often lengthening the vowel too, as it would closely match the rhythm and melody of their own L1. These three ways (interference, sound combining rules, and stress patterns and intonation) explain why foreign accents arise and why some target L2 words are mispronounced by non-native speakers.

2.4.1.2 Language Orthography

It should be noted that pronunciation skill indicates reading at first, and this requires the knowledge of L2 orthography and therefore the ability to transform this knowledge of a grapheme into a phoneme produced. Thus, language orthography could be one of the main factors of L2 challenges. The principal of "spell it as it sounds, says it as it is written" (Lukatela and

Turvey, 1980: 158) may not be at work in all types of orthographies. Mapping letters with their sounds is marked with consistency and regularity in Croatian, Spanish, Italian, Turkish and Arabic. Consequently, their spellers are able to predict a word spelling from its pronunciation and vice versa (Al-Mehmadi, 2013).

In terms of their orthography, Arabic and English with their completely different scripts are very much different, but the focus here is on the correspondence between orthography, particularly spelling and stress, and pronunciation. As explained in 2.3.2, Arabic has 28 letters, including 25 consonants and three long vowels, and is written from right to left. Each letter has its own shape depending on its position in a word (initial, medial and final), while the remaining three short vowels are represented by inflections (diacritics) above or below the letter (Moosa, 1979). Conversely, English has 26 letters including vowels, as shown in 2.3.1. Arabic has a highly consistent orthography with an almost one-to-one correspondence between spelling and pronunciation, whereas English is an example of a language at the other extreme with its highly irregular and inconsistent orthography. This feature of English is largely due to historical reasons, sound changes and foreign language influence; hence the occasional calls for spelling reforms and the need to use the IPA (International Phonetic Alphabet) to indicate pronunciation more accurately.

According to a study by Kessler (2003), spelling difficulties for learners may be reduced by understanding the environmental influences, despite the inconsistencies in sound-to-letter correspondences. Nonetheless, the orthography of English is “notoriously inconsistent and irregular” (Dziubalska-Kolaczyk and Przedlacka, 2008: 103), which makes it difficult for learners to safely guess a pronunciation from a spelling, or to infer a spelling from a pronunciation.

Bowen (2011) delivers a clear investigation regarding the Arabic orthography and how it may affect students' English spelling and pronunciation in the Gulf region. Illustrating that Arabic readers rely heavily on "phonological skills to disambiguate a word from others with the same consonantal root", 30% of the participants in the investigation fail, partially, in spelling and pronunciation. However, a confusion was clearly distinguished between b/p, s/c, sh/ch, j/g, and f/v, claiming that the second in each pair does not exist in Arabic language.

With a detailed investigation, Al-Mehmadi (2013) studied the effect of L1 Arabic on students' L2 English spelling and reading. She contends that English has 65 graphemes, ranging from single to complex. For instance, some multi-letter graphemes represent one phoneme, as 'ph' for /f/. On the contrary, "the diagraph 'ch' can be pronounces as /ʃ/ as in *chef*, /tʃ/ as in *child*, or /k/ as in *character*" (p.65). After applying an experimental study on Saudi freshman learners, the findings reveal that there is a correlation between L1 Arabic orthography and L2 spelling and

pronunciation with respect to "transfer" as a prevailing factor in L2 learning. Also, she demonstrates that students' L2 proficiency level of pronunciation and spelling is affected by the use and familiarity of the L2.

2.4.1.3 Model Pronunciation of Teachers

Foreign language learners form expectations of their interlocutors about their own linguistic behaviour, which affects their communicative and learning contexts (Ross, 1975). Ramirez-Verdugo (2006), for instance, conducted an experiment in which a group of students subjected to listening to native speaking teachers displayed prominent progress in their pronunciation. On the other hand, Purcell and Suter (1980) indicate that learners' L1, aptitude for oral mimicry, interaction with native speakers and motivation are the most important factors for L2 phonological acquisition, and more significantly, specifying the "least" influence to the teacher (cited in Jones, 2002: 285). However, Jones points out that reactions of "teachers to 'special problems' likely to be encountered by particular L1 speakers, are often simplistic and misleading, treating the production of specific sounds and sound contrasts divorced from the natural stream of speech and usually ignoring suprasegmental features of nonnative accents."

A major study of relevance to this research was conducted by Shehdah Fareh (1986) in Jordan, who investigated the phonological relationship between Jordanian teachers' dialect and the English pronunciation of students in public secondary schools in Amman. This study, which involved a sample of ten teachers and twelve students, confirmed the existence of an influence of the teachers' L1 Jordanian dialect on students' English pronunciation. Focusing on vowels, stress and intonation features, Fareh followed the Error-Analysis approach to find out the most difficult sounds, which are caused by the influence of the Jordanian dialect, that occur among teachers and subsequently among their students. In order to find out the correlation between the teacher's output influence on the students' outcome, he conducted a pre-test and a post-test for the students. The results of Fareh's study reveal that Jordanian teachers in his study had accented English and there is a positive correlation between their Arabic Jordanian accent and their students' English pronunciation as a cause of the teaching transfer.

Another notable point, as highlighted by Elliot (1995), is that teachers often regard pronunciation as the least useful of the basic language skills, and they therefore usually leave out the explicit teaching of pronunciation in order to spend what they perceive as more valuable class time on other areas of language. Or else, teachers may justify deliberately neglecting pronunciation opining that it is more difficult for adult foreign language learners than other facets of SLA for acquiring pronunciation skills. In fact, it is often the case that teachers simply do not have sufficient resources or tools to teach pronunciation properly, and therefore disregard it altogether

(Elliot, 1995, cited in Gilakjani, 2012). Furthermore, some NNETs do not concentrate on teaching pronunciation. According to Medgyes (1992), NNETs may feel insecure and unselfconfident when using the language they have to teach.

It is worth noting that teachers' instruction and their educational preparation contribute in the outcome of the students' pronunciation. In the Saudi context, Alsaedi (2012) conducted a case study to investigate the teaching methods for teaching speaking skills to female EFL students in a secondary school in Saudi Arabia. The research methods involved observations and interviews, and one of the key issues examined was that of accuracy versus fluency. Other phenomena examined were speaking functions and strategies, features of the conversations and negotiations, and use of the mother tongue in class. In addition, the study provided insight into the opinions of teachers and students on EFL learning, its value, methods used in EFL teaching/learning, and on their speaking capability.

As mentioned in 1.2, teaching English in SA is like teaching any other school subject. Teachers lack a lot of training and preparation programs that enable them for qualified EFL teaching. Al-Hazmi (2012) argues that ELF teachers in SA have graduated from Universities and colleges with only one teaching methodology course that sometimes is taught in Arabic. Also, college students spend only one semester for teaching English to intermediate or secondary students as novice teachers. In the meantime of the need for EFL teachers, MoE, Ministry of Education, have hired those novice teachers through the 'Saudization' process, see section 1.2. On the other hand, Cross (1995) highlights that putting untrained teachers into classrooms in order to meet increased demand or to expand access to schooling is often at the expense of the quality of teacher preparation and, hence, the quality of learning. Therefore, this factor is taken into consideration in the current study by investigating the teachers' backgrounds and their preparation programs by interviewing them.

2.4.1.4 Age of Learning (AOL) and Length of Residence (LOR)

The term age f learning (AOL), or age of arrival (AOA) to the country of the target language, refers to the learner's age when he starts learning/exposing L2. Flege and MacKay (2011) define AOA as “the age of participants’ first substantial contact with the L2 as it is spoken by native speakers” (p.66). A considerable amount of literature has been published on age as a major factor impacting pronunciation, supporting the CPH, see 2.2.6, but it may be noted that many of these studies are several decades old. This shows that age has long been considered as a possible determinant of the ability to learn a language generally with the common thinking that it is easier for a younger person to learn a new language than it is when they get older. In terms of that 'the earlier the

better' in acquiring a new sound system, Thompson (1991) and Piper and Cansin (1988) conclude that there is a negative relationship between age and accent or native-like pronunciation.

This thinking regarding the age factor is not universal but still persists, as some newer studies are also continuing to confirm the importance of this age factor. For instance, Shively and Cohen (2008) found the relationship between accuracy in production of the foreign language and age at first exposure to it to be significantly related. However, more recent studies have also obtained contrary results in favour of focused instruction being found to have a greater impact (Graeme, 2006; Ramirez-Verdugo, 2006). At the same time, it has also been related to other factors, examined in the subsequent subsections. At the same time, it has also been related to other factors, examined in the subsequent subsections.

According to Lenneberg (1967), there exists a critical period for learning pronunciation which occurs around the age of puberty when the conditions for language acquisition are maximum. Support for this claim was based on other researchers by Krashen and Harshman (1973) and Scovel (1969), who also found support for native-like pronunciation being easier to acquire before adulthood. Studies that have found no support for such a critical period include that of Marinova-Todd, Marshall and Snow (2000). Another research by (Asher and Price, 1967; and Olson and Samuels, 1972) found that given equal exposure to instruction in l2, older pupils achieved a significantly more accurate standard of pronunciation in the language than did younger pupils. Their general assumption focuses on that younger children learn to pronounce foreign words with a more native-like accent than older people. With the same objective, even within the children ranged from 7-14, the results reveal that the older the better (Brustall, 1975).

However, it was later shown by Flege, Yeni-Komshian and Liu (1999), when they investigated the pronunciation of 240 native speakers of Korean in the United States, that as AOA increased, the foreign accents grew stronger, and the grammaticality judgment test scores decreased steadily. In other words, it is very difficult for children to grasp difficult grammatical structures because they lack the pragmatic skills and memory to do so. Thus, adult learners may be failing in native-like pronunciation but they achieve better in other language aspects in relation to other correlating factors such as time spent studying L2, use of L2 and language instruction. Along with this, it is found by (Lim, 2003) that exposure to education and teaching instruction are important influences in L2 learning regardless of AOA. He suggests that, "More distinctive contrasts could be found between the formal (phonological or grammatical) aspects of language versus those that deal with meaning (semantic or lexical), where the former show strong changes in acquisition over age, while the latter appear to show little or no effect of age of learning" (Lim, 2003: 3).

It is logical that AOA is linier to LOR which indicates that the earlier AOA the longer of LOR. In investigation of this in L2 pronunciation, a study by Alotaibi (2013), which investigated the production of the voiced labiodental fricative /v/ among Saudi speakers of English in the US, found that the tendency to substitute it with its voiceless counterpart /f/ is attributable to the fact that /f/ is the only labiodental fricative phoneme present in Saudi-Arabic. In this aforementioned study, there were 20 participants comprised equally of both genders and aged between 20 and 35, and the data was solicited by compiling a word list. The sound being tested was present in either initial or final positions. Errors (or rather, differences) of pronunciation were compared using the t-test and a correlation analysis was conducted between age and LOR in the US and the total number of errors committed in both positions. Incidentally, younger subjects were shown to have more accurate pronunciation.

A recent study by Saito and Brajot (2013) examined LOR of 65 Japanese learners of English in pronouncing the /ɹ/ sound. They found that the learners' performance was negatively related to AOA to some degree, and longer LOR was predictive of the development of /ɹ/ pronunciation. For the pronunciation of /tʃ/ sounds among Saudi learners in USA, Alqarni (2013) studied whether Najdi Saudi speakers are able to pronounce /tʃ/ sound comparing their progress with the variable of LOR in USA. He found that there is a negative relationship between Saudi speakers' /tʃ/deviations and their LOR. From the studies mentioned, it could be concluded that what is affecting learners' pronunciation is not only the time of AOA or LOR, it is actually the 'what and how' L2 exposure include. They have investigated L2 pronunciation in the country of the target language, but what about the learners of an expanding country where the target language is considered as a foreign language? Thus, the current study contributes to find an answer for this case study context where the learners have limited exposure to L2, as EFL, and they have started learning it at the age of 12 or 13. The following subsection sheds a light on how the exposure to the target language may influence L2 pronunciation.

2.4.1.5 Exposure to the target language

Both the classroom context and formal learning contexts outside the classroom are characterised by power and solidarity relations (Mendez and Garcia, 2012). That is to say, there is a dynamic co-construction of relations according to the perceptions of the interlocutor and the learner, which can strongly determine the pronunciation capabilities of learners. This factor is therefore assumed to be related to non-formal contexts that provide learners with opportunities to use English outside the classroom, such as conversing in English in informal social contexts in an English speaking environment.

Exposure to the target language outside the classroom enables language learners to apply their language learning to their own daily life activities. This is in line with the need to receive copious amounts of comprehensible input as per language learning theories in order for them to be able to have the confidence to speak (Gilakjani, 2012). Furthermore, learners can enhance their understanding if they are able to view non-verbal elements of language as well, such as body language, facial expressions and gestures that can also convey important meanings. Such exposure can only readily be had from real experience with the language and culture.

In a study by Shively and Cohen (2008) on learners of Spanish, pronunciation accuracy was found to be related significantly not only to the use of the foreign language outside the classroom context in terms of outside contact, but also to the amount of formal instruction received, residence in a country belonging to that language, and also to the age at first exposure. Consequently, the results led to the researcher strongly recommending learners to practice speaking English outside the classroom environment. It has not escaped our notice that although this factor receives a lot of interest in the literature, it is not significant in the context of the present study as Saudi learners have little chance to practice English outside the classroom. They only could practice English in restaurants, hospitals or during the religious occasions when many pilgrimages visit the two holy mosques. However, the global vast usage of social media in SA could have a slight effect on practicing English.

2.4.1.6 Potential Difficulties due to Suprasegmental Differences

A contrastive analysis of the two languages in the context of Arab learners of English as a foreign language and the phonotactics of English by Al-Saidat and Bin Talal (2010) determined the kind of difficulties faced by the learners in English pronunciation. One of these is the tendency to insert anaptyctic vowels both in the onset and coda of certain syllables unintentionally. This was highlighted earlier with the example of ‘hamza’ used before English words beginning with double consonants, see 2.4.1.1. Their results also showed the mother tongue to be responsible for the declusterisation processes found to be present in their interlanguage. This difficulty with consonant clusters was also confirmed by Al-Shuaibi (2009) in investigating Yemeni learners of English, who noted the tendency either to reduce, substitute or delete consonants occurring in clusters. Al-Saidat and Bin Talal (2010) showed there is an influence from L1 on the L2 in terms of stress, intonation and clustering. However, this area of difficulties is not the focus of the study, which concentrates on the segmental difficulties by Saudi learners.

2.4.1.7 Potential Difficulties due to Segmental Differences

In terms of divergent pronunciations (referred to by many researchers as 'errors') committed by Arab learners of English, a study by Tushyeh (1996) identified three main types of such error at the phonological level. These were confusions between the following pairs of English phonemes: /b/ and /p/, /f/ and /v/, and /i/ and /e/. Similarly, Al-Saidat and Bin Talal (2010) also note that the difference among Arab learners may be traced to L1 Arabic variety. They consider /l/ and /d/ as a problematic sounds, and that certain pairs are confused by learners such as /ʧ/ and /ʃ/ as in 'chair' and 'share'; /v/ and /f/ as in 'vast' and 'fast'; /p/ and /b/ as in 'pin' and 'bin', and /s/ and /θ/ as in 'sin' and 'thin'.

In each of the aforementioned pairs, one of the phonemes is not present in Arabic (although they may be in different dialects). The first was mentioned earlier, along with the example mentioned of 'pin' tending to be pronounced as 'bin'. The second likewise is due to /v/ not being present in Arabic, and the third pair is of vowels, with the underlying issue of there being a shortage of vowels in Arabic as compared to English. The tendency is for Arabs to substitute the /e/ vowel, which is not present in Arabic, with the /i/ vowel, which is closest to its point of articulation from the three short vowels existent in Arabic.

Moreover, attributing the reason to the lack of these sounds in the Arabic system, Kharma and Hajjaj (1989) made a comprehensive evaluation on examining the most difficult consonants to produce among the Arab learners (i.e. /p/, /v/, /ŋ/, /Ɵ/, /ð/, /r/, /l/). Altaha (1995) also found seven major pronunciation errors in a longitudinal study. Based on Altaha's (1995) study, the pair /ʃ/ and /ʧ/ (as in 'ship' and 'chip') can also be added to the above list. This study also highlighted difficulties with consonant clusters and consonant doubling. Difficulties with the aforementioned consonantal pairs were collectively investigated and confirmed by Kharma and Hajjaj (1989), with the addition of the pair /s/ and /θ/, even though both sounds do exist in standard Arabic. They also confirmed the difficulties with consonant clusters, leading to the tendency to insert short vowels to break long clusters, not only in the initial position, but also in between. An example was /sɪprɪŋ/ for 'spring' and /ɑ:skɪd/ for 'asked'. The investigation also included vowels in which difficulties were identified with certain pairs of single vowels and with diphthongs. In addition to the pair /ɪ/ and /e/ in the above list, the study found evidence for the following substitutions as well: /ʌ/ and /ɒ/, and /əʊ/ and /ɔ:/. And, for diphthongs, the tendencies to substitute are /eə/ by /eɪ/, /ʊə/ by /u:/, /ɪə/ by /ɪ:/, and /əʊ/ by /ɔ:/. In another study by Al-Badawi and Salim (2014), it was also found that the vowel phonemes /ɔ/ and /ʊ/ are usually substituted by the schwa /ə/ phoneme.

Other studies have found supporting empirical evidence for more common errors. For instance, in terms of consonants specifically, Barros (2003) identified the following eight as being problematic for Arabic speakers while investigating the influence of L1 on the acquisition of pronunciation of L2: /ŋ/, /p/, /v/, /d/, /l/, /ʤ/, /ð/, and /r/. The Arabic speakers in this study were from different Arabic countries, including those with colloquial backgrounds, and with at least four years of exposure to English, so the identifications are representative of Arabic speakers in general and who have been exposed to English for at least a few years. After studying 'errors' made by Saudi learners of English, Ahmad (2011) made the following two observations:

- /ʒ/ as in ‘leisure’ is often mispronounced by most Saudi learners;
- /t/ is pronounced interdentally. i.e. laminal denti-alveolar [t̪] such as the Spanish /t/ in the word *tango* /t̪ãŋgo/.

It should be noted here that this interdental phoneme is only occasionally pronounced in Arabic when the speakers are influenced by other languages, such as Lebanese speakers. However, for Saudi speakers, this finding may be generalised as the sample was very small with only eight participants and individual differences may be applied.

2.4.1.8 Most Challenging Phonemes

According to Binturki (2008), the greatest difficulty for Arab learners of English is experienced with /v/, but word position also makes a difference, as difficulties are more common when the sounds (/p/, /v/ and /r/) occur in the final position compared to the initial position. Al-Badawi and Salim (2014) also found that Saudi learners greatly mispronounce the consonants /p/ and /v/ because of the lack of those sounds in the Arabic phonemic system. For the same reason, the sound /ŋ/ which does not occur in Arabic is usually substituted by /n/ or /m/ (Al-Badawi and Salim 2014). Barros (2003) studied the difficulties among Arab speakers coming from different Arabic colloquial backgrounds and noted that the most problematic sounds for them are the eight English consonants /ŋ/, /p/, /v/, /d/, /l/, /ʤ/, /ð/, and /r/ as mentioned above. The author also finds that L1 interference seems to be the major factor contributing to pronunciation problems that might differentiate one Arabic speaker from another, depending on the colloquial variety of Arabic they use.

It is worth noting out that most of these studies which concentrate on the Arab learners' pronunciation difficulties are relying on the contrast between MSA and English language. However, it is not the case of this research that aims to contrast between "daily spoken" Arabic dialects with daily spoken English. The rationale behind that is that MSA is not a daily spoken language in comparison with English. Thus, some sounds do not exist in MSA while they do in a specific dialect. For instance, phonetically, the sound /ʒ/ does not exist in MSA system while it

does in the three selected dialects. Morphologically, phoneme /tʃ/ does not technically exist in Arabic, i.e. it is not represented by any grapheme. Nevertheless, this sound is often produced in all Arabic varieties as a compound morpheme resulting from a phonological assimilation when /t/ precedes /ʃ/. For example, /ʃuf/ in MSA means 'see'. Morphologically, a prefix /t/ is added to indicate the present tense of the verb. For instance, /t-ʃuf/.

Moving to another point, this discussion leads to discover the types of learners' deviations. According to Jenkins (2000), language learners' segmental deviations are categorized into; (1)sound substitution (/b/ for /p/) and conflation (/s/ for /s/ and /ϴ/, (2)consonant deletion (elision)(deleting the /r/ in *price* by Taiwanese speakers), and (3)addition (insertion) (inserting /ɪ/ in *floor* /fɪlor/ by Egyptian speakers for declustring the non-existed dual consonants cluster). It is illustrated by Tushyeh (1996) that some of the pronunciation problems may be attributed to the learners' misconception that English consonant sounds have equivalents in Arabic. This misconception leads them to substitute the assumed similar Arabic consonant sounds for English ones.

"A language test can either be subjective with the examiner's judgment and opinion dominating the scoring, or objective, but it is not a test for language achievement" (Alabbasi, 2007:15). In order to evaluate the learners' speech production, there are two techniques; read-aloud (a word-list or a selected passage) and spontaneous speech. Since learners' English proficiency level restricts this choice, the former is widely used in many studies as most of EFL learners are beginners, see 3.5.2.1.2., such studies are Fareh (1986), Binturki (2008), Altaha (1995), Alqarni (2013), Ahmad (2011), Cook (2013), Hyde-simon (2012), Singer (2006). The second type of reading aloud is listen and repeat or 'Rapid Shadowing Task', where the learners repeat some tokens after listening to a model pronunciation. This technique was used by Rojczyk (2012), who joined between the two types of reading aloud and comparing the score of 22 Polish learners of English produced tokens containing English low-front vowel /æ/, which is not exist in Polish vowel inventory. The results reveal that learners approximate to native like pronunciation when they are evaluated by Rapid Shadowing test. The other technique is by evaluating the learners' pronunciation ability through spontaneous scored interview. This kind of pronunciation test requires a minimum level of proficiency in order to achieve free conversation. Singer (2006) studies the factors that may affect the segmental and suprasegmental features of Somali students' pronunciation in the university level. With a few number of participants (n=5), Singer combined 'Reading-aloud' and 'Free conversation' with their attitude towards pronunciation. He concluded that daily exposure to English and time spending learning it play as major factors in L2 learning. Unlike his study, the current research is conducted in Saudi Arabia, an expanding-circle country, where the learners have little exposure to L2. Also, the teachers in Singer's study were all

natives while they are NNEST in this research. Moreover, the students' English level was higher than that of the students' in this study. Thus, from the above review, the following table, Table 9, summarises the most challenging sounds that faced by Arab learners.

Table 9: English consonants that cause difficulties for Arab learners of English

No.	The consonant	is confused with or substituted by...
1	/ʤ/ as in *jar*	/g/, /ʒ/
2	/g/ as in *gas*	/ʤ/, /ʒ/
3	/ʒ/ as in *garage*	/ʤ/ , /g/
4	/θ/ as in *thin*	/t/ ,/s/
5	/ð/ as in *this*	/d/, /z/
6	RP /ɹ/, /a:/ as in *ring and jar*	Arabic- trilled /r/
7	/p/ as in *pin*	/b/
8	/ʧ/ as in *chip*	/ʃ/
9	/v/ as in *van*	/f/
10	/ŋ/ as in *singer*	/n/

In the above table, sounds numbered 1-5 are considered to be varied among the three selected Arabic dialects, see 2.3.5.2.

The knowledge of the most challenging sounds in language learning highlights the need to understand underlying phonological processes applied by L2 learners. Many speakers tend to use these processes in which they may be explained as muscle coordination within the vocal mechanism. Others may be due to perceptual strategies that enhance effective communication (Roach, 2009). These processes include assimilation, dissimilation, deletion (elision), and insertion (epenthesis). Although this area is not under the scope of the current research, it helps in explaining L2 learners' deviations and, hence, in predicting the possible reasons behind their pronunciation.

Based on studies mentioned in sections 2.4.1.7and 2.4.1.8, the sounds numbered 6-10 are sounds that are problematic among Arab learners. Therefore, starting with a comparison between English and Arabic languages in order to illustrate the difference in the phonetic system, moving to describe Diglossia and how this phenomenon creates the local varieties of Arabic which are teachers' L1, and lastly ending with highlighting the controversial consonants that may affect the teachers' pronunciation, section 2.3 with this section 2.4.1.8 builds an information regarding the

rationale behind selecting the ten sounds to be under investigation of the current study, aiming to examine how L1 of the teachers could affect their students' L2, linking this to students' attitude towards their English accents.

2.4.2 Social Oriented Influences

This section focuses on linguistic and social factors in relation to students' pronunciation. The teaching or pedagogical aspects are not under the focus of this study although they may play a role in this phenomenon. This section covers the additional factors that were identified earlier as major factors that can affect students' pronunciation in the previous section. These factors are student attitude, and the perceived credibility and competence of teachers. Furthermore, it covers the issue of having native or non-native English teachers, teacher preferences of students, and studies that have previously been conducted on this field specifically on Arab learners of English in SA. In short, this section examines those studies that deal with sociolinguistic aspects to explain how the pronunciation of students is shaped, and to understand what the possible reasons could be for learners committing errors in pronunciation, i.e. make divergent pronunciations. The aim of this review is to examine the role of the teacher, particularly his or her L1 dialect, in the development of these learners' pronunciation abilities, which is the central focus of this study to particularly inform understanding on the sociolinguistic research questions (attitude) based on previously conducted research.

2.4.2.1 Students' Attitude

2.4.2.1.1 Kinds of attitude

Attitude was defined by Eagly and Chaiken (1993:1) as “a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favour or disfavour” where evaluating refers to “all classes of evaluative responding, whether overt or covert, cognitive, affective or behavioural”. Garrett (2010) then introduced the idea of attitude having a quality of intensity or extent of positive/negative feelings towards the attitude subject, and McKenzie (2010) described this as determining judgement and behaviour, hence the importance of measuring this intensity. For the specific form of learner attitude, Friedrich (2000) regarded it as an encompassing feelings and expectations as well as prejudices and stereotypes.

Studying learner attitudes in the context of language learning is important because, as some studies have found, a conducive positive attitude can have a positive effect on language proficiency (Ellis, 1997). Conversely, a negative attitude towards speakers for instance, impedes the development of intelligibility in communication (Rajadurai, 2007). Furthermore, it also helps

to explain changes in the sociolinguistic spectrum (Garrett, 2010), to understand sociolinguistic parameters (Friedrich, 2000), to adopt a suitable linguistic model for pedagogical purposes (McKenzie, 2010), and to help EFL curriculum designers in implementing their teaching programmes (At-Tamimi and Shuib, 2009). The following section presents some studies on students' attitude towards their teachers' pronunciation, English varieties, preferences to natives/non-natives and precieved credibility and competence of teachers.

2.4.2.1.2 Student Attitude towards Teachers' Pronunciation

Having a positive attitude towards the culture of the target language has been shown in some recent studies, such as those by Tanner (2012) and Martinsen and Alvord (2012), to affect the acquisition of pronunciation. According to Eagly and Chaiken (1993), the attitude of an individual can be defined as their psychological tendency towards a positive or negative view on a particular entity. Krosnick et al. (2005), on the other hand, argue that attitude can be considered as the predisposition that an individual has towards a subject or an object with an avoidance or an approach perspective. The aim of this section of the review is to highlight the attitudes of students towards their teachers' pronunciation of English and to identify how such an attitude positively (or negatively) impacts their own learning process. As argued by Alford and Strother (1990), there is considerable evaluation made by learners of a language towards differences in phonetics and their perception of linguistic superiority or inferiority. Such an attitude stems from the personal experiences of the individual, their knowledge of the language and, more importantly, their expectations from the teacher.

Cargile, Giles, Ryan, and Bradac (1994) indicate that the attitude of an individual can be regarded as a system which identifies their core beliefs towards a particular group and can have an impact on multiple factors including behavioural intent, cognition and affective perception. Such perceptions ultimately impact the belief and the emotional response of an individual and they are not necessarily separable. Bohner and Wänke (2002) discriminate between the three kinds of attitude: cognitive, affective, and behavioural. Furthermore, Albarracin et al. (2005) contend that such an attitude of the student can be overt or covert and does not function independently. Attitude interacts with the knowledge and memory of the student to create a perspective which is often transient in nature and does not influence the permanent memory of the individual; Furthermore, Fabrigar et al. (2005) also argue that the attitude of an individual is often influenced by their memories and that their attitude is often a transient expression of these memories which could be triggered by specific events. Therefore, the attitude of an individual at one point of time is not permanent and, more importantly, does not represent the complete knowledge of the individual towards the event. Krosnick et al. (2005) present an excellent argument with regard to

the transient nature of an individual's attitude. The authors indicate that there are no clear empirical evidences which support the ability of individuals to report similar attitude towards an object when questioned on multiple occasions. In light of this view, the current research contends that the measurement of student attitude towards teacher's pronunciation should be considered from multiple perspectives. This will help improve the validity of the findings and ensure that a complex construct such as attitude is well represented.

The research contends that students who learn English may have different perspectives which impact their attitude towards their teacher's teaching and pronunciation skills. Fabrigar et al. (2005) argue that the role of attitude is to help in the facilitation of clear management and simplification of information processing, which provides a scheme to integrate existing and new data. Awan (2014) further argues that many students have a pre-formed attitude towards their teachers, as they believe that the pronunciation and language skills of a non-native English speaker will not provide them with the required proficiency. Finally, Moussu and Llurda (2008) indicate that the attitude of an individual towards objects can be reflected in terms of the standards that they hold for themselves, which ultimately impacts their standards for others. Such a perspective can be linked to the current research, where many students believe that the standards of English phonetic and literacy skills cannot be achieved unless they are taught by experts (Kamhi-Stein, 1999). Furthermore, as Jin (2005) contends, some students consider the accent and pronunciation of non-native English teachers a hindrance to their learning and their skills development.

Attitude has been measured, using the Pronunciation Attitude Inventory (PAI) instrument, by Elliot (1995), involving students learning Spanish as a foreign language. In this study, attitude toward acquiring native or near-native pronunciation was found to be the principal variable relating to pronunciation in the target language. That is, better pronunciation of the target allophones was found to be more common in those students that exhibited greater concern about their pronunciation of the target language. Earlier, Suter (1976) reached similar findings, in that those ESL students who were 'more concerned' regarding the accuracy of their pronunciation had better pronunciation of English.

The factor of attitude is closely associated with the process of acculturation, and Schumann (1986) investigated the role of this in language learning. Acculturation was understood to be a learner's openness to a target culture and the desire to be socially integrated into it. It is seen as a socio-psychological contract between members of a group and members of the target culture, and the greater the interaction between the two groups, the more likely it is that opportunities will arise for acquiring and conversing in English. Schumann understood this as including the

aspect of pronunciation. In spite of investigating the link between intelligibility and learners' attitude, the results of a study conducted by Schüppert, Haug Hilton and Gooskens (under SPSS) reveal that "the correlation between these two variables are very low, indicating that other factors need to be taken into account" (2015: 214). Another aspect related to attitude is the learner's personality. Sparks and Glachow (1991) observed that students with the motivation to learn have positive attitudes towards the language being learnt and are consequently more successful as learners compared to those with less positive attitudes. Motivation itself has also been examined as a factor affecting pronunciation by many researchers (Moyer, 2007; Gatbonton et al., 2005; Bernaus et al., 2004). In Moyer's (2007) study, experience with a positive orientation towards the language being learnt were both found to be important factors affecting pronunciation ability.

2.4.2.1.3 Student Attitude towards English Varieties

As discussed earlier in section 1.2, ELF carries the prospective of the unimportance of native-like pronunciation. It is argued by Kuo (2006) that "the degree of phonological and grammatical inaccuracy can be tolerated in real world communication but a description of such language exchange does not constitute an appropriate model of language purposes. Thus, it is suggested to consider native-speaker models as a point of reference. On the other hand, this model of pronunciation is the "desired" form by the learners. In studies on attitudes towards different varieties of the English language, it is apparent that higher evaluations are received for native varieties relative to non-native varieties (Fraser, 2006; Zhang, 2009; Jenkins, 2009b). In studies on Taiwanese speakers for instance, such as by Wong (2011), Liou (2010) and Kobayashi (2008), native varieties were preferred over non-native varieties, which in this case were Filipino, Mandarin accented and Indian English, in spite of the fact that non-native varieties are becoming more prevalent in Taiwan. The same pattern of preference has been found for Taiwanese EFL speakers with respect to their English speaking teachers (Chien, 2014; Cheng, 2009; Wu and Ke, 2009). The greater preference was for North American English, and in the study by Cheng (2009), it was found that it was for the goal of adopting its accent. Similarly, a study on Korean primary school children showed a more positive attitude towards the US accent over their own Korean accented English even though it was also established that their comprehension was unaffected by the two accents (Butler, 2007).

Buckingham (2014) investigated the attitudes of EFL Omani learners towards their English teachers' accents. Using an adapted matched-guise technique with a sample of 350 learners, the results revealed the greatest preference for teachers with a UK accent. In fact, the vast majority of them aspired to acquire the pronunciation of a NEST, and an even higher proportion believed that

having a native speaking teacher was necessary for improving pronunciation. The main objectives of the research however, was to ascertain the extent to which knowing the teacher's status influenced the student's level of confidence when listening to them. In this regard, no significant difference was found.

The reasons for the negative perception of non-native English are worth examining. Pihko (1997: 51) found that language learners even see non-native speech as “unsophisticated, ugly or irritating” according to one extreme view. Another study found that learners tend to become disheartened as a result of setting unattainable targets for themselves for achieving native-like pronunciation (Derwing and Munro, 2005). Moreover, Jenkins (2000) suggests even EFL teachers are partly to blame for this negative attitude.

For most learners, then, a more appropriate and reasonable goal is to achieve an English pronunciation which is usually understandable in international communication, but retains some (or possibly most) of the non-English accent features (Hewings, 2004; cited in Zoghbor, 2010).

2.4.2.1.4 Preference for Native Teachers

According to the Kachruvian model (Kachru, 1997), EFL speakers' preference for Inner Circle (IC) varieties of English exists because of their own presence within the Expanding Circle (EC), as this makes them 'norm-dependent'. Smith (2012: 228) also supported this view when he stated, “English has been seen as having a different status from that in the inner and outer circles: learnt primarily as foreign language; and non-dependent, looking towards the inner circle for its linguistic models.” The Kachruvian model has been criticised by Jenkins (2009b) among others for being too simplistic although it does satisfactorily explain the preferences in question.

Many studies that have found a greater preference among learners or students for native teachers have shown that this preference is only as far as teaching pronunciation is concerned, and not for aspects such as grammar. Examples of such studies are Hertel and Sunderman (2009) and Buckingham (2014). Another cross-national study on the views of EFL learners towards native and non-native speaking teachers involved 108 EFL students at a UAE university and 6 EFL professionals from Egypt, China and the USA (Barlow, 2009). In this study, it was found that most of the students considered native English speakers easier to understand, and therefore preferred them for learning pronunciation. Generally, NNET's were preferred for work involving translating vocabulary and complex ideas into Arabic. Similar findings of native speakers being preferred because they are easier to understand have been reported by Bent and Bradlow (2003). "Teachers’ native languages also strongly influenced students’ attitudes towards their teachers. Analysis of this variable showed that being a native speaker of English did not automatically

ensure students' approval. Likewise, attitudes towards NNESTs were significantly different depending on teachers' countries of origin" (Moussu, 2010: 117). Recently, Ahn (2010) conducted a study on how the students' preference could affect their learning achievement. After examining the students' preferences towards, native, European accented instruction and Asian ones, the results show that the preference towards European accented is higher than the Asian teachers. Also, another important finding illustrates that students' perception toward accent did not influence their learning.

2.4.2.1.5 Preference for Non-Native Teachers

Studies with contrary findings, such as Field (2008) and Munro and Derwing (1998), have found a preference for non-native speaking teachers, even for learning pronunciation. They suggest that this is due to non-natives having features in their pronunciation similar to what the learners are themselves used to. The latter study also indicated that it is due to NNET's tending to speak more slowly, and it is this feature of speaking that makes the English understood more easily. In a separate study by Ballard (2013), it was found that students value NNET's over NET's. In fact, they expressed "warm feelings" for the former, and did not have the same feelings for the native teachers. This is especially true for young children because they respond preferentially to speakers having the same language and accent (Kinzler et al., 2011). Similar findings were found by a study conducted in Palestine by Leikin, Ibrahim, Eviatar and Sapir (2009). In three different L1 groups of 60 Hebrew learners (Hebrew, Arabic and Russian), the results reveals that adult L2 learners often use assimilation process when they perceive and produce L2 sounds via their L1 phonological system and each group performed better when they are instructed by their own L1-accented Hebrew " (2009). In other words, Arabic speakers' L2 speech perception and production ability enhanced when they are instructed by Arabic-accented Hebrew teachers other than Russian-accented Hebrew teachers. Regardless of the teachers' accentedness, which is defined as "the degree of the speaker accent" (Major, 2001: 177), it is argued by Gilakjani, (2012) that the ability to pronounce new vocabulary correctly and teacher's understandablility are two of the main characteristics of good English teacher than being a native speaker. This is supported by Munro and Derwing study (1998) which reveal that "Heavily-accented" speech does not necessarily correspond to unintelligible speech, and it is possibly the 'type' more than the 'number' of learner's mistakes that affects L2 speech intelligibility. These studies also show that different contexts and variables could influence students' attitudes towards NS and NNS teachers.

2.4.2.1.6 Perceived Credibility of Teachers

According to researchers (Ling and Braine, 2007), there is empirical evidence which identifies student perception of some accents as being more clear, acceptable or correct when compared to

others. This is a key factor which differentiates native and non-native English teachers. As Cargile et al. (1994) argue, attitude is a social construct; however, attitude can also manifest as individuated information wherein an individual's life history and motivation helps to contribute to their formation of attitude. For instance, Chiba et al. (1995) contend that some international students who are exposed to more native English pronunciation have a positive attitude towards it and expect the teachers to have similar skills. They believe that the credibility of the teacher's knowledge is linked to their ability to mirror native speakers' accent and pronunciation. In light of this view, the current research contends that student attitude formation can be linked to their perception of credibility regarding the teacher's pronunciation.

Since the 1960s (Lambert et al., 1965), where a matched guise technique was adopted to examine the role of pronunciation and accent in shaping societal views, researchers have examined judgement and attitude formation towards non-native speakers. However, most of the early research focused on native speaker attitude towards non-native speakers. As Balogh (2007) contends, the pronunciation and accent of individuals are often related to specific behaviours or traits. Some empirical evidence which examines such credibility perception amongst non-native speakers is discussed in this section.

Adophs (2005) conducted a longitudinal study where the aim was to understand the attitude of language learners towards native English speakers in light of their exposure to such individuals. The research employed a multi-country representative sample by interviewing international students who were studying in a UK university. The author identified some key evidences which support the role of perceived credibility. The author concluded that language learners initially have a simplistic view of native speakers and consider the English of all native speakers to be excellent. However, with time, such a view becomes fragmented. The author contends that the greater the exposure that the learner has to native-speakers of English, the more change there is in the assessment of the learner's attitude towards learning the language. Initially, most learners want to learn English to assimilate in the society and thereby consider native speakers to be ideal teachers as they believe that these teachers can provide them with more credibility to live in the country. Therefore, the initial attitude of the students was driven by the need to assimilate within the country so that they could communicate with the host country nationals. However, with time, the view of many learners changed. They soon developed learning goals where the aim became to learn English as a language. This resulted in a differentiation in their perception of English pronunciation and accents amongst the natives. The learners soon became critical of the usefulness of learning English by differentiating the role of variety. The learners developed an ideal model of English speakers and considered them as Standard English speakers or BBC English speakers, and differentiated such speakers from many native speakers that they encountered in

everyday life. Jenkins (2011) reflects on the views of Adophs and argues that there is a shift in attitude of the language learner towards native English speakers. Clearly, the learners shifted their focus from assimilation with the society to language learning skills in an international context. A key conclusion of this research is that students considered the credibility of native speakers and shifted their view from wanting to speak like all natives to speaking like ideal English speakers and developing 'BBC' standards of English speaking skills.

Another study which examines the credibility of the English teacher is the research by Butler (2007). The author considered the student attitude towards teachers with American accented English and compared the same with teachers who had Korean accented English. The authors identified considerable differences between student attitudes towards the two groups of teachers. Greater credibility was bestowed on teachers who had American accented English, as students felt that there was correctness of pronunciation, confidence in English use and fluency and accuracy. However, no significant difference was observed with regard to general teaching strategies. The students considered the qualifications and general teacher strategies of the two teacher groups to be on a par. However, they considered that some qualities of American accented English were more desirable, as it enhanced their credibility and knowledge of the language.

The above views can be linked to the views of Medgyes (1992), who argue that the examination of variables which impact perceptions of native and non-native speakers is linked to perceived competence and credibility. The authors argue that the differences between native and non-native speakers are marginal and sometimes non-existent when it comes to professional competence. However, as Faez et. al (2011) contends, it's the natural competence which results in differentiation in attitude. The authors indicate that the perceived credibility that is automatically presented to a native speaker of English has resulted in the attitude that such teachers would be more effective in the classroom.

According to Sammy and Bruff-Griffler (1999), an examination of non-native students in a graduate TESOL programme provides views on how they as students perceived teachers of ELT, and helped understand the differences in teaching behaviour of native and non-native speakers of English. The authors adopted a qualitative research where the aim was to collect information in the classroom from in-depth interviews and an analysis of the autobiography of the student participants. The results clearly indicate that more than two-thirds of the participants reported their difficulty in terms of understanding the nuances of English pronunciation affected their teaching. The students considered native English language teachers as having better skills in terms of fluency and accuracy. They also believed that such teachers adopted a wide range of

techniques and methods to teach English. Their knowledge of English helped the students learn better conversational English and provided the students with an "authentic" English learning experience. On the other hand, non-native English teachers were considered to largely rely on text books to teach English and at times used the first language as a medium of instruction. The students also felt that this strategy adopted by non-native English teachers was effective during the early stages of learning, as these teachers are often more sensitive to the needs of their students as they are aware of the struggles of the student as well as their needs. However, with time, the credibility of such teachers reduces as many students consider them as targeting English learning from an examination or test-oriented perspective rather than a language perspective. This research clearly supports the view that the perceived credibility of the teacher is vital in impacting the student's attitude towards them.

2.4.2.1.7 Perceived Competence of Teachers

Arva and Medgyes (2000) conducted an ethno-cognitive study in Hungary to understand the differences in teaching behaviour between native and non-native English language teachers. The study results indicate that native speakers were found to have better command of the English language with respect to speaking, pronunciation and vocabulary. In contrast, non-natives were considered to be better at making students understand the rules of grammar and had the ability to show better empathy to the student views. The non-native teachers were also able to better explain the grammatical rules to the students as they depended on a causal approach to teaching English. Extant literature has since established differences in teaching behaviour and linguistic knowledge. For instance, He and Miller (2011) and Rao (2010) identify that native English speakers are considered to have better competency and display better authenticity in use of English, while Ma (2012) contends that they are more flexible and tolerant towards student errors. However, the key negative point which impacts the native speaker's abilities that they lack knowledge of learners' first language, which results in difficulties of communication with their students (Lasagabaster and Sierra, 2002). Non-native speakers were found to be able to better understand the difficulty of their students (Liu and Zhang, 2007) and were found to have greater insight with respect to the process of learning English. Furthermore, those teachers were often more realistic in understanding the student capability (Ling and Braine, 2007). Therefore, differences in competence between native and non-native English teachers have been well established in research.

Kelch and Santana-Williamson (2002) examined the attitude of ESL students in the US towards native English teachers and non-native English teachers. The study used an observational approach where audio-taped passages of native English speakers and non-native teachers were

played to the respondents. This was followed by an attitudinal survey. Many students were unable to distinguish between a native and a non-native speaker. The study also showed that there is limited evidence of correlation between attitude towards the speaker and their native or non-native status. On the other hand, a clear correlation was observed between the attitude of the student and their perception of the native or non-native status of their teacher. Furthermore, the study also determined that there is a correlation between student consideration of native speaking accents and their expectations from the teacher. It is clear that students consider native speakers to have better traits, including training and education. The students felt that greater competence would be exhibited by teachers who are perceived to be native speakers with respect to the key skills associated with pronunciation and speaking rather than writing. However, the students also believe that non-native English teachers are considered to be more competent in understanding the needs of the students. These teachers are perceived to have gone through the same difficulties associated with learning English as a L2. Furthermore, the non-native English teachers were also considered as a source of motivation for students, as they were considered as role models who provided the student with a view of how higher levels of proficiency could be reached.

Mahboob (2004) conducted another study which examined the attitude of ESL students towards native and non-native teachers in the US. The students were asked to give their views and perceptions regarding their native and non-native teachers when provided with a stimulus topic. The data provided by the students were examined based on a discourse analytic method. The study adopted a purely qualitative approach where no questions were posed and all data were examined without having any a priori categories. The study results show some interesting trends. It was observed from the study that ESL students in the US were not found to have a clear preference for either native English teachers or non-native English teachers. They considered both groups of teachers to have their own capabilities and unique attributes. The results of the study show that the strengths attributed to native English teachers and non-native English teachers can be considered as complementary. For instance, native English teachers are considered to have better oral, vocabulary and pronunciation skills. However, non-native English teachers are found to have better grammar and literacy skills, which help the students gain a technical approach to pronunciation and speaking. The non-native teachers are also considered to be more effective in answering student questions on grammar and vocabulary and are able to better relate to the student knowledge acquisition process. However, many students do criticise non-native English teachers as having lesser skills associated with the teaching of oral communication skills. This is critical to the current research. Mahboob (2004) contends that many students consider non-natives to have lesser ability to teach a true and correct pronunciation. The author concludes that

while both groups of teachers working together will create a better learning environment for the students, students look towards native speakers to master the vocabulary and pronunciation skills. The author therefore criticises the views of Phillipson (1992), who indicates the possibility of native speaker fallacy wherein students always consider native teachers to be ideal language teachers. However, the research results also show that a comparison of competence and capabilities of teachers is considered and, with respect to pronunciation, native speakers are considered to show better professional competence.

The study by Lasagabaster and Sierra (2005) examined the views of the students with respect to the advantages and disadvantages of having native and non-native English teachers. The study examined university students in the Basque Country, in Spain. The respondents were asked to complete closed ended and open ended questionnaires. The closed ended questionnaire was to examine the attitude of students towards teacher choice. The study results clearly indicate that 60.6% of the respondents strongly preferred native speakers. The study results also show that when the students were given an option of having both native and non-native English speaking teachers, the percentage increased to 71.6%. The study results support the findings of the previous studies reviewed as part of this section. The study respondents prefer native speakers as their language teachers to learn skills like vocabulary, pronunciation, culture and civilisation. The students prefer non-native speakers as teachers to learn grammar and strategies. It is also seen that other areas of language acquisition, including assessment, reading and writing, showed no difference in attitude towards the two groups of teachers. The study results also clearly indicate that students prefer native English teachers at a university level, while at the primary and secondary education levels, they prefer non-native speakers. The respondents, when asked their views on the strengths associated with a non-native English teacher, indicated that non-native speakers are most essential as a resource to enhance their learning strategies, and they considered these teachers to be their imitable models. The study results clearly indicate that the student perception of non-native English teachers can be considered as positive as a stepping stone towards more knowledge. Therefore, non-native English teachers are considered to have the basic competence to enable the learning process in a student. However, with progress, the students prefer to learn pronunciation, vocabulary and speaking skills from native speakers as they are considered to have better competence.

The study by Moussu and Braine (2006) examined the ESL attitude of students towards their non-native English teachers. The respondents were asked to rate their views on their teacher at the start of their course and towards the end of the semester and measured the student perception of non-native English speakers based on their opinion of past experiences with the teachers in general and their views on their current teachers. The study showed that there was no negative

opinion amongst the students towards the non-native English teachers at the beginning of the semester. The students supported non-native English teachers and, more importantly, the attitude of the students towards non-native English teachers improved positively over time.

Researchers have shown in increased interests in approaching and measuring attitude. The learners attitude could be approached atomistically, through individual member of the community, or holistically, in relation to various speakers' variables as context, social and demographic information (Albirini, 2016). Moreover, Fasold (1991) distinguishes between mentalist and behaviourist approach to reach attitude. The former claims that attitude is internal and mental state and it could be elicited by interview and survey methods. Yet, the latter assumes that language attitude should be observed in actual conversation or actual speech. In line with the behaviourist approach of attitude, Lawson-Soko and Schadev (2000, cited in Albirini, 2016) observed the attitude and self-report of 28 Tunisian students towards Code-Switching. They found that the negative attitude towards CS disappears in actual behaviour as students code switch frequently between their L1, Arabic, and L2, French. This leads to the notion that language attitude is not stable and could not be extracted from the contextual, social and external circumstances. For more elaboration on attitude measurements, see 3.4 qualitative research method. The subsequent section clarifies the theoretical framework of the current research.

2.5 Theoretical Framework

The influence of the first language usually has an important bearing on the learning of the second, and it is therefore possible that the dialect of a teacher can also affect a learner's pronunciation. This assumes that interference or transfer is possible and important underlying theories that may explain this phenomenon include Transfer Theory (Lado, 1957), Markedness Theory (Jacobson, 1932; Cited in Tanner, 2012), Contrastive Analysis (CA), and Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH), the Input/Output Hypothesis (IOH). The purpose is similar, namely to identify areas of potential difficulty. Although divergent pronunciations have often been viewed as errors with the aim of acquiring native-like pronunciation, this study takes the view that intelligibility and comprehensibility may be more important objectives, along with learners' attitude.

Transfer theory asserts that language skills from the first language get transferred to the second (Li and Edwards, 2011). The mechanism is believed to be cognitive, and variables that may affect the transfer include length of exposure (Flynn and O'Neil, 1988), pronunciation of the teacher (Ramirez-Verdugo, 2006), extent of instruction (Tanner, 2012), and knowledge of grammar (Tily et al., 2009). Age may also be an important factor, and as per the (CPH), either a child can acquire native-like pronunciation (Burrill, 1985) or doing so is easier for adults as they can use a range of

analytic strategies. Also, a transfer may be either positive for processes in which knowledge of L1 facilitates the acquisition of L2, or negative when it interferes. Furthermore, transferable elements are typically learner perceptions of L1-L2 distance and marked features.

Another theoretical perspective which relates to the transfer hypothesis is the Processability Theory. The theory, identified by Pienemann (1998), contends that L2 learners have the capability to produce forms which they process. As Hakansson et al. (2002) argue, L1 transfer to the student's L2 capability is largely moderated. Furthermore, the authors contend that L2 learners are able to process those terminologies and rules which can be related to L1. This theory can be discussed in line with the views expressed by the students on how non-native English speakers are better able to teach grammar and its associated rules. In light of this view, the current research argues that Transfer Theory can be a theoretical construct that governs sociolinguistics factors, such as attitude, associated with student's learning of English pronunciation. This theory thus supports the following research question:

What is the correlation, if any, of students' attitude towards their Arab teachers' English accents and the Saudi students' English pronunciation?

The Markedness Differential Hypothesis (MDH), based on markedness theory, relates to attributes that are less common, irregular, infrequent or semantically opaque (Kellerman, 1983). Such markedness may be determined either psychologically, typologically or grammatically. Psychological markedness exists when an L2 learner is intuitively aware of the marked features, typological markedness exists only for corresponding unmarked features, and grammatical markedness exists when there are complex structures. However, studies show that marked features do not necessarily get transferred (White, 1987), and unmarked features can also get transferred (Eckman, 1985). The markedness theory can be linked to the current research by reflecting on the nature of predictability of the hypothesis.

According to Hume (2004), an alternative approach to the markedness hypothesis can also be taken, where items which have higher predictability are found to have a lower markedness when compared to those which have lower predictability. This hypothesis addresses the key negative factors associated with this theory. The primary role of his approach is that markedness is negatively linked to predictability, with the predictability determined based on multiple factors including perpetual salience, simplicity associated with articulation, and speaker's experience with the usage of items. Hume contends that such an approach to markedness is most effective as it predicts language patterns at the language specific level as well as at the universal level. Secondly, the research also contends that unlike the traditional markedness approach, which has been

criticised for describing effects rather than the basis, predictability offers explanations for language patterns.

According to Flynn and O'Neil (1988), and Gass (1977), there are some alternative methods which can be examined to determine the developmental outcomes of language users. Researchers argue that language users are highly sensitive to the frequency of certain linguistic structures within the language. If one were to take this approach to English language teaching by NNEST, the linguistic knowledge of the teacher would be largely mediated by the frequency of structures or patterns that they have input. Such an approach strongly argues that there is a significant link between the frequency and markedness of language acquisition, and that it is dependent on individual characteristics and differences (Levelt et al., 2000; Major, 1998).

Research conducted by McNeill (2005) provides significant evidence that compares expert and novice native and non-native English speakers. The author disputes that novice non-native English speaking teachers, while very skilled at predicting difficult and easy words impacting EFL student comprehension, could be found to have limited skills in determining the importance and significance of pronunciation. On the other hand, non-native experienced English speaking teachers were not able to differentiate between the difficult and easy areas of comprehension, but were able to give clear evidences of pronunciation difficulties faced by the students. It was also found that both expert and novice native English speakers were unable to make predictions concerning the difficulties associated with language acquisition whereas they were able to clearly assess areas of faults in student pronunciation, and present strategies to improve the same. Therefore, as supported by the markedness hypothesis of predictability, multiple factors, either positive or negatively, can impact markedness associated with language acquisition. The differences in linguistic awareness and teaching experiences of the teachers clearly indicate variations in their' language variety (L1). With this in mind, the current research strongly supports the need for further evidence which could identify the role of teacher variety in impacting the pronunciation of students.

The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) is a behaviourist perspective in which the development of language is viewed in terms of habit formation, in this case that L1 habits interfere in the learning of L2. It posits that the productive and receptive skills of L2 learners are influenced by their L1 patterns, and that any similarities and differences are therefore important predictors of the ease or difficulty with which the second language is learned. A comparative analysis of the structures of the two languages could theoretically highlight areas of potential difficulty (Odlin, 1989). However, CAH is criticised for its lack of predictive power (Larsen and Long, 1992). Although Eckman (1977) revised the original hypothesis to take into account typological

markedness and CA has been used successfully in studies on Arab learners of English (Abdullah, 2013), it has been largely displaced by error analysis (EA).

Whereas EA tends to be useful for identifying actual 'errors' committed, CA tends to be more useful for explaining such deviations. Corder (1974) argues that the role of error analysis in English language learning can be attributed to two different perspectives. The first objective is to ensure that determination is possible of how a learner learns while studying English as a second language. The second objective, which is more practical, is to act as a tool which can aid learning by applying the knowledge of errors and ensuring that effective knowledge acquisition is governed by dialects for pedagogical purposes. Kwok (1998) also argues that language error can be linked to information on the need to understand the progress of the student and their learning, and their understanding associated with system contribution. Furthermore, Nation and Newton (2001) contend that the correction of an error can only be done when there is sufficient thorough understanding of the reason for error occurrence as well as an understanding of how the error can be corrected.

A study by Modiano (2005), which examined differences between the role of non-native English speaking teachers and native English speaking teachers, can be regarded as a key example in relation to this theoretical perspective. According to Modiano (2005), there is a great need to look at American and British English as the standards of ideal or good education. Therefore, most L2 English learners expect a specific system of rules to be followed. While such rules help improve the grammar skills of such student teachers (as evidenced by multiple research views in section 2.4), there is lack of clear evidence based on error analysis to guide pronunciation and accent. This may be related with the need expressed by students to look towards their non-native English speaking teachers for grammar while they focus on native speakers to help improve their pronunciation and speaking skills, noticing that pronunciation is only one phase of the speaking skill. However, the author also argues that the positive role that is played by non-native English speaking teachers is to help understand the range of language used. The author argues that "students are given an introduction to sociolinguistics where world Englishes, major varieties and their regional accents and dialects, L2 varieties, and pidgins and Creoles are scrutinized. [They] learn more about how English operates in a diverse number of nation states so that they can gain a better understanding of the wide range of English language usage" (p.40). The above assessment supports the view that the role of error analysis is to identify the links that may be present between language use and the accuracy of the phonological production. The use of (EA) can therefore be linked to the following research sub-questions:

- *Which segmental consonants that appear in the teacher's English accent are most observable?*
- *Which segmental consonants that appear in students' English accent during their pre-test (i.e. before they are taught by X teacher) are most observable?*
- *Which segmental consonants that appear in students' English accent during their post-test (i.e. after they are taught by X teacher) are most observable?*
- *Which segmental* consonants that appear in students' English accent in terms of new/familiar words?

The input/output hypothesis (IOH) suggests that learners receive and process comprehensible input as they develop (Mitchell et al., 2013) that is just beyond the current L2 competence of the learner. This implies it may not be necessary for learners to produce utterances in L2, as regular parsing and interpreting may be sufficient for developing the interlanguage system. Krashen (1985) states that speech emerges naturally from building competence through comprehensible input, so it may be sufficient for learners to be merely exposed to comprehensible input. The social context has also been added to the model (Ellis, 1997) for showing how input may differ between environments.

According to Krashen (1982), CPH can be considered as applicable where L2 learning of the individual is known to be influenced by age. The authors contend that the ability of a learner to understand and develop a clearer perspective on learning a new language is based on social and educational variables that influence learning potential and opportunity, and cognitive ageing that gradually erodes some of the mechanisms necessary for learning a complex body of knowledge, such as a new language. In light of this view, the current research argues that there is a link between the learning environment and pronunciation of L2 and social factors, including sociolinguistics as well as learner exposure and teacher characteristics. This supports the main research question:

What are the possible linguistic and sociolinguistic influences that may shape Saudi students' English pronunciation in their preparation year?

Krashen (1985) on the other hand, reflects on foreigner talk and teacher talk as key characteristics of the (IOH) and the link that it has to second language acquisition. According to Ellis (1997), the concept of foreigner talk and teacher talk can be linked to native speakers and teachers and that the linguistic alterations that people take advantage of include acquirer knowledge of the world. In such conditions, the duration of exposure of the learner can be linked to their pronunciation.

Secondly, the use of the input/output hypothesis ensures that the input of code will be useful and more effective when used by L2 speakers as it can be correlated to the caretaker speech mode used to reach out to children. The non-native English speaker would have better focus on caretaker words that can be used in the research. Therefore, the teacher L1 variety can also be considered as a key factor which should be examined in light of its impact on student pronunciation. Therefore it is argued that there is a link between student pronunciation and teacher's L1 variety and their language competence. Hence, the following research questions are proposed:

- *How far the teachers' L1 (Arabic) dialect may affect her L2 (English) pronunciation?*
- *What is the nature of the possible relationship between teachers' L1 dialect and students' L2 pronunciation?*

According to Davies (2003), the definition of a native speaker can be determined from linguistic, psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic perspectives. The author argues that non-native speakers of a language can master grammar, spontaneity, and creativity and interpretation quality with time as effectively as can be understood by native speakers. However, non-native speakers will continue to have some difficulties in mastering pronunciation, vocabulary and other acquisitions irrespective of time, as they did not acquire the language in early childhood. The author contends that language learnt at a later stage of life is always influenced by the perspectives of other languages. According to Derwing and Munro (2005), the listener perception of foreign accented speech, especially in native English speaking countries, is often perceived to be inaccurate, as many listeners often consider a speaker with a foreign identity to have accented speech. Furthermore, authors including Eguiguren (2000) and Llurda (2004), argue that both native and non-native speakers require classes to understand the needs of ESL students. As Canagarajah (2006) argues, since English differs across multiple locations, ESL teachers in other countries should learn to understand the needs of the student while ensuring that the language that they speak directly refers to the needs of the student. Kamhi-Stein (2004) argues that TESOL programmes which are being tailored to meet the needs of non-native English students provide clear pathways to improve the competence of non-native teachers by developing their assets, values and beliefs. However, the author also contends that there should be limited comparison between the TESOL programmes designed specifically for such teachers and those addressed to native speakers, as non-native English teachers would definitely show differences in competencies. From the previous chapter, significant evidence from attitudes of students showed that non-native speakers are perceived to have reduced pronunciation and vocabulary skills. This clearly shows that learners' perception of teacher accent is a key factor which should be examined in this research. This supports the following research question:

What is the potential students' attitude towards their Arab teachers' English accents?

According to Cook (2013), the attitude of the learner towards acquisition of good pronunciation is considered as a key factor which impacts the learning process. Rutherford (1982) contends that when there is lack of homogeneity in EFL classrooms, there are often significant discrepancies which are linked to the pronunciation ability of the students. Elliot (1995) conducted a research which examined the pronunciation accuracy of university students who studied Spanish as a foreign language. This research concluded that the pronunciation attitude of the student towards the language was vital in impacting their learning and their performance. Elliot (1995) further contends that when students show greater concern towards their pronunciation, they have better pronunciation of target allophones. Similarly, Suter (1976) argues that students who had greater concern regarding their pronunciation skills were found to have performed better at vocabulary, reading and pronunciation exercises. Butler (2007), in an examination of the attitude of second language learners in relation to pronunciation and second language acquisition, highlights the need to understand the links between student perception of teacher attitude and teacher knowledge, as well as their views on teaching strategy.

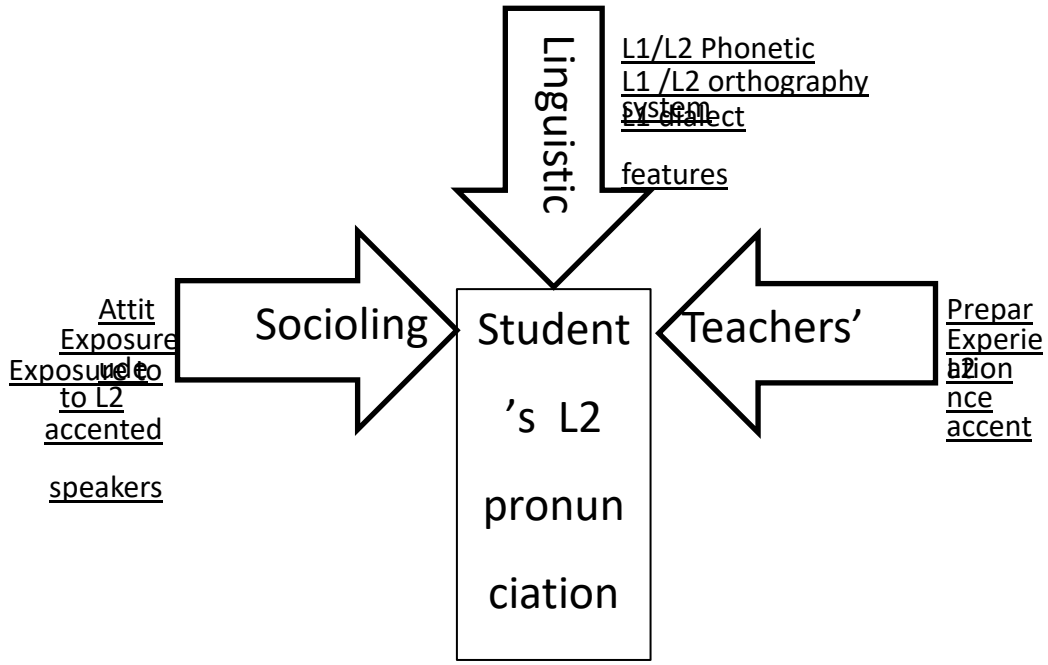
Celce-Murcia et al. (1996) further argue that the process of language learning links learner's exposure to the language (i.e. length of learning LOL) to the perceived teacher competence and views on teacher accents. The authors contend that students have better pronunciation when they have a positive attitude towards the level of teacher's perceived competence. Schumann (1976) examined the acculturation process and learner attitude in the process of language learning. The author concluded that for a learner to become completely socially integrated, it is important to ensure that they acquire the language based on the social and cultural aspects. In light of such views, positive links between learner characteristics and sociolinguistic features are arrived at. Sparks and Glachow (1991) on the other hand, indicate that students who are positively motivated are more successful as speakers of the language. The authors found that the instrumental motivation, i.e. the learner's inherent personality, is key to their achievement.

In light of the theories examined above, the figure below (

Figure 10) illustrates the theoretical framework of the current research. It depicts the three key influences on a learner's pronunciation, namely teachers' characteristics, linguistic factors, and sociolinguistic factors. It was seen that transfer theory, for example, delves mostly on linguistic factors, but also on the teacher's pronunciation and student attitudes, which makes it comprehensive and which suggests it covers the ground of all the other theories mentioned. Linguistic factors specifically are also covered by the CAH, EA and CPH; sociolinguistic factors by CPH and IOH, and teacher characteristics by IOH. Linguistic oriented factors were examined in

2.4.1 above and sociolinguistic factors in 2.4.2. The importance of teacher related characteristics was also established from the literature (Ramirez-Verdugo, 2006; Leikin et al., 2009; Moussu, 2010) and was discussed in depth in 2.4.

Figure 10: Research Theoretical Framework



The methodology was developed as considered suitable keeping in view the rationale for the study, its aims and objectives, from the understanding gained from conducting the literature review, and the theoretical framework devised in Figure 10, itself arising from the literature review. The research design is thus organised to conduct the investigation in three key areas, namely teachers' characteristics, linguistic factors and sociolinguistic factors, with the main target of investigating the relationship, if any, between Arab teachers' L1 varieties and students' L2 pronunciation in terms of segmental consonants, and to fill the gap in the literature by linking phonological and pedagogical aspects with attitudinal aspects with respect to L2 pronunciation.

2.6 Conclusion

Factors that may affect pronunciation are identified variously as including age (Piske et al., 2001), mother tongue influence (Barros, 2003), extent of instruction (Rose, 2010), cultural sensitivity (Tanner, 2012), style variation (Shively, 2008), knowledge of grammar (Gahl and Garnsey, 2004), and others. Gilakjani (2012) found that attitudes, motivation, length of exposure, instruction, and integration of pronunciation in teaching are further important factors. Importantly, the pronunciation by the teacher is another key factor, and a study by Ramirez-Verdugo (2006) showed that native speaking teachers displayed prominent progress in their pronunciation. Other

key factors of interest to this study include the students' attitude towards their teachers' English accents.

A positive attitude can often make a big difference and this factor may explain why there are discrepancies in otherwise homogeneous groups. A positive orientation to the language being learnt is an important factor that can affect pronunciation ability (Ballard, 2013), as are motivation and experience with the target language (Moyer, 2007). Experience may take the form of actually using the language outside the classroom, the amount of formal instruction received, and residence in a country belonging to that language, all of which have been shown to relate significantly to pronunciation accuracy (Shively and Cohen, 2008).

In the specific context under study, which relates to Arab learners of English, potential difficulties in pronunciation can arise due to both suprasegmental and segmental differences. A contrastive analysis of the two languages and examination of previously conducted studies revealed possible difficulties with consonant clusters (Al-Shuaibi, 2009) due to different patterns of stress and intonation (Al-Saidat, 2010), and various differences in the two phonemic systems. These consonant phonemes were also selected in the primary research phase. The most problematic phonemes for EFL learners in general to pronounce appear to be /ŋ/, /p/, /v/, /d/, /ɬ/(dark/l/), /ʤ/, /ð/, and /r/ as identified by Barros (2003), and these are normally substituted by their nearest equivalents, as mentioned before. The greatest difficulty is posed by /v/, according to Binturki (2008), by both /p/ and /v/, according to Al-Badawi and Salim (2014) study, and by /ʒ/, according to Ahmad's (2011) study. According to Jenkins (2000) some phonetic mispronunciation, such as pronouncing /Θ/ and /ð/ as /t, s/ or /d, z/ does not cause a 'core' phonemic mistake and does not affect the meaning. However, these tow specific phonemes seem to be noticed/perceived as 'accented' English, referring to the student's quote of "/zɪs ɪs e bu:k/" and her negative attitude towards that accent, see section 1.3. Also, various differences have been reviewed among the phonemic systems of three Arabic dialects. Based on L1-L2 transfer, this explanation could be the reason for teachers' accented English, as mentioned previously. In light of these assumptions, the current research aims to discuss the factors that may lead Saudi students' mispronunciation, taking into account the linguistic (phonemic), sociolinguistic (attitude towards teacher's accents) factors. The following chapter discuss the methodology undertaken, including the research paradigm, design, methods of data collection and data analysis.

Chapter 3: Methodology

3.1 Introduction

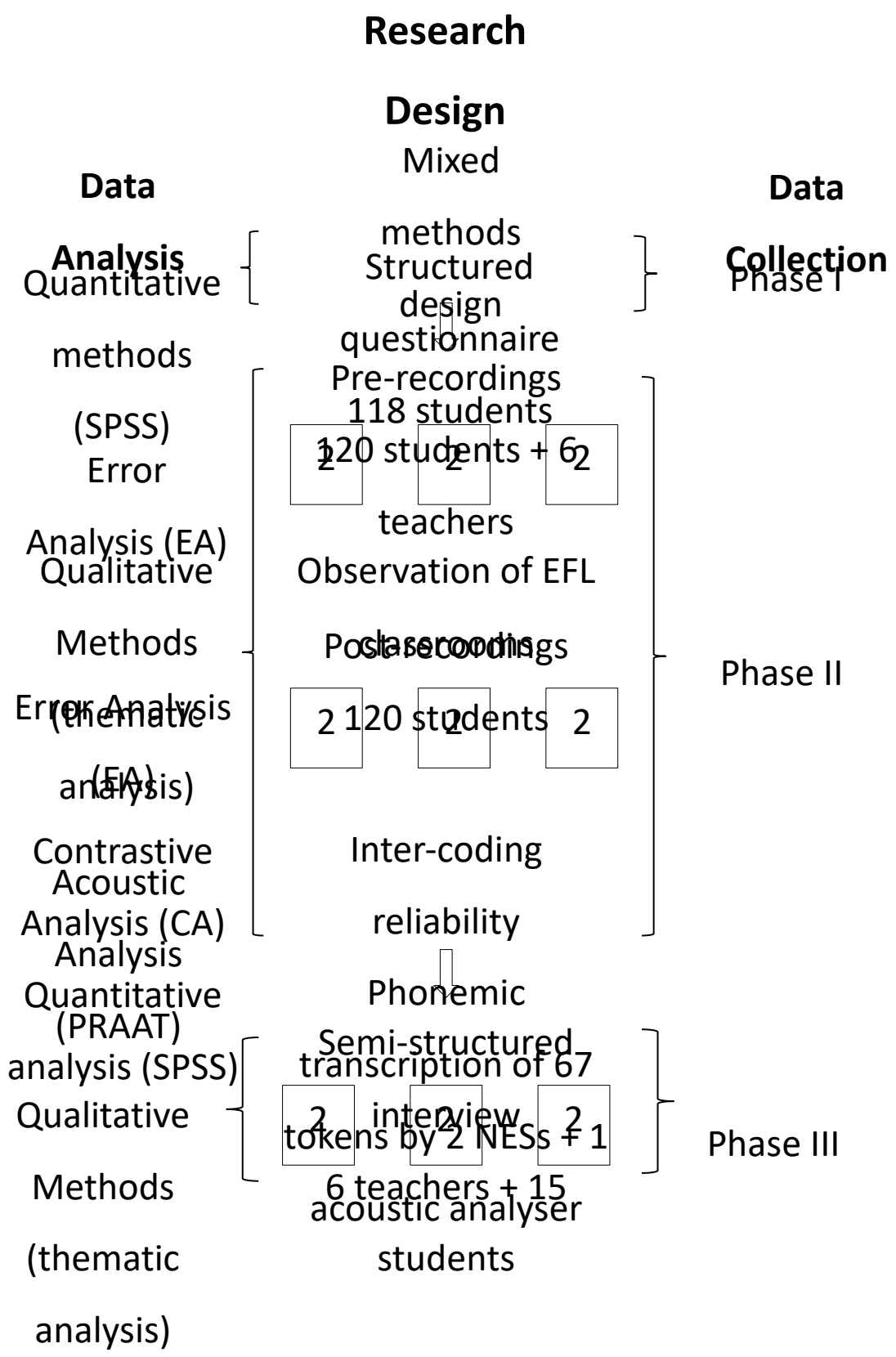
This chapter describes in detail and justifies the adopted research paradigm, and describes the procedures that were followed in carrying out the primary research. It restates the research questions, describes the details the methods used for data collection and analysis, and mentions the ethical considerations and study limitations.

3.1.1 Description of the adopted design

The research design adopted in this study is complex, sequential involving both triangulation and intervention, and explanatory with mainly quantitative methods followed by qualitative methods and emphasis on the qualitative analysis. The design of the research is presented in Figure 11 .

A study may be conducted using either a qualitative, a quantitative or a mixed methods approach. This study adopted the mixed methods approach. This approach, which combines qualitative and quantitative methods, "has been endorsed by some of the most influential methodologists in the social sciences" (Dörnyei, 2007: 42). The two types of method were combined to benefit from the advantages of both. Moreover, as pointed out by Strauss and Corbin (1998, cited in Dörnyei, 2007), "the qualitative should direct the quantitative and the quantitative feedback into the qualitative, each method contributing to the theory" (p. 43). The mixed methods approach also allows for triangulation, which involves "using multiple methods, sources, or a perspective in a research project", as an efficient way "of reducing the chance of systematic bias in a qualitative study" (Dörnyei, 2007: 61–63). However, the qualitative and quantitative data of the longitudinal research, as argued by Neale and Flowerdew (2003), are complementing each other. Also, Ortega and Iberri-Shaea (2005, cited in Dörnyei, 2007) capitalize the importance of using the mixed methods approach within the SLA longitudinal research.

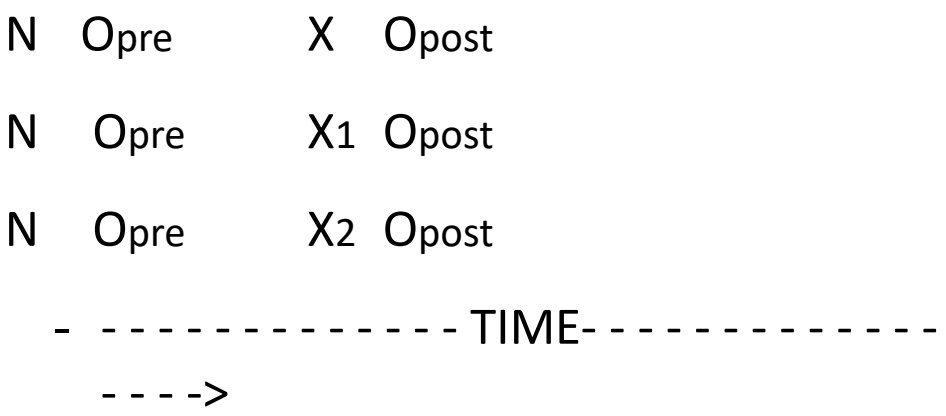
Figure 11: Adopted research design



As illustrated by Cook and Campbell (1979), Figure 12, there are four elements involved in the construction of the research design in the field of social research: time, programme(s) or

treatment(s), observation(s) or measure(s), and group(s) or individual(s). In the design notation, the first element is indicated by the temporal element horizontally, while the second element, programme/treatment, is symbolised by (X) if it is a single programme or (X1, X2, …) if there are comparable groups. Thirdly, the symbol (O) is assigned for observation containing measurement, and in this study it is an oral test. Lastly, the symbol (R) or (N) is assigned for groups or individuals and whether they are selected randomly of non-randomly respectively. Therefore, the suggested research diagram for this study is a non-equivalent groups design restrained by a pre-test and a post-test.

Figure 12: Research Design using Notation



N: non-random freshmen English classroom; O: pre-test/ post-test; X: English language class taught by a Saudi teacher; X1: English language class taught by an Egyptian teacher; X2: English language class taught by a Tunisian teacher.

3.1.2 Abductive case study approach

This research case study follows an abductive approach, as this approach systematically combines the processes of induction and deduction (Raizi, 2016). Abduction refers to the creative inferential process adopted for generating new theories and hypotheses, and abductive analysis arises from the social and intellectual positions of actors (Timmermans and Travory, 2012). This adopted research design of GT in line with the abductive approach is explained in detail in this chapter.

As mentioned in the previous chapter, this research involves conducting a case study in which an abductive approach is followed. This type of research can be defined as a detailed examination of a single case of a certain type of phenomena, single speech event, an activity, an institution, a policy, a country, a scenario, a learner or a place of learning a language. In linguistics, a case study allows for a close examination of people, the context and change over time (Paltridge and Phakiti,

2010). A case study was appropriate because the phenomenon relating to pronunciation was studied in its own natural setting. Case studies are also particularly suitable in linguistic research because case studies of language learners can be a valuable way of illustrating issues concerning learning, especially in relation to another language (Duff, 2012). Moreover, this case study approach offers the advantage of being able to accommodate a variety of mainly qualitative, but also quantitative methods as well as detailed linguistic analysis of second or foreign language development (Paltridge and Phakiti, 2010). As illustrated by Duff (2012: 23), "Case studies are frequently qualitative and interpretive, but they can also be combined with, or can include, quantitative analyses and other approaches to knowledge generation".

The specific abductive approach adopted offers a third way between induction and deduction that involves both observation and theory during the research. This approach has two requirements. The first requirement is to collect data that is detailed and rich enough to enable developing a tentative theory, and the second requirement is for the research process to be sufficiently flexible that it can support iterations between the theory and data (Raizi, 2016). To satisfy these requirements, either a qualitative or mixed methods research design is recommended, and constructivist grounded theory is specifically one such research design that takes an abductive approach. It is abductive as it enables constant comparisons to be made between emerging theory and data (Reichertz, 2007); allows the researcher to focus on novel or surprise findings to try and establish new rules, relationships or hypotheses unable to be expressed using existing theory (Raizi, 2016).

It may be argued that GT is not abductive; rather, that it is inductive. This basis in induction is seen as a critical weakness that stymies the development of theory (Timmermans and Tavory, 2012). It has therefore been dismissed by some scholars for its inability to be used for developing theories (Snow et al., 2003). However, as established by Bryant and Charmaz (2010), although GT may have been abductive only to a small extent at the start, it has become more abductive over time. Scott and Lewis (2017) thus distinguish between three forms of GT although they may be blended, which they refer to as Classic or Glaserian GT, Straussian GT, and Constructivist GT.

The first approach takes a largely objectivist stance, the latter an interpretive or constitutive stance, and the second is layered beginning with an interpretive stance but later incorporating a more positivist stance. Classic GT focuses on the emergence of theory from the data, and takes the position that researchers should avoid preconceptions but remain open to different interpretations and meanings of the data. Straussian GT advises to engage with existing literature early so as to provide focus for the examined concepts, as well as to help in interpretation, developing relationships for further exploration, to inform theoretical sampling, and so on. Both

traditional forms of GT have been unsuccessful in being able to be used for empirical based theories (Charmaz, 2006).

The third Constructivist GT, which is closest to an abductive approach, takes an interpretive stance in which the researcher's active role in collecting and analysing the data is recognised. This interpretation is treated as a construction, and the researcher's reflexivity is considered as an important part of the research process in helping to explain the developed theory. Charmaz (2009) for instance, emphasised the reflexive nature of data analysis by involving interaction and iteration. Constructing theoretical ideas based on empirical data makes it possible for conceptual innovation to occur. The creative attempts may be aimed at generalising mechanisms or particular cases, or for linking causal statements to enhance understanding of the observations (Gross, 2009).

Nonetheless, as argued by Timmermans and Tavory (2012), abduction is still positioned as secondary to induction, as it still begins with an inductive analysis of the data before the creation of "an imagined interpretation of studied life" (p.168) in which abductive logic is applied for creative inferencing. Constructivist GT is therefore also rejected in favour of "a much more radical rethinking of the relation between data and theory construction" (p.168) that gives greater privilege to abduction, both analytically and temporally. This approach is seen as necessary for meaningful construction of theory.

Importantly, adopting pure abduction over Constructionist GT does not mean advocating a return to deduction using existing theories. Methodological processes such as note taking and memo writing can still be useful for providing theoretical insights, and are therefore an essential part of abductive analysis. Instead, perception is deepened, and the focus is on viewing the world theoretically and through abductive reasoning. The possibility of achieving abduction is strengthened further, firstly, through revisiting the phenomenon to see if anything was missed and to understand it differently, and secondly, through defamiliarisation by inscribing the text which enables the researcher to revisit the data to increase the fecundity of abductive reasoning (Timmermans and Tavory, 2012).

The process of abductive analysis involves double-fitting data and theories recursively, making inferences on the data and existing theories in the case of anomalies or unexpected findings. Also, the abductive analysis stimulates both deductive and inductive reasoning. Through deduction, we analyse existing data, and through induction, we seek to corroborate generalisations, themes, patterns and outliers. The iterative dialogue between the data and conceptualisations may then lead to the development of a new theory. Besides the generation of new theory, theoretical leads

may also be narrowed due to the iterative and recursive nature of abductive analysis. This helps to redefine the phenomenon to fit explanatory factors (Timmermans and Tavory, 2012).

3.2 Methodological framework

This study adopts a case study as a research method using an abductive approach in an overall mixed methods research design. A case study is a "study of the particularity and compexity of a single case" (Tavakoli, 2012: 46). Rather than a specific technique, a case study describes a way of "collecting and organizing data so as to maximize understanding of the unitary character of the social being or object studied" (p. 46). Specifically, it is an 'instrumental case study' as opposed to an instrinsic or multiple case study given that it serves to study a particular issue rather than the case itself, namely that of teacher to student phonological transference. The abductive approach was described earlier in 3.1.2, as systematically combining induction and deduction, and the mixed methods based research designed was outlined in 1.6.

Grounded theory is a research philosophy that involves taking a systematic look at qualitative data. This theory focuses on the generation of a theory that can account for the pattern of behaviour that is relevant and problematic for those involved. The main purpose behind developing theories is to explain, predict and understand phenomena (Glaser, 2005). Symbolic interactionism is considered to be the theoretical orientation of grounded theory studies. The basis of this theory is that human behaviour is a constant process and involves negotiation and renegotiation. Symbolic interactionism primarily focuses on the manner in which human beings tend to behave based on their beliefs, and how humans define events and realities. Human interactions involve considerable social processes, which are the main focus of interest for grounded theory (Evans and Imai, 2001).

Researchers can use grounded theory to formulate explanations that account for various social processes and can support these explanations and theories with empirical data. This research case study will use a predominantly mixed methods approach, in line with the research philosophy. The use of the grounded theory approach will help the researcher use multiple research instruments including observation, testing, questionnaire and interview, and will help adopt a triangulation approach, where the students are asked to provide their views on the research topic.

As Denscombe (2010) contends, since the research uses multiple perspectives where the focus is on the type of interaction (i.e. the student and the teacher), it is possible to obtain information on the participants' experience of learning English pronunciation (Denscombe, 2010). The philosophical underpinning of this approach is phenomenological; the approach that is used

within this research is grounded theory, as there is a wealth of information available within this topic (Bryman, 2012). Also, it could be argued that the conversational approach which will be upheld in the semi-structured interviews will provide ecological validity and help support the quantitative methods and formal instruments of data collection, including testing and observation (Bryman, 2012).

3.3 Research questions

The main research question guiding this study is:

What are the possible linguistic and sociolinguistic influences that may shape Saudi students' English pronunciation in their preparation year?

To help address this main research question, sub-research questions have been formed grouped by the two aforementioned sets of factors.

3.3.1 Phonological factors

The first two research questions pertain to the linguistic or phonological factors, which are L1 orientation factors.

1. To what extent may the teacher's L1 (Arabic) dialect affect her L2 (English) pronunciation?
2. What is the nature of the possible relationship between the teacher's L1 dialect and students' L2 pronunciation?

In line with the general objectives, the following research sub-questions have been formed to help answer the previous questions.

- Which segmental consonants that appear in the teacher's English accent are most observable?
- Which segmental consonants that appear in students' English accent during their pre-test (i.e. before they are taught by X teacher) are most observable?
- Which segmental consonants that appear in students' English accent during their post-test (i.e. after they are taught by X teacher) are most observable?
- Which segmental consonants that appear in students' English accent in terms of new/familiar words?

3.3.2 Sociolinguistic factors

The next two research questions pertain to sociolinguistic factors, which are attitude and perception orientation factors.

3. What is the potential students' attitude towards their Arab teachers' English accents?
4. What is the relationship, if any, of students' attitude towards their Arab teachers' English accents and the Saudi students' English pronunciation?

3.4 Research methods

This research follows a mixed methods approach, as mentioned previously, in which both kinds of data will be collected. The first kind of data is quantitative data, described as a voice recording of both the teachers and their students and a survey distributed among the students. The second type of data is qualitative, presented as a semi-structured interview with both the teachers and the students and a supplementary tool presented as classroom observations (see 3.5.2.2 for more elaboration). Nevertheless, in order to be more focused in this study and to give enough depth in the research phenomenon, the classroom observations used in this study seek to give a general overview of the EFL classroom context of teaching pronunciation skill in the selected language institute.

In order to reveal how the research questions are answered using the different methodological instruments, the following diagram (Figure 13) demonstrates three levels: the conceptual level, the research questions level and the methodological tool(s) assigned for each research question. The conceptual level refers to the categorization of factors that may affect the students' pronunciation while the second level assigns the research questions of this study. The third level determines the different methodological tools which are linked to the research questions.

Figure 13: Research Methodology Process

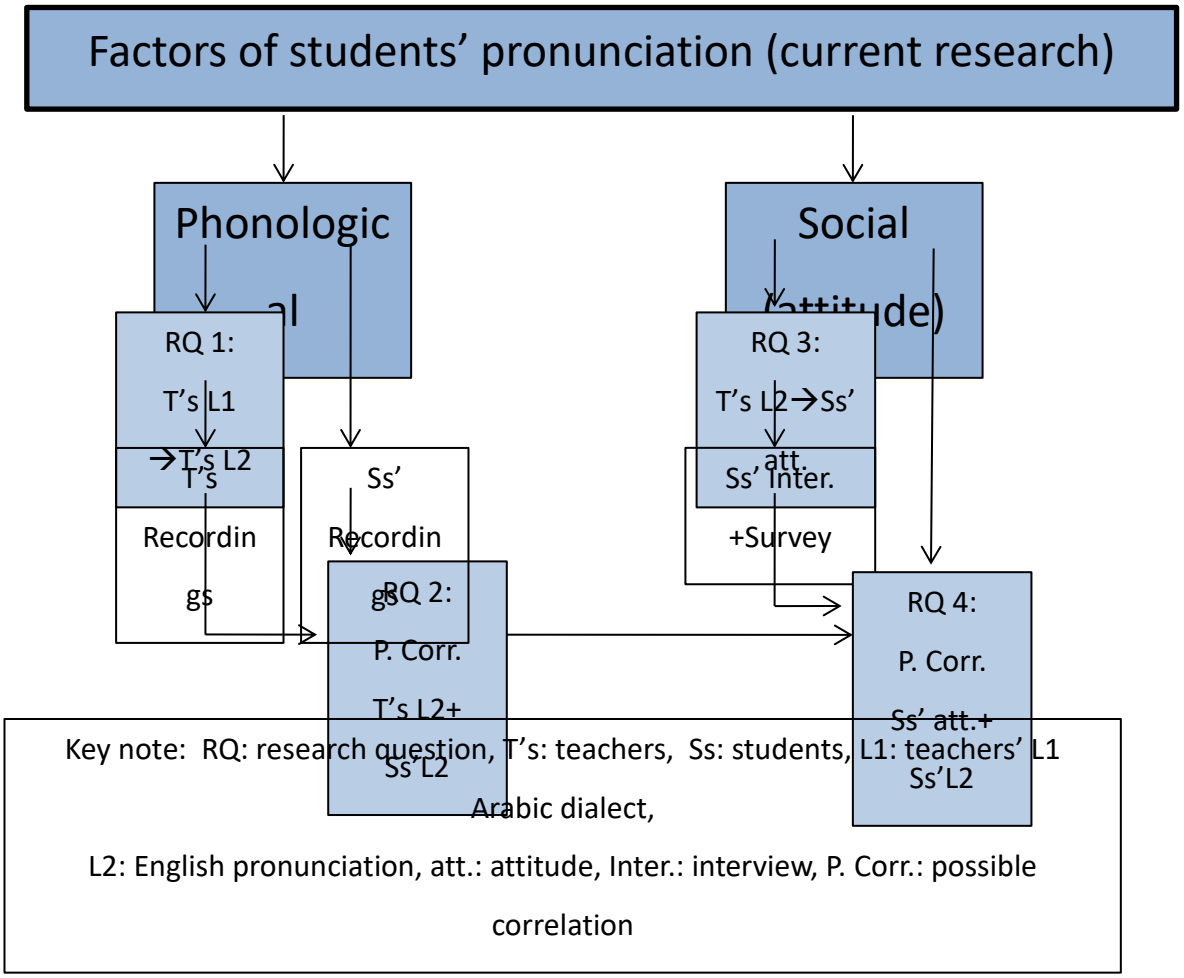


Table 10 below presents a summary of mapping of the research questions and the research methods adopted in this study.

Table 10: Mapping of the research questions with the adopted method

Factor		Research Question	Main method adopted			results presented in
			Survey (n=118)	Audio recording (n=6 T,120 Ss)	Interview (n=15 Ss)	
Phonological (L1 orientation)	1	How far the teachers' L1 (Arabic) dialect may affect her L2 (English) pronunciation?		✓	✓	Sections 4.3.2 and 4.4.1.2
	2	What is the nature of the relationship between teachers' L1 dialect and students' L2 pronunciation?		✓	✓	Sections 4.3.2 and 4.4.1.2
Sociological (students' attitude)	3	What is the potential students' attitude towards their Arab teachers' English accents?	✓	✓	✓	Sections 4.2.2, 4.3.2 and 4.4.1.2

Factor	Research Question		Main method adopted			results presented in
			Survey (n=118)	Audio recording (n=6 T,120 Ss)	Interview (n=15 Ss)	
	4	What is the relationship, if any, of students' attitude towards their Arab teachers' English accents and their English pronunciation?	✓	✓	✓	Sections 4.2.2, 4.3.2 and 4.4.1.2

The table shows that all of the research questions were addressed by the research, each by one or more research method. Research questions 1 and 2 were designed to cover the phonological factors, and the methods adopted for data collection were audio recordings and interviews. Research questions 3 and 4 however, were designed to cover the sociological factors, and the three methods adopted for collecting the related data include surveys, audio recordings and interviews. It is crucial to point out that classroom observation is not included in the above table because it is a supplementary tool which provided the researcher a background on the teaching of English at a Saudi university and the sources of English that students could be exposed to in the class, see 3.5.2.2. The results and findings pertaining to each of the two categories of linguistic (phonological), and sociolinguistic factors are summarised and discussed in the subsequent subsections below. It should be noted that the findings of the present study are discussed and related to the literature reviewed in Chapter 2.

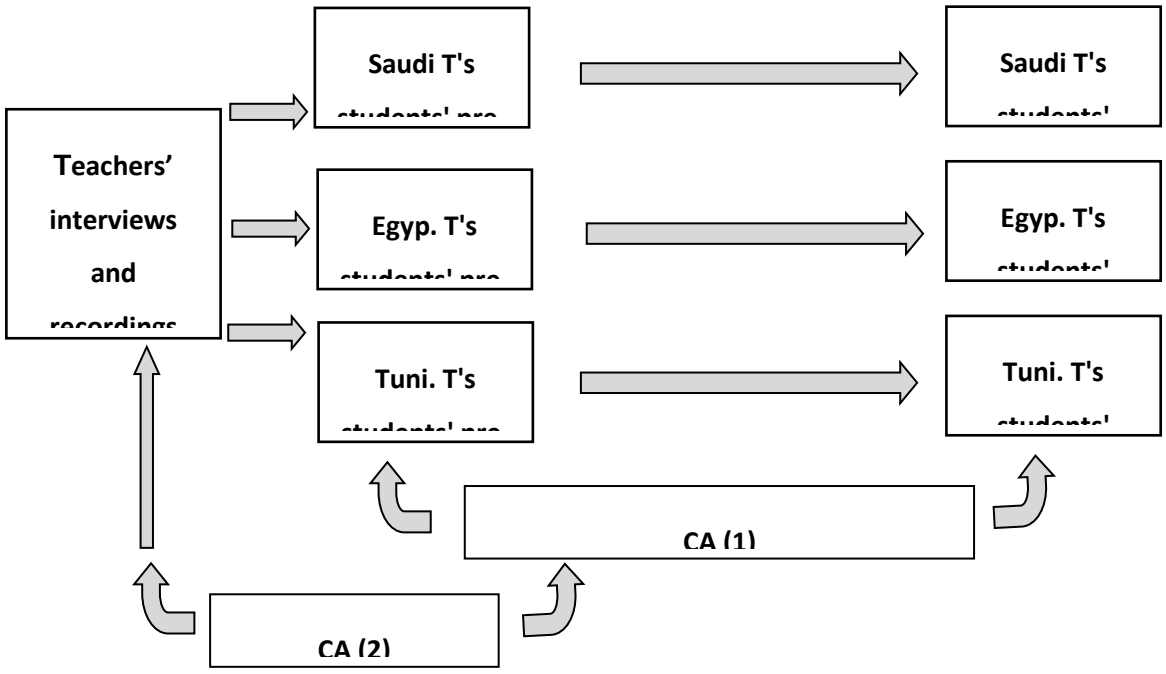
3.4.1 Mapping of the research methods with the research questions

Because the first and second research questions need more descriptive illustration, the following diagram (Figure 14) shows how the methodology process will be conducted. To answer the first research question, the researcher records the teachers' voices when reading flash cards containing the sounds that need to be tested (see section 3.5.2.1.2) Then, the phonological features of each sound (phoneme/allophone) of each teacher are rated by two native speakers, as raters/ judges (for more information on the raters, see section 3.5.2.1.3) and by a specialist using PRAAT analysis software in order to determine if the teachers' English accents are influenced by their own L1 Arabic dialects, in which their English could carry their Arabic dialectal features. As for the second research question, each teacher's students are asked to read the same flash cards read by their teacher and then the same raters and software evaluate whether or not the students' English accents carry the same phonological features of their teacher's.

By applying the Contrastive Analysis Approach (CA1), the researcher compares between the pre-test and the post-test for the students in order to find the changes in their L2 after they are

taught by X teacher. Also, a second Contrastive Analysis (CA2) is applied between the students' L2 and that of their teachers' with the aim of exploring if there is any relationship between both of them.

Figure 14: Methodology Process of RQ1 and 2



3.4.2 Breakdown of the research methods

The current study involves three methods, two quantitative and one qualitative, namely: (1) survey, (2) audio analysis and (3) follow-up interview and classroom observations (see Table 11). To begin with, the following table reviews the methods used, the number of participants in each, the rationale behind using such methods and the studies from which they were adapted.

Table 11: Summary of Research Methods Used

Method	No. of Participants	Aim	Adapted from Studies
Qualitative Method (Interview)	15 students	To determine the attitude towards their Arab teachers, their accents and their pronunciation teaching strategies.	Moussu (2010)
Classroom Observation	12 classes,	To have a general background of the teachers' strategies in teaching	Tergujeff (2012); Celce-Murcia et.

Method	No. of Participants	Aim	Adapted from Studies
(Supplementary)	2 per teacher	pronunciation skill, time allocated for it, the classroom atmosphere, and teacher-learners'output.	al. (1996); Richards (2011).
Quantitative Method (Survey)	118 students	To discover students' demographic information, preferences for teachers, the reasons behind this preference, their attitude towards Arabian teachers, their perception of the Arab teachers' origins and their NNE accents.	Ballard (2013); Moussu (2010)
Descriptive Quantitative Method (Audio recordings) Pre/Post tests	120 students + 6 teachers	To investigate students' phonological influence according to their teacher's L1 variety.	Fareh (1986); Ahmad (2011); Cook (2013); Hyde-Simon (2012)

It is worth noting that 118 students participated in the first phase (survey). Then, a different sample of 120 students involved in the second phase (audio recording). After that, 15 students, out of the audio recording participants, engaged in the third phase (follow-up- interview). Thus, it could be concluded that a sample of 238 students participated in this study, counting for the survey instruments (118) and the audio recording (120) including the (15) interview participants. This distinction was out of the researcher's control due to administrational constraints as the survey was conducted in the first week of the academic semester while most of the teacher-class allocations had not been finalized yet. The selection of the audio recording participants and the interview is mentioned below in sections 3.5.2.1.1 and 3.5.3.1.

Some overlapped contributing factors may affect the results of the students' audio recording. First, all students were exposed to English at the age of 11 or 12, as all of them started learning English in governmental schools, where English was taught in intermediate schools. Therefore, all the students started their English during/after their "critical period". Thus, age as a factor was controlled, assuming that L2 pronunciation was fossilized according to CPH, see section 2.2.6. Second, other factors could also be potentially responsible for impacting on students'

pronunciations, including external influences such as the media, but they are assumed to be negligible for the purpose of this study. The vast majority of participants did not study or had the chance to practice English outside their English classrooms, or in English institutes. So, it is assumed that they had little exposure to English via TV, internet or media. This information was assured by most of the students' responses during their survey or interviews. Accordingly, their English level was not fluctuated among them, and this fact is guaranteed based on their English placement test which placed them in the third level of English. Therefore, inductively, the factors that may affect the students outcome may revolve around (1)the teachers' L1 influence on her L2 accent, (2)English orthography/spelling system, (3)the students' attitude and (4)the teaching phase. Although the last factor might be an influential one, it was not mainly under the scope of this study which aims to investigate the first two, for more elaboration, see section 2.4.

3.5 Data collection

Data analysis refers to the procedure adopted for analysing the data gathered. In this case of quantitative data, this is typically done using descriptive and inferential statistics. Data analysis in qualitative research involves "preparing and organizing the data for analysis, then reducing the data into themes through a process of coding and condensing the codes, and finally representing the data in figures, tables, or a discussion" (Creswell, 2007).

Good data collection involves collecting, coding and analysing the collected information concurrently. Doing so will allow the researcher to evolve richer data where needed. The process of data collection can be improved through simultaneous collection and analysis of data and emerging theoretical structure (Backman and Kyngäs, 1999). The type of data collection method used will also depend on the type of research design adopted in the research. This study was conducted in three phases following a pilot study, see 3.7. A detailed description of each phase and its instruments will be discussed below.

3.5.1 Phase I: Survey

The purpose of the phase is to obtain a clear idea of the students' preferences related to their teachers, the reasons behind these preferences, and to identify the factors that might affect their English other than those pertaining to their formal education. This phase involved distributing a survey among the students after the translation phase (see section 3.6). The survey was administered to students in order to identify the possible factors that affect their pronunciation, which presented for confirmation related, for instance, to their attitude towards teachers' accents, whether the students had studied in a local or private school, and the extent of their use

of the language. With regard to attitude towards accent, the devising of the questions was inspired by Yeni-Komshain, Flege and Liu (2000) in language proficiency in L1/L2, and Ballard (2013) and Brlow (2009) on attitude towards accentedness, which delved into the following four aspects: understandability, familiarity with the accent, likeness in terms of sound, and likeness of Arabs belonging to that region. This questionnaire (see Appendix E) consisted of five sections, nine single responses multiple choice questions that required the students to provide relevant information.

In order to control the affecting variables that could impact the results of the survey, see 2.4, the first section of it was addressed to the students. This section included a confirmation from the students' party that they are freshman students in a Saudi university, born and raised in Jeddah, speak Saudi-Hijazi dialect and had not studied abroad or in language institutes. The second section required demographic information about the students' age and learning English experience (general education and higher education). The third section implied their previous teachers' nationalities and the preferences, containing the reasons behind their preferences, inspired by Barlow (2009), who studied two linguistic reasons behind the students' references; i.e clarity of the teachers' accent and similarity to that of the student's. Those two reasons were adopted in the current survey (3-C1 and 3-C2). The other two reasons (3-C3 and 3-C4) were social reasons, likeliness and stereotyping, that both were addressed in Balow's study (2009) as main variables that affect the students' listening comprehension. Nonetheless, section four of the survey was inspired by Ballard (2013) in differentiating between the two concepts, teachers' nationalities and their accents. Thus, this question tried to assure the students' answer towards their description of their teachers' English accents, not their nationalities. The last section, language use, was adapted from Yeni-Komshain, et. al. (2000) from number (5-1 until 5-7), applying this to the Saudi context. However, I added two statements (5-8 and 5-9) that could be involved in English use of the current context. Both language usages (English in hospitals and shopping malls and using the internet and social network) were some of the distinguished features of in Saudi Arabia, see section 2.4.1.5. Hence, the survey used in this study incorporates the previous aspects. Moreover, it is worth mentioning that the survey had been piloted among the participants, see section 3.7.1.

3.5.1.1 Participants

Regarding the sample of the students in the survey phase, 118 students, approached by the researcher personally in the university campus, participated by completing a questionnaire were in their freshman year and were learning English in a multi-national environment. The aim of this survey, along with the students' demographic information, is to have a general overview of their

preferences for Arab teachers, the reasons behind this preference, their attitude towards Arabian teachers, their perception of the Arab teachers' origins and their NNE accents.

3.5.1.2 Procedure and Analysis

The questionnaire was translated into Arabic, the native language of participants. Then, the questionnaire was distributed manually, not online, by the researcher because the participants, freshman students, were not able to access the internet during their daytime in the campus due to the limited/lack availability of the computer access and due to their busy schedules in their foundation year. Thus, it was beneficial to have their survey responses on the spot. This quantitative data was analysed statistically. Statistical tests were performed in order to come up with results that could be understood. The researcher coded the data collected and then made use of SPSS version 2.0.

3.5.2 Phase II: Audio recording/ Classroom observation

The aim of this phase is to discover how teachers and their students are pronouncing the same list of words (see Appendix F). This phase is devoted to describing and classifying students' variances in both the pre-test and the post-test word lists readings, with a period of 7 weeks between both tests which is the course duration. It may be argued that this period was insufficent for a change in pronunciation to develop, and this is therefore recognised as a study limitation, see 3.9. However, the intervening teaching and learning period had to be terminated at some points, and this period was considered sufficient for noticing signs of impact of the teachers' pronunciations.

The influence of the pronunciation of English language teachers are described and classified according to the degree and area of improvement the teachers managed to make in the pronunciation of their students in the 10 consonants. The purpose of this section of the results is to examine the influence of the teacher's own pronunciation on the student. The aim was to determine the number of Non Target Like NTL utterances for each teacher in each tested area and calculate the mean and standard deviation of each group. The differences between the number of NTL utterances before and after the course or a pronunciation lesson can help determine the degree to which the teacher's influence has an impact on the overall number of TL utterances. A detailed analysis of this method is provided below in section 3.5.2.1.3.

Alternatively, the indirect Matched-Guise Technique (MGT) and its variant, the Verbal-Guise Technique (VGT) have also been employed in studies on language attitudes. The basic procedure involves playing audio recordings to a group tasked to rate each speaker on certain traits using a bipolar semantic-differential scale. However, a matched-guise technique (MGT) would have been

unsuitable for this study because some students would not have been able to clearly distinguish between the different accents and speakers, and a single speaker would be unlikely to reproduce multiple linguistic varieties. Moreover, the speech samples used in these techniques tend to be contrived and decontextualised, which raises an issue of authenticity (Garrett et al., 2003). Although VGT addresses some of these issues by involving more than speaker and employing natural speech for authenticity (McKenzie, 2010), it introduces issues in relation to voice quality, rate of speech and pitch as cross-variety variables (Buchstaller, 2006).

In addition, classroom observations were conducted in narrowly during this phase in order to discover some of the teaching tasks and how classrooms are enriched with pronunciation sources, see section 3.5.2.2.

3.5.2.1 Audio recordings

3.5.2.1.1 Participants

3.5.2.1.1.1 Teachers

In preparing the recordings to be used in this study, six qualified female NNES English teachers from the foundation institute were selected with nationalities (or from regions) commonly found among teaching staff at the foundation institute. Notably, these three regional dialects, nationalities, provide the highest ranked employment among ELI teachers (see 1.5, ELI staff, 2017). The selected teachers are teaching at level 3. This level was chosen because field work approval corresponds to level 3 in the foundation year, which is the second semester in 2013-2014. In order to delimit other factors, the selected teachers were solo teachers, that is, who teach the level solely without any other teacher. This was done so that any possible effect would be from one teacher only. After choosing the specified nationalities and groups of teachers, it was worth having to explain the study to each group of teachers and asking for their participation. This mentioning of the reason to them was so as to examine the factors that may affect Saudi students' language acquisition. The final level of selection was done by choosing two of the enthusiastic teachers towards the research among each group.

From Table 12 below, it is observed that the six participated teachers belonged to Saudi Arabia, Egypt and Tunisia (n=2 each). It is seen that all of them speak Arabic as their first language and particularly, Hijazi Arabic, Cairene Arabic and Tunisian Arabic respectively. It is clearly seen that the majority of the teachers speak English as their second language (n=4) and four of them had visited a native English country before just as tourists. With respect to the degrees or the qualifications they had, all of them had Bachelor degree in English Literature and Arts or English Literature and Translation. Two of the teachers had their Master in English Language Literature or

Applied Linguistics. It was observed that the majority of the teachers had more than four years of experience as a teacher at EFL institutes (n=3). With regard to their experience with the present institute, the majority of the teachers (n=3) had 4–8 years of work experience. It is worth mentioning that four of the teachers had approximately 16–18 hours of classes every week while two, those who hold masters degree, have less teaching load but they have other administrational work.

Table 12: Teacher Demographics

Criteria	N.
Country of Birth	
SA	2
Egypt	2
Tunisia	2
Dialect of Arabic spoken	
Hijazi Arabic	2
Tunisian Arabic	2
Cairene Arabic	2
Knowledge of English as a language	
Second language	4
Third language	2
Visit to a native English country	
Yes	4
No	2
Degrees or diplomas held	
Master's in English Literature and Arts.	2
BA English	4
Other	0
Prior experience of teaching at EFL institutes	
Yes	4
No	2
Years of experience of teaching EFL	
0–1 years	2
2–4 years	1
More than 4 years	3
Years of experience in present institute	
0–2 years	2
3-4 years	1
More than 4 years	3
Hours per week	
15–16 hours	2

Criteria	N.
16–18 hours	4

All teachers are highly educated native Arabic speakers whose overall English proficiency is quite advanced. Although their university study concentrates on literature rather than linguistics, all are quite familiar with the English phonetics and their pronunciations which varies-mostly in relation to the opportunities each has had to visit or study in English-speaking countries or to work with English-speaking colleagues (Celce-Murcia et. al., 1996). The following lines present the teachers' education backgrounds elicited from their interview.

1- Saudi teachers:

Both Saudi teachers had studied in governmental schools where English is taught from 1st year of intermediate school, i.e. at the age of 12 or 13. Also, they both confirmed in the interview that they haven't studied in any language institute. Their experience is very few with 0 and 1 year only. It is worth mentioning that these two Saudi teachers are recent bachelor graduates of English from the European Languages Department in a Saudi university that provide 80% of the courses in English literature, drama and general education while 20% in linguistics and translation with no module in TESOL program or teachers' preparation, see Appendix J. Arguably, "EFL graduates of colleges of education and colleges of arts follow a 4- year program of courses in English language skills, English literature, linguistics, applied linguistics, and translation. Students take only one course on EFL teaching methodology, which is not enough for the diverse needs of EFL teachers" (Al-Hazmi, 2012).

2- Egyptian teachers

In case of the Egyptian teachers, their interview clarifies that both of them had been studying in "language schools" in Al-Mansourah city. It is noted that this kind of schools teaches in English and add a second language as German or French from the second grade (Egyptian Ministry of Education, 2016). Both Egyptian teachers had their education in French type of language schools where English and French are considered as their L2 and L3 respectively. One of them holds a master degree in English literature; she has the longest experience in teaching TESOL, IELTS and English courses for L2 learners. The other teacher has a moderate experience with 4 years in teaching English in Egyptian general education and two years in ELI.

3- Tunisian teachers

As illustrated from the Tunisian1 interview, Tunisian education system applies CAPES certificate on intended teachers of English. This stands for Certificat d’aptitude au professorat du second degré (Teacher's Aptitude for teaching English on secondary school). This kind of assessment

evaluates the testers' English proficiency and it is followed by a teaching training program. This program prepares the teachers to their first steps in teaching English. Also, it offers a separate course in pronunciation and speaking skills (Tunisian Ministry of Education, 2016).

This selection procedure led to choosing 6 teachers, of whom 2 were Saudis, 2 Egyptians and 2 Tunisians. Each pair shares the same L1 sub-dialect. For anonymity purposes, each teacher is given a code to represent her participation. Teachers' code consists of two letters and one number. That is, letter T is representing "teacher" and the second letter is representing the first letter of the teachers' nationality, i.e. S for Saudi, E for Egyptian and T for Tunisian. The number represents the number of the teacher if she is numbered as one or two. For example, TT1 representing Tunisian teacher 1, and TS2 represents Saudi Teacher 2.

3.5.2.1.1.2 Students

The sample of students of the audio recording involved in the study comprised 120 students taught by each of two Tunisian, two Egyptian and two Saudi teachers in the same proportions. That is, there were exactly 20 students per teacher and a total of 120 students. It is worth noting that these students differ from those who participated in the survey, see 3.4.2. All the students, aged between 17 and 20, were female freshman students due to the limited access to the male section in the university campus. They were all studying four English modules in their first year and they were required to pass each of the four levels with a score of at least 60% in order to be able to specialise in a major of their own choosing. All of them were randomly selected during their English classes, having responded to the request of the researcher to participate in the study and agreeing to do so. All the participants were told that the project was designed to explore the problems pertaining to the pronunciation of selected English consonants typically encountered by Saudi students. They were also informed that their speech would be recorded whilst reading the flashcards, and all of them accepted this. In order to delimit other variables that may affect the students' pronunciation, a set of criteria for selecting the subjects was designed: all participating students originated from the Hijaz region, the Western region in SA, spoke with the Saudi-Hijazi dialect in their daily life, and went to governmental Saudi high school throughout their general education, so were therefore not expected to have been exposed to non-Saudi teachers, as could be the case in the private schools. Regarding coding the students for anonymity, each student's code is representing by her teacher's code then (st), representing "student" and followed by her number among the participated students of the class and lastly classifying the audio into a pre-test or a post-test. For instance, (TE1_st_4_pre) representing that this audio belong to a pre-test for number 4-student among the Egyptian teacher 1 class.

3.5.2.1.2 Design of the speech material and sounds examined

Many researchers (Labov, 1972; Kenworthy, 1987; Major, 1998; Elliot, 1995) have found that the more formal or controlled the speech task, the more the accurate the learners and the high rate of the phonetically target-like productions. One important parameter in recording learners is the type of speech material (Hyde-Simon, 2012). There are three tasks of speech materials that research has been revolved on; word condition, sentence condition and story condition. The longer the speech, the near-target like it will be. Studies have shown the tendency for learners to make more pronunciation errors when reading aloud than when speaking spontaneously. Kenworthy (1987) identifies two types of speech: reading aloud and spontaneous speech. Schmidt (1974, 1987) employs word list task, passage to be read about and informal conversation. Initially, it was planned when designing the speech material of this study that the students' pronunciation of the specific sounds could be tested via free speech conversation with the researchers. However, I found that the speaking tests are not practical to carry on in this research for the following reasons.

1. Speaking proficiency tests, such as the Oral Proficiency Interview, are not the focus of my study and do not lead to the research objectives.
2. It will test the students' speaking proficiency holistically without concentrating on pronouncing specific sounds/features which are under the current study.
3. These tests require a minimum level of proficiency to produce sufficiently sophisticated novel utterances that the Saudi students lack.
4. It would be time-consuming of the task as each test of the speaking method will take about 20-30 minutes and the students don't have enough spare time to volunteer as participants in such study.
5. Choosing/controlling the topic of the free speech does not guarantee pronouncing all the selected ten sounds under this study.
6. Inability to use a computer or a laptop or loaded the test online were not suitable processes for my study context due to lack of space availability, students' time-consuming, and demand for internet access.
7. Using flashcards method is the common test used in testing the students' pronunciation. Also, it is easy to create, carry and don't need a place to conduct the test.

Thus, for the current context, and due to the above reasons, using the flashcards aided with pictures and recording the participants' voices allow the researcher to notice the difficulties that the students are facing in reading and pronouncing any word. Actually, this study as most of the audio-lingual studies tests the students' ability to "read" and pronounce specific sounds as these two skills are interrelated with each other.

This study uses one task that is reading word list which contains the ten sounds, each sound is presented three positions (word-initial, word-medial and word-final) in order to assure the students' ability to pronounce these sounds. Due to the nature of the variable there are cases which cannot usefully be looked at in a variationist, quantitative analysis. These are called the “Don’t-Count” cases (Mair, 2005). In this study, these cases are the minimal pairs that are regarded as distracters and to make sure that the participant can differentiate between such pairs and any mispronunciation will not be counted.

Moreover, it is worth mentioning that all participated teachers are experienced teachers, as mentioned in section 3.5.2.1.1.1, and they gain a high English proficiency level. Thus, they recognise all new and familiar words of this list. Regarding the participated students, they were placed in level three of the foundation year. So, their recognition of the words in the list may be limit. Essentially, the creation of this word list is based on the textbook used in their English classrooms, see section 1.5. New words are chosen primarily on their existence in the new vocabulary words which are listed at the end of the textbook of level three. This selection was restricted also by the phonetic constrain that could contribute to the objectives of the current study. Such words as *junk food*, *weather*, *spoil*, *future* and *hangout* were mentioned as new lexicon in the textbook word list (John and Liz Soars, 2011, Pre-intermediate level: 135-141). Alternatively, some of the familiar words are extracted from their textbooks word lists in previous levels (John and Liz Soars, 2011, Elementary level: 140-151), as *white cheese*, *jar*, *Egypt* and *bathroom*, while other words are basic English words which are taught in their general education such as *thanks*, *three*, *this*, *with*, and *five* (MoE.gov.sa, English School Textbook, second year secondary, 2016).

The students were asked to read through flashcards during the pre-test stage stating 68 words containing 16 sounds deemed difficult for Arab learners in general and Saudis in particular. The words were categorised either as new words, familiar words or minimal pairs, as recommended by Binturki (2008). The final word list, see Appendix F, consisted of 67 words containing the ten sounds occurring in the three different positions (initial, medial and final), and 11 minimal pairs as distracters. Distinguished in terms of familiarity, the selections and the reasons were as follows.

New words – (28 words) - This list was prepared presuming that the words were new for the students, i.e. that the students were not likely to have encountered them before. These words were taken from the 'new vocabulary' section of the students' English textbook. The aim was to investigate the effect of the teacher's accented English pronunciation on her students, assuming that she is their sole source of exposure to pronunciation in the context of the face to face audio-lingual teaching method.

Familiar words – (28 words) - These are words that were known to have been learned before, when the students passed the second level of the English language programme, equivalent to the intermediate level of the Oxford Placement Test used in their preparation year. This category was made to generate the control data for the study against which the output data were analysed.

Minimal pairs – (11 pairs) - These pairs of words were included in the reading list both as distracters and to accurately test the pronunciation of the sound being tested in distinction from its nearest counterpart. As stated by Albirini (2016), "Most urban Arabic dialects are categorized by the substitution of the interdental sounds /ϴ/ and /ð/… with the alveolars /s/, /t/, /d/ and /z/" (p. 32). Thus, by applying the test of these pairs, it will be clearer to the researcher to analyse if the teachers' English sounds are affected by their L1 dialect or not.

The sounds selected to be examined were segmental consonants that were identified as proving to be the most difficult and problematic for Saudi and Arab learners generally, based on the literature review. The key studies in this regard were Ahmad (2011); Al-Badawi (2012); Algarni (2013); Al-Saidat and Bin Talal (2010); Binturki (2008); Flege and Port (1981); Khan (2011); Moosa (1979) and Albirini (2016). Moreover, it is worth mentioning that the sounds examined were chosen based on their existence in the three Arabic dialects, which are Saudi Hijazi, Egyptian-Cairene and Tunisian. The wolds table, Appendix F, lists these selected sounds, along with the reasons for including them and examples of words containing them in three different positions (initial, medial and final). All the words are typed individually on flashcards; each token is written is in a single flash card as this way enables easiness to carry the cards and fast the researcher can switch between the tokens. They are grouped into four groups, so the participants can relax between them and re-focus to continue the task. Since L1 of all participants of the current study is Arabic, this study aims to investigate further findings on how students' pronunciation could be affected by the orthography of both languages, for more clarification on the difference between English and Arabic spelling and orthography systems, please refer to section 2.4.1.2. Also, it is mentioned by Al-Mehmadi (2013) that language proficiency is a major affecting factor of the results and this factor is controlled because all students of this study were placed the

intermediate level, however, the individual differences may apply here. It is also worth noting that a pilot audio recording was conducted among some teachers and students, see section 3.7.2.

3.5.2.1.3 Procedure and analysis

Before commencing the recordings, it was explained that the anonymity of the participants would be protected by using pseudonyms and that they would be able to ask for anything they said to be deleted if they subsequently changed their mind. The recording equipment used for most recordings was a digital Sony 16GB NWZ-E385 Series Walkman MP3 recorder, a laptop to transfer the MP3 files recorded and a microphone which was clipped to the participant's collar about 5 inches from the talker's mouth, so the recording would be as precise as possible (given that close analysis of the individual sounds was to take place in the data analysis stage).

Several researchers, such as Hyde-Simon (2012) and Aoki (2014), sustain that in the presence of the microphone, speakers have the tendency to speak as carefully as possible. In order to compensate for the possibility that speakers may speak more carefully than normal in the presence of a microphone, the participants were given a short briefing about the project and they were unaware of the exact nature of the research. They were told instead that the study was general in nature for, examining how Saudi students acquire their English pronunciation. Furthermore, to insure professionalism and the safety of both the researcher and the participants, data recordings took place in the quietest classroom available on the university buildings or a reserved study room of its central library. However, when analyzing the sounds, Cool-Edit Software was used to filter sounds and apply a noise reduction of the background when necessary.

Audio-recording without video was used so as most of the students do not agree to be video recorded or even saved her photo. Accordingly, it is not acceptable for religious reasons, since female students and teachers do not wear the Islamic Hijab inside the campus, which is required when they appear in public. Moreover, the conservative culture of the study context compelled me to arrange for a consent form to be filled in by each student regardless of whether she is older than 18. It was also required for this to be signed by their parents for giving consent to participate in my study by allowing the recording of their daughter’s voice, which as pointed out was restricted for research purposes only and which were later destroyed. see 3.9.2.

The first phase of the data analysis was to set up the 'target-like' TL pronunciation which is considered as the control data. This was approached by recording a 40-year-old female native speaker, who was born and raised in the UK and speaks the RP dialect. Technically, among many reasons that could affect the acoustic analysis are the speaker’s age (child/adult/old) and gender

(male/female) (Johnson, 2012). Therefore, the selection for the native speaker was based on (1)her RP accent which is the standard English version in the current study, and (2)her age and gender which match that of all participants, who are females and aged between 17-45.

Subsequently, while interviewing each teacher, the researcher introduced the study to her and the confidentiality and anonymity of her participation was assured. After giving her a time to read the word list and familiarise herself with it, the researcher started recording each teacher's voice digitally while reading the flash cards which contains the 10 sounds under the study. The next stage is to record voices of the students of each teacher's digitally, following the same steps of their teachers. It was told to the participant to pause between each token. This task took approximately 4-5 minutes per participant. If the participant made any mistake, she is allowed to repeat the token, and the error was disregarded in subsequent transcription. The teachers were recorded before the beginning of the course while the students were recorded twice before and after the course. In each incident, the same task was repeated with the same students.

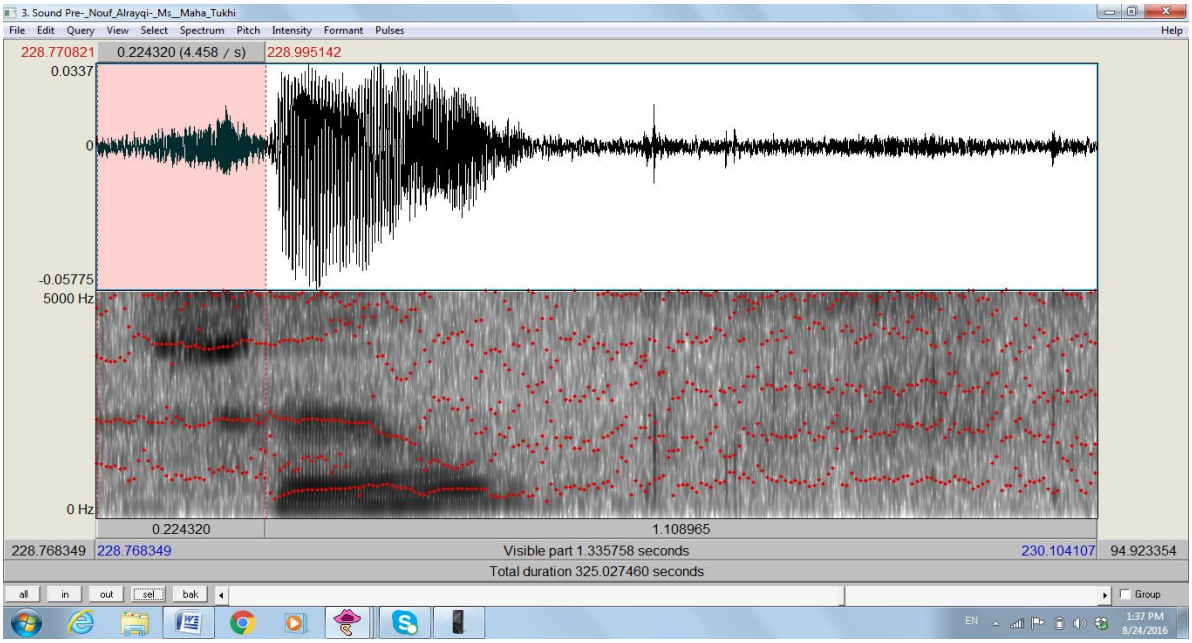
For the phase of the data analysis, there were two main stages in the analysis of raw data recordings. First, a practical approach incorporating an assessment of 'target-like' productions of L2 sounds by (1)two native English speakers as arbitrators who were not participants of the current study, see below,(2)a sound analyzer specialist. The second stage is using the statistical approach.

For the first stage of analyzing the participants' outcome, the recordings were analysed very carefully to note the pronunciation. Each consonant was extracted from the surrounding environment and two English native speakers, as a panel of linguistic experts, were tasked to identify the intelligibly problematic sounds as they occurred within the participants' aural speech recordings. The two arbitrators were specialists in English phonetics and phonology and teaching English as second language for more than 10 years. As both of them are not familiar with any Arabic accents/dialects, their judgment on the sound would be more objective and not influenced by their assumed previous knowledge of Arabic. Their role was to compare the raw data of participants with the control one of the native speaker, mentioned above. Both judges were directed to pay special attention to the particular consonant sound within the selected words read out by the participants.

In order to further establish the reliability and validity of the research procedure used for audio analysis, the speech that was analysed by the panel was re-analysed using speech analysis software, PRAAT, which is a scientific computer software package for the analysis of phonetics speech. It was designed by Paul Boersma and David Weenink of the University of Amsterdam (Boersma and Weenink, www.praat.org, 2016). Using the spectrogram, each sound was extracted

from the word and analysed acoustically by comparing it to the target-like sound produced by the female native speaker. For more elaboration, a supplemented example of /tʃ/ sound spectrogram in the word *child* is shown in the spectrogram below, Figure 15, by one participated student of the current study (pre-test and post-test). The student's and her teacher's (TE1) productions was analyzed acoustically and compared to each other and to that of the native speakers'.

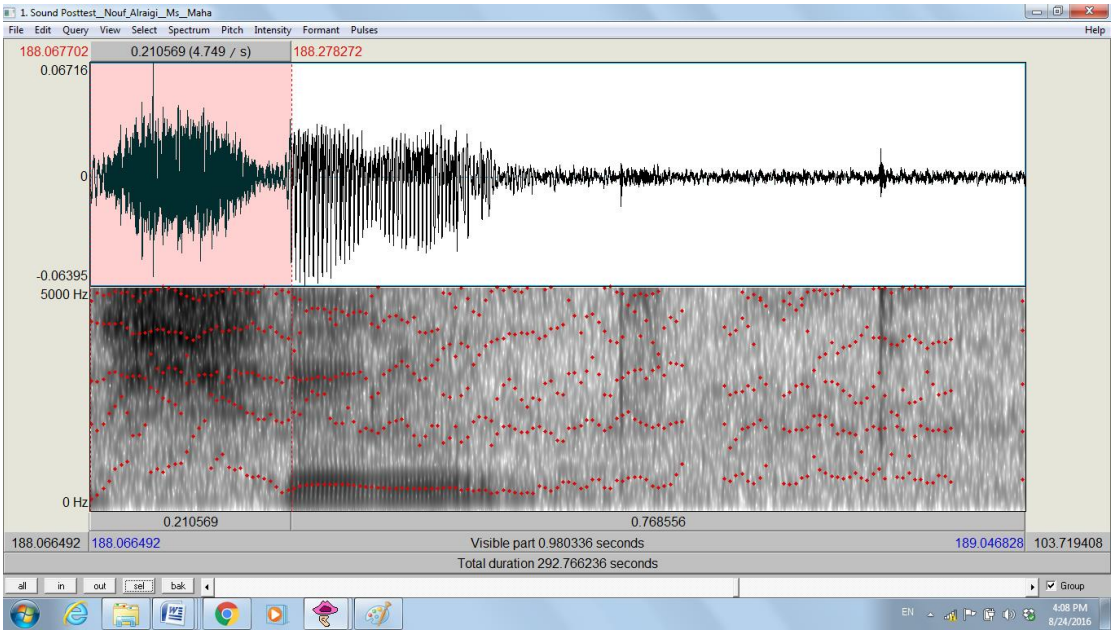
Figure 15: Spectrogram of *child* by a student's pre-test of Egyptian teacher 1



(TE1_st_4_pre)

The next spectrogram, Figure 16, shows the pronunciation of the same student in the post test of the same word (child).

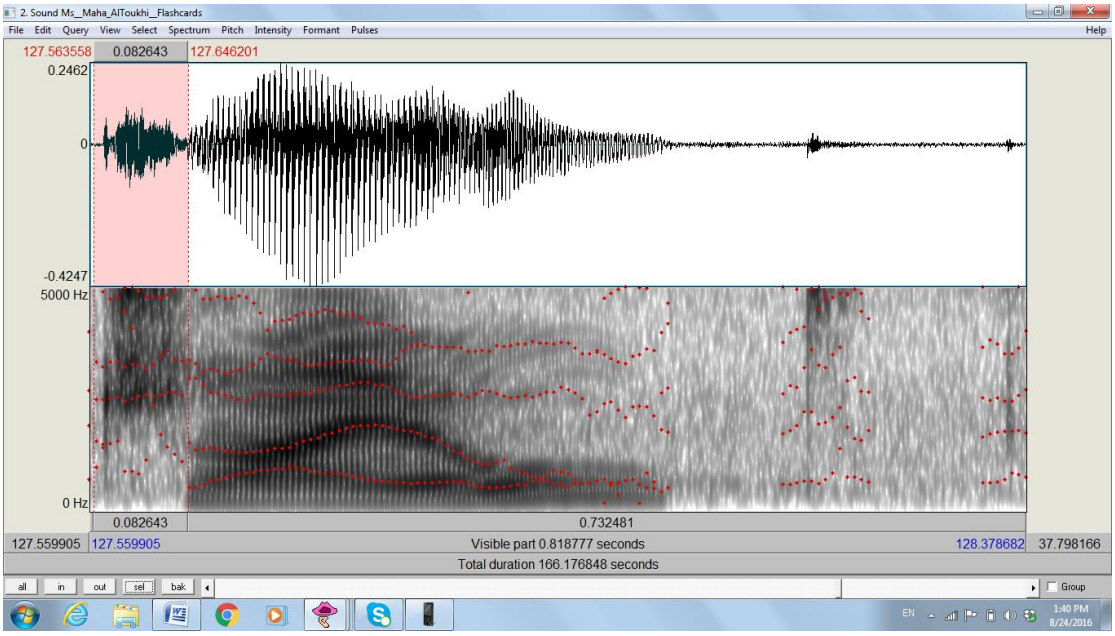
Figure 16: Spectrogram of *child* by a student's post-test of Egyptian teacher 1



(TE1_st_4_post)

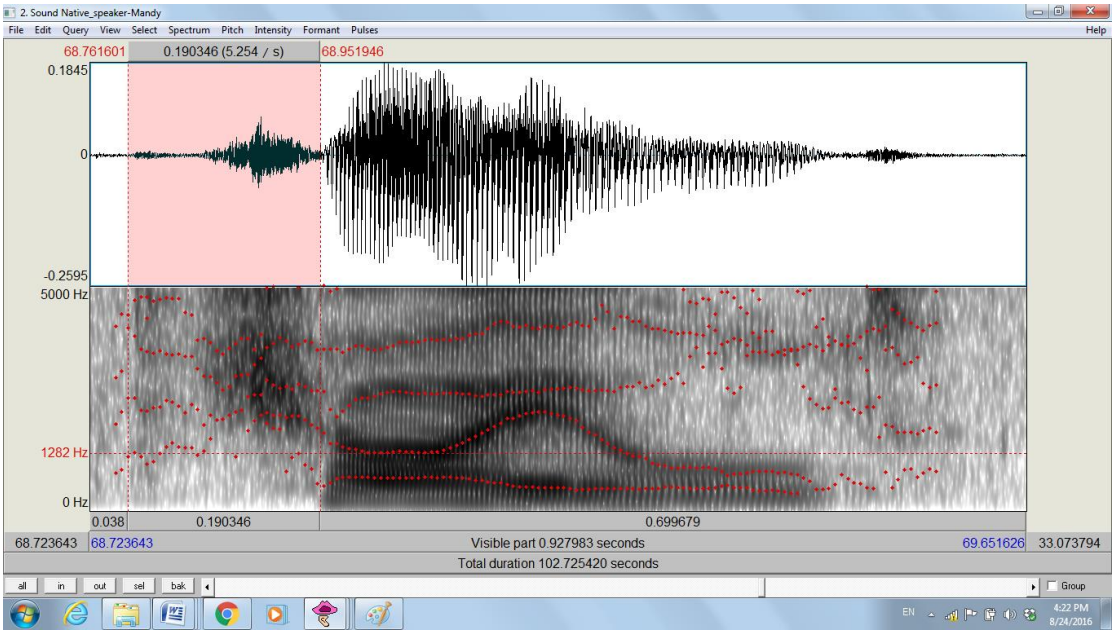
The following spectrum,Figure 17,represents her teacher's pronunciation of the same word (child)

Figure 17: Spectrogram of *child* by Egyptian teacher 1



The following spectrogram, Figure 18, represents the native speaker pronunciation of the word (child)

Figure 18: Spectrogram of "child" by a native speaker



The English voiceless postalveolar affricate /tʃ/ were recognized. On the spectrogram, the /tʃ/ sound, which is highlighted, was recognized by a closure for the stop part followed by a sharp release for the fricative a periodic noise part (Figure 15 to Figure 18). The participants' outputs were transcribed using IPA (International Phonetic Alphabet) symbols (version 2010). In the above example, "the affricate /tʃ/ sound, phonetically, composed to a plosive followed by a fricative" (Roach, 2009: 121), which is in this case /t/ plosive followed by /ʃ/ fricative.

The L2 phones as produced by the learners had to be categorized as either target-like (TL), that is, acquired or approaching acquisition, or non-target-like (NTL), that is, not acquired or not approaching acquisition. As reported by Flege (1980), recently by Hyde-Simon (2012), As the target-like nature of the phonetic production can be judged according to phonetic norms of the target language, the learners' data and the teachers in the present study is compared to the controlled data that is the native speaker's pronunciation which is the RP pronunciation and which is English variety of the textbook material (see section 1.4). The sound produced by the participant is decided to be TL or NTL according to the majority of agreement among all three arbitrators, the two native speakers and the result of the speech analysis.

In this stage, the tokens were transcribed on a broad phonetic transcription in the sense that no allophonic variation or diacritics are indicated (IPA, 2010), see Appendix C. This phase required playing the speeches frequently so that all the necessary phonological details could be tailed.

After completion of the practical stage of the data analysis, the results of the coding were recorded in excel spreadsheet containing the students' codes and the ten sounds under the study

and how each sound is pronounced, Appendix G. The value one (1) is given to the NTL, non target-like utterances, while the value zero (0) is given to the TL, target-like utterance (Hyde-Simon, 2012). Each student's results show the total number of TL/NTL. Then, the errors (NTL) were analyzed for their types to check for any patterns that participants tended to make.

The second phase of the analysis begins here where the statistical analysis is applied. The data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS 20.0) for three main goals; (1) to identify each teacher's and each student's NTL pronunciation for each sound, this will lead to the next goal which is (2) to find the significance between the students' pre-test and the post-test for each teacher's class, and (3) to investigate which sounds are salient than others among the six classes of teachers. The first goal is achievable by processing the data in Excel sheet and calculating the total of NTL for each participant. The second goal is realised by applying a paired t-tests for each teacher's class in order to calculate the mean values in pre and post test, paying attention to the sounds and the vocabulary familiarity. Adoption of the paired t-test rather than the independent samples t-test, the latter is appropriate when the comparison groups are drawn from independent samples. The paired samples t-test was conducted at the 95% level of confidence (critical value = 0.05). In order to find the significance among the data of the classes, it was assumed that the two populations have the same variance, i.e. that the assumption of homogeneity of variance holds true, and that the populations are normally distributed. However, the two samples being compared (for the pre-test and post-test conditions) were drawn from the same subjects and the following hypotheses were made:

> Null hypothesis (H_0): There is no difference between the two means of the two tests. That is, the means are equal ($\mu_1 = \mu_2$) and any differences are due to chance.
>
> Alternative hypothesis (H_a): A difference between the means does exist. That is, the means are unequal ($\mu_1 \neq \mu_2$) due to being different to a significant degree.

The third goal is reachable via applying ANOVA (statistical analysis of variance method) which was chosen to this research due to many reasons. First, for the methodological reason, ANOVA helps to compare across multiple groups, which is the case of third goal of statistical analysis. Second, it follows other seminal works in the field of L2 phonology (Hyde-Simon, 2012). Thus, it could be ensured that the results could be comparable to other SLA studies in terms of significant and non-significant results. Third, multiple testing can lead to errors in inference, including greatly likelihood of making "Type I error" and incorrectly reject the null hypothesis (Weinburg and Abramowitz, 2008). Type I error is usually 5%. By running two t-tests on the same data, the chance of "making a mistake" increases to 10%. The formula for determining the new error rate

for multiple t-tests is not as simple as multiplying 5% by the number of tests. As such, three t-tests would be 15%. Since these are unacceptable errors, ANOVA reduces this risk so that the Type I error remains at 5% and more confident on the result is attributed (Tolmie, Muijs and McAteer, 2011). However, there is a slight disadvantage in using ANOVA which only compares, for example, group 1 with group 2, and group 2 with group 3, and not group 3 with group 1, whereas multiple t-tests would overcome this problem (McDonough and McDonough, 1997). Therefore, it was decided to use ANOVA along with a post hoc Tukey HSD test, a post hoc correction test, which takes account of an adjustment for doing multiple group comparisons, to determine statistical significance. Results where $p<0.05$ were classes as significant- this level of significance is the norm in SLA research, p-value, the resulted critical value of testing the hypothesis and to be compared with the significance level 0.05, if $p<0.05$ reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative one. These results will be analysed and discussed in Chapter 4: Results/Findings and Discussion.

3.5.2.2 Classroom observation

This research method had been limitedly used was classroom observations which are useful in enabling both individual and classroom behaviour to be observed closely. The intention of active observations is to observe and utilise all sources of information during the interaction. As Merriam (2009) noted, observations are important when combined with interviews, as they help to take note of patterns, events and phenomena that may be worth investigating further.

Classroom observation periods were used to observe the actual teacher practices adopted, and the kinds of task that were given to students for practising pronunciation. Also, specifically, the observations enabled the teaching styles to be recognised, for case studies and documentary analysis to be conducted, and for the researcher to keep a diary of the observations (Brumfit and Mitchell, 1990). It is worth mentioning that I have attended and conducted 12 classroom observations, gathering fieldnotes by conducting an observation as an observer (Creswell, 2007). As such, the observations were unstructured, as opposed to participant observation, as the aim was to observe the phenomenon in its natural setting rather than participating in it (Punch, 2005). These observations gave me contextual knowledge about how student are taught English in the foundation year. Also, observing these classes enlarge my thoughts about how speaking and pronunciation skills specifically are presented in the class. However, with the intention of limiting my focus of this research, I use only three main instruments mentioned above and the fourth one was only a complementary tool.

3.5.3 Phase III: Follow-up Interview

Attitude has extensively been studied among research in sociolinguistics field. It is stated by Bohner and Wänke that "The simplest way to find out about someone's attitude is to ask directly" (2002: 22).

Since the current study aims to examine the students' attitude towards their teachers' pronunciation, I have adapted Elliot's PAI by the use of interview method other than survey. The fixed statements and the numerical evaluations of the survey will restrict the participants' opinion towards their attitude. Also, in order to be open for non-emergent themes, I applied the interview method which is considered the most popular method among the techniques available in qualitative researches (Dörnyei, 2007). Using interview gives more input, deep understanding and actual experience of the phenomenon under this research. It is argued by Seidman (2006) that the best way to gain information from the participants is to interview them. There are three types of interview: the structured interview, the unstructured and the semi-structured interview. The first type is very similar to the questionnaire questions where the interviewee is able to respond to certain answers, while the second type refers to an open discussion about a topic and the third is an organised interview with pre-planned questions but sharing similarities from both aforementioned types. "The interviewer provides guidance and direction (hence the 'structured' part in the name), but is also keen to follow up interesting developments and to let the interviewee elaborate in certain issues (hence the 'semi-' part)" (Dörnyei, 2007: 136).

From the above, it is understood that this type of interview is useful as it provides the interviewer with the ability to probe the interviewee's responses and ask the rationale behind "Yes" answers and seek for the reasons behind the 'No' ones. The semi-structured interview was chosen in this research because it is the most appropriate type, as mentioned earlier, that could help to reveal the participants' attitude within the themes provided. Another reason to choose this type of interview is that in addition to its ability to gather difficult information, it presents an in-depth discussion that could enrich the data with unexpected concepts (Seidman, 2006). However, it is worth mentioning that the main weakness of using the interview instrument is that it is time consuming to set up the interview questions and to set up the interview itself, in terms of place and time.

In the current study, the teachers' individual interviews, which were recorded, were conducted in order to identify common phonetic characteristics and the nature of their English pronunciation, along with any noticeable variety or accentual feature exhibited in their articulation. The interviews also provided an opportunity to ascertain the backgrounds of the teachers and the number of years they had been teaching English, and to know whether the teachers were able to

speak another language and what are the challenges that they face in teaching English pronunciation to Saudi students. Besides the teachers' interview, individual in-depth interviews were conducted with some students who participated in the follow-up interview phase which aims to explore their attitude and perception towards their teachers' English accents and their pronunciation challenges along with view towards native/non-native English teachers' accents.

All students' interviews, which lasted approximately ten minutes each, were recorded only audibly. The explanation is that recording is much easier than note taking, which could disturb the interviewee and confuse her flow of ideas (Patton, 2002). On the other hand, recording the interview may cause an uncomfortable feeling for the participant and "people do not like to be recorded" (Dörnyei, 2007: 139). Although video recording provides more information on the interviewees' non-verbal cues, such as eye contact and facial expressions, the researcher used only the audio recording for cultural reasons, as all the participants were females and not all of them agreed to be shown in a video, even if it was to be used for research reasons. It is worth pointing out that after transcribing the students' interviews, they were translated from Arabic (Saudi dialect) into English (see section 3.6).

3.5.3.1 Participants

3.5.3.1.1 Teachers

The same six selected teachers were interviewed in order to find a general idea about the demographic information and teaching experience, including age, place of origin, region belonged to, original dialect, and self-introduction. Also, this interview aimed to investigate their background in English learning, in terms of when and where they started learning English, and details of their own study—whether it included sufficient training in teaching pronunciation to non-English speakers. Moreover, teaching experience was explored by asking the number of years and hours per week spent teaching English, and the proportion of hours teaching involving speaking and teaching pronunciation.

3.5.3.1.2 Students

The second type of the interview (see Appendix H) is addressed to 15 students who were willing to be interviewed after their participation in the audio recording and had finished the course. In order to delimit the probability of bias, those students were chosen randomly based on their teachers' group, five students for each group of teachers (5 out of 40 students taught by Saudi teachers, 5 of 40 taught by Tunisians and 5 of 40 taught by Egyptians), refer to 3.4.2.

This interview tries to answer the third and the fourth research questions as a follow-up for the survey, in correlation with the audio-recording results respectively. This method contains the categories for the interview questions, namely the preliminary questions, content questions, probes and final closing questions (Dörnyei, 2007). The adapted students' interview contains the following aspects.

- Demographic information including age, the students' regional dialect, learning and exposure to English, age when learning English (Part A).
- Attitude towards NEST/NNEST, perception of NEST and NNEST, which they prefer and their reasons behind that, and how they could differentiate between the teachers' accents (Part B).
- Attitude towards Arabic speaking English teachers' accents and their perception of their preference of an exact nationality and the reason behind that; what their attitude is towards Arab accented English accents (Part C).

3.5.3.2 Procedures and analysis

A qualitative data analysis method looked for themes or patterns that were found to be common among the respondents and organise the data based on the theme or pattern that is noticed. The data obtained from each question was then compared to the observed theme and segregated accordingly. Once the data collection process was completed, the collected data was analysed and interpreted through the use of a coding system that was made to fit the design of the current study (Raizi, 2016).

The qualitative analysis was progressed manually using MS Word. After the students finished the English level, the interviews were carried out and the data was transcribed, coded and translated then analysed using thematic network analysis.

Coding process is vital in order to maintain confidentiality and for protecting the personal identities of the participants. This process is used during the data collection and analysis stage. Coding involves classifying and organising the data into numerous categories. Typically, coding is done after the information that is collected is collated, sorted and bracketed pursuant to a phenomenological reductionist method. According to Jorgensen (1989: 107), "coding involves searching for types, classes, sequences, processes, patterns or wholes [that will] assemble or reconstruct the data in a meaningful or comprehensible fashion." After coding the data was analysed using thematic analysis which is a method of shifting through qualitative information and understanding it in order to identify common themes. The fundamental principle of thematic

analysis is to determine the themes salient in a text at different levels. Thus, a thematic analysis helps identify patterns and also aids in the structuring and depiction of these patterns. Generally, a thematic analysis is used to systematize the extraction of basic themes, organising themes and global themes (Braun and Clarke, 2006). In the current study, the researcher analysed the data for common themes and discernible patterns, after which each of the observed themes was coded and placed into identifiable categories. In addition to this, uncommon themes are also recorded; these may have an influence on the students' attitude towards their teachers' accented English and are also coded and placed into identifiable categories. In a situation where the data collected does not fit into any of the categories created, such data is coded separately by reference to the more common themes from which they deviate. Wherever necessary, sub-categories also are created. Notably, thematic analysis differs from content analysis in that it does not seek to necessarily quantify themes or to build a structure; rather, the focus is on the writing (Flick, 2014).

The themes were distinguished on the basis of whether they were basic, organising or global:

- Basic themes: This is the lowest order theme and represents simple premises characteristic of the data. However, a basic theme needs to be read within the context of other basic themes. A group of basic themes together form an organising theme.

- Organising themes: These are middle order themes. They are clusters of meaning that summarize the principal assumptions of a group of basic themes. The aim of an organising theme is to enhance the meaning and significance of a broader theme that unites several organising themes.

- Global themes: These are the main themes that encompass the overall metaphors in the data as a whole. They summarize and make sense of clusters of lower order themes abstracted from and supported by the data (Attride-Stirling, 2001), see section 4.4.1.2.

It is worth bearing in mind that pilot interviews were conducted by the researcher in order to for the researcher to be more confident of using this method, see section 3.7.3.

3.6 Translation

The process of translation is an exacting one due to the different cultural demands of the students in addition to the technical task of finding the correct match for lexis. Thus, this careful process of translation and checking was needed for each stage of the questionnaire and students' interviews. Firstly, the questionnaire was translated from English into Arabic, the native language of participants, since the population of the study includes EFL students because students might

have found it somewhat challenging as their English level ranges from beginner to intermediate and to ensure that they fully understand the meaning of the questionnaire. The translation of the instrument went through different stages. Firstly, it was translated by the researcher (a native Arabic speaker). Secondly, the questionnaire was reviewed and edited by two translators, who hold Master's degrees in English/Arabic translation. After the modifications of the instrument based on the translators' views, it was ready for distributing and initial piloting. Of course, consulting with specialists in translation continued at all stages, from designing the questionnaire and through all its amendments, until the final distribution to the respondents. The second stage of translation was carried out on the students' responses in their interviews. This stage required the translation from Arabic (Saudi dialect) into English in order to investigate the themes mentioned by the students in their interviews and trying to code them appropriately. It should be noted that the students' quotes used in the interpretation of the qualitative data were first translated by the researcher, who is a bilingual of Arabic and English, and then revised by the two translators.

In the following section, an attempt is made to summarize the procedure of the pilot study, including the benefits and the challenges that restrict the methodology used.

3.7 Pilot study

Carrying out a pilot study is usually only important in quantitative studies rather than in qualitative studies because the latter type usually depend on the psychometric properties of the research instruments (Dörnyei, 2007: 75). The goal of the pilot study also includes reviewing the preliminary research design and refining the survey and interview questions and other instruments used for the recording (both pre- and post-test). This refinement leads to an increase in the reliability and validity as well as the practicability of the research instruments, especially the survey questionnaire (Cohen et al., 2000). During the pilot study, baseline data were first gathered from the ELI administration on the number of Saudi and non-Saudi teachers, native and non-native, of English at the institute. This enabled the environment in which the students are learning to be better understood.

This phase of piloting the present study gave the researcher confidence in the tool, allowing time to reduce errors and produce a concise questionnaire. This pilot study was conducted on a small sample of respondents who were randomly selected and the total number was three teachers, and six students, two from each teacher's class. During the autumn semester of 2013, a pilot study was conducted to test each of the instruments and to establish a research protocol. The pilot highlighted needed alterations to the instruments and the data gathering process itself.

However, the researcher faced some obstacles in this phase. The first major obstruction was to gain approval from the head of administration to carry out this study. Arranging for only a five minute meeting took about a week, and it was after this meeting that the ELI permitted its teachers to be contacted and me to attend any of their classes. Approval for the students was gained on the condition of requesting further approval from their parents to make audio recordings of their voices, even in the case of those aged above 18, as this study was conducted in a conservative culture. A consent form (Appendix D) was prepared for this purpose for the parent to sign, which was also signed by the researcher, and contact information was also provided for any enquiries.

The teaching coordinators were also contacted and asked to provide an updated list of names of elementary level teachers. These teachers were first divided exclusively based on whether they taught alone or as part of a team, since some teaching is also done as team. The sample of the teachers in the pilot study numbered only three solo elementary level teachers, i.e. those teachers who teach their class alone and whose class is an elementary level class. Furthermore, only those teachers were selected whose nationality was either Egyptian, Saudi or Tunisian, as these are the most frequently employed teachers. The participated teachers were asked to read a preliminary list of words written on flashcards as these words contained the troublesome sounds for the three dialects (see section 2.3.5.1). An initial cohort of six female students, two for each teacher, participated in the pilot study. They were asked to read the same flashcards and give their input regarding their own capacity to read them and word familiarity. Then, after having contacted the assigned teachers, three stages ensued. Firstly, the teachers were interviewed; then their responses were recorded whilst reading a passage from an elementary level textbook they were using for teaching; and afterwards the researcher attended their classes to introduce this research to the students and to encourage them to participate in the study.

3.7.1 Piloting the survey

Based on this initial piloting, the translation of the instrument was further modified, some items were reworded and translated clearly in the survey as the meaning of "native or non-native" (item no. 3) and the differentiation between "teacher's accent" and "teacher's nationality" (item no. 5). Expressions such as *nonnative speaker* and the conception of comparing native and nonnative speakers in terms of *understandability* and *pronunciation* could be confusing to the subjects in an L2 (Barlow, 2009). Also, item 5.9 had been added in order to investigate the possible technological factors on English pronunciation (Appendix E). The discussion was sometimes required with the translators to ensure the accuracy of translation and to clarify what was meant by the researcher. At this stage, the questionnaire was ready to be administered for the main study

3.7.2 Piloting the audio recording

Piloting the audio recording required testing the word list and the technical tools used for recordings. First, the word list was read by 6 students (2 of each group of teachers). Then, the list was updated not to include any embedded or loan words, which are borrowed words from a language and adopted into another. The preliminary list included loan words as (garage, beige, television and birthday). In order to delimit students' "Arabtising" of these English loanwords, i.e. applying the Arabic phonological features on these loan words, which had been replaced by non-loan words containing the same sounds under investigation. Notably, the word 'garage' could be seen as problematic, as /ʒ/ is taken to be a non-native like pronunciation whereas it could be treated more appropriately as a variant of native pronunciation. Thus, this word is deleted from the list. Moreover, some chosen new words were difficult for students because they contain three syllables, as mathematics and agriculture. Thus, they were replaced by new words with two syllables containing the same sounds under test, wealthy and future. Second, regarding the technical tools and process of recordings, all words were typed, printed, supported by a photo as flash cards form in order to avoid any reading ambiguity of the words list. Also, a microphone was aided in the process of reading as it carries clearness for the participants' voices. This phase gave the researcher a clear idea of how students are having serious difficulty in reading/pronouncing English words, even if these words were studied previously. Moreover, it is worth mentioning that giving the participant the time to become familiarized with the examined list of words and dividing the flashcards into groups facilitates this phase.

3.7.3 Piloting the interview questions

For further investigation of key issues from the participants' viewpoints, initial exploratory interviews with 3 EFL teachers and 6 students was conducted in order to guide the construction of the interview questions. The pilot study alerted this researcher that several changes needed to be made. Most significantly regarding the students were the decision to translate the interview questions into Arabic and to explain the linguistic concepts mentioned in the interview questions. This allowed the researcher to notice the congruence in participants' beliefs towards the themes of the research and to explore non-emergent ones.

3.8 Validity, reliability and transferability

A common criticism with the case study approach is that it poses issues of reliability and validity (Duff, 2012), as well as generalisability. However, since a case study can involve a mixed methods

research design with a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods, these issues can be mitigated, as detailed below.

3.8.1 Validity and reliability

Validity and reliability are important considerations in designing the research instrument. Validity refers to its ability “to measure what you intend it to measure”, and reliability to its capability to ensure consistency in the measurement (Colton and Covert, 2007: 65), as well as accuracy. These were achieved in two important ways: (1) By conducting a pilot study; (2) By adopting a mixed-methods methodology. The pilot study helped to test and refine the research design by increasing the reliability and validity of the research instruments, as well as their practicability. Secondly, the mixed-methods methodology enabled complementing both quantitative and qualitative approaches and to triangulate the data obtained.

For all instruments to be valid, a number of procedures were followed. First, number of questionnaire items, words from the word list and some interview questions were reduced after conducting the pilot study, see section 3.7, to increase the reliability of the research instruments. After piloting, the instruments were modified as recommended. Further revision of the instruments items was conducted by the researcher, the translators, and the research supervisors to check the wording and the translation, as well as the meaning of concepts in the instruments.

The data that is collected has to be trustworthy in order for the findings to have any shred of validity. According to Creswell (2012: 133), the data collected for analysis must inspire “confidence in the outcome of the study so that others will believe what is reported". Validity of a study will include checking the credibility, dependability and triangulation of the data, in addition to checking the members involved and carrying out an audit trail (Maykut and Morehouse, 1994). On the other hand, reliability depends on trustworthiness of the data. Joppe defines reliability as “The extent to which results are consistent overtime and an accurate representation of the total population under study is referred to as reliability and if the results of a study can be reproduced under a similar methodology, then the research instrument is considered to be reliable” (2000: 1).

3.8.2 Transferability

Transferability characterises the external validity of the findings of the research study. It refers to the capacity to apply these findings to another situation which is similar to the original area of study. Transferability is an important part of a study, as it aids the readers in applying the findings to a situation that is of concern to them. In order to do this, a reader must understand the

complete picture of the original research. Only then will they be able to determine if this study can be of any use to them. Cohen et al. (2000) argue that the process of transferability requires a detailed description of the research situation.

Transferability of the findings in this study was assured by carrying out triangulation of the data, i.e. by confirming certain findings through more than one method. This was one of the main benefits of adopting a mixed methods research methodology – that it allowed combining a range of quantitative and qualitative methods, which then permitted triangulation of the data. The survey questions were triangulated by the follow-up interview questions. Also, the follow-up interview questions were assured by confirming the general findings of the classroom observations.

3.8.3 Content validity

Content validity refers to the extent to which a research instrument is capable of providing adequate coverage of the subject matter. It is defined as the representativeness of the content of a measuring instrument (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). In other words, it concerns the match between test questions and the content or subject area they are intended to assess. The main aim of carrying out a content validity test is to ensure that there is an alignment between what is being measured and the research instrument. Content validity questions whether a specific element enhances or detracts from a test or research programme.

Content validity was ensured by having all survey and interview questionnaires checked by research supervisors, and during the pilot study phase. It was assured that the elements included in the instruments did provide an adequate coverage of the topics from which it was determined that the content validity is good.

3.9 Methodological limitations and ethical considerations

3.9.1 Ethical considerations of research

This research was guided by ethical considerations throughout its different stages. Essential ethical principles were adopted when collecting and processing the quantitative and qualitative data. Such principles were based on suggestions from some researchers such as Dörnyei (2007) and Mackey and Gass (2005). Ethical guidelines are set in order to ensure that no parties are harmed in any way during a research process and to ensure that the data being gathered are valid and reliable (Bryman, 2012). These guidelines include informed consent, confidentiality, voluntary participation and administrative bureaucracy.

The vast majority of participants involved in the current study are over 18 years of age and have given consent for their participation. The respondents who participated in the current study were given all the necessary information prior to their participation. Moreover, ethical considerations were necessary in this study due to the nature of the cultural context, as described earlier in 1.2.2 and 1.3, in which there is a likelihood of refusing to give consent and non-participation. Regardless, as mentioned earlier, all participants were given a form to have it signed by their parents for confirming the parental consent.

3.9.2 Informed consent

Prior to gaining consent from the participants, the researcher ensured that the participants had all the necessary information so that they could make an informed decision. The participants were informed of the risks and benefits of being part of the current study. The consent when provided was recorded as evidence for any future purpose that may require it. Hence, a consent form was provided to all respondents before their interviews were scheduled. In addition to this, the participants also had the final say on where the interviews were to be conducted. The researcher made it very clear prior to the respondents participating that their participation was completely on a voluntary basis and that the respondents could withdraw from the study or interview process at any time they chose (Bryman, 2012). According the cultural considerations of the Saudi context, see section 3.5.2.1.3, only those students participated in the study who were granted permission by their parents. Eventually, some students who wished to participate were not allowed to do so due to their parents' disagreement. Thus, the researcher tried to reach a wider sample of participants in order to compensate this lack.

3.9.3 Confidentiality

The researcher provided guarantees to the respondents on the subject of their identities being kept completely confidential. All the respondents were asked not to reveal any kind of personal information. Furthermore, as an additional measure, the respondents were given codes of letters and numbers, see section 3.5.2.1.2, that were the only form of identification used by the researcher. The data collected from the respondents were encrypted and stored in a secure manner and it was not made accessible to anyone other than the researcher. In addition to this, all the data collected was deleted after the completion of the study, as recommended by Bryman (2012).

3.9.4 Subjects

The research was confined to female subjects for both teachers and students as there was no access to potential male teachers and students, as per Saudi customary restrictions. The study was therefore conducted only in the female section of the university campus. The participants were contacted through cooperation with the institute.

3.9.4.1 Teachers

Some teachers were reluctant to participate in the study during both the interviews and voice recording. The concern (only among non-Saudi teachers) was that they may become labelled as accented with respect to a particular accent, and consequently risk losing their jobs. On the other hand, they felt that if they refused to participate, they could be regarded as being uncooperative. This dilemma was overcome by the researcher and the teachers' coordinators making it clear that all the responses of the participants would remain anonymous and they would not be individually identified. They were also informed that all the data would be kept safely in a virtual folder to which no one other than the researcher would have access. For this purpose, Dropbox 2.10.30 was used, and this assurance satisfied the teachers.

3.9.4.2 Students

Some participating students thought that their voices would be recorded as a test, or that their data may otherwise be used against them somehow. It was not only them, but their guardians too who showed some reservations due to the highly conservative mind-set of the general Saudi population. While selecting participants for the pilot study, some parents had refused to give permission to have their daughter’s voice recorded because they thought the recordings may be used in public.

It became necessary therefore to discuss some details of the study with the students in class and to assure them that not only was their participation optional, but also that by participating they could potentially enrich this field of research in the kingdom. It was also necessary to reassure their parents at the same time. The exact nature of the study was therefore made clear to the students as well as their parents in the consent form that was issued to them (Appendix D). They were reassured and all their fears allayed, as was done for the teachers. The gift that was given to the student participants was a surprise gift for them given after their participation was over. This did not therefore influence their decision to participate in any way which would have made it an incentive. It was given only in appreciation for their participation. In the actual study, the research enlarged the sample of students from the initial size, but all additional participants were likewise informed and reassured.

3.9.5 Administrative bureaucracy

Gaining approval to conduct the study took about four months because most of the potential participants and other important stakeholders responsible for them were on holiday during the summer, which also coincided with the holy month of Ramadan and the festival of Eid. Approaching the stakeholders was by sending official emails and contacting their secretary staff. The arrangement for the meetings with the head of the ELI, however, took only about two weeks, as she responded quickly and was cooperative.

3.9.6 Instrument

The organisation of this study involved the use of a recording tool for recording participants' speech, both teachers' and students'. That is, this was an audio recording tool limited to recording voices only, so it did not involve any form of video recording. Such a tool could have been used, for instance, to observe the shapes of lips whilst producing the sounds, and may have been especially useful to observe the production of the sound of the interdental voiceless alveolar stop /t̪ /, which is recognisable visually, but not acoustically. This sound was noted by Jalal Ahmad (2011) as being responsible for one of the pronunciation errors that Saudi students are prone to making, but in that study, too, the data was only collected using an audio recording tool. This may have weakened the usefulness of the instrument used in this study, but it was not possible due to the socio-cultural issue of the context, as mentioned earlier, see section 3.5.2.1.3. However, it is argued that the speech analysis software which is used in this study can differentiate between various allophones and sounds, for example, the distinction between /t/, /t^h/, aspirated voiceless dental stop or /t̪ /, interdental voiceless stop. However, this allophonic differentiation is not under the research of this study.

It is worth mentioning that the qualitative data was not analysed using any computer programs or software, such as N.Vivo. Although Silver and Lewins (2014: 230) claim that "N.Vivo supports world languages and character sets such as Chinese and Arabic", it is found by the researcher, who is an Arabic native speaker, after testing N.Vivo, version 11, that it does not operate as expected when attempting to use right to left languages such as Arabic. Thus, the data was analysed manually by the researcher as all the data collected was in Arabic, i.e. all 15 of the participating students were speaking Arabic (Saudi-Hijazi dialect).

3.9.7 Teaching period

Regarding the teaching period which lasted 7 weeks between the pre-test and the post-test. This factor was out of the researcher's control as each level of English in the foundation year lasts for

this period of weeks and then a new teacher teaches the next level. However, the researcher had the chance to attend some of the classes in order to monitor the teaching process and enlarge her knowledge of the context.

3.10 Conclusion

The study adopted a mixed-methods research design in order to collect data that may help to answer the research questions. The specific methods involved were a survey of students, analysis of audio recordings for both teachers and students, a follow-up interview with students and to some extent, classroom observations. The results of data and the discussion followed are covered in detail in Chapter 4: Results and Findings. In order to delimit the variables that may possibly influence students' L2 pronunciation, the researcher enlarged the sample to ensure validity. And the participated students were selected as those who were born and raised in Jeddah where they speak the Saudi- Hijazi dialect that is considered as the regional dialect of the speakers' community. The teachers were selected on the basis of the high number of employment in the ELI.

Chapter 4: Results

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the study introduced and described in Chapter 3: Methodology. The study was designed to discover whether a phonological transfer could be attributed from the teachers' L1 features into her students' English language pronunciation. Main theories have been applied, CA, EA, CPH and Markedness Theory have been applied in order to find if there are any possible constraints of similarity between the teachers' pronunciations and their students. Also, a thematic analysis was obtained in order to link the students' attitude to their actual pronunciations. The results of the study will be presented, analysed and discussed later in Chapter 5: through the dimensions of the research theoretical and conceptual framework.

Organising this chapter based on the research questions will not be sufficient enough to show the main results because each research question may require more than one research method, see 3.4. Although each methodological instrument may contribute in more than one research question, the construction of this chapter follows same of the pervious chapter. Thus, I think the best construction is to present the result of each phase of the methodology. The results of each methodology phase is presented initially by the demographic information of the participants and followed by the results, either quantitative or qualitative. For the quantitative tools (survey and audio recording), the results were presented in diagrams and tables, if required, in order for the reader to follow up with the outcome. For the qualitative tools (classroom observation and interview), the emergent and non emergent themes have been displayed in light of the interview questions. This chapter aims to identify if there is a teacher-student influence in university level students' L2 pronunciation. It consists of three sections. The first section illustrates the results of the survey instrument. The second section reveals the results of the second phase which are the (1)audio recording instrument, divided by three subdivisions; the teachers' output, students' output and teacher-student transfer and (2) classroom observations, noting that it is a supplementary research instrument as discussed in 3.5.2.2 and the fourth section demonstrates the findings of the follow-up interview separated by emergent and non-emergent themes.

4.2 Phase I Results (Survey)

4.2.1 Participants' demographics information

118 students were targeted for the questionnaire survey analysis and their profiles are summarized in the following table. In Table 13 below, it is observed that the majority of the students who participated in this study were aged 18 years (42%), followed by students who were 19 years old (38%); the smallest percentage were 17 years (3%). With respect to the duration of education they has undergone, the highest percentage of students (62%) had 12 years of education and the smallest percentage of them (17%) had 9 years of education. Finally, with respect to the years of study, it was observed that the highest percentage of students had undergone private secondary education (31%), followed by private primary (29%). However, the smallest percentage of students had undergone a public intermediate education (2%).

Table 13: Respondent demographics (survey)

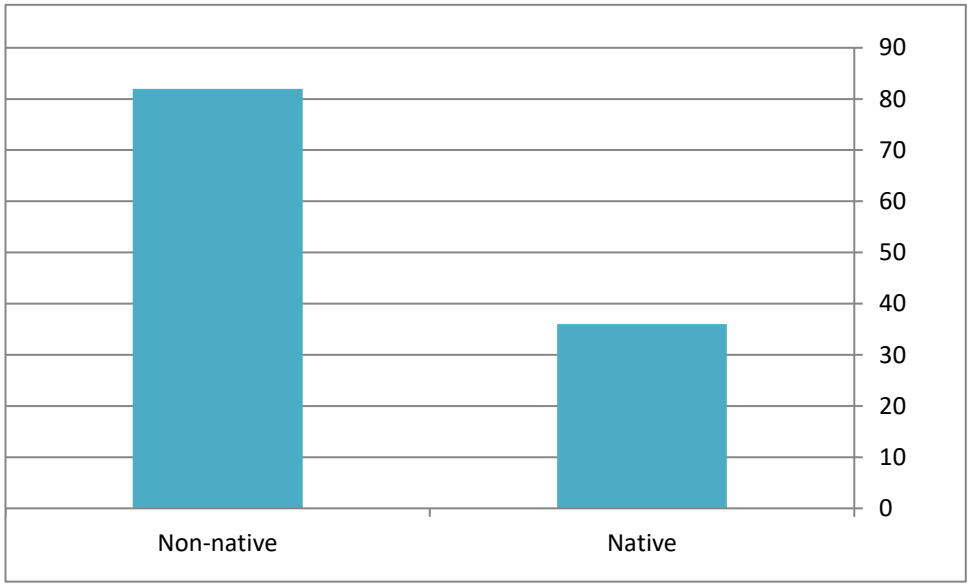
Criteria	number	Percentage
Age		
17 years	3	3
18 years	50	42
19 years	45	38
20 years	20	17
Duration of Education		
12 years	73	62
9 years	20	17
6 years	25	21
Years of study		
Public Primary	34	25
Public Intermediate	2	2
Public Secondary	6	5
Private Primary	10	8
Private Intermediate	30	31
Private Secondary	36	29

4.2.2 Survey results

4.2.2.1 Preference for Teachers

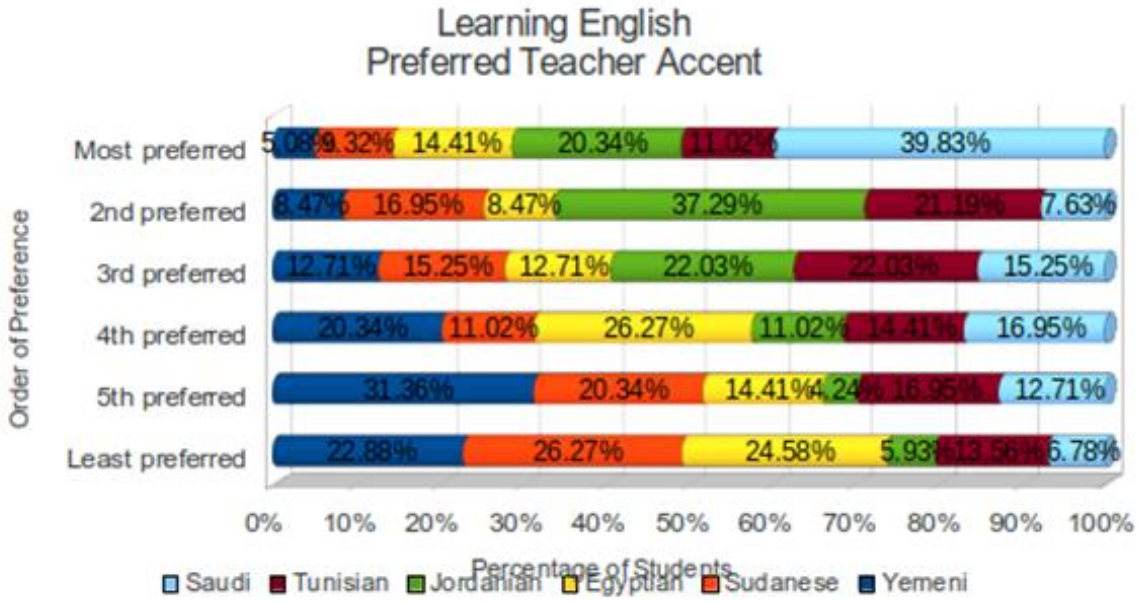
It is observed that the majority of the students (69%) preferred a teacher with a non-native accent when compared to only 31% who preferred a teacher with a native accent, Figure 19. Notably, this assumes the accents of teachers were considered more highly than their nationalities, and further that the students were able to detect and distinguish between the different accents.

Figure 19: Preference of teachers by students



From the following Figure 20, it is observed that most of the students preferred the Saudi accent for learning English (47), followed by the Jordanian accent (24). On the other hand, the Sudanese accent was least preferred by the most number of students (31) for learning English and pronunciation. It is very evident from the figure that the students found the Saudi accent more comfortable to learn English than the Sudanese accent.

Figure 20: Learning English in a preferred accent



According to the previous studies, see section 2.4.2.1.3, the students' learning progress could be affected by their beliefs and prejudice towards their teachers' accents. Thus, after asking the students to rank their preferences of teachers, they were asked for the reasons behind these preferences. The following Figure 21 and Figure 22 represent the students' reasons behind that. It is seen that the majority of the students (62) preferred the Saudi accent for its clarity and for its similarity to their own accent (42). On the other hand, the highest number of students (54) found the Sudanese accent to be least desirable because it lacks clarity and they found it less pleasing to hear or learn from (46). Interestingly, nearly a third of the students indicated they dislike certain accents as they are 'not nice sounding', which means they found it subjectively displeasing. The consideration for ascertaining this was to gauge the feeling towards different accents because this could affect their attitudes.

Figure 21: Reasons for most preference

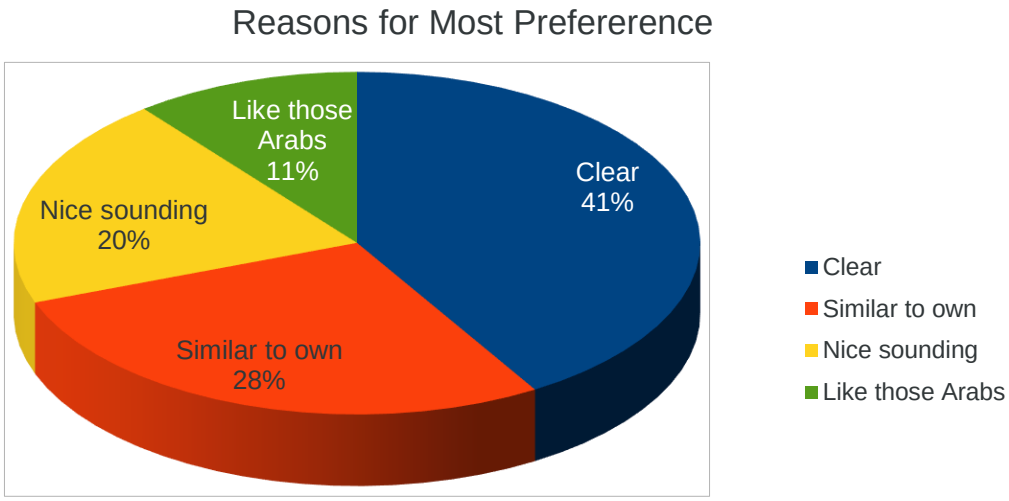
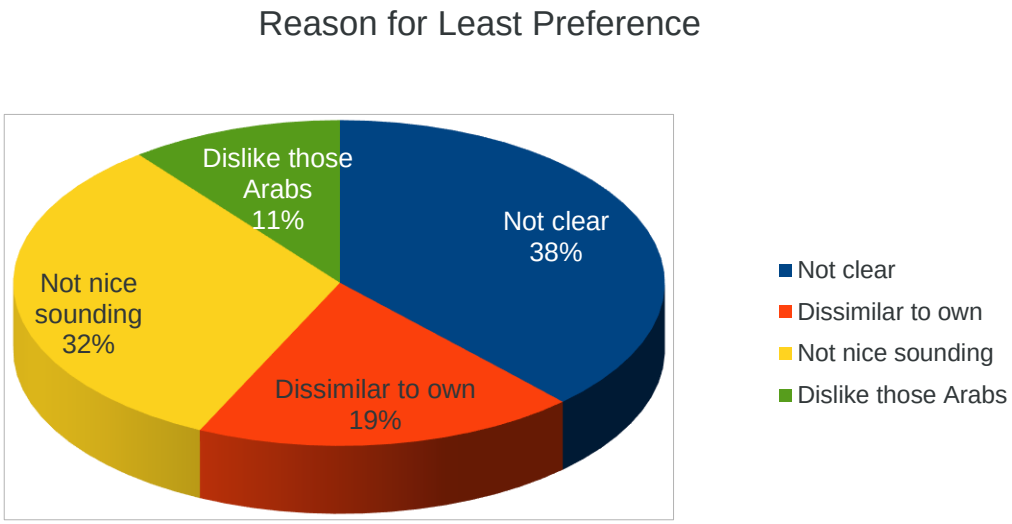


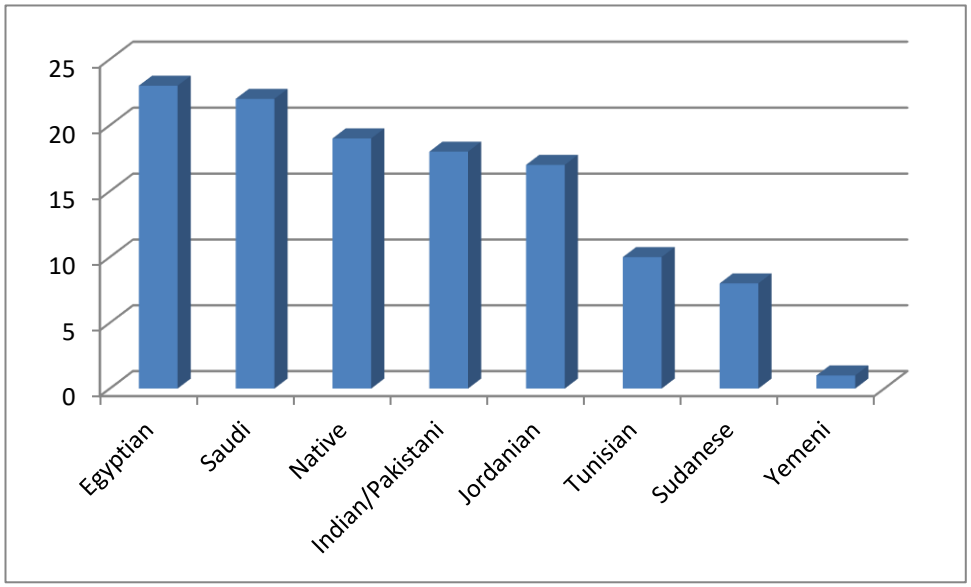
Figure 22: Reasons for least preference



4.2.2.2 Impact of teachers' accents

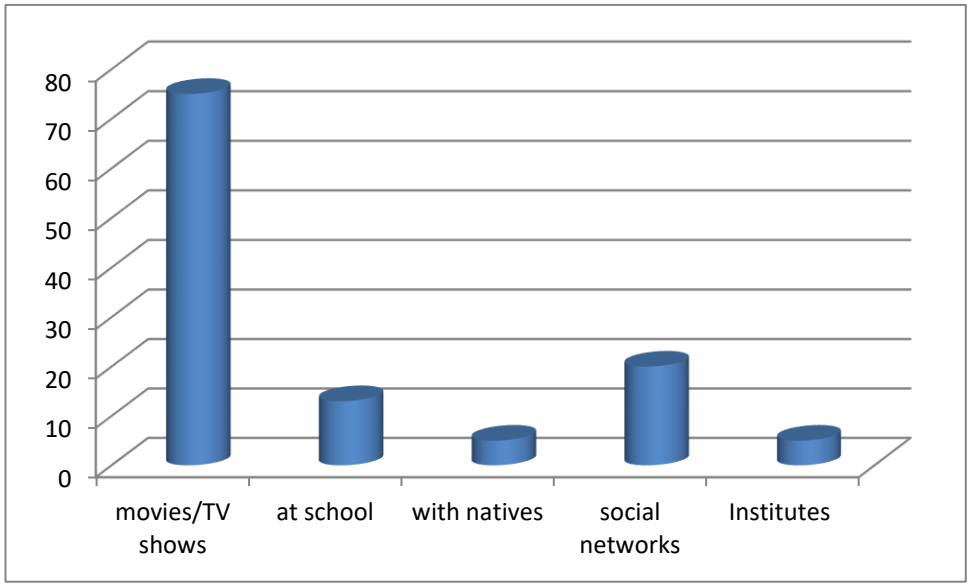
The following Figure 23 demonstrates the various accents used by teachers and the views of students on these. It is worth mentioning that in the survey, the students were asked about the teachers' accents not their nationalities, see Appendix E. These accents are identified by nationalities because different accents are noticeably linked closely with geographical region. Thus, the students ranked the teachers' accents according to their preferences towards regional accents, not their nationalities. Also, these mentioned accents in the survey represent L1 Arabic dialects of the ELI Arab teachers. It is observed that the highest number of students (23) described their teachers' accent as Egyptian accent, followed by 22 who stated it as Saudi accent.

Figure 23: Teachers' English accents as viewed by students



From the following Figure 24, it is observed that the highest number of students felt that their learning of English was influenced by watching movies and TV shows (75), followed by (20) who felt they learn more from social networks, such as Twitter, Facebook, Snapchat, and Instagram. The least number of students, (5) of each field, felt they improved their pronunciation by interacting with foreigners either with natives or in language institutes.

Figure 24: Exposure to English



4.3 Phase II results (Audio recordings/ Classroom observation)

This part of the analysis starts with presenting the participants' demographic information including the teachers and then the students. After that, the statistics results of the participants' output are presented according the research questions.

4.3.1 Students' demographics

120 students are the main participants in this major phase of the research. Their profiles are the same as the one who participated in the survey but they are classified into six groups (20 per teacher). All of them were aged between 17 to19 years old. They had graduated from governmental schools, i.e. they start learning English at the age of 12 or 13, by Saudi teachers only where only Saudi teachers are eligible to teach in the governmental schools in SA. They had never studied at any English language institute to improve their L2.

4.3.2 Participants' output

This part of the analysis tries to answer the first two research questions and their sub-questions in the dimension of the phonological transfer between teachers and their students. In order to do so, this part consists of three main sections, Teachers' output, Students' output and Teacher-Student Interference. The first two research questions and the sub-research questions are followed:

1. How far the teachers' L1 (Arabic) dialect may affect her L2 (English) pronunciation?
2. What is the nature of the relationship (possible correlation) between teachers' L1 dialect and students' L2 pronunciation?
    - Which segmental consonants that appear in teachers' English accent are most observable?
    - Which segmental consonants that appear in students' English accent during their pre-test (i.e. before they are taught by X teacher) are most observable?
    - Which segmental consonants that appear in students' English accent during their post-test (i.e. after they are taught by X teacher) are most observable?
    - Which segmental consonants that appear in students' English accent in terms of new/familiar words?

4.3.2.1 Teachers' output

This part presents the results of the audio recording phase which designed to discover whether a phonologically related L1/L2 pair (L1 Teachers' Arabic dialects and L2 teachers' English language) would affect students' L2 pronunciation. The similarity and markedness on teachers' L1 transfer were employed to enable such an answer for the first sub-question, which segmental consonants that appear in teachers' English accent are most observable? It is worth noticing that the sounds under this study are numbered from 1-10 without any concern to a specific order. The following table (Table 14) presents the teachers' responses as TL /NTL(Target Like/ Non-Target Like) responses. The figures are ratings of the teachers' ability to produce the sounds indicated and the results of the use of PRAAT.

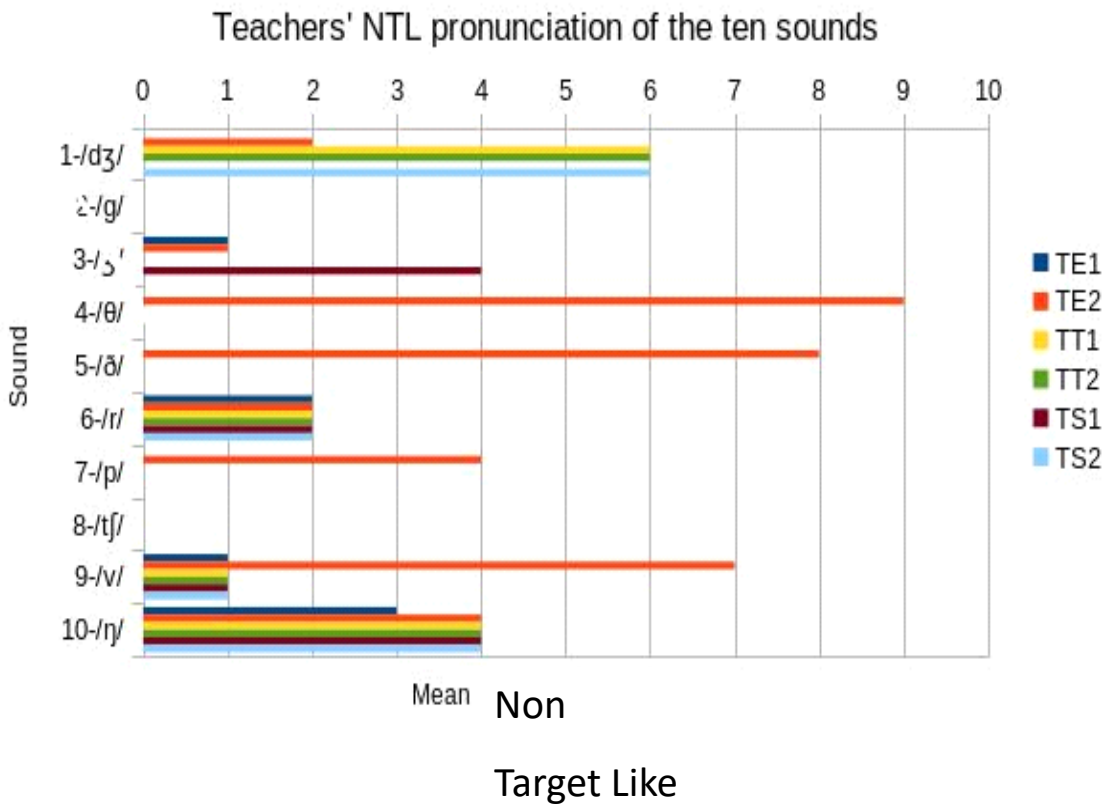
Table 14: Table count for teachers' NTL pronunciation

No	Sound	Total tokens	TE1	TE2	TT1	TT2	TS1	TS2
1	/dʒ/	6	0	2	6	6	0	6
2	/g/	6	0	0	0	0	0	0
3	/ʒ/	4	1	1	0	0	4	0
4	/θ/	9	0	9	0	0	0	0
5	/ð/	8	0	8	0	0	0	0
6	/r/	6	2	2	2	2	2	2
7	/p/	8	0	4	0	0	0	0
8	/tʃ/	8	0	0	0	0	0	0

No	Sound	Total tokens	TE1	TE2	TT1	TT2	TS1	TS2
9	/v/	8	1	7	1	1	1	1
10	/ŋ/	4	3	4	4	4	4	4

From Table 14 it is clear that; both TT1 and TS2 had the highest NTL for S1 /dʒ/ with a total of 6 out of 6 total tokens for each of them. In case of S2 /g/ and S8 /tʃ/, it is remarkable that none of the teachers had NTL responses which may indicate that these sound are easy to pronounce. The least NTL pronunciation is found in S9 /v/, where all teachers had 1 NTL responses. Another result that is the TS1 and both Tunisians had the highest NTL response for sound S3 /ʒ/. Furthermore, it is shown that only TE2 had the highest NTL response for S4 /θ/, S5 /ð/ and S7 /p/ with total NTL values of (9, 8 and 4) respectively. Finally, teachers under study had similar responses and NTL totals towards sounds; S6 /r/and S10 /ŋ/ with NTL total of (2,4) respectively given that in S10 /ŋ/ TE1 is excluded since she had NTL total of 3 which is less than all other teachers. Table 14 can be represented using bar chart to figure out who is/ are the teacher(s) had higher NTL than others within each sound (see Figure 25).

Figure 25: Teachers' NTL pronunciation of the ten sound



As discussed before, for example the green bar represents NTL for TE2 which is highest in sounds S4 /θ/, S5 /ð/ and S7 /p/ compared to other teachers.

4.3.2.2 Students' output

With the intention of answering the previous questions, this part of the analysis consists of two sections; Salient sounds and Familiarity of words. The former tries to investigate the most observable sounds among the six groups while the latter aims to explore the teachers' impact on their students. Salient sounds provides the most distinguished sounds among the six groups and then by comparing their output with their teachers', the relationship could be established. Accordingly, Familiarity of words presents the students' production in new and familiar words, insisting on the teachers' impact on the new vocabulary. The following lines clarify the rationale and the results of each section.

4.3.2.2.1 Salient sounds

In this section of analysis, paired T-test tables were established to compare between students' NTL totals in pretest and posttest within the six classes for each sound. Based on the NTL ratings, the 'mean NTL values' are computed as the mean of the range of NTL values for each test and secondly for each sound. Table 26 to Table 31 (Appendix K) illustrate the values of correlation

coefficients between the both tests in to find whether there is a mean difference between pretest and posttest totals within each sound or not and considering a significance level of 0.05. When the mean is larger than 0.05, this indicates that there is no significance in means between both tests which indicates that no change has occurred in the students' performance, or in other words, no effect existed from the teachers on her students. The following points can be concluded from these tables:

From these tables, it could be concluded that in case of Saudi-1 teacher (TS1), Table 26 shows that there is a positive correlation between the totals of pretest and posttest for students within all sounds with p-values range (0.00 – 0.02) and Pearson correlation coefficient range between (0.514 –0.858) except in the sounds /dʒ/, /g/ and /ʒ/. Furthermore, the students had significant mean NTL differences between pre/post tests in the sounds /dʒ, g, ʒ, Θ, ð/ and not significant differences for the sounds /r, p, tʃ, v, ŋ/.

Then it can be shown from Table 27 that in class of Saudi-2 teacher (TS2) there are highly positive relationships between the totals of pretest and posttest for students within all sounds except in case of sound /ʒ/ where the totals of both tests are uncorrelated with p-value of (0.431). Regarding the results of paired t test; the students had significant mean NTL differences between pre/post tests in /dʒ, g, Θ, ð/, and not significant differences for /ʒ, r, p, tʃ, v, ŋ/.

It can be concluded from Table 28 that in class of Egyptian-1 (TE1), there are positive relationships between the totals of pre/post tests for students within all sounds except in case of /dʒ/ and /Θ/ where the totals of pre/post tests are uncorrelated with p-values of (0.067 and 0.212) respectively. Furthermore, the students had significant mean NTL differences in all sounds excluding /r/ and /p/ where the p-value are greater than 0.05 indicting non-significant differences.

The fourth case, that is Egyptian-2 teacher (TE2), (see Table 29) there are highly positive relationships between the totals of pre/post tests within all sounds with p-values range (0.000 – 0.004), where the students there are no significant effects found regarding the mean NTL differences between the two tests in all sounds.

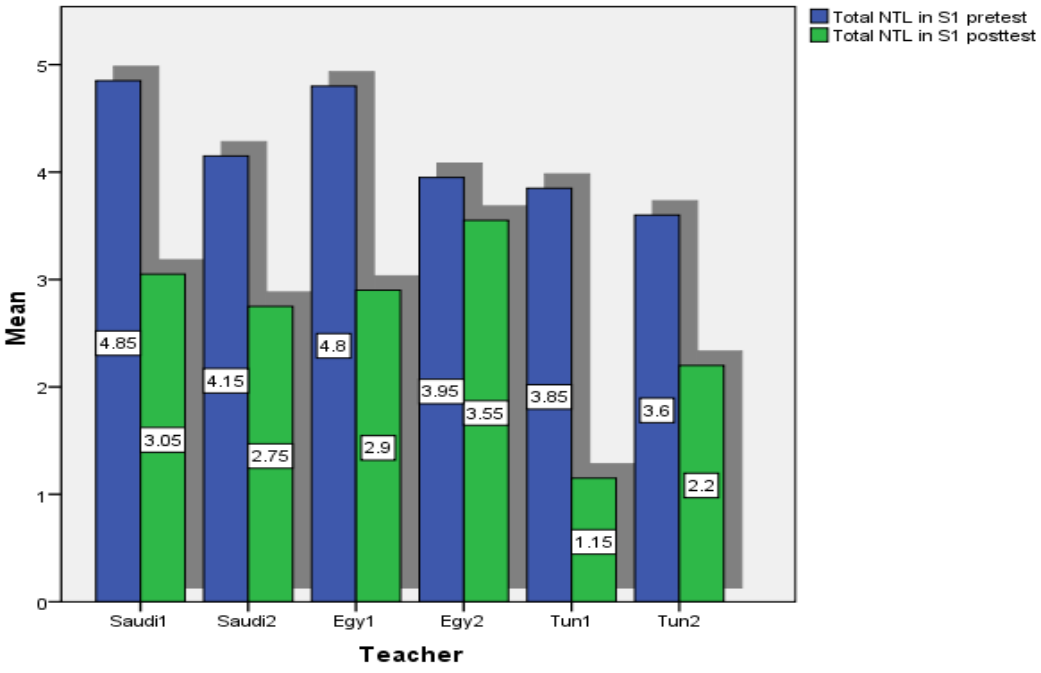
In case of Tunisian-1 class, TT1, (Table 30) there are no correlation between the totals of both tests within sounds /g/ and /ʒ/ with p-values (0.240 and 0.147) respectively. And the students had significant mean NTL differences in /dʒ, g, ʒ, Θ, ð, p, tʃ, v/ and not significant differences for /r/ and /ŋ/. This could be translated into a sign of development on the level of students in pronouncing all sounds except /r/ and /ŋ/.

Finally, in the sixth case, that is Tunisian-2 students (TT2) (Table 31) there is one correlation between the totals of pretest and posttest for students within sound /p/ only with p-values

(0.752) and the students had significant mean NTL differences between pre/post tests in /dʒ, g, Θ, ð, p, tʃ, v/. For example, the mean value for NTL in posttest of students within /p/ is (6.10) compared to the mean value for NTL in pretest of students within same sound (3.70) while no significant differences are found for /ʒ, r,ŋ/. This could be translated into a sign of development on the level of students in pronouncing all sounds except for the mentioned last three.

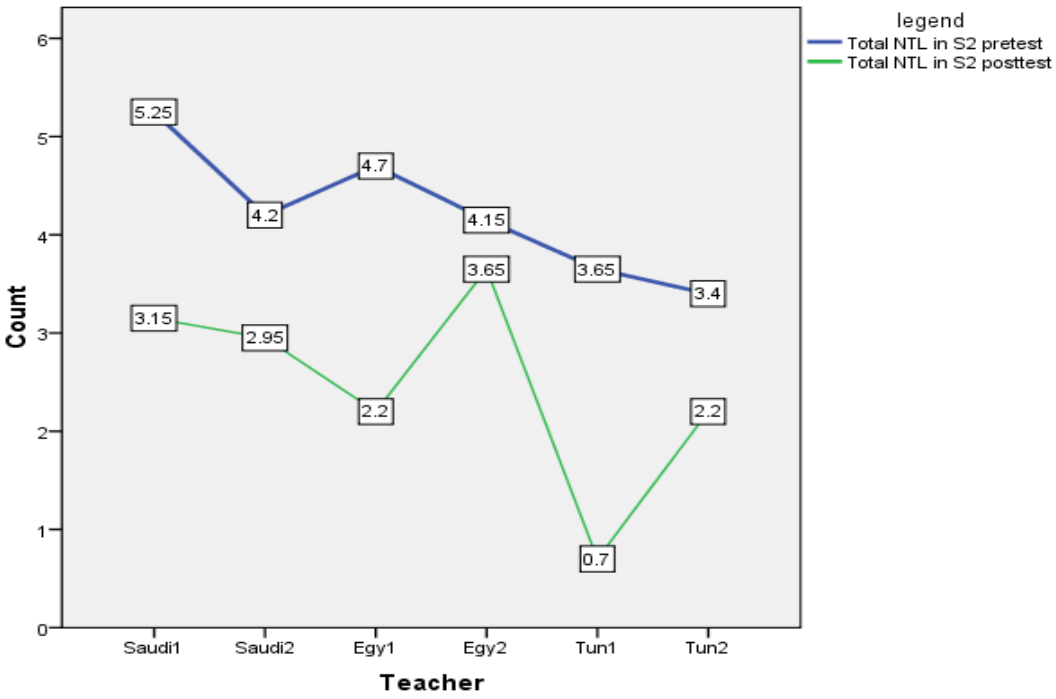
For more clarification, the following section introduces a comparison between mean NTL values for all the six classes, displaying the next 10 figures for pretest and posttest within each sound for all six classes, this is in reference to the students in these six teachers' classes. Figure 26 below showed that TS1 had the highest NTL mean value in /dʒ/ pretest compared to other teachers with a mean value of (4.85), and then TE1 comes second with mean of (4.8) where the TT2 class had the lowest mean value of (3.6). On the other hand, all classes had lower mean values in the posttest compared to the pretest, noting that TE1 had the highest mean value (3.55) in the posttests.

Figure 26: Comparison between NTL mean value of (pre, post) test for /dʒ/ among classes



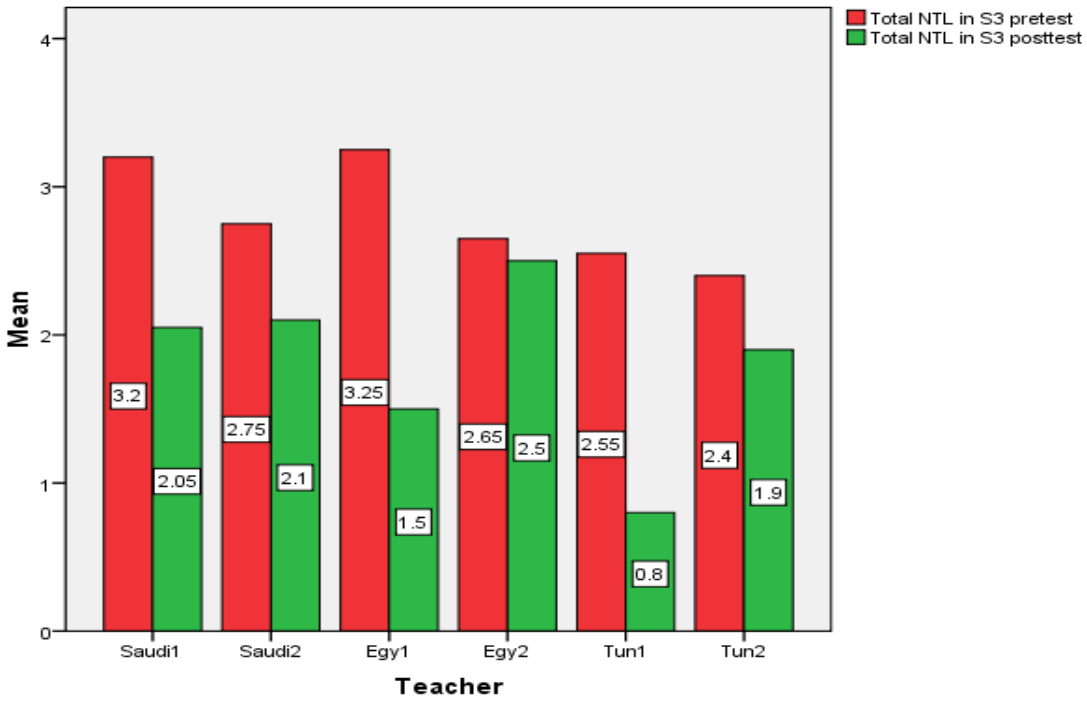
The next figure, Figure 27, showed that TS1 also had the highest NTL mean value in /g/ pretest compared to other teachers with a mean value of (5.52), where the TT2 class also had the lowest mean value of (3.4). On the other hand the mean value in posttest are lower for all classes compared to the pretest mean values and class of TT1 had the lowest mean value (0.7).

Figure 27: Comparison between NTL mean value of (pre, post) test for /g/ among classes



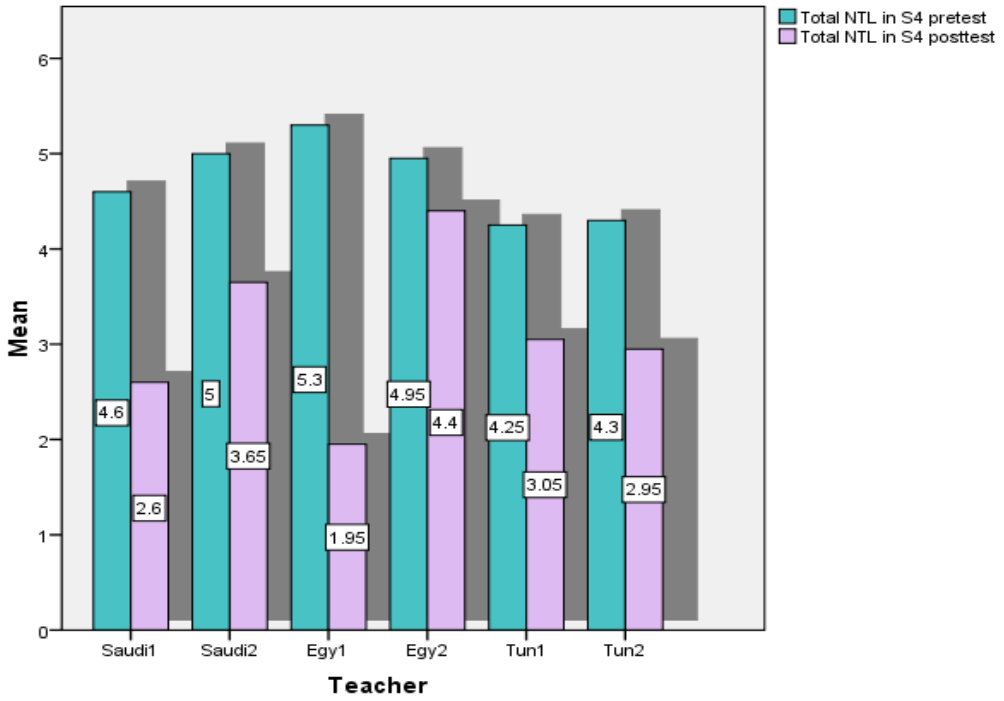
For /ʒ/ sound, Figure 28, shows that TE1 had the highest NTL mean value in pretest compared to other teachers with a mean value of (3.25), where the TT2 class also had the lowest mean value of (2.4). While regarding the mean value in posttest the class of TT1 had the lowest mean value (0.8).

Figure 28: Comparison between NTL mean value of (pre, post) test for /ʒ/ among classes



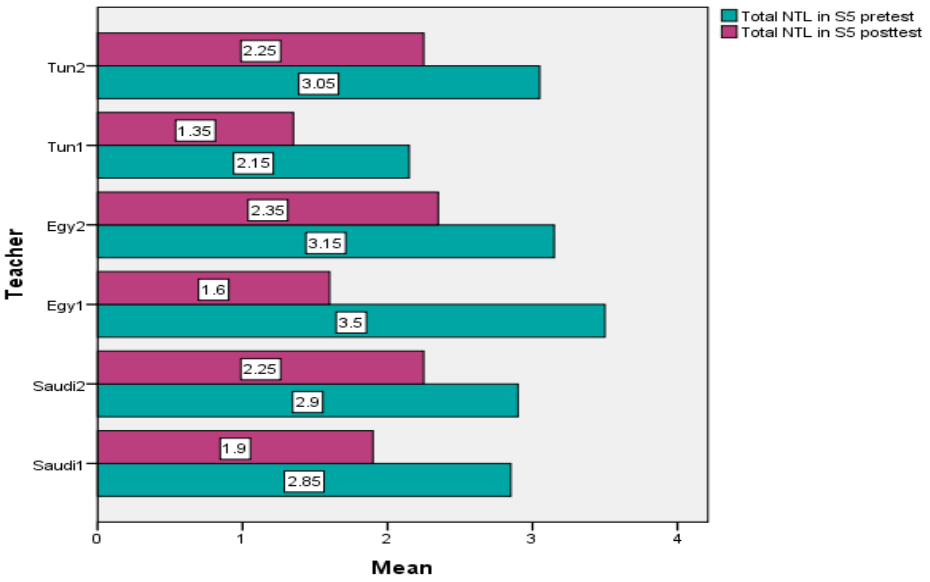
The results also show an interesting result here for /Θ/ sound. Figure 29 illustrates that TE1 had the highest NTL mean value in pretest compared to other teachers with a mean value of (5.3), while the same class had the lowest mean value in posttest with a value of (1.95) for same sound.

Figure 29: Comparison between NTL mean value of (pre, post) tests for /Θ/ among classes



For the fifth sound /ð/, Figure 30 displayed that TS1 had the lowest NTL mean value in pretest compared to other teachers with a mean value of (2.85), while the TT1 class had the lowest mean value in posttest with a value of (1.35) for same sound.

Figure 30: Comparison between NTL mean value of (pre, post) tests for /ð/ among classes



The next sound under comparison is for S6 /r/.The following figure, Figure 31, demonstrates that that TE1 had the highest NTL mean value in pretest compared to other teachers with a mean value of (5.2), while the TE2 class had the highest mean value in posttest with a value of (4.8) for same sound, another remarkable note is that the class of TS2 had the same NTL mean values within pretest and posttest for S6 with a value of (4.45). In general the charts level did not illustrate any fluctuation in the students' level of this sound particularly.

Figure 31: Comparison between NTL mean value of (pre, post) tests for /r/ among classes

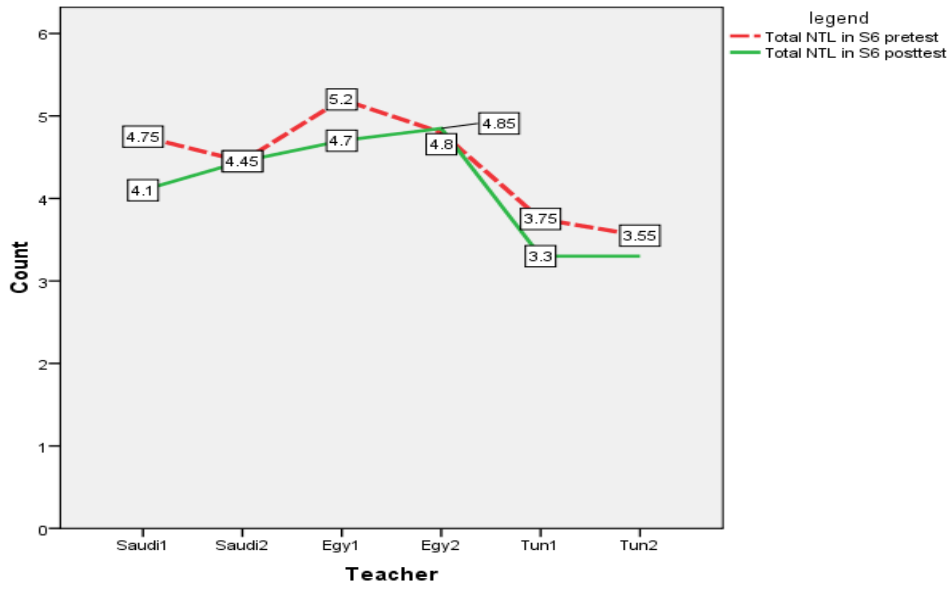
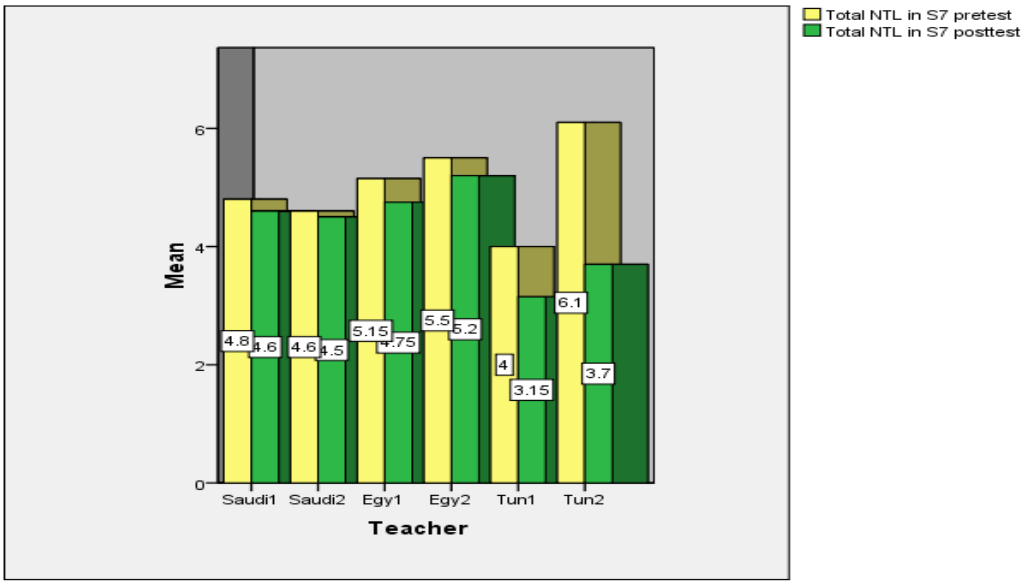


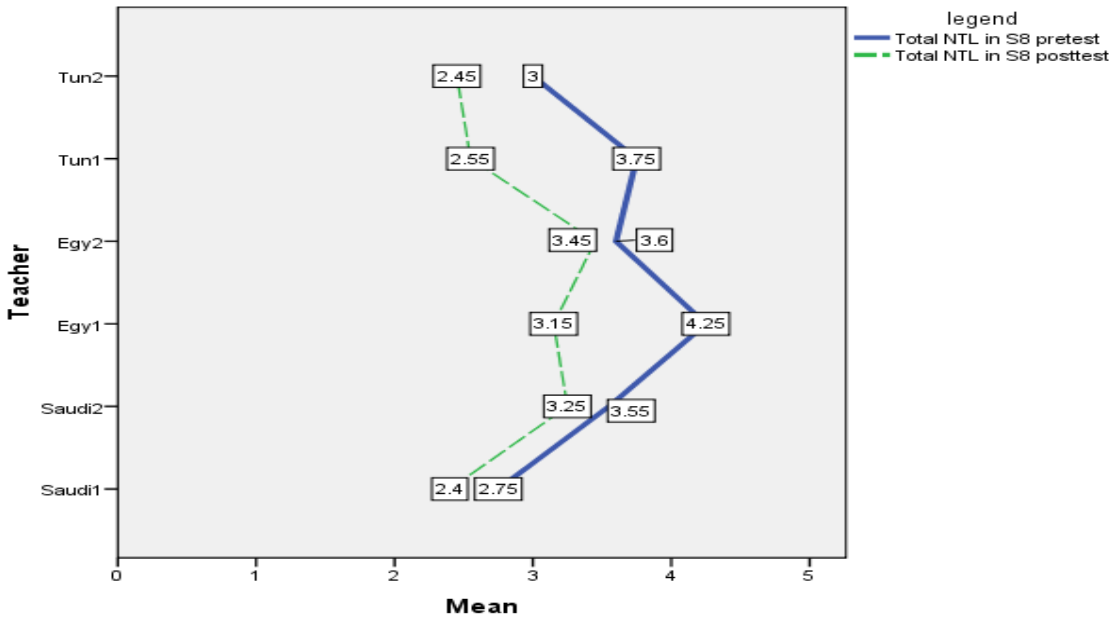
Figure 32 clarified that TT2 had the highest NTL mean value in S7/p/ pretest compared to other teachers with a mean value of (6.1), while the TE2 class had the highest mean value in posttest with a value of (5.2) for same sound.

Figure 32: Comparison between NTL mean value of (pre, post) tests for /p/ among classes



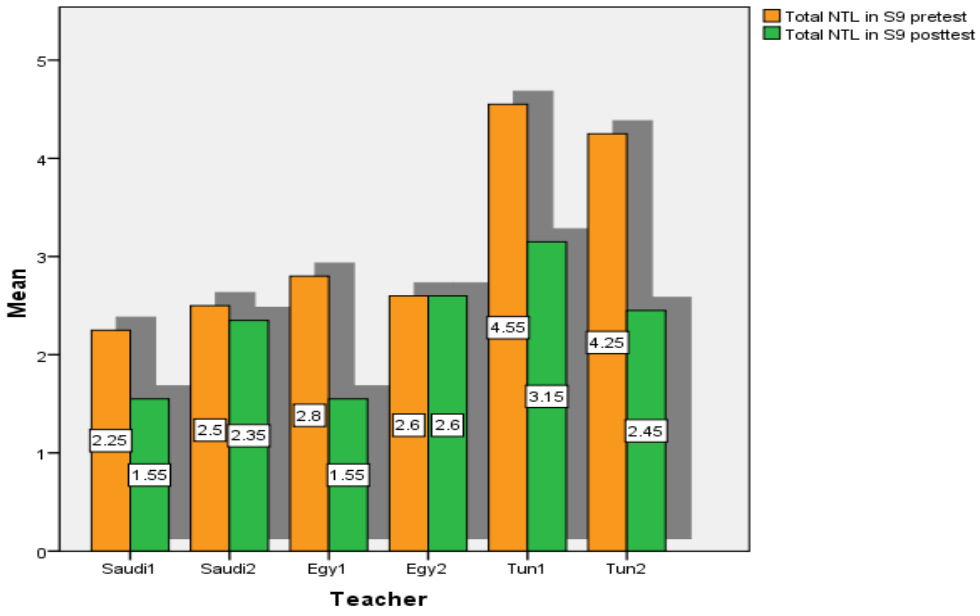
The below figure, Figure 33, showed that TS1 had the lowest NTL mean value in S8 /tʃ/ for both pretest and posttest compared to other teachers with mean values of (2.75) and (2.4) respectively.

Figure 33: Comparison between NTL mean value of (pre, post) test for /tʃ/ among classes



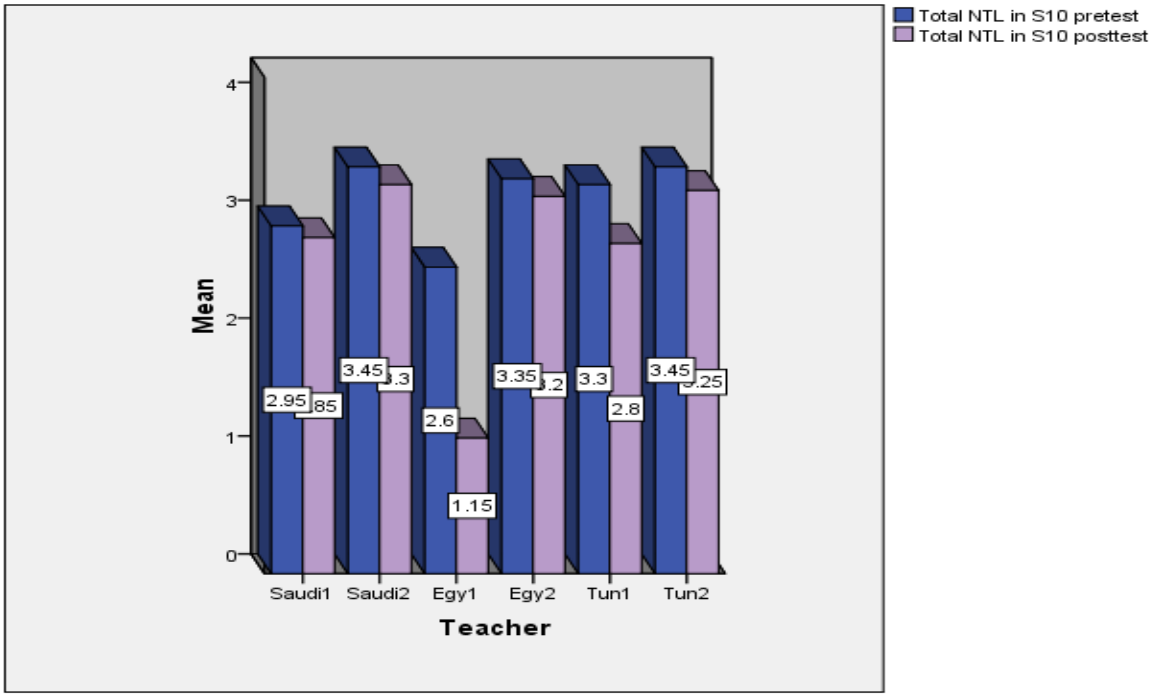
The ninth sound /v/ had the highest NTL mean value in TT1 in both pretest and posttest compared to other teachers with mean values of (4.55) and (3.15) respectively, as shown in Figure 34 below.

Figure 34: Comparison between NTL mean value of (pre, post) tests for S9 /v/ among classes



Finally, it is drawn from Figure 35 that both TS2 and TT2 had the highest NTL mean value in pretest compared to other teachers with the same mean value of (3.45) for each, while TE1 had the lowest NTL mean value in posttest compared to other teachers with a mean value of (1.15).

Figure 35: Comparison between NTL mean value of (pre, post) test for /ŋ/ among classes



Moving to the other section, which illustrates the results of students among the groups and the justification behind this investigation, the following subdivision presents the answer for the last sub-research question.

4.3.2.2.2 Familiarity of words

In order to examine the students' acquisition of the teachers' L2 accented English features, it is decided to test the students' pronunciation of the new words comparing that to their pronunciation of the familiar words of the ten sounds. The following analysis applies paired t-test on the six classes between the students' pretest and posttests. This part of the analysis aims to answer weather the students' were influenced by their teachers' pronunciation of new words or do they pronounce the sounds in the new words as they do in the familiar words. For instance, how did a student from the TT class pronounce the sound /p/ in the familiar word *postcard,* which is a familiar word for her (see section 3.5.2.1.2), and how did she pronounce the same sound /p/ in the new word *polite*, which is a new word for her? Would her teacher's pronunciation matter? This could be achieved by comparing the NTL mean values towards students' pronunciation of new words and familiar words whether there are significant differences between pretest and posttest within each sound or not, considering a significance level of 0.05. Once again, this assumes that the teacher's pronunciation bears a significant influence on the pronunciation of her students.

As it is illustrated in section 3.5.2.1.2, the words list in this tests was classified into new/familiar words according to the textbook vocabulary lists. The new words were chosen from the students' current textbook vocabulary list assuming that the students in this level, intermediate, have no knowledge of these new vocabularies. Also, the results of the following t-tests for the students' pronunciation of the new and familiar words reassure of their lack knowledge of the chosen new words. From the results shown in Table 32 to Table 37 (Appendix K), it could be concluded the following for each class.

Regarding the differences in NTL mean values for new/familiar words within class of TS1,

Table 32 showed that significant differences between NTL mean values between pre/post tests for new words within sounds /dʒ, g, ʒ, Θ, ð/ with p-values ranged (0.000 – 0.042). Within familiar words, the situation is approximately the same for results of NTL mean values between both test were significant where differences exist for sounds /dʒ, g, ʒ, Θ/ with p-values ranged (0.003 – 0.019).

In case of TS2, Table 33 showed that significant differences exist between NTL mean values between in new words within /dʒ, g, Θ/ with p-values ranged (0.003 – 0.004). Furthermore, the results of NTL mean values about familiar words showed that there are significant differences for the same sounds with p-values ranged (0.006 – 0.025).

Regarding the results of the third case, TE1, Table 34 indicates that there are no significant differences between NTL mean values between both tests for new words within only sounds /r/ and /p/ with p-values (0.110, 0.057) respectively. Moreover, the results of NTL mean values of familiar words showed that there are no significant differences within sounds /r, p, tʃ, v/ with p-values ranged (0.056 – 0.494).

In case of TE2 class, Table 35 shows non-significant differences between the results of NTL mean values between pretest and posttest of new and familiar within all sounds with p-values ranged between (0.083- 1.000).

The fifth case is about studying the differences in NTL mean values for new/familiar words within class of TT1. Table 36 showed that significant differences between NTL mean values between pretest and posttest for new words within all sounds except /ð/ and /r/. In the case of familiar words, the results assure that significant differences exist in /dʒ, g, ʒ, v/ with p-values ranged (0.000 – 0.025).

The sixth case is regarding the differences in NTL mean values within TT2 class. It is clear from Table 37 that significant differences between the NTL mean values between pretest and posttest

for new words exist within /dʒ, r, tʃ,ŋ/. Furthermore, within familiar words, significant differences exist for sounds /dʒ, g, ʒ, Θ, ð, r, p, v/ with p-values ranged (0.007 – 0.027).

In summary, we can see that the most of the significance difference are found within the familiar words more than the new words. i.e. students tend to pronounce the familiar words in their postest more Target-Like than the pretest. And this suggests that the pronunciation of new words was not likely to have been affected significantly by their teachers' pronunciation, as seen previously in the case of TS1 in sounds /dʒ, g, ʒ, Θ, ð/, TS2 in sounds / dʒ, g, Θ/, TE1 in sounds /p,r/, TT1 in all sounds except / ð, r/ and TT2 in sounds / dʒ, r, tʃ, ŋ/.

4.3.2.3 Teacher-student transfer

This section of analysis tries to examine each sound within each class, aiming to explore the relationship between teachers' output and their students' with the purpose of finding the answer for the first main research questions mentioned above (see 4.3.2). The answer could be achieved firstly via studying ANOVA test values and post-hoc. This was conducted to analyse differences among the group means and their associated procedures. ANOVA is the Analysis of Variance which is used to compare between two variables between 3 groups at least, in our case the ANOVA is conducted to compare the mean values of NTL for each sound within pretest and posttest each time. The variables are (1) the teacher and (2) her students' NTL pronunciation, in other words need to test whether there are differences between six classes in the mean NTL values in pretest and in the posttest separately (i.e 20 ANOVA tables have been established, ten sounds per a test) using F test, the critical value is (0.05). To reduce the number of tables the 20 tables were merged in Table 15 for pretest and Table 16 for posttest.

Now if the result of any F-test is less than the significance level which is 0.05, then the null hypothesis that claim (H0: No difference in mean NTL values in sound I between classes) has to be rejected and hence the alternative hypothesis (H_a: A difference between the means does exist) is adopted indicating that the mean values of NTL are unequal ($\mu_1 \neq \mu_2$) due to being different to a significant degree. If so, it is necessary to conduct the Post Hoc tests that used to determine the differences exist among classes either in the pretest or in the posttest for all the 10 sounds assuming that the assumptions of independent samples and variance equality are satisfied.

Table 15 shows the results of ANOVA for all sounds within pre test. That is, the analysis of the difference among the means was conducted in this case for all the ten sounds during the pretest stage. It could be concluded that significant differences found between the classes in mean NTL values within /g/ and /v/ with F and p-values of (3.031, 0.013) and (2.914, 0.016) respectively indicating that there are differences between classes in NTL mean values for /g/ and /v/.

Table 17 presents the data for the analysis of the difference among the means which was conducted in order to compare between the NTL mean values between the classes. Multiple comparisons using Bonferroni post hoc test showed that with respect to /g/ the differences exist between the students in TS1 and TT2 classes with a mean difference of (1.850) and p-value (0.016). Where in /v/ the differences exist between the class of TS1 and TT1 with a mean difference of (-2.30) and p-value (0.084) given that in case of /v/ the difference is significant at level of 0.10, Table 17.

Table 15: ANOVA for NTL mean differences between classes in pretest

Sound	Source of variation	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Total NTL in /dʒ/ pretest	Between Groups	26.600	5	5.320	1.846	.109
	Within Groups	328.600	114	2.882		
	Total	355.200	119			
Total NTL in /g/ pretest	Between Groups	45.875	5	9.175	3.031	.013
	Within Groups	345.050	114	3.027		
	Total	390.925	119			
Total NTL in /ʒ/ pretest	Between Groups	12.200	5	2.440	1.627	.159
	Within Groups	171.000	114	1.500		
	Total	183.200	119			
Total NTL in /Θ/ pretest	Between Groups	17.567	5	3.513	.393	.852
	Within Groups	1017.900	114	8.929		
	Total	1035.467	119			
Total NTL in /ð/ pretest	Between Groups	20.067	5	4.013	.561	.730
	Within Groups	815.400	114	7.153		
	Total	835.467	119			
Total NTL in /r/ pretest	Between Groups	41.367	5	8.273	2.060	.076
	Within Groups	457.800	114	4.016		
	Total	499.167	119			
Total NTL in /p/ pretest	Between Groups	53.575	5	10.715	1.621	.160
	Within Groups	753.350	114	6.608		
	Total	806.925	119			
Total NTL in /tʃ/ pretest	Between Groups	28.967	5	5.793	1.181	.323
	Within Groups	559.000	114	4.904		
	Total	587.967	119			
Total NTL in /v/ pretest	Between Groups	96.542	5	19.308	2.914	.016

Sound	Source of variation	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
	Within Groups	755.450	114	6.627		
	Total	851.992	119			
Total NTL in /ŋ/ pretest	Between Groups	11.567	5	2.313	1.585	.170
	Within Groups	166.400	114	1.460		
	Total	177.967	119			

Subsequently, the analysis of the difference among the means was conducted in this case for all the ten sounds during the post-test stage between the classes. In Table 16, the results of ANOVA for all sounds within posttest, there are significant differences found between the classes in mean NTL values within sounds /dʒ, g, ʒ, ŋ/ with F and p-values of (2.778, 0.021), (4.558, 0.001), (3.233, 0.009) and (7.175, 0.000) respectively indicating that there are differences between classes in NTL mean values for /dʒ, g, ʒ, ŋ/.

Multiple comparisons using Bonferroni post hoc test (Table 17) showed that with respect to /dʒ/ the differences exist between the class of TE1 and TT1 with a mean difference of (2.400) and p-value (0.014).

For the sound /g/, the differences exist between the class of TT1 and TS1 with a mean difference of (-2.450) and p-value (0.008), also between TT1 and TS2 with a mean difference of (-2.250) and p-value (0.021) and between TT1 and TE2 with a mean difference of (-2.950) and p-value (0.001).

Furthermore, in case of /ʒ/, the differences exist between the class of TE2 and TT1 with a mean difference of (-1.700) and p-value (0.006).

The fourth multiple comparison is for /ŋ/, where the differences exist between theTE1 and all other five teachers (TS1, TS2, TE2, TT1 and TT2) with NTL mean differences and p-values of (-1.700, 0.002), (-2.150, 0.000), (-2.050, 0.000), (-1.650, 0.003) and (-2.100, 0.000) respectively, Table 17.

Table 16: ANOVA for NTL mean differences between classes in posttest

Sound	Source of variation	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Total NTL in /dʒ/ posttest	Between Groups	69.600	5	13.920	2.778	.021
	Within Groups	571.200	114	5.011		
	Total	640.800	119			
Total NTL in /g/ posttest	Between Groups	107.275	5	21.455	4.558	.001
	Within Groups	536.650	114	4.707		
	Total	643.925	119			
Total NTL in /ʒ/ posttest	Between Groups	34.842	5	6.968	3.233	.009
	Within Groups	245.750	114	2.156		
	Total	280.592	119			
Total NTL in /Θ/ posttest	Between Groups	71.800	5	14.360	1.471	.205
	Within Groups	1113.000	114	9.763		
	Total	1184.800	119			
Total NTL in /ð/ posttest	Between Groups	16.500	5	3.300	.763	.578
	Within Groups	493.200	114	4.326		
	Total	509.700	119			
Total NTL in /r/ posttest	Between Groups	46.467	5	9.293	1.970	.088
	Within Groups	537.900	114	4.718		
	Total	584.367	119			
Total NTL in /p/ posttest	Between Groups	56.467	5	11.293	1.647	.153
	Within Groups	781.500	114	6.855		
	Total	837.967	119			
Total NTL in /tʃ/ posttest	Between Groups	21.175	5	4.235	1.097	.366
	Within Groups	439.950	114	3.859		
	Total	461.125	119			

Sound	Source of variation	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Total NTL in /v/ posttest	Between Groups	39.175	5	7.835	1.348	.249
	Within Groups	662.750	114	5.814		
	Total	701.925	119			
Total NTL in /ŋ/ posttest	Between Groups	66.542	5	13.308	7.175	.000
	Within Groups	211.450	114	1.855		
	Total	277.992	119			

Table 17: Post Hoc test to compare between NTL mean values

Dependent Variable	(I) Teacher	(J) Teacher	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig.
Total NTL in /g/ pretest	TS1	TT2	1.850*	.016
Total NTL in /v/ pretest[a]	TS1	TT1	-2.300-	.084
Total NTL in /dʒ/ posttest	TE2	TT1	2.400*	.014
Total NTL in /g/ posttest	TT1	TS1	-2.450-*	.008
		TS2	-2.250-*	.021
		TE2	-2.950-*	.001
Total NTL in /ʒ/ posttest	TT1	TE2	-1.700-*	.006
Total NTL in /ŋ/ posttest	TE1	TS1	-1.700-*	.002
		TS2	-2.150-*	.000
		TE2	-2.050-*	.000
		TT1	-1.650-*	.003
		TT2	-2.100-*	.000

When comparing between both tests results, it is revealed that significant differences exist in NTL mean values among the six classes in /g/ and /v/ within pretest, a significant difference in sound /g/ (Sig. = 0.013<0.05) indicates that there is a difference in NTL means among the groups in that sound and the /v/ (Sig.= 0.017<0.05) as well. In postest, significant differences exist among the six groups within the sounds /dʒ, g, ʒ, ŋ/. The most remarkable difference found is between class of TE1 and all other five teachers in /ŋ/ within posttest. Another point is taken into consideration is

that for some sounds, which are /dʒ, ʒ, Θ, ð, p, ŋ/, significant difference does not exist in the pretest (before intervention) the NTL mean values among the teachers' groups which means that no difference among the students' pronunciation of these sounds. However, in the posttest (after intervention) there is a significant difference among the groups for these sounds which indicates that there is a progress towards TL pronunciation; hence the intervention between both tests may be an influence of pronunciation variations.

4.3.3 Summary of the audio recordings results

After presenting the statistical tests results for the collected data for teachers and their students, the first research question that is; how far the teacher's L1 dialect does affect her student's L2 could be answered by comparing the results in Table 14 of teachers' output with the results in Figure 26 to Figure 35 that represent graphical representation for pretest and posttest NTL mean values for student for all ten sounds.

The results of Table 14 reveals that both TT1 and TS2 had the highest NTL for /dʒ/, TS1 had the highest NTL response for /ʒ/ and TE2 had the highest NTL response for the two interdental /Θ,ð/ and /p/, given that their performance regarding the rest of the sounds is the same.

For instance, when such results compared with results in Figure 26, TT1 students had the lowest posttest mean NTL value in /dʒ/, while TE1 students had the highest NTL mean value for /dʒ/. In other words, we can see that weather the teacher has NTL pronunciation, as TT1, or TL pronunciation, as TE1, it can be concluded that there is no direct effect for teacher's L1 dialect, accented English, on her students' L2 for that sound.

Moving to the /ʒ/ sound, TS2 overused or generalized pronouncing the /ʒ/ for both /dʒ/ and /ʒ/. For example, the words *junk food*, *jar*, and *orange* were pronounced by TS2 as /ʒ^ŋkfu:d, ʒæɹ, ora:nʒ/. However, her students' posttest performance for this sound were moderate with little progress towards TL pronunciation with the mean values of (2.75) and (2.1) for the /dʒ/ and /ʒ/ respectively. Again, this example supports the same above claim that teachers' accented English is not transferred to her students.

For the interdental fricatives /Θ/ and /ð/, which are significant features for the Egyptian Arabic dialect, see 2.3.5.2, TE1 pronunciation of these two sounds were TL with no such deviations. Yet, TE2 had the highest NTL pronunciation for both sounds which she replaced /Θ/ with /s/ and /ð/ with /z/, for instance, the words *thank* and *this* were pronounced as /saŋk/ and /zɪs/. The performance for TE1 and TE2 classes in the posttests approached TL pronunciation for both new and familiar words.

As an illustration, we can see that the /p/ sound is a remarkable phoneme in the Tunisian teachers' English accent as their English is considered to be their L3 after French which this sound does exist in its phonemic system. However, it was assumed that this L2 feature, /p/ sound of the Tunisian teachers that is influenced by the L2 could be positively transferred to their students. Yet, with comparing the two mean values (pretest- posttest) of /p/ sound in the Tunisian teachers' classes tables, the statistics show nearly expected results here (2.5, 2.6). The mean value of the pretest in TT1 was (4.00) and the postest was (3.15) and in TT2 was (6.10) and (3.70) respectively. This significant mean NTL differences between posttest and pretest indicate that students approximated to the TL and this could be attributed to the classroom intervention, see section 4.3.4 below.

Another general conclusion from

Table 32 to Table 37 is that the mean NTL values within posttest for students regarding familiar words were equal or higher than new words within all sounds regardless of whom was the teacher or how accented was her English.

4.3.4 Classroom observation

Namely, in the context of the current research, teachers in the ELI tend to neglect or pay little attention to pronunciation due to classroom observation and students' interview. This issue is also related, somehow, to the textbook orientation exam that the students seek to accomplish as the speaking assessment compromises 10% only of the total mark, see Appendix A.

Among the pertinent findings of interest to this study, were the prevalence of traditional methods of teaching in which teachers give instructions and roles are defined rigidly. This meant that interactions were typically teacher-led and dominated by them, and the role and participation of the student was therefore limited. Although there was evidence of the use of the communicative approach, it was restricted to group work situations, but speaking was not taught explicitly. In fact, it was observed that the students used mostly Arabic, and use of English was largely confined to the teachers. Interviews with the teachers and students revealed a generally positive attitude towards learning English, and a desire to develop their speaking skills in English. However, their ability to realise this was restricted because of a lack of understanding on EFL speaking and related aspects. The teachers were satisfied with the presently available methods for teaching speaking, but they pointed out the insufficiency of attention in the textbook to this specific aspect of language. Understandably, the students expressed overall dissatisfaction with the teaching they were receiving, and their desire for being given more speaking opportunities and to have the teaching strategies amended accordingly.

With respect to pronunciation, it was found that when students making pronunciation deviations, it is normal for teachers to ignore them. This was especially the case in listening and speaking activities, and during their presentations, although there was evidence of students being corrected during reading aloud activities. These listening and speaking activities are designed to give students opportunities to hear and to practice speaking the target language. One proponent of stressing on fluency over accuracy claimed that by allowing the students to speak without correcting them helps them to eventually learn the proper pronunciation a word at a time. When questioned, many students on the other hand were in favour of being taught proper pronunciation and intonation. Teachers themselves were found to usually modify their speech when necessary by speaking more slowly and clearly to make it easier for their students to comprehend them.

4.4 Phase III findings (Follow up interview)

4.4.1.1 Participants' demographic information

The following table (Table 18) gives an account of the profiles of the students who took part in the interview. It is seen that the majority of the students who participated were aged 18 years (60%). When asked about their previous experiences of being taught by native English language speakers, 100% of them stated they had never had learnt from any. With respect to their prior education at an English language institute, the majority of them (73%) stated that they did not have any. However, when asked about the age at which they started learning English, most of the respondents (60%) asserted that they learnt from the age of 12, it is noticed that this level of students were introduced to English at grade 6 of elementary schools. With respect to their exposure to English outside class, a majority of the students (47%) felt they had exposure outside classrooms.

The highest number of students (29%) felt that they were exposed to the English language by either watching television or English movies. It was observed from the table that the majority of the students belonged to the western part of SA (47%) and the primary dialect they spoke was the Hijazi dialect (67%). Moreover, the majority of the students spoke the Hijazi dialect at home too (67%). It was seen clearly that 60% of the students in this study stated that they were taught only in English in their language classes. With respect to the other languages taught, only two students know some vocabularies of other languages (one knows some Turkish, one knows little French). Moreover, all of them agreed that they had sufficient L1-Arabic-Saudi speaking English teachers in school.

Table 18: Respondant demographics (interview)

Criteria	N	Percentage
Age		
17 years	3	20
18 years	9	60
19 years	3	40
Taught by native language speakers		
Yes	0	0
No	15	100
Education at any English language institute		
Yes	4	27
No	11	73
Age of learning English		
11 years	1	7
12 years	10	66
13 years	4	27
Exposure to English language outside class		
Yes	7	47
Sometimes	2	30
No	6	40
Types of exposure to English language external to class		
English channels on television	2	29
English news	1	14
English movies	2	29
Hospitals	1	14
Speaking with foreigners	1	14
Region in Saudi Arabia		
Southern	3	20
Western, which Hijazi dialect allocated	10	66
Central, which Najdi dialect allocated	2	14
Primary dialect		
Hijazi	12	80
Najdi	3	20
Dialect spoken at home		
Hijazi	13	74
Najdi	2	13
Medium of instruction in English classes		
Arabic and English	6	40
Only English	9	60

Criteria	N	Percentage
Knowledge of languages other than English		
Yes	2	13
No	13	87
Languages learnt other than English		
Little Turkish	1	7
Little French	1	7
Presence of L1-Arabic speaking English teachers in school		
Yes	15	100
No	0	0

From Table 19 and

Table 20 given below, it is observed that the highest number of respondents

(33%) had a minimum of four teachers and most of the students had a greater number of Saudi accented teachers (30).

Table 19: Arabic Speaking ESL Instructors

Number of Arabic speaking ESL Instructors	N	Percentage
1–2	0	0
3	2	13
4	5	33
5	3	20
6	3	20
7	2	13

Table 20: Accents of Arabic speaking EFL instructors

Nationality of Arabic Speaking ESL Instructors	N
Saudi	30
Egyptian	16
Tunisian	6
Sudanese	3
Jordanian	4

After presenting the demographic information of the participants, the following section presents the results and findings of this research arranged by themes (emergent and non-emergent).

4.4.1.2 Themes

By applying the follow-up interviews which give an in-depth understanding of the study phenomenon, this section presents the key findings divided by emergent and non-emergent sociolinguistic themes, see Appendix I: a sample of the student's interview. Two main emergent themes (attitude towards English accent, exposure to L2: previous English education) besides four non-emergent themes (students' motivation, external pronunciation resources, attitude towards teachers' qualities, attitude towards teaching process) appear in the data but were not planned to be found. It is worth mentioning that the emergent themes present the actual results and findings of the study, and the non-emergent themes present further conclusions drawn from the survey results, interview findings and classroom observations, as well as from personal experience of the researcher from being an insider in the institution in which the primary research was conducted. The former category of emergent themes is connected with the Research Theoretical Framework presented previously in Figure 10.

The following diagram, Figure 36 illustrates an overview of the themes found after conducting this research. Three sociolinguistic themes, found in this resaerch, that could affect the students' pronunciation; motivation, attitude and exposure to English. Students' goals of learning was one of the motivation theses that drives the students towards learning pronunciation. Regarding students' attitude, it is classified into their attitude towards their teachers' qualities, their attitude towards their teachers' English accents and towards teaching process. The third theme that was found an affecting one is their exposure to English which can be classified into their previous English education in their schools and the current English rescores they have right at present. The following table,

Table 21, have been combined where similar to form five major themes, and the key points under each are identified below.

Figure 36: Themes

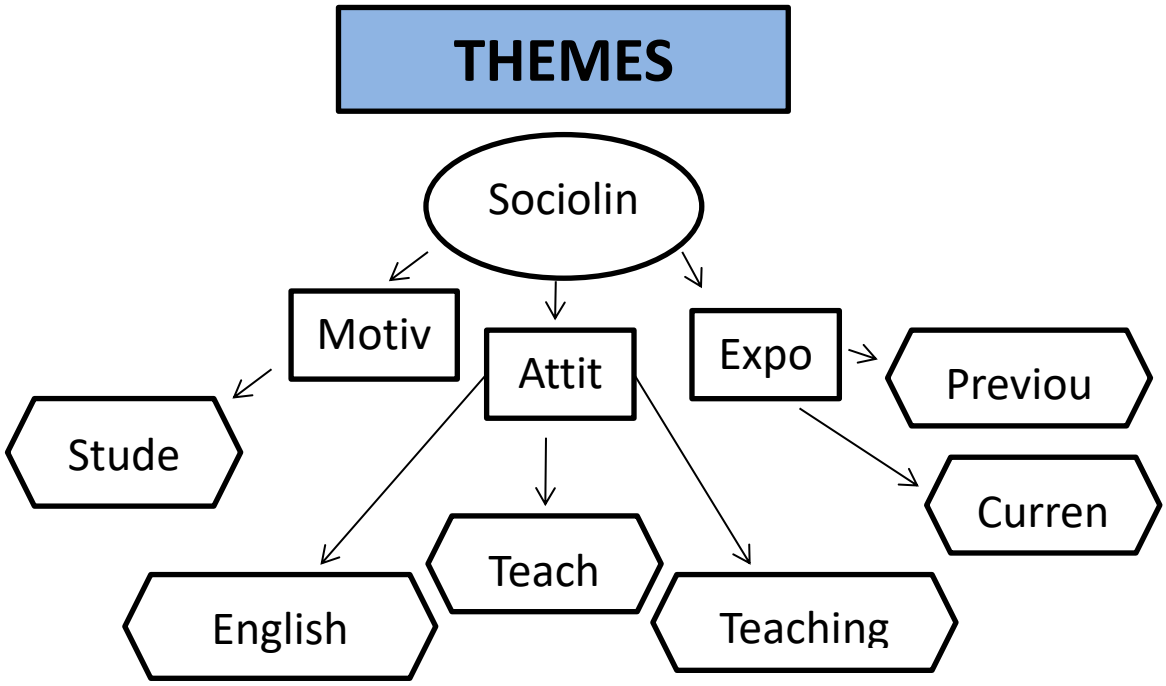


Table 21: Summary of the themes

Main theme	Sub-theme	Particulars
Key (Emergent) Themes		
Attitude towards English accents	Importance of English accent	-for future career
	Preferences among teachers' accents	-N preferred for speaking, but NN for grammar; -Arab preferred over non-Arab -Saudi preferred over non-Saudi
	Rationale behind preferences	-understand our needs -can explain better -rely on L1 for translation -the speed of language
	Teacher's impact on students' accent	-Yes, rational (specifically new words) -No, rational (not major effect) -To some extent (if teacher is not an expert, according to the students' level)

Main theme	Sub-theme	Particulars
Exposure to English		
Previous education	Saudi general education	(textbook material, accent used, time/week, equipment)
	Length of learning	(6-7) years for L2, 7 weeks for NNEST
	Note in accents	(textbook material is in British English, but teachers have various accents, they use GA sometimes; sound of /r/ is proof of this)
Supporting (Non-Emergent) Themes		
Teachers' qualities and preparation	Informed teachers can help their students to draw attention to sound systems	(i.e. between L1 and L2, hence the need to prepare teachers phonologically)
	Sound-spelling or orthography system	(i.e. between Arabic and English, as Arabic has sound-letter correspondence, but not English)
Current English resources	External resources	(e.g. media, Internet, mobile apps, expert classmate, private tutor)
Motivation	Students' goals of L2 learning	-higher education abroad -travelling -improving one's speaking ability -gateway to major
Teaching process	Textbook material; accents used	(due to difference between the textbook and accents used, as evident from 'have got' structure in books)
	Time/week	(unable to cover content due to time shortages)
	Equipment	(e.g. board, projector, audio lab that the teacher has access to)

4.4.1.3 Emergent themes

4.4.1.3.1 Perception of English accent

The students were asked about their views on the English accent, how to gain an accent and their views on the near-English accent. The main themes were the importance of the English accent, preferences among accents and finally the characteristics of a near-English accent. These were further divided into sub-themes.

With respect to the importance of the English accent, most students felt that the American or British accents in developed countries were more appropriate than their own accents and were vital for effective communication. For instance:

S7: “The English accent is really important to me, so I watch some television to make my accent more like real English.”

S4: "I think pronunciation is more important than grammar for learning English. You have to pronounce the /p/ or /b/ to differentiate between similar words with these two sounds. Also, it helps the others to understand you…I don't care what kind of accent as I care more about the clarity of pronunciation."

Aligning with the same concept, S12 admitted that, "native English accent is vital in speaking and learning, because if you mispronounce a sound, the whole meaning would be changed."

On the other hand, the students felt that to gain an accent, one must learn pronunciation from native speakers for better understanding. For example:

S3: “Learning pronunciation from books is not possible. You have to go out and speak with native speakers or listen to them.”

However, the students also felt that the near-English accent was clearer, easy to understand, but was not as good as the Standard English accent. For example:

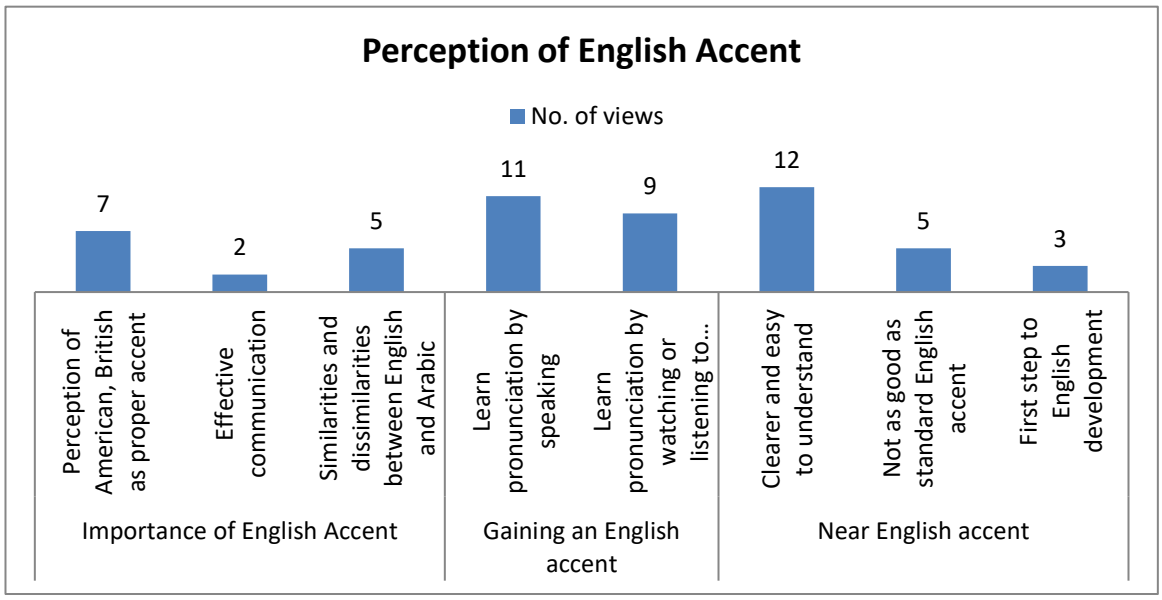
S14: “Most important is clarity in speaking because we speak to communicate meanings, so if it helps to communicate then I suppose it can be a good thing.”

S5: "I care a lot of the clarity and understanding of the accent other than the instructor's origin or nationality of even her bad accent."

Hence, from the above responses obtained it is seen that students differ in their views regarding their feelings towards English accents. Some feel good about learning the accents that are spoken in native English countries while others think it can be learnt by speaking/listening to native

speakers. Moreover, a third view believe that the near-English accent is clearer and can act as a stepping stone to better learning. The following figure shows the content analysis conducted for the responses obtained.

Figure 37: Perceptions of English Accent



In the case of the students' views on their preferences for an English teacher, most of the students felt that they liked native speakers as they have a better pronunciation and Saudi teachers as they had a similar pronunciation and accent as them. For example:

S5: "Definitely, a native speaking teacher is preferred for teaching speaking skills. A Saudi teacher is the second best option for us Saudis. Other Arabic-speaking teachers have accents that may be okay for other subjects, but not for teaching pronunciation."

From the above responses, it is seen clearly that most students prefer native speakers to teach them English for better pronunciation and accent. They feel that the teachers should have a good command over language and good speaking skills to teach students like them. However, most students prefer Arabic, specifically Saudi, teachers as a second option to teach them English for writing or grammar as they can easily understand their local accent. This point explains the students' responses regarding their preferences of a native/non-native teachers, as it is seen in Figure 19 above.

The students were asked about their views on the most likeable qualities or weaknesses in their ESL instructors and how the Arabic-speaking teachers are different from other ESL instructors. The major themes identified in their responses were the various qualities of ESL instructors such as manner, attitude and their command of language; preference towards Arabic teachers, as they

can teach them easily and for some English skills as grammar; and, finally, choosing native speakers over others to learn better pronunciation or speaking skill, for instance:

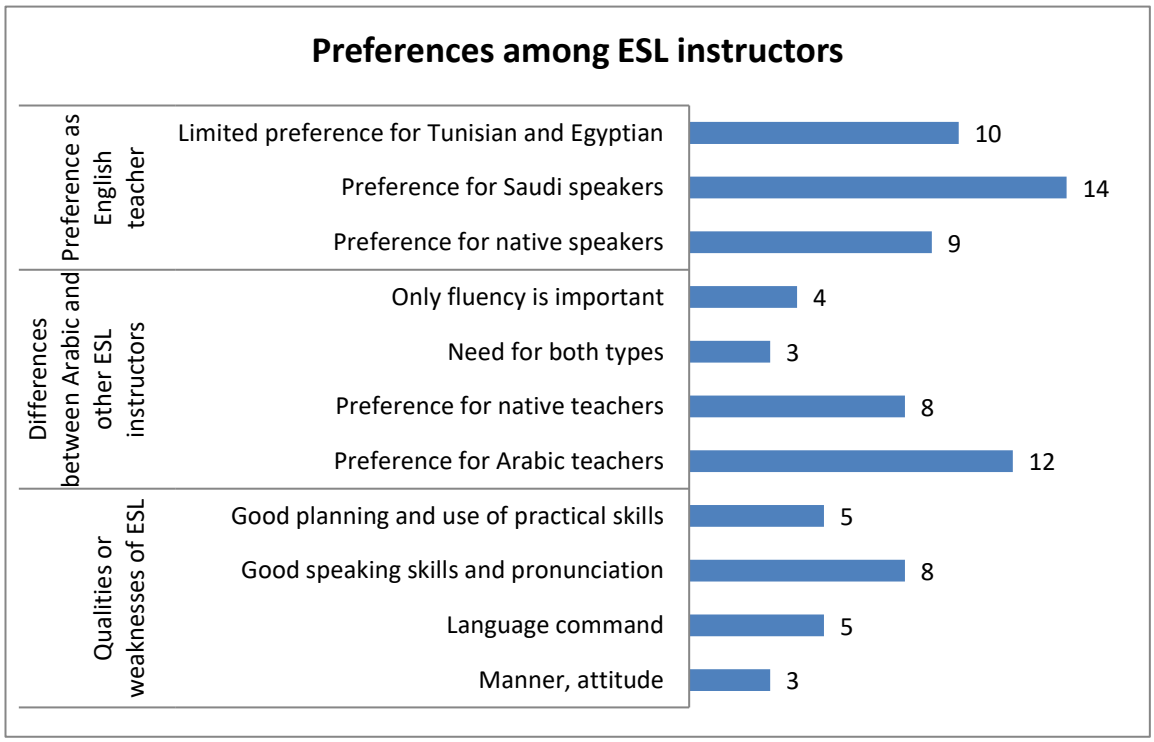
S12: “A good language teacher is one who can speak in English properly and teach it properly—I mean the speaking ability. Not all teachers can do this, so this is a rare ability in SA but it is important in today's global world.”

With respect to the differences between Arabic-speaking ESL instructors and other instructors, most of the students felt that they liked Arabic teachers as they understand their accent better and they liked native speakers as they give a better exposure to good English. For instance:

S11: “For most of the learning, an Arabic instructor is fine to have, but they are not all proficient in conversing with students in English, so the help of a native speaker as an instructor can be helpful.”

The following figure shows the content analysis performed for the qualities and preferences of ESL instructors.

Figure 38: Preferences among ESL instructors



4.4.1.3.2 Attitude towards ESL instructors’ accents

The students were then asked about their views on Arabic-speaking ESL instructors’ accents and whether they were able to differentiate between other English accents. Most students claimed

that they had difficulties in understanding the native accent due to unfamiliarity and the speed of speech. For instance:

S1: “The English accent in general is difficult for me. In the listening exam, we have a lot of mistakes because we are not familiar with the native accent. I feel the natives are eating the sounds and we will not be able to understand that.”

However, when they were further asked about their ability to distinguish between other English accents that they hear, some of the students claimed that they were able to distinguish between various accents only after they watched entertainment shows on television. This insists on that watching movies/talk shows is an influencing source for the students’ ability to distinguish between accents. For instance:

S6: “Other English accents are too fast to understand for us because English is not our first language. It is very easy to get confused.”

S4: “Because I watch some English movies I know the difference between American and British accents, and I prefer the American accent over the British.”

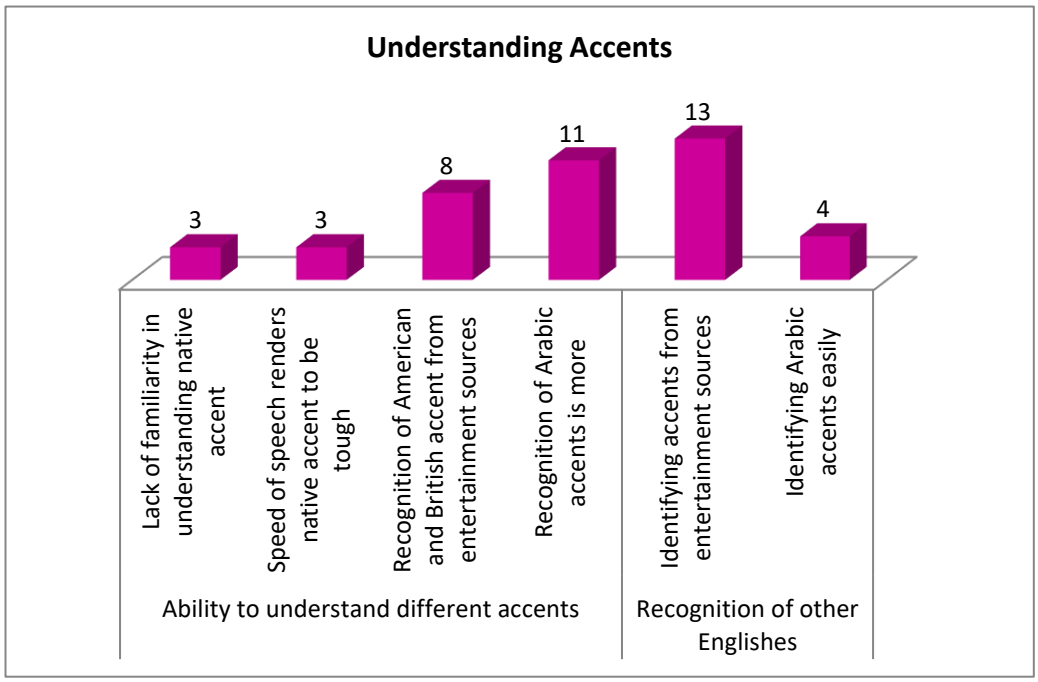
S7: "I don't know the difference between the English accents, but maybe the /r/ of the British accent is very heavy. Such as, the word *computer* is pronounced as /kəmbjuːrər/* in GA and /kəmbjuːtər/* in BE."

*In the above quote, although the student's example does not represent the 'heavy British /r/' as she claimed, but it clearly represents her inability to distinguish between both accents in terms of the final /r/. In my point of view, I think she means the flapped /ɾ/ in the intervocalic environment, where Americans tend to pronounce that sound instead of the inervocalic /t/ as the word *letter* is pronounced as /lɛɾəɹ/ in GA and /lɛtə/ in RP (Hughes, et. al., 2013).

From the above responses obtained from students with respect to their views on the different accents of their ESL instructors and their ability to understand the differences between native accents in English, i.e. GA and BE, it is clear that most students are able to do so. However, most students have developed this ability by watching movies or other entertainment sources on television with 29% of them as shown in Table 18. This ability to distinguish would have to be tested empirically to verify the claims. On the other hand, some of the students felt that understanding the native accent was tough because of its speed and the way it was being spoken to them. In linguistic terms, the issue here is how effective the accents are, especially in terms of clarity, as opposed, for instance, to how subjectively pleasing they are. This phenomenon of effective listening was explored by Purdy et al. (2016) who noted that listening theories may

provide insight into the process and help devise guidelines to be a good listener, but that listening has to be experienced to truly know how effective someone's speech is. Importantly, this could suggest the presence of listener resistance due to the negative attitude, which may in turn affect the receptivity of the students adversely to their teachers' instructions and other communications. One probable consequence of this is a shift in attention away from the message and thereby a negative impact on learning. The following figure shows the content analysis performed for the views given by the students.

Figure 39: Perception of Accents of ESL Instructors



The students were further questioned about their familiarity with their respective teachers' L1 dialects and whether they speak similar dialects. Most of the students felt that they could understand the L1 dialect spoken by their teacher but they were unable to communicate back with them in the same way. Some of them also felt that their accents sounded somewhat awkward and different from the accents usually spoken by Saudi Arabian instructors. For instance:

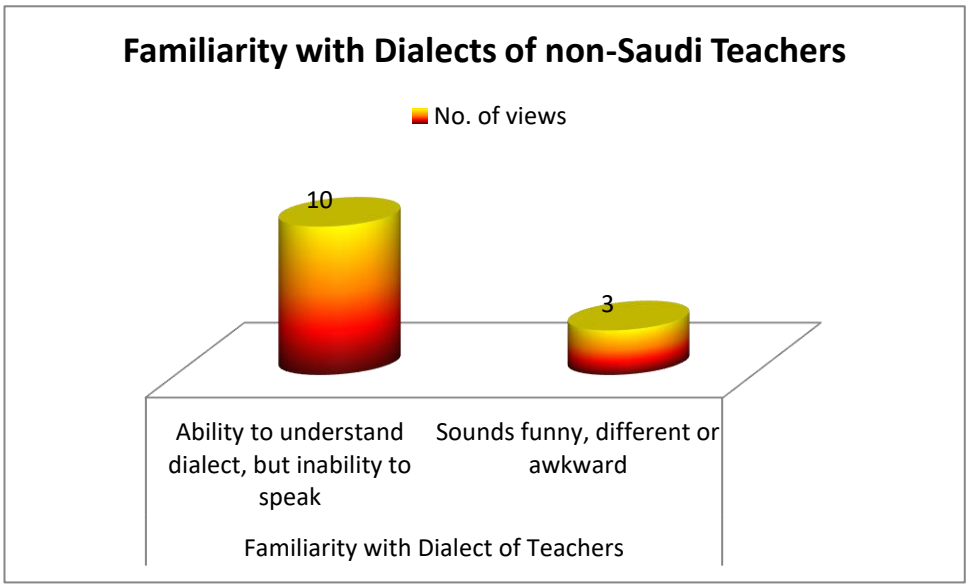
S9: "Yes, I am familiar with it, but I can't speak in that dialect normally. Actually, it sounds a bit funny for me."

S11: "There is no problem in understanding, but it doesn't sound like the way other Arabic dialects are spoken… No, I don't speak it."

From the above responses obtained, it is seen clearly that the students in general felt that they were familiar with the Arabic dialect spoken by their non-Saudi teacher, but they were unable to interact with them effectively. This may be due to inability of the teacher in communicating

clearly or to inadequacies in the students in their comprehension. Notably, familiarity does not necessarily imply the ability to differentiate, and indeed, some students claimed an inability to distinguish between the accents. The interview responses also suggest that attitude is perhaps a more important factor for the students compared to their teachers' accents. For instance, the students considered watching video based content outside of the classroom as more influential on their pronunciation than the accent of their teachers. The quality of entertainment and the greater pervasiveness of the media may explain this greater impact of the former. The following figure gives the content analysis conducted for the major themes identified.

Figure 40: Familiarity with Arabian Dialects



When asked about their views on the English accent of their teachers, the students came up with various answers and the major themes identified were that the teachers should possess the Arabic language to help beginners, were generally easy to comprehend and finally they lacked ability to distinguish between Egyptian and Tunisian accents. For instance:

S8: "It's embarrassing because some sounds are difficult to match like hers. I am more familiar with my own Saudi or Hijazi accent, you may say,… for example, I pronounce the /r/ at the end of *water* as /wɔtər/. I don't say /wɔtəɹ/"

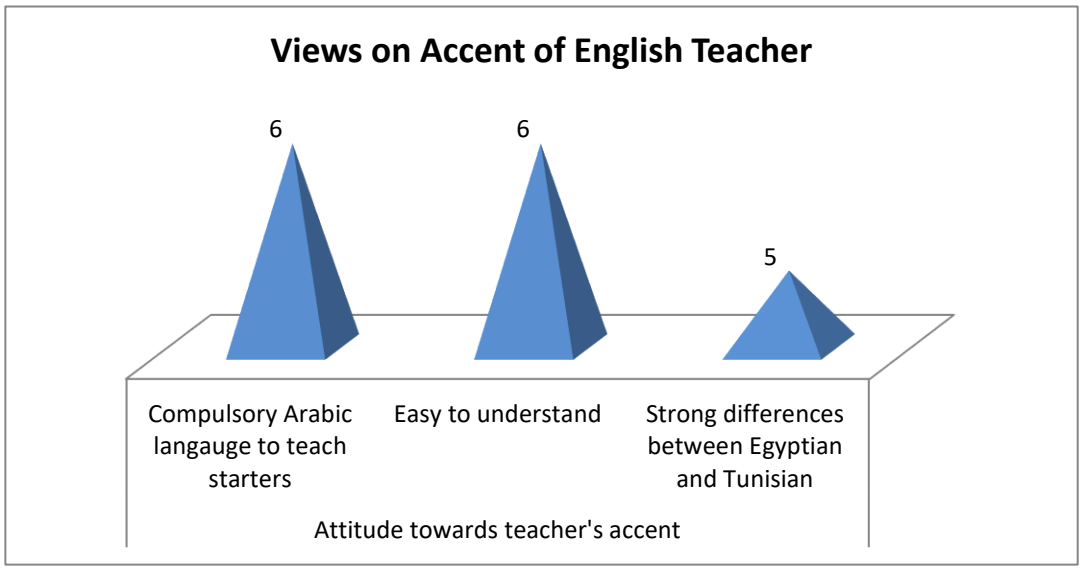
However, some of the students felt that they had the ability to differentiate between other accents such as Egyptian and Tunisian spoken by certain teachers. For example:

S15: "I have become familiar with her accent even though I do not speak it. It is quite different from my own accent. If the teacher was Saudi, maybe it would be easier to grasp the sounds and meanings, but now I am used to it."

S4: "The Egyptian teacher's accent was not perfect at all. It was English but with an Egyptian way. The Tunisian teacher was very slow although her L1 Arabic, the Tunisian dialect, is a fast one."

Thus, from the above responses it is clear that the students felt that the Saudi accent was easier to understand and they preferred teachers with Saudi accent to teach them as it was easy for them to make a connection. The following figure shows the content analysis conducted for the themes identified in these responses.

Figure 41: Views on accent of English teacher



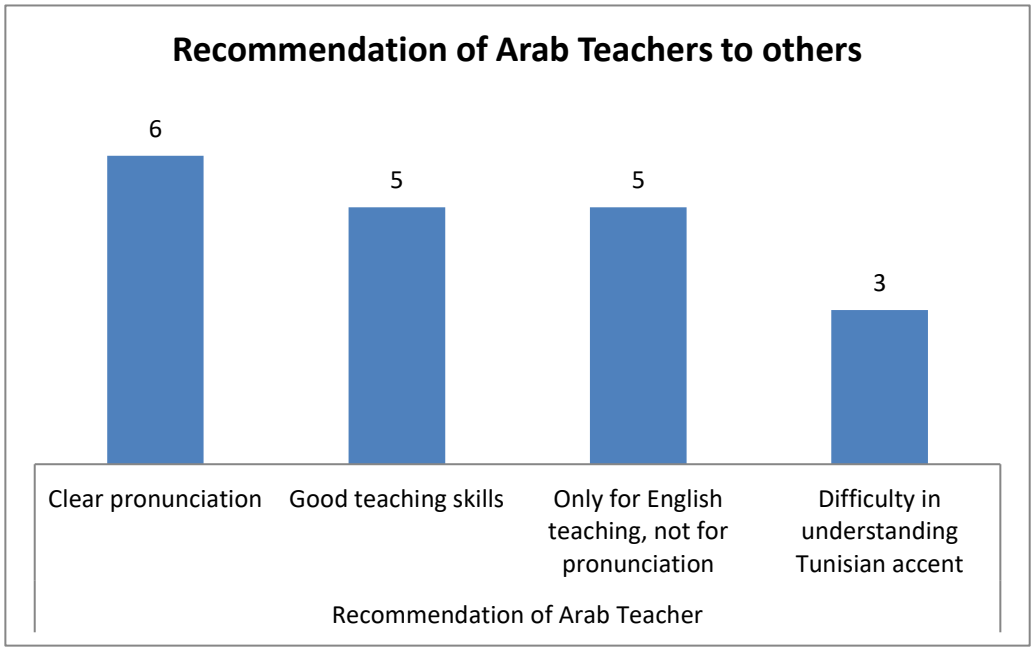
The students were asked whether they would recommend their present Arab teachers to their friends and the reasons for referring them. Most students cited the clarity in pronunciation to be the most desired quality of any teacher teaching English. However, some of them felt that they should also be proficient at teaching and they could be utilized only for general English learning and not for pronunciation purposes. For instance:

S7: “I will recommend my Egyptian teacher for general English teaching, but not for learning pronunciation or during speaking practice. For that, a native English instructor or with a Saudi accent is recommended.”

S5: “Yes. I definitely recommend my teacher for my friends. They can learn a lot to improve their English.”

Hence, from the above responses it is observed that most students suggested that their teachers had a good command over language with good clarity in language. However, some of the other students felt that they could be used only to learn English and not for pronunciation related skills. The following figure shows the content analysis performed for the above responses given by students.

Figure 42: Recommending Arab teachers to other students



The students were questioned about the impact of the accent of the teacher on their L2 accent and how it affected them. The major themes identified in their responses were that the impact was on pronunciation rather than on accent, duplicating the accent of teacher affected theirs too, and there was a negative impact on their accent if the teacher had a different native accent. Most of the students felt that imitating the accent of the teacher affected their accent too. For instance:

S2: “It depends. For instance, if the student is already exposed to another more clear or native accent and picks it up from there, then it doesn't matter so much. But if the student depends on the teacher as the only source for acquiring the accent, then it can matter if the accent is not clear. Many students learn by imitating the teacher, especially in new words, so a teacher's accent in this case is very important.”

S9: "I think this depends on the student's English level. If her level is low, then she may be affected by her teacher's accent. But if her level is high, no I don't think so… for instance if her Egyptian teacher said /zɪs ɪz ə bu:stɪ cæɹd/, she may say /ðɪs ɪz ə bu:stɪ cæɹd/. What I mean is that she may be influenced by the new word *postcard* while *this is* would not because these words are already known by the student"

However, some of the students also claimed that their teachers’ accent impacted their pronunciation more than their accent. For instance:

S9: “We have to be careful sometimes because there is a difference in pronunciation, but we know when it matters for certain words they pronounce differently in the Egyptian accent.”

S11: "My teacher's accent in school was normal and clear to me, but here in the university although I can hear different English but I can figure out that it is not the correct pronunciation. I mean, yes. Sometimes I can know what the teacher meant although her accent is not native."

Thus, from the above responses, it can be observed that most students felt that their teachers' accents impacted their pronunciation more than their actual accent, and that imitating the teacher's accent actually influences their accent too. Additionally, it could cause a negative impact on the student's accent if the teacher had an accent other than Saudi. Other students traced the limited impact of their teachers' accents on them to the short period she exposed to hers.

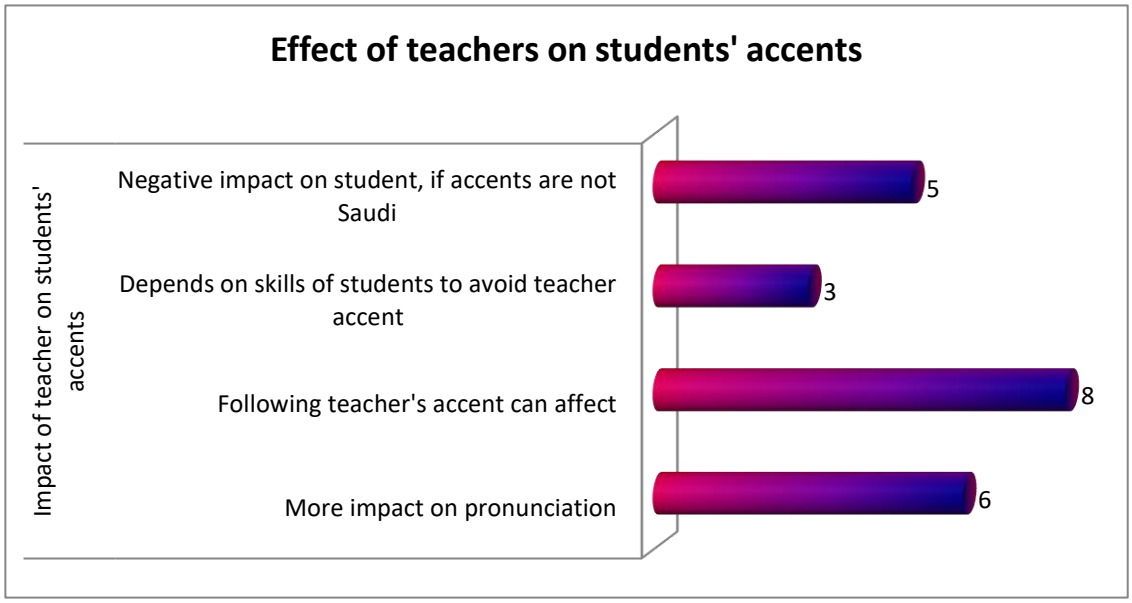
"My Arabic-speaking English teacher taught me in only 7 weeks, which is a one level of the English program. At the end of the course she hardly started recognizing our names. So, it is just a very short period of time for decide."

Some of the students claim that the teachers' accents have no effect on her students as they are adult enough to distinguish between native and non-native teachers' accents. For example:

S5: "for me, I think that if the students were children, I may agree that the teachers' accents could have an influence. But for university level, no we can distinguish which accent is correct or not."

The following Figure 43 shows the content analysis performed for the major themes recognised.

Figure 43: Impact of Teacher's Accent on Student's Accent



It may be argued from the above diagram that the students' negative attitude seems more of an influencing factor than the actual teachers' accent. This will be discussed in section 5.3.4.

4.4.1.3.3 Exposure to English

When students were asked about their previous L2 exposure, including their previous education and English used, most of them mentioned that they hadn't studied in any language institute or abroad. For instance:

S3: "I hadn't study in any language institute. So I learned English in school only."

Also, the vast majority of the students pointed out that the use of English in SA is very limited, see 1.5. The idea of 'use' here was mostly interpreted as intended, i.e. with respect to opportunities to apply the English language in real communication situations. However, some other students also interpreted this differently as influences on their learning or in terms of whether they felt they were making improvements in pronunciation.

S14: "English use is very narrow in our country and it is restricted to be in restaurants or hospitals with foreigners only. I don't have access to practice English."

S10: "I speak English only in English class. We don't travel frequently and if we need English my dad speaks it instead of me."

However, two students agreed that the pervious education had a role on their English accent. For example:

S6: "All my previous teachers were non-natives from intermediate school until now. They all were Saudis in schools and then Arabs in the university. My first English teacher's accent was Saudi accented English. I think this shaped my English."

S3: "When I was at school, I couldn't differentiate between a range of Englishes but now after I hear many accents, I can know how the Egyptian or Sudanese or Moroccan English would be."

From the above responses, it is shown that students' attitude towards their previous education assure the facts regarding the exposure to English in Saudi Arabia presented in sections 1.2.2.1.2 and 2.3.1.2, and discussed later in discussion 5.3.4.4.

4.4.1.4 Non emergent themes

4.4.1.4.1 General American English or British English

The distinction between GA and BE is presented previously in sections 2.3.1.2 and 2.4.1.3. The students prefer the GA accent over RP (Received Pronunciation; British accent). The media, movies, talk shows, social media, and school teachers play a role in shaping this preference although the school and university materials are based on the British accent. For example, the

speakers of the audio tapes that accompany the textbooks, use the British accent, as evident by the word/ hɑːdə/ for *harder*. Also, the grammar rule used, such as "have got", which is a British form, is used widely in the textbooks. Lastly, the teachers in both schools and university use the American accent and rarely do they use the British one. This diversity of accents puts the students potentially on a confused base with respect to pronunciation, and the difficulty in pronouncing the /r/ sound in all word positions, specifically in the final position, is a clear example for this.

S3: "I prefer the American accent upon the British. I follow them in Twitter and translate it. I watch American movies a lot."

S4: "The Saudi teacher's accent was very clear and her accent was British. She speaks with us in a British accent and sometime she transfers to American English, but as you know that our textbook is in British accent, so it was easier for us. Her accent was very good and very beautiful. Me, myself, I learned a lot from her. "

4.4.1.4.2 Teachers' education and preparation

Students tend to trace their actual pronunciation to the lack of good teachers' preparation programmes that we have in the Arab world. We have to teach teachers literature, translation and some courses in theoretical linguistics with no connection to teaching English courses or TESOL, see section 1.2.2.1.2 and section 3.5.2.1.1.1. Thus, some ELI hired teachers, especially Saudi, are weak in teaching, or sometimes, as claimed by some students, they are hired via nepotism. This point is illustrated as below:

S8: "There are some competent Saudi instructors and they are very good and there are others who don't have…., frankly speaking, they just come and teach us to wait for their salaries at the end of the month. I mean she doesn't want to teach and consequently it affects me in learning. I feel that it is above her burden. She teaches us by indoctrination more than discussing the information with the students. No negotiation with the students. They don't let the student talks or listen to me or take my opinion as what do you think of that or what do you mean by this or activities like this. Usually, they say let's do this exercise and that's it. She is the one who gives us the information. I just do the task like schools. "

S11: "I think my Saudi teacher's education was not such good or she didn't go to a language institute. And she come here and employed as a teacher via nepotism and cronyism. This teacher is an example of those who are not fluent in speaking or cannot convey the information correctly."

4.4.1.4.3 External resources

In the Saudi education in general, the teacher's voice is highly dominant and she is assumed to be the role-model in the English lesson. However, unlike grammar, students do not rely mainly on the teacher in speaking and pronunciation. They have the ability to "pin-point" on the accented utterances and then they refer to other resources for checking out the correct pronunciation. These resources include competent classmates, private tutors or, the most popular source, Smartphone dictionary applications. Two of the students clarified this directly as:

S6: "I use mobile application to check out the correct pronunciation of a new or hard vocabulary. And even if it is hard, speaking costs me only 10% of the total mark to pass this level. Thus, I don't pay a lot of attention to that."

S7: "When I hear a word that could not be correct, I check the correct pronunciation using the electronic dictionary. I can use them even during the class."

4.4.1.4.4 Students' motivation

The students were asked about their goals with respect to learning the English language. The major themes identified in their responses were to study in a foreign country where English is spoken and to improve their accent and speaking skills. Most of the students felt that the dream was to move abroad and study in a native English speaking country to go far in their career, and some of them felt they should work on improving their skills to speak and adopt a good accent. For instance:

S1: “First, I want to graduate from the university and then I wish to study abroad to be a psychologist.”

S6: “My goal is to learn to speak in English, not only to read and write.”

S8: "I wish I wake up one day finding me speaks English like natives. I want to speak English very well so when I travel I can communicate with people."

On the other hand, some students felt that learning English in this course is only a gateway to their university majors. For instance:

S13: "I just want to pass the English program as it is one of the obligatory courses of the foundation year."

S6: "English is only a course to pass because I want to specialize in history which is instructed in Arabic only. Thus, I want to have a pass grade and finish."

A third view of students mentioned that what motivates them for English is the demand of this skill for the future job. For Example:

S10: "I want learn English because it is very important for any future job that prefers English speaking employee."

S7: "After I graduate, I wish to improve my English because it is very important for job field or higher education."

Thus, from the above excerpt, it is understood that most students want to move abroad to pursue higher degrees and professional courses in native English speaking countries. However, some of them are focusing on improving their communication and accent skills in order to establish a better career in life. Other students considered English as an obligatory course to enter their majors only.

4.4.1.5 Summary of findings

Generally, students prefer a NEST only for specifically teaching conversational skills including pronunciation, but those not in favour of this experience difficulties because they find they tend to speak too fast, and clarity while speaking is a key concern. With respect to pronunciation, difficulty with the sound /r/ was noted by two or three students. For grammar especially, a NNET is preferred. Students are able to identify different dialects and there is no common dialect preference, but students desire certain qualities in teachers such as clear pronunciation, as well as good morals, dedication and the habit of repeating words when necessary. On the other hand, students generally prefer the GA accent over RP even though the institutions and materials are based on the latter. The students were also motivated from watching movies and the desire to be able to speak with a foreigner. Regarding impact of a teacher's accent on their own, the general understanding is that the level of proficiency of the teacher and student determine the nature of this relationship. If either is weak, the impact can be adverse, and the quality of the teacher preparation programmes can therefore be an important factor.

Teaching/Teacher preference: most students prefer a NEST for developing the speaking ability, and three explicitly stated they prefer NNEST for grammar. Some students, who preferred a NNET for speaking, argued that a native speaker tends to speak too fast and a NNEST would be in a better position to understand the student. Nonetheless, they expressed preference for having access to a native teacher for the remainder of the course. About 10 students of the interviewees (n=15) prefer to have a Saudi teacher.

Difficulties experienced: Speaking is a concern, specifically lack of clarity. One student described the difficulty experienced when taught grammar by an Indian teacher with an excellent British accent. This reinforces the impression that native teachers are better at teaching pronunciation and non-natives for teaching grammar. As regards pronunciation, some of the interviewees mentioned difficulty with the pronunciation of /r/.

Distinguishing the dialect and recommended dialect: All interviewees are able to distinguish between the different dialects. One described the Saudi one as 'heavy', Tunisian as 'slow', and more than one describe the native accent as fast. The interviewees differed in their preference for a particular dialect.

Liked teacher qualities, preferred teacher and desirable pronunciation: A good/clear pronunciation is a common desirable quality, so a native teacher is preferred for teaching pronunciation. Besides their accent, as one interviewee pointed out, other aspects of the teaching style are also important. For instance, Egyptian teachers tend to be too serious in class, and a Jordanian teacher was praised for her honesty and smiling besides clarity of accent. An Indian teacher who had been using English entirely in her class was also praised because although hard to understand her at first, it benefited a lot. For this particular interviewee, a Saudi teacher was perceived as having a weakness due to lack of fluency. Other liked or desirable qualities are good morals, repeating words, dedication to teaching and ability to convey information.

Impact of teacher's accent: With respect to the main question of the impact of a teacher's accent on a student's pronunciation in English, the shared response was that it is dependent on both the teacher's and the student's level of proficiency. If the proficiency of either is low, then it is possible for there to be an adverse impact, otherwise the students believe there is no such impact.

Effort and motivation: Watching movies was a common activity of the interviewees for improving pronunciation, and their motivations for learning the language included being able to speak fluently with a native foreigner.

4.5 Conclusion

This chapter presented the results and the findings of the research questions, ordered in the research instruments used; quantitative methods (survey and audio recording), and qualitative methods (classroom observations and students' follow-up interview). The chapter presented the students preferences towards NNEST in regards to grammar. However, most of them prefer NEST in teaching pronunciation specifically. Also, it showed the results of the audio recording phase in

terms of the sounds that may be transferred to the students through the intervention, testing new and familiar words separately. Moreover, it showed the findings of the follow-up interview which clarify the students' answers of the survey and find out the non emergent themes such as the students' preference of GA over BE, teachers' education background, English external resources and motivations which may help the students in learning pronunciation. The following chapter represents the data analysis and the discussion of these results and findings.

Chapter 5: Data Analysis and Discussion

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents and discusses the results of the study introduced in Chapter 4. It revisits the original aims, objectives and research questions, reassessing the methodology applied, and presenting a combined summary and analysis of all the results and findings in the light of each of the research questions. This is followed by an in-depth discussion of these outcomes with respect to each of the two sets of linguistic and sociological influences. This chapter also compares and combines the findings of the current study with the previously illustrated body of literature. It also adds additional findings illustrated by the researcher from the the research methods, as the students' interview, classroom observations and being an insider of the language institute.

5.2 Research overview

5.2.1 Underlying Issues

This section provides an overview of the research problem and methodology applied. The study investigated the factors that affect Saudi students' pronunciation of English (as L2), and the bearing of the teacher's pronunciation on this as well as their attitude towards non-native English speaking Arabic accented teachers.

The problem that prompted the research is that Saudi learners of English are usually given insufficient opportunities to speak in English and are not explicitly taught pronunciation in schools. Outside English classes, their exposure to different varieties of English is rare and if is exits, it would be via other sources. Moreover, their general attitude towards English also seems not to motivate them adequately to learn to speak in English, especially outside of the English class. The variation in the pronunciation abilities and accents of English teachers also makes it difficult for students who rely "secondarily" on their teachers for learning pronunciation, and the pronunciation difficulties are further compounded by the extensive inter-language features, language variation within English, and inconsistent phoneme-grapheme correspondences in English. Consequently, Saudi learners tend to experience pronunciation difficulties while learning English (Ahamd, 2010). The problem is further complicated when these students find they have no alternative and have to resort to a non-native teacher to overcome such difficulties. This may explain the phenomenon of fossilized pronunciation errors in those learners' interlanguage communications.

This prevailing situation in the context identified above led to assuming that a teacher's accent or dialect bears an uncertain influence on their students' pronunciation. Given also the important role of a teacher's own Arabic dialect in shaping their English pronunciation, it was considered worthy of investigating the relationship, if any, between the dialect or English accent of an Arab teacher of English (i.e. their L1) on the English pronunciation of their students (L2). Another justification for pursuing this research was knowing that when divergent pronunciations or errors become habitual, it becomes harder to correct them over time (Acton et al., 2013). The main concern was therefore to identify typical pronunciation difficulties faced by Arab learners of English, and to establish whether there is any significant segmental phonological influence of Arabic teachers' language variety on the students' pronunciation of ten particular English consonants (dʒ, g, ʒ, Θ, ð, ɹ, p, tʃ, v, ŋ). These consonants were selected for investigation as they tend to vary in the local dialects of Arabic. As shown in Chapter 2, these sounds are not part of the consonant system of the vast majority of local Arabic dialects. Teachers' nominative pronunciation of English in general, and of the consonants under investigation in particular, is related to students' attitude towards their teachers' L2 accents, which was treated as a dependent variable in this research.

5.2.2 Methodology Applied

The type of data gathered in this study, as well as the type of population selected as sources for data, required the adoption of a research methodology that is appropriate for understanding and analysing the data. A mixed-methods research design was therefore adopted in this study. The methodology applied involved:

- Quantitative analysis of teachers' and students' pronunciations (obtained as audio recordings) and a survey of student attitudes towards their non-native teachers, and the way those teachers pronounce English, and
- Qualitative interviews with students, and classroom observations.

The conducted study makes an original contribution to the field, as there was scant research in this field that had been conducted previously, and it may be pioneering for the specific context of Saudi Arabia. Such studies are much needed in linguistic and educational libraries, as they may help to improve the quality of English language teaching and learning in Arab countries in general, and in Saudi Arabia in particular.

As pointed out in section 3.1.2, a case study research focuses on a phenomenon, a speech event, an institution, a country, a scenario, a learner or a place of learning a language. Therefore, this

research of case study based on the hypothesis, mentioned in section 1.6.2, reveals some issues that have not been exposed in prior research and important implications for practice. For example, it is found that this hypothesis was rejected and no direct effect from the teachers' L1 dialect on her students' English. As demonstrated in the literature, section 2.4, no prior studies have looked this individual phenomenon. This research facilitates understanding the underlying thoughts of the student's quote, mentioned in section 1.3, which has an embedded negative attitude towards a certain English accent. Moreover, this case study reveals that the social influences do have an impact on students' English accents other than the teachers' L1 variety, assuring many studies focused on the students' attitude mentioned in section 2.4.2.1. These complex overlapping influences vary to include how English is taught in the context of this study, what are the strategies or methods that are applied in English classrooms, how long the students are exposed to English as L2 and what are its sources. In addition, it reveals that Saudi students face challenges in learning English, specifically gaining the "native" or "target-like" pronunciation. On the other hand, after analysing the data, this case study provides some implications and point to the need for scholars to apply further work on investigating the hidden areas of this students' pronunciation linked with their attitude. Lastly, it provides a new set of recommendations applied to practice that have not been tested.

5.2.3 Research Questions, Objectives and Methods

The main research question devised to guide the research (see 3.3) was to ascertain the possible factors, mentioned above, that may shape freshman Saudi students' English pronunciation in their preparation year. Further sub-questions were devised under each of these two categories of factors. Examination of the linguistic or phonological orientation factor involved checking for a possible relationship between teachers' L2 dialect and students' L2 pronunciation, and investigating how far the teachers' L1 (Arabic) dialect could affect their L2 (English) pronunciation. Further sub-research questions were formed to help identify specific segmental consonants. The sociological factor examined was student attitude with respect to the English accents of the Arab teachers, and the possible influence of their accents on their students' own English pronunciation.

The primary research to address all of the research questions was carried out in five phases, as illustrated in section 3.1.1. A specific research method was implemented in each phase. The main methods that were adopted to address each of the research questions are listed in the table below, which is a shortened version of Table 10. The last column mentions the section in the earlier chapters where the main relevant results or findings were presented.

Table 22: Mapping the research questions with adopted methods

Factor	Research Question	Main method adopted			results presented in
		Survey (n=118)	Audio recording (n=6 T,120 Ss)	Interview (n=15 Ss)	
Phonological (L1 orientation)	RQ1		✓	✓	4.3.2, 4.4.1.2
	RQ2		✓	✓	4.3.2 , 4.4.1.2
Sociological (students' attitude)	RQ3	✓	✓	✓	4.2.2, 4.3.2 , 4.4.1.2
	RQ4	✓	✓	✓	4.2.2, 4.3.2 , 4.4.1.2

5.3 Cross-analysis of the results and findings

5.3.1 Linguistic (Phonological) factor

This part of the analysis discusses the answer to the first and second research questions that aim to find out how far the teachers' L1 variety affects their students' English as L2 and what the nature of the possible relationship between teachers' L1 dialect and students' L2 pronunciation is. This section discusses each of the ten sounds under investigation separately by presenting by each group of teachers' pronunciation followed by a detailed overview of the relation between their outcome and that of their students' according to the results of the statistical tests mentioned in section 4.3.2.

The aim of testing the students' pronunciation of the new words is to find evidence of some similarity between their pronunciation in the posttest and their teachers' pronunciations of the same new words. By applying the CAH, the researcher was able to find if there is any similarity between these two outcomes (Teachers' L2 and students' L2), and based on the results obtained by the analysis, it can be decided whether or not teachers' pronunciation has an effect on their students' pronunciations of these new words. Accuracy of pronunciation is particularly crucial in the teaching of speaking skills. The goal of teaching speaking is to facilitate learners' achievement of communicative competence (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2013).

As stated by the teachers themselves, they exert their utmost effort to help students learn the correct speech patterns in English, and that the students regard the native accent as the most accurate and preferred one to acquire. That is, the teachers think they are making an effort to teach pronunciation and they do give it importance, but they also acknowledge the high esteem

students place on the native accent over their local accents. This point of view is not unexpected because a teacher would typically claim they are doing well in their teaching, and the admission of what accent students tend to prefer shows the pressure the teachers may be under to try and emulate a native speaker of English.

The students who were asked the same when interviewed, i.e. the impact of their teacher's accent on their own English accent, stated that the impact was more in terms of pronunciation than in shaping their accent. In cases where the teacher had a different native accent, this impact was perceived negatively. Rather, as one student pointed out, it matters only if the teacher is the main source for acquiring the accent and the accent is not clear; not so much if the student is already exposed to another clearer or native English accent. However, when coming across new words, it is likely that the teacher's accent will be imitated, so the role of the teacher's accent is limited under one case of new words, and if the student considers the teacher as the only source of pronunciation. However, the extensive use of technological and electronic devices may offer an alternative source of pronunciation, as stated by some students who mentioned that they use electronic devices for checking up the "correct" or target like pronunciation (see S6 and S7 quotes in External resources: 4.4.1.4.3. The other portions, who don't think that pronunciation marks will not add too much to their final scores, do not give pronunciation an important issue for pronunciation; see S13 quote in Students' motivation: 0.

From a sociolinguistic perspective, the responses of students in this context can be used as a basis to classify them into two major categories: (1) those who think correct pronunciation is an important aspect of L2 learning and resort to electronic devices to check their pronunciation, and (2) those who do not show any interest in whether a word is pronounced correctly or not. The latter class may be labelled as exam oriented since they focus only on what they think helps them to improve their final scores.

This study sought to identify if there is any relationship between English teachers' accents in Saudi classes, i.e. of their L1, and their students' L2 pronunciation (of selected English phonemes). It specifically attempted to identify the existence of any relationship between:

1. Segmental features (voiced and unvoiced consonants present in L1 teachers' dialects, and
2. The factors that may shape students' pronunciation in terms of English language teaching in light of their attitude towards their teachers' English accents.

From Table 14, it is demonstrated that teachers do have some accented language characteristics that are affected by their L1 Arabic dialects and most of them have nearly the same NTL count

pronunciations. The following lines discuss the most distinguished variations and similarities among the six teachers and the possible rationale behind this classified by sounds.

5.3.1.1 The voiced plato-alveolar affricate/dʒ/ and voiced palto-alveolar fricative /ʒ/

The /ʒ/ sound is pronounced as RP in all positions by the teachers. The Saudi teachers seem to have the same pronunciation in most of the ten consonants, see 4.3.2.1, the results reveal that both of them have TL pronunciation in /g, Θ, ð, p, tʃ/. Also, they have the same NTL pronunciation in the sounds /r, v, ŋ/. However, the most discernable difference among both teachers relies on their variation of sounds /dʒ/ and /ʒ/. The interview with Saudi teachers reveals that TS1 L1 dialect is Arabic Saudi-Hijazi but she had grown up in Riyadh city, Najd-central region, which is famous of the Arabic /dʒ/, Najdi speakers tend to pronounce the /dʒ/ as is represented in the Arabic language (Alessa, 2010). As shown in Figure 26 and Figure 28, the p-values for both /dʒ/ and /ʒ/ are significant for TS1 at the 5% level of significance. For /dʒ/, t=0.781 and p=0.13, and for /ʒ/, t=0.161 and p=0.003.

However, TS2 was born and raised in Jeddah and speaks Hijazi dialect at home and work. As it is mentioned in 2.3.5.2, Hijazi speakers tend to replace the Arabic /dʒ/ with /ʒ/ while Najdi speakers tend to do the opposite as mentioned before, they replace the /ʒ/ with /dʒ/ in all word positions. For instance, TS1 pronounced words like jar /dʒæɹ/ and junk food /dʒʌŋk fuːd/ as TL pronunciation, while words like *measure* and *luge* as /medʒəɹ/ *and /luːdʒ/*. So, in her linguistic repertoire only /dʒ/ does exist and the /ʒ/ does not. On the other hand, TS2, oppositely, she replaced the /dʒ/ with /ʒ/ in all words containing the former. For instance, she pronounced *jar* and *junkfood* as jar /ʒæɹ/ and junk food /ʒʌŋk fuːd/ while *measure* and *luge* were pronounced as TL. As shown in Table 27 for TS2, the p-value for /dʒ/ is significant (t=4.077, p=0.01), and for /ʒ/, it is not significant (t=1.656, p=0.114). This means that whereas the result for /dʒ/ may be more likely due to chance, the result for /ʒ/ can be explained as above.

The outcome for the sounds /dʒ/ and /ʒ/ of Saudi teachers' students differ as well; see Figure 26 and Figure 28. It reveals that the students had significant mean NTL differences between pre/post tests in the sounds /dʒ/ and/ʒ/, in which it indicates that students had progressed to the TL pronunciation. However, the difference in means between pretest and posttest of the /dʒ/ sound is significant among both Saudi teachers' classes. In the TS1 class, the p-value is 0.042 for new words and 0.004 for familiar words for the /dʒ/ sound (t=3.249), both of which are significant, and it is 0.004 for new words and 0.012 for familiar words for the /ʒ/ sound (t=2.773), both of which are also significant, as they are below the critical value of 0.05 (

Table 32 and Table 33).

Yet, it is not significant for the sound /ʒ/ in TS2 class. Thus, we can indicate that a negative transfer occurred within TS2 in sound /ʒ/, and students were affected by their Hijazi teacher 's L2 accent for both new and familiar words with p values of 0.70 and 0.297 respectively (Table 33). This is shown in the paired samples t-test. In both cases, the values are greater than 0.05, which shows there is no statistically significant difference between the two conditions. Any differences may therefore be more likely due to chance rather than the intervention.

Regarding the Egyptian teachers, both teachers have nearly the same TL pronunciation. However, TE2 has more NTL than TE1 in this sound, as she deaffricates the final /dʒ/ to /ʒ/ in *orange* and *luggage* /oɹɪnʒ/ and /lʌgɪʒ/ (for an explanation, see section 5.3.2 rationale of deviation). By deaffrication is meant the deletion of a stop component from an affricate, leaving only the continuant aspect. The fact that TE2 has more NTL than TE1 may be due to their pre-service training as the quality of teacher training differs from one educational instruction to another. It may also be due to the fact that TE2 has more teaching experience than TE1. Their students' outcome does differ, as they tend to copy their teachers' pronunciation of this sound. The t-values obtained for the Egyptian teachers' pronunciation are as follows: t=4.254 for new (p=0.000) and 3.047 (p=0.007) for /dʒ/, and t=6.892 (p=0.000) for new and 4.265 (p=0.000) for familiar for /ʒ/ for TE1 (see Table 34); t=0.203 for new (p=0.841) for new and 1.926 (p=0.069) for familiar for /dʒ/, and t=1.831 (p=0.083) for new and 0.000 (p=1.000) for familiar for /ʒ/ for TE2 (see Table 35). The p-values are significant in all cases for TE1, but in neither case for TE2. This is evidence of the first Egyptian teacher being able to bear an influence on her students' pronunciation of this sound.

This shows that TE1 students do tend to deaffricate the final /dʒ/ to /ʒ/ in *orange* and *luggage* /oɹɪnʒ/ and /lʌgɪʒ/ following their teacher's pronunciation. It has to be mentioned that /dʒ/ is not part of the segmental system of colloquial Egyptian Arabic, so this may reflect and reassure the fact that Arab teachers of English are affected in their pronunciation of some consonants by their native Arabic dialects. This is then transferred to their students who tend to pronounce these sounds in the same way as their teachers.

As regards the Tunisian teachers, the results for the paired t-test for TT1 show p=0.000 for both sounds of /dʒ/ and /ʒ/, which are both significant (Table 30), and the p-values for TT2 are 0.016 for /dʒ/, which is significant, and 0.096 for /ʒ/, which is not significant (Table 31). One of the most distinguished sounds of the Tunisian teachers is the /ʒ/, as it is a significant sound for the Tunisian L1 dialect (see 2.3.5.2). Both teachers pronounced the /dʒ/ as /ʒ/. Consequently, this sound does not transfer to their students' pronunciation.

Also, the Tunisian teachers have the same NTL pronunciation in all the sounds, and they do not have any difference between them (Table 14). This may refer to the same education, preparation and teaching experience they have. However, their students' outcome differs as shown in Table 30 for TT1 and Table 31 for TT2. For TT1, the figures in the statistical analysis show t=8.718 (p=0.000) for new words and 4.819 (p=0.000) for familiar words for the /dʒ/ sound, and t=5.688 (p=0.000) for new words and 3.621 (p=0.002) for familiar words for the /ʒ/ sound. For TT2, the t-values are 1.993 (p=0.061) for new words and 2.904 (p=0.009) for familiar words for the /dʒ/ sound, and 2.269 (p=0.035) for new words and 0.370 (p=0.716) for familiar words for the /ʒ/ sound. The p-values are significant in all cases for TT1, but only for the case of familiar words for the /dʒ/ sound and for new words for the /ʒ/ sound for TT2.

In the case of students in general, across all three groups NTL pronunciation and interchanged use is evident, seen in the medial position as well as final position. Despite training, no significant improvement was seen. A detailed explanation of this was given in section 5.3.2 rationale of deviation.

5.3.1.2 The velar stop /g/

For the velar stop /g/, the p-values are significant in all cases of TS1 (p=0.001) (Table 26), TS2 (p=0.005) (Table 27), TE1 (p=0.000) (Table 28), TE2 (p=0.212) (Table 29), TT1 (p=0.000) (Table 30), and TT2 (p=0.040) (Table 31). That is, all six teachers pronounced the /g/ sound TL pronunciation (Table 14), and no differences are seen among their students. Most of the students pronounced this sound TL in the initial and final positions as the words *go* and *egg*. However, they are confused when it comes to the medial position. This deviation may rely on the spelling system of English that they are challenging (see section 5.3.2). It is important to acknowledge that there is limited impact of training on improvement in the pronunciation of this sound.

The p-values in the paired t-tests for pre/post tests, both new and familiar are also significant for most cases except for three. These exceptions are class TE2 for both new and familiar words, and TT2 for familiar words at the 5% level of significance. The p-values are as follows: For class TS1, p=0.000 for new, 0.003 for familiar; for TS2, p=0.003 for new, 0.025 for familiar; for TE1, p=0.000 for new, 0.001 for familiar; for TE2, p=0.163, 0.330 for familiar; for TT1, 0.000 for new, 0.000 for familiar, and for TT2, p=0.044 for new, 0.069 for familiar. As regards this /g/ sound, the impact of teachers' pronunciations is widespread with only a few exceptions.

5.3.1.3 The interdental fricatives /Θ/ and /ð/

The /Θ/ sound is pronounced RP in the case of the SA teachers as well as the Tunisian teachers, see Table 14. Regarding their students, this is evident from the paired t-tests where the p-values

are 0.008 for TS1 (Table 26), 0.017 for TS2 (Table 27), 0.001 for TT1 (Table 30), and 0.012 for TT2 (Table 31), i.e. they are all significant. However, in the case of the Egyptian teachers' students, the p-values are 0.000 for TE1 (Table 28) and 0.172 for TE2 (Table 29). Thus, significant variations are observed. For instance, 50% of the teachers pronounced it as RP while others can pronounce the sound as /s/. TE1 tends to have TL pronunciation in these sounds. However, TE2 has the highest NTL pronunciation among all the six teachers (refer to Table 14). Although both teachers are graduated from nearly the same education and preparation program (see 3.5.2.1.1.1), they do differ in their articulation. This may be traced to the fact that TE1 has a long experience in teaching TOFEL and IELTS tests and English teaching in general. TE2 replaced all interdental sounds /ϴ, ð/ with /s, z/ respectively. For instance, words like *therefore* and *three* were pronounced as /zerfor/* and /sri/*. The situation is similar with the /ð/ sound. The p-values are 0.046 for TS1, 0.033 for TS2, 0.003 for TE1, 0.088 for TE2, 0.028 for TT1, and 0.042 for TT2. As for /ϴ/, these are all significant except for the same Egyptian teacher – TE2. Furthermore, it is interesting therefore to see that despite the teacher usage of the sound, there is no direct impact on students' pronunciation.

For /ϴ/, the p-values for new and familiar words are 0.006 and 0.019 respectively for class TS1 (

Table 32); 0.004 and 0.025 for TS2 (Table 27); 0.000 and 0.001 for TE1 (Table 34); 0.541 and 0.428 for TE2 (Table 35); 0.010 and 0.069 for TT1 (Table 36), and 0.003 and 0.135 for TT2 (Table 37). These values are mostly significant, but they are not significant for both cases of TE2, and for familiar words in classes TT1 and TT2. For the /ð/ sound, the p-values for new and familiar words for each of the classes are 0.042 and 0.083 for TS1; 0.056 and 0.135 for TS2; 0.003 and 0.037 for TE1; 0.135 and 0.083 for TE2; 0.069 and 0.056 for TT1, and 0.028 and 0.163 for TT2 respectively. There are more non-significant values for this sound than there are for /ϴ/. The p-values are significant for new words in the case of TS1, TE1, TE2, and TT2, and for familiar words only for class TE1. However, students are confused in which environment of "th" is pronounced as /ϴ/ or /ð/. An explanation of this was given in 5.3.2.

5.3.1.4 The alveolar approximant /ɹ/

The consonant /ɹ/ is a unique sound in this study. As it is mentioned in 2.3, it exits in both Arabic and English. However, this sound is an approximant in English where the tip of the tongue approaches the alveolar area and never makes contact with any part of the roof of the mouth. "This is very different from other 'r-sounds' of many other languages where some kind of tongue-palate contact is made" (Roach, 2009: 49). That is the case of Arabic /r/ where it is trilled clearly as the Italian or Spanish /r/. This sound was pronounced by all teachers as TL in four tokens, initial and medial positions, and twice as NTL in the final position of the words *jar* and *manner*. For

instance, these words were pronounced by the teachers as /dʒæɹ/ and /mænəɹ/ not /dʒa:/ and /mænə/. This is evident in the p-values for this sound (Table 26 to Table 31), which are 0.131 for TS1, 1.000 for TS2, 0.116 for TE1, 0.666 for TE2, 0.058 for TT1, and 0.287 for TT2, as none of them are significant.

As it is demonstrated by Davenport and Hannahs (2010) that RP, which is the TL pronunciation of this study, is considered as rhotic accent where /ɹ/ is pronounced in prevocalic environment, i.e. when it precedes a vowel as in *red* and *tree*. However, it is not pronounced when it follows a vowel or at the end of a word in isolation as the words *jar* and *manner*. Nonetheless, there are some cases where this rhotic /ɹ/ is pronounced at the end of the word when it is followed by a word which starts with a vowel as *bear attack* (ibid). This is not under the study of this research since all words are chosen to be in isolation, see section 3.5.2.1.2.

Regarding their students, most of them in general pronounce the English /ɹ/ as their Arabic alveolar trill /r/ even in cases where it should not pronounced, based on the TL, for example some students pronounce *singer* and *manner* as /sɪngar/ and /mɪnɪr/. The paired t-test results for new and familiar words shows p-values of 0.110 and 0.163 respectively for TS1 (

Table 32); 0.110 and 0.330 for TE1 (Table 33); 1.000 and 0.330 for TE2 (Table 35); 0.056 and 0.104 for TT1 (Table 36), and 0.330 and 0.267 for TT2 (Table 37). For TS2, the p-value for new words is 0.000, which is significant, but it could not be calculated for familiar words because the standard error is zero (Table 33). The results of the students' outcome of this sound, as it is shown in the audio results, Figure 31, reveals a very minimal difference between the students' pretest and posttest which indicate that the teachers' intervention did not have a significant influence on the students' outcome of /ɹ/ in both new and familiar words as well.

5.3.1.5 The voiceless bilabial stop /p/

The /p/ sound is pronounced as RP by most of the teachers. However, 50% of teachers who were Egyptian pronounced it as /b/. This is evident from the mix of significant and non-significant values. The p-values are significant only for the two Tunisian teachers: TT1 (p=0.011) and TT2 (p=0.005). They are not significant for others: TS1 (p=0.640), TS2 (p=0.666), TE1 (p=0.057), TE2 (p=0.186).

Those students who were part of these classrooms were finding it difficult to differentiate between /b/ and /p/. In the Saudi Arabian case, the posttest shows that there was marked improvement, with only a few students pronouncing it as NTL. In the case of the Tunisian classroom, /p/ was voiced as a counterpart to /b/ in familiar words. This shows that there is greater impact of Saudi Arabian teacher led training when compared to other elements.

This can be seen in the statistics for paired differences between the new and familiar words. For TS1, the p-values are 0.772 for new and 0.505 for familiar; for TS2, the p-values are 0.330 for new and 1.000 for familiar; for TE1, the p-values are 0.057 for new and not ascertainable for familiar; for TE2, the p-values are 0.163 for new and 0.330 for familiar; for TT1, the p-values are 0.006 for new and 1.000 for familiar; for TT2, the p-values are 0.002 for new and 0.027 for familiar. It can be seen that they are only significant for the last two Tunisian teachers. Hence, the impact of the teachers' pronunciations is evident in the Tunisian teachers' classes.

5.3.1.6 The plato- alveolr affricate /tʃ/

The /tʃ/ sound is pronounced TL by the teachers of all three groups. The p-values are non-significant in the cases of TS1 (p=0.149), TS2 (p=0.110), and TE2 (p=0.186). The p-values are significant in the cases of TE1 (p=0.004), TT1 (p=0.009), and TT2 (p=0.024). The student outcomes thus reveal the differences in the means are only significant in the case of these three latter classes (TE1, TT1 and TT2).

From the data in

Table 32 to Table 37, for class TS1, the p-values for new and familiar words are 0.428 and 0.577 respectively; for TS2, they are 0.330 for both cases; for TE1, they are 0.005 and 0.494 respectively; for TE2, they are 0.330 and the value for familiar was not ascertainable; for TT1, they are 0.009 and 0.137 respectively, and for TT2, they are 0.135 and 0.163 respectively. Of these, the values are only significant for new words in classes TE1 and TT1. This means that the pronunciations of the first Egyptian and first Tunisian teachers did bear an influence on their students. However, this sound is replaced by some students with /ʃ/ or /t/. For instance, students pronounced words like child, rich as /ʃiald/ and /rɪʃ/ (see the rationale in section 1.3). This is only sound where significant improvement in student pronunciation in the posttest conditions is evident.

5.3.1.7 The voiced labio-dental fricative /v/

For the /v/ sound, the p-values in the paired t-tests are 0.059 for TS1, 0.419 for TS2, 0.004 for TE1, 1.000 for TE2, 0.003 for TT1, and 0.002 for TT2. These values are significant for TE1, TT1 and TT2, and are non-significant for TS1, TS2 and TE2. That is, the NTL differences are only significant between pre- and post-tests in the first three classes.

The /v/ sound is pronounced as RP by all three groups of teachers. Familiar words were pronounced properly, with some marked variations in pronunciation for those words which were not familiar. Across all three groups, no real effect of pronunciation is evident for this particular sound. However, only TE2 replaced it with its voiceless counterpart /f/. Also, she replaced the /v/

sound with /f/, for example, the words *novel* and *van* were pronounced as /nofɪl/ and /fæn/. This NTL pronunciation of this specific (TE2) teacher did not have an effect on her students, as the result was not significant.

The statistical analysis of paired t-tests on new and familiar words revealed p-values of 0.072 and 0.186 respectively for TS1; 0.163 and 0.330 for TS2; 0.015 and 0.056 for TE1; 0.577 and 1.000 for TE2; 0.042 and 0.025 for TT1, and 0.019 and 0.007 for TT2. These values are only significant in the case of new words in TE1, and both new and familiar words in TT1 and TT2. They are not significant in the other cases.

One of the significant finding of this sound is the devoicing of the /v/ in the final position of the familiar word *five* for all participants of the study (teachers and students). They all pronounced this familiar word as /faɪf/. This may be traced to the fact that the first time they have heard this word is that way where /v/ is devoiced in all word positions by their first teachers. However, the /v/ sound in the new word in final position as the word *talkative* is pronounced differently depends on L1/L2 transfer where /v/ does not exist or depends on other factors mentioned below, see section 5.3.1 and 5.3.3. Also, it is worth noticing that all of the teachers pronounced the word five with a final /f/ not /v/, see Table 14. The results of their students' outcome of this sound show only a few significant cases (TE1, TT1 and TT2) for new words where the impact of the teacher is evident.

5.3.1.8 The voiced velar nasal /ŋ/

For the final sound of /ŋ/, the p-values obtained from the paired t-tests for pre/post classes were as follows: p=0.705 for TS1; p=0.186 for TS2; p=0.001 for TE1; p=0.330 for TE2; p=0.056 for TT1, and p=0.359 for TT2. The only significant value is p=0.001 for TE1 at the 5% level of significance. All other p-values are not significant.

All teachers and students share the insertion of /g/ after this nasal. i.e. they replaced /ŋ/ with /ŋg/ which, according to the TL pronunciation, is considered as a deviation. for example, the words as singer, ring, hangout, greeting were pronounced as /sɪŋgəɹ/, /riŋg/ and /hæŋgaːwt/. More interestingly, some students pronounced this sound by replacing it with /n/, for instance , /rɪng/, /fɪnʒəɹ/. The rationale for this is detailed in section 5.3.2.

The results of the paired t-tests for pre/post tests for new and familiar words show p-values of 0.716 and 0.716 respectively for TS1; 0.083 and 1.000 for TS2; 0.001 and 0.025 for TE1; 0.186 and 1.000 for TE2; 0.030 and 0.163 for TT1, and 0.297 and 1.000 for TT2. These are only statistically significant for TE1 for both new and familiar words; and for new words for TT1. This means the intervention did cause a change in students' performances in these few significant cases. In other

words, the TE1 and TT1 teachers' pronunciation did influence the pronunciation of their students for the sound of /ŋ/.

5.3.2 Linguistic rationale of pronunciation deviations

As it is mentioned in section 2.4.1.8, that L2 learners tend to use some phonetic processes in order to weaken the sounds of the target language that do not exist in their L1 phonemic system. The following examples represent the phonological processes applied by the Saudi students:

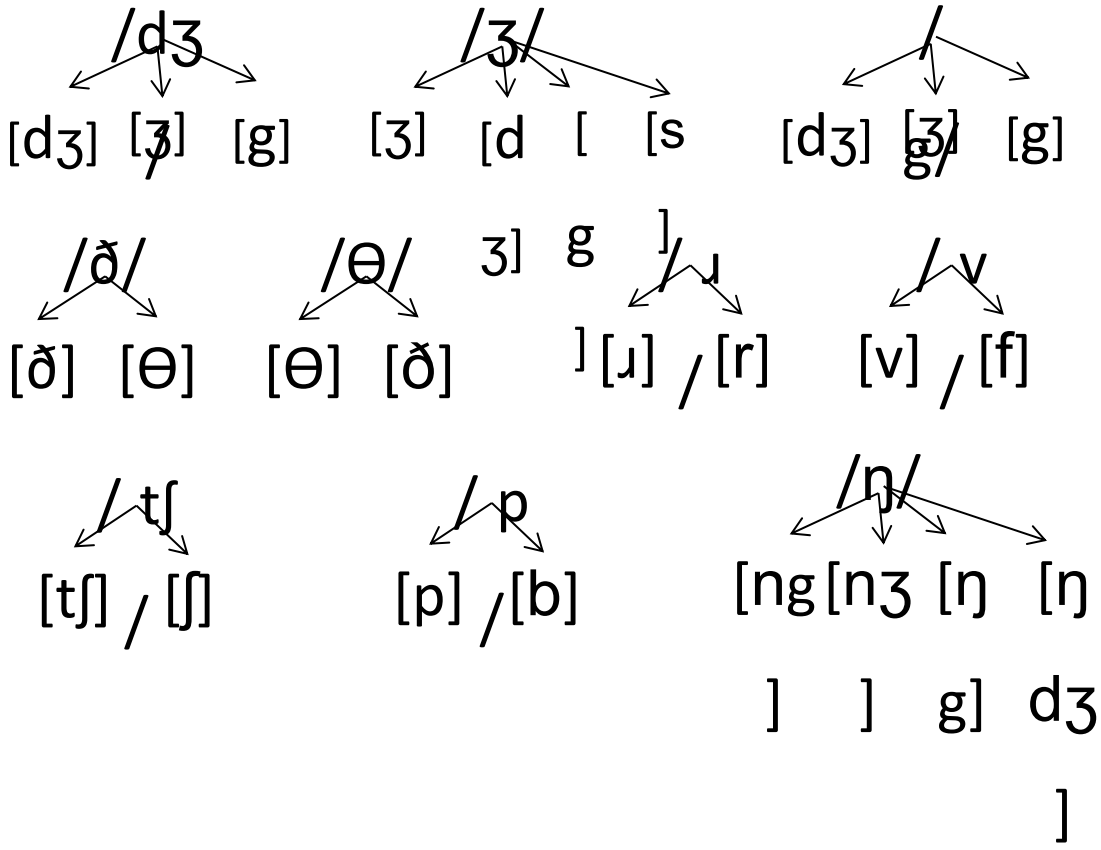
1- Devoicing: the students tend to devoice the voiced consonants that do not exit in their L1 phonemic system. /v/ is pronounced as /f/ and /p/ is pronounced as /b/. For instance, students pronounce these pairs the same; *Leave* and *leaf*, and *lap* and *lab*, *pig* and *big*.

2- Deaffrication (lenition): students tend to deaffricate the affricates into fricatives as the affricates are marked features of L1 and L2 as well, this applied in the final position specifically. For instance, *orange*, *luggage* and *rich* are pronounced as /ora:nʒ/, /lʌgeʒ/and /rɪʃ/.

3-Insertion: all teachers and students insert a velar stop after the velar nasal /ŋ/ as /siŋgəɹ/ and /gri:tɪŋg/.

To sum up the students' deviations of the ten sounds, the following diagrams in Figure 44, presents how each English consonant is pronounced by the Saudi students, represented by the phonemic status of each.

Figure 44: Phonemic status of consonants



5.3.2.1 Markedness theory

Some sounds are presented in L2 pronunciation, according to MT mentioned in 2.2.4, that they are unmarked, i.e. they are neutral, frequent or universal, and there are some that are marked, i.e. distinguished in some way and less frequent. The unmarked sounds are usually acquired first, and the marked ones are acquired later during the course of language development. Thus, voiced sounds are more marked than voiceless ones. This theory may explain the pronunciation of the /b/ and /v/ sounds instead of uttering the /p/ and /f/ sounds by most of the students, since the first pair are unmarked whereas the latter pair are marked. In addition, this is aloso applied to the affricates /tʃ/ and /dʒ/. Some participants, as most of the teachers, TS2 ans TT1, and TT2, and various students pronounced these sounds as the fricatives /ʃ/ and /ʒ/ respectively. Assuring MT, these results help us to predict the most challenging sounds for L2 learners where these sounds do not exist in their L1 varieties.

5.3.2.2 L1/L2 transfer

As we see in section 2.2.1 that some L1 sounds could be transferred to L2 as these sounds are not represented in L2 sound system. According to Transfer Theory, language skills, in this case

pronunciation, get transferred from the first to the second language, so the sounds present in the native language therefore have a bearing on the sounds pronounced in the other language, i.e. according to whether they also exist and how they are pronounced in the native language. For instance, some of these sounds, as /v, p/ do not exist in MSA and dialects as well – see section 2.3.2. However, the students tend to replace these sounds by their voiced/voiceless counterparts, i.e. /f/ and /b/. For instance, some students pronounce words like *van* as /fæn/, *apple* as /æbɪl/, and *polite* as /bo:lti:/. This confirms the findings of other studies, such as Flynn and O'Neil (1988) that the native language is involved during acquisition of the second and the overproduction of certain linguistic elements.

The same case of L1/L2 transfer is applied to the pronunciation of the affricates /tʃ/ and /dʒ/ where they are replaced by /ʃ/ and /ʒ/ respectively. The sound /tʃ/ is pronounced as /ʃ/ or as a cluster of /t/ and /ʃ/, i.e. /t.ʃ/, a plosive separated from the following fricative with a rapid release. For example, the word child was pronounced as /ʃeld/ or /t.ʃaɪld/. Then again, the sound /dʒ/ is pronounced as /ʒ/ in words like jar and orange /ʒæɹ/ and /o:ranʒ/. As mentioned in 2.4.1.8 that Arab learners of English tend to simplify /tʃ/ to /ʃ/ or /dʒ/ to /ʒ/. This replacement, or deaffrication as an affricate becomes a fricative, could be traced to the lack of /tʃ/ in Arabic or as a result of a phonological process of lenition, which is a process when the target sound is articulated weaker than usual (Kirchner, 2004). All these examples from the results illustrates the findings of the studies mentioned in 2.4.1.8 on most challenging phonemes, in which all these sounds were the most difficult ones as an effect of L1 phonemic systems. For instance, Binturki (2008) and Al-Badawi and Salim (2014) among others have highlighted difficulties for Arabs in pronouncing the sounds /p, v, r/, especially in the final position, and Barros (2003) identified others as well besides these, namely /ŋ, d, l, dʒ, ð/. However, the other pronunciation deviation of the sounds /dʒ, ʒ, g, ŋ, Θ, ð/ is presented below as a major reason of the difference of spelling systems between L1 and L2, especially in their pronunciation of the new words in pretest.

5.3.2.3 Language orthography and spelling system

Although studying the impact of spelling on pronunciation was not part of the original aim, it was noticed during the course of the study that this was another important causative factor worth highlighting in this discussion. Both factors of language orthography and spelling system were addressed in section 2.4.1.2. As explained earlier, the spelling system in English does not have one-to-one correspondence. For example, the grapheme ‘gh’ could represent more than one phoneme/sound. It could be pronounced as /f/ in *enough* or /g/ as in *ghost* or not pronounced at all as in *although*. This feature in English does not exist in the Arabic language, as each Arabic alphabetical letter/grapheme represents only one specific sound. It

is literally a one-to-one spelling system. It is found that this difference in both systems affects the ability of Saudi students in reading as well as their pronunciation. A key evidence for this point is represented later in this section in the word *future*, where the graphemes ‘tu’ are pronounced here as one phoneme /tʃ/.

We can see the more the diversity of the phonemic status of the sound, the more difficulty with which the spelling system relies on that sound. For instance, /dʒ/, /ʒ/, /g/ and /ŋ/ are the most various phonemic difficulties, as they are represented in English spelling by the letters/graphemes (j, ge, su, g). "A symbol that sometimes differs from the corresponding letter is [g], which is used for the sound in guy and guess but never for the sound in age or the sound in the name of the letter g." (Ladefoged and Johnson, 2010).

The posttest conditions showed no marked difference amongst the Tunisian teaches’ students. However, in the case of the Saudi teachers’ students pronouncing the term in new words, they mispronounce the /dʒ/ with /ʒ/ and show clustering of G and E. In the case of the Egyptian teachers’ students, there is no improvement across all the positions. Students cannot distinguish in which environment each sound should be pronounced. The following examples for the sound /dʒ/ show how students are confused of these different deviations:

Jar was pronounced as /ʒær/, /gær/, /dʒær/

Suggest was pronounced as /sugest/, /suʒɪst/

Luggage was pronounced as /lugeg/, /logeʒ/

Luge was pronounced as /lu:g/, /lu:ʒi/, /ladʒ/

Also, the /g/ sound is pronounced as RP in all three groups of students. In all three cases, there is clear evidence of mispronunciation events. Students mispronounce the /g/ with /ʒ/ and cannot differentiate between the environments of each sound. For instance, the sound /g/ which presented in the following examples was pronounced differently as following; *bigger* /bɪʒər/ and *luggage* /loʒeʒ/, and *greeting* was pronounced as/ʒre:tɪŋg/. Clearly, even though the teacher pronunciation is correct, there are some challenges facing students' pronunciation. Tests which are conducted should address this perspective and identify relevant changes needed.

The students were confused with the sound /ʒ/ which was replaced by /dʒ/ and /g/ in most of the cases, such as these examples, *luggage* was pronounced as /lugeg/, /logeʒ/. It is worth noting that the spelling system of the sound /ʒ/, represented in 'su' letters as *measure* and *treasure*, was the most difficult sound to "read". Some students pronounced these words as /mi:sor/and /tri:sor/. As mentioned previously in 3.5.2.1.2, that this study applied "reading-aloud" test and

this may affect the validity of the result outcome, see section 3.9.6 for instrument limitation and it is an area for future research is recommended. The same case applied to the /Θ/ and /ð/ which were confusing to most of the students. For instance, the word *therefore* was pronounced as /Θrifor, *breathe* as /breΘ/ and /ðrɪl/ for *thrill*.

As was discussed previously, the sound /tʃ/ was pronounced as /ʃ/ as for a result of L1-L2 transfer. However, it was also pronounced as /t/, as in the example, *future* which is pronounced as /foto:r/ or /fju:ʃər/. Finally, the sound /ŋ/ was pronounced NTL in all cases of the teachers and their students. It was pronounced by the teachers as /ŋg/ and this pronounced was a TL of the students which is actually not TL of the teaching syllabus they are exposed to. Students replaced the /ŋ/ sound with /n/ as the words *singer* and *ring* were pronounced in their pretest as /sɪnʒər/, /rɪnʒ/, or *hangout* as /hængo:t/.

From the above evidences, it is clear that there is more improvement posttest in the Saudi Arabian group. Similarities in the type of teacher pronunciation are seen across multiple sounds (e.g. /tʃ/, /v/, /r/). However, differences in teacher pronunciation are seen for some words. For example, 50% of the Egyptian teachers pronounce /p/ as /b/. Similarly, while the Egyptian teachers pronounce /dʒ/ as RP in all positions, in the case of Saudi Arabian and Tunisian teachers, this sound is this approximated as /ʒ/.

We can see from these examples that most of the students "read" the letters, letter by letter, in case of the new words. This finding confirms the results of Al-Mehmadi's (2013) study that sees language proficiency with respect to orthography as a major influencing factor. It explains, for instance, why spellings can often be deduced when knowing how to pronounce a word. From the comparative assessment, some commonalities and differences can be observed for the different pronunciations and sounds. In relation to the current study, the teacher's accent or deviated pronunciation could not be the only source of students' NTL pronunciation. Thus, this conclusion asserts that teachers' accent is one of many other factors that could influence the students' pronunciation.

Despite a significantly sharp rise in correct utterances from pre-test to post-test, there is no direct effort to improve the overall effectiveness of the teaching intervention. And if there is any, with regard to teaching, the results show that most significant relationships were found for the first Egyptian class followed by the first Tunisian class. Specifically, the students' improvements were made in pronouncing the sound /Θ/ followed by the sounds /dʒ/ and /g/. Another interesting result is that no significant relationships were found for the sixth sound of /r/.

The findings of the study correspond with that of section 2.4.1.8 on the most difficult sounds though it may contradict others. For instance, previously, Fareh (1986) found a positive relationship between Jordanian teachers' dialect and their Jordanian students' English pronunciation, although O'Brien and Smith (2010) did not find evidence of a direct transfer of L1 to L2. However, interestingly, this is contrary to a study conducted by Fareh who conducted his study on secondary school level in 1986 in Jordan where teachers were the only source of pronunciation. The current study shows that L1 features of the teachers do not transfer, directly or extensively to all sounds, to the students who are adult learners and have been exposed directly or indirectly to English in this time of social media and the Internet revolution.

It is indicated from the above discussion that although the six teachers' pronunciation approximates to the target –like pronunciation in the sounds /g,ɹ, tʃ, v/, their students vary in their L 2 pronunciation. For instance, /g/ was presented in the students' pronunciation in three different forms; two of them were not of their teachers'. Also, they prounced the /ɹ/ as the trilled Arabic /r/ in all word positions; in the time that their teachers pronounced this sound as a TL. The same case is applied to the /tʃ/ and / v/.

However, the sounds /dʒ, ʒ, Θ,ð, p, ŋ/ were pronaounced NTL by some variation among the teachers. For example, TS1 pronounced /ʒ/ as /dʒ/ and TS2 pronounced the opposite case, i.e /dʒ/ to /ʒ/. Their students' performance was positive to the TL pronunciation; with a decresing in NTL mean values from (3.2) in the pretest to (2.05) in the postest for TS1 in /ʒ/ and from (4.15) to (2.75) for TS2 in the /dʒ/. The above finding is consistent with the other sounds / Θ,ð, p, ŋ/. Therefore, from the above illustration it could be summarised that students' pronunciation is affected directly by their L1 other than indirectly by their teachers' L1 features. The main source of the students' deviations count on the students' L1 and their previous L2 education. Another findings highlinght that language spelling system (L1 and L2) is one of the major challenges which are facing Saudi students.

The table below (Table 23) presents a summary of the key findings from the analysis and discussion of linguistic factors, and the implications derived from each set corresponding to each of the ten sounds examined. The greater significance of the relationships indicated in the third column, the greater is the likely impact of different teachers’ pronunciation on their students' pronunciation according to the findings in this study.

Table 23: Summary of findings and the implications derived for each sound

Sound	Significant relationships found	Findings	Implications
/dʒ/	Very high	-Pronounced similarly by Saudi and Egyptian teachers -Mispronounced by Saudi teachers' classes as /ʒ/	Students may need help with this sound
/g/	Very high	-Mispronounced in all three cases, typically as /ʒ/ -Challenging for students	All students need help with this sound
/ʒ/	High	-Pronounced as RP in all positions -Overused by Saudi Hijazi and Tunisians -Mispronounced as /dʒ/ or /g/ by Egyptians -Wrong pronunciation and interchanging is evident across all three groups No significant improvement despite training	Students may need help with this sound, especially Egyptians' students
/Θ/	Most	-Pronounced as RP by Saudi and Tunisian, but variously by Egyptian teachers, often as /s/ -No impact on student pronunciation	Generally, poses no major difficulty
/ð/	Moderate	- Pronounced as RP by Saudi and Tunisian, but variously by Egyptian teachers, often as /z/	Generally, poses no major difficulty
/r/	None	-Pronounced as RP in all positions by teachers -Students pronounce it as a trilled /r/. -Impact of training on improving pronunciation is limited.	New teaching strategies or pronunciation drills need to be found to teach this sound.
/p/	Moderate	-Pronounced as RP by the teachers. -Typically pronounced by students as /b/ -Students cannot discern and distinguish between /p/ and /b/. -Most improvements were made in the Saudi class.	Students need to be able to differentiate between these two sounds
/tʃ/	Moderate	-Pronounced as RP in all three cases -Significant improvement by students is evident in post-test conditions	All students need help with this sound
/v/	High	Pronounced as RP by Saudi and Tunisian, but variously by Egyptian teachers, often as /z/	All students need help with this sound
/ŋ/	Few	-pronounced as [ŋg] in all cases of teachers and students as well. -some students replaced it with [ng], [nʒ]	Help may be needed with this sound.

After discussing the possible linguistic factors of the students' pronunciation, the next sub-section discusses the other social factors that may shape the students' outcome.

5.3.3 Sociological factors

This section examines and discusses the students' attitudes towards their teachers' accents and answer the third research question: students' attitudes and perceptions towards their Arab teachers' English accents.

Most teachers were aware of the wide variation in accents and their role in helping to improve their own, recognised the importance of acquiring the proper pronunciation over their accent, and acknowledged its importance for creating the right attitude among students. On the other hand, many teachers pointed out that their accent made it easier for the students to comprehend what is said, and it gave them a distinct identity. When asked about their perceptions of student attitudes towards their accent, most accepted that students preferred native speakers except at the primary level, but among NNET's, Saudi teachers were preferred over Tunisian or Egyptian. Rather, it is perceived that students prefer a teacher with the same accent for the sake of clarity, and that it is also important for teachers to be able to relate to the needs of the students.

In the student survey, the students themselves confirmed their preference for a non-native accented teacher (69%), particularly for the Saudi accent (40%) and due to its clarity (53%) and similarity (36%) with their own accent. In contrast, the Sudanese accent was disliked the most (46%) because of its lack of clarity and displeasing quality (39%). The most common actual accents of the teachers were Egyptian (19.5%) and Saudi (18.6%). Disliking certain accents may be a cause for creating listener resistance, and thus explain, at least partially, why such accents are also difficult to understand. Conversely, liking a certain accent mightly facilitate its understanding. This is supported, for instance, by Scales et al. (2006) in their study on language learners' perceptions of accent. They found evidence of a strong relation between preferred accents and those that were easiest to understand.

The student interviews made it clear that the preference for a NNET was for teaching the language generally and especially for learning grammar, but for pronunciation and speaking, a NEST is preferred in spite of it being perceived as 'too fast'. Furthermore, they confirm their preference for clarity in the accent regardless of which accent it is. For this reason as well as similarity, the Saudi accent is preferred among the NNET accents. Although generalisations cannot be made with a small interview sample, some useful comparisons can be drawn between the three sets of findings. The table below (Table 24) shows how students actually perceive their

teachers' accents (ascertained from the student survey and further interviews). There is general concordance with respect to perceptions of the native and Saudi accents.

Table 24: Student perceptions of different accents

Accent	How students perceive it (Survey and Interview findings)
Native	Preferred (for teaching pronunciation) Beneficial (though hard to understand at first); Perceived as 'fast'
Saudi	40% prefer it due to clarity and similarity; Perceived as 'heavy'
Egyptian	Disliked the most due to lack of clarity and displeasing quality. Mispronouncing /Θ/ and /ð/ Perceived as 'funny', 'not perfect at all'
Tunisian	Perceived as 'slow'
Jordanian	Accent is considered clear
Sudanese	Perceived as the most disliked

Besides accent, the three research methods used for addressing this research question also reveal other preferences. The students praised teacher qualities such as honesty, smiles, good manners, dedication, and liked the technique of repeating words.

The fourth research question which is how Saudi students' attitude towards their Arab teachers' English accents affects their own English pronunciation is investigated below.

The student interviews revealed most of them had difficulties in understanding the native accent due to unfamiliarity with it and they perceived it as too rapid to comprehend easily. It seems to them as if natives “are eating the sounds”, i.e. omitting them. Nonetheless, the students were perceptive enough to be able to identify certain English accents mainly due to watching television. As regards their own teachers' accents, most students are able to understand the L1 dialect spoken but feel it to be awkward and are unable to communicate back in the same way. Consequently, some students expressed the desire for teachers to possess knowledge of Arabic in order to be able to help beginners. The Saudi accent was preferred mostly because it was described as being easier to understand by students, and therefore easier for them to connect

with their teachers. In particular, clarity was considered as the most desirable quality for any English teacher to possess besides being proficient at teaching. . Generally, most students perceived their teachers as having a good command over the English language, but the same extent of contentment was not present for them teaching pronunciation.

According to the interview responses by the students, it was apparent that many of them were constantly striving to improve their pronunciation and accent in order to be able to speak in English with greater clarity. They considered themselves as being in the learning phase. Most of them felt the need to improve because they did not perceive their own accent as good enough compared to the accent of a native speaker, and some acknowledged it was actually poor in comparison due to lack of clarity and intelligibility. Moreover, some students also acknowledged the inability of their teachers to help them achieve this improvement, and believed that the teacher's accent could even hinder them. As for their goals in learning English, many of them wanted to study further abroad where English is spoken, hence the need for them to improve their speaking ability while others felt the need for the same but for the purpose of gaining a 'better career' in life.

Most of the students further stated that others perceived their accent as a Saudi based accent, and they felt that it was only acceptable for communicating within Saudi Arabia; not abroad. The factors that shaped their accents were their teachers' accents, those of their peers, and the environment, and some went so far as to describe their own accent as 'funny'. The main environmental influences were identified as watching movies and international TV shows, and speaking with foreigners, to which a few added listening to radio programmes.

It can be revealed from comparing the results and findings of the three instruments that although some students have a negative point of view towards teachers' accents, their pronunciation has not been affected by their attitude. The students' perception towards Egyptian teachers' accent is related to the negative perception mentioned in Table 24 above. However, the linguistic results assured that the students' outcome of the Egyptian teachers progressed better in their posttest in comparison to the other groups, specifically in the difficult sounds performed by TE2, the interdental sounds /Θ/ and /ð/.

Table 25 presents a summary of the comparison of key results and findings with those examined from previous studies in the literature review. Some of findings, as in the case of 1 and 2, are supported by multiple studies examined, most others are also supported by other studies as mentioned. However, in the case of number 3, which is on student preference for a non-native accented teacher, the studies are mixed, and in the case of 8, 9 and 10, these are new findings in this study. The key findings in the latter category are that clarity of accent is the most desirable

quality for an English teacher (8), dislike for the Sudanese and Egyptian accents the most (9), and that most students can understand the L1 dialect spoken but feel it to be awkward and are unable to communicate back (10).

Table 25: Comparison of key results/findings for sociological factors

Key result/finding	**Previous study***
1- Positive perception towards native accent Most students regard the native accent as the most accurate and preferred one to acquire.	Hertel and Sunderman (2009); Lasagabaster and Sierra (2002, 2005); Munro et al. (2006); Buckingham (2014)
2- Negative perception towards native accent Other students have difficulties in understanding the native accent due to unfamiliarity - it is perceived as too rapid.	Jin (2005)
3- Among the students' preference towards NNET's, Saudi teachers are preferred over others. Rather, teachers perceive that students prefer a teacher with the same accent for the sake of clarity and similarity because the Saudi accent is easier to understand and the Saudi teacher can communicate better with the students.	Liu and Zhang (2007) Ling and Braine (2009) Leikin, et.al (2009) Contradicts Butler (2007) in which students preferred American accented English over Korean accented English.
4- Positive perception towards heavily NNESTs as they can be highly intelligible, even for learning pronunciation (slow= clear)	Munro and Derwing (1998), Kinzler et al., 2011
5- Many students want to study further abroad where English is spoken, hence the need for them to improve the speaking ability.	Saudis account for a significant proportion of students who study abroad (ELI, 2017).
6- The Saudi based accent is only suitable for communicating within Saudi Arabia; not abroad.	Hence, its promotion in SA (Naffee, 2014).

Key result/finding	Previous study*
7- Students' accents are shaped by their teachers' accents, their peers, and the environment, the main environmental influences being watching movies and TV shows, speaking with foreigners, and listening to radio programmes. - Teacher's accent impacts on students' pronunciation more than their accent (but it only matters if it's the main source and the accent is not clear).	Zaidan and Callison-Burch (2013) (for impact of movies in popularising Egyptian Arabic) Contradicts Ballard (2013); Fareh (1986)
8- Along with clarity of accent, teacher's proficiency, competence and good manners are the most desirable qualities for any English teacher.	(new finding)
9- Egyptian and Sudanese accents are disliked the most, (survey). - The Egyptian accent is disliked the most among the three groups, (interview).	(new finding)
10- Teachers are not the only source of L2 pronunciation in the Saudi context	(new finding)

* The mentioned studies confirm the results/findings unless otherwise indicated.

5.3.4 Social rationale of pronunciation deviations

5.3.4.1 Theme 1: Perception of English Accent

The study prompts the following questions in particular, in relation to the perception of English accents:

- Why do students prefer a native accent?
- Why do students prefer the Saudi and then Jordanian accent?
- Why are the Egyptian and Sudanese accents perceived as the most disliked ones?

As per the survey results mentioned already, 31% of students prefer to have a teacher with a native accent, which is low compared to the other 69% who prefer a teacher with a non-native

accent. Still, the preference for a native accent is high, and this is despite the unfamiliarity or being unaccustomed with native accents and concern over the rate of speech (perceived as being too fast) (Jin, 2005), and therefore difficulty in understanding it. This contradicts the findings of Barlow's (2009) study involving 108 EFL university students in UAE who based their reason for preferring a native accent for learning pronunciation because native speakers are actually more easily understood.

As the students explained themselves, a native accent is considered to be the most accurate and is thus preferable to acquire. This confirms the findings in Hertel and Sunderman (2009); Lasagabaster and Sierra (2005); Munro et al. (2006) and Buckingham (2013). Instead, the Saudi accent is the most common as would be expected since the Saudi nationality and Arabic accent is predominant within Saudi Arabia itself. This explains the basis of preferring the Saudi accent since it is the most common, most familiar, mostly used, and the majority of students are accustomed to speaking it themselves. This confirms, for instance, the findings of Field (2008), Leikin et al. (2009), Kinzler et al. (2011) and Ballard (2013), who all found students prefer non-native English speaking teacher over native speakers. Field (2009) found this to be true even for teaching pronunciation, Ballard (2013) found that feelings for their own non-native teachers were greater than for native teachers, Kinzler et al. (2011) found it to be especially important for young children to be taught by a teacher with the same language and accent, and results by Leikin et al. (2009) revealed that even adult L2 learners are better able to perceive and produce L2 sounds through their own L1 phonological system and they also performed better when instructed by an L1 accented teacher.

On this basis, the Saudi accent may therefore be considered as most suitable for communicating, at least within Saudi Arabia if not abroad (Naffee, 2014). This familiarity and being accustomed are probably the main factors for the Saudi accent being perceived as clear and intelligible. This actually shows the benefits of the teacher having the same accent as that of her students, i.e. the same as students' own accent, and that this is primarily due to the advantage of clarity. This reason of clarity and its importance confirms the same findings in the studies of Liu and Zhang (2007) and Ling and Braine (2009), but it contradicts that of Butler (2007) who found that the preference for a native accent is higher regardless of any concern for clarity.

Furthermore, perhaps due to this assurance of clarity and greater likelihood of mutual intelligibility, this sameness tends to make the speakers of the same accent cooperate more with each other, whether students among each other working in groups, as found by Heblich et al. (2015), or perhaps also between students and teachers. If having the same accent can make it

easier for teachers to relate to the needs of her students, then this condition should be preferred as the needs of students should be given greater priority.

The dislike for the Egyptian and Sudanese accents are new findings in this study although this may also be due fundamentally to perception of clarity and intelligibility. It was noted in the interviews that the Egyptian accent is perceived as being imperfect and even 'funny', and the Sudanese accent is the most disliked due to its lack of clarity and 'displeasing quality', particularly with respect to the way the two interdental sounds (/Θ/ and /ð/) are pronounced. These perceptions of students support the importance of clarity and intelligibility in an accent.

The practice of explicitly teaching pronunciation raises the issue of whether the goal should be to teach native-like pronunciation, or whether the higher goal should be for ensuring intelligibility. Critics of the view that regards native-like pronunciation highly and treating the LFC (Lingua Franca Core) as a model, argue that aspiring for native-like pronunciation imposes an unrealistic burden on both learners and teachers (Levis, 2005). They suggest the dominant goal in learning and teaching pronunciation should be intelligibility (Wells, 2005). Proponents of this view thus prefer to treat the LFC as originally intended, i.e. for ensuring intelligibility instead of as a tool for developing native-like pronunciation. However, the LFC states the deviation of the interdental sounds /Θ/ and /ð/ is consider intelligible. Yet, these specific sounds are perceived negatively by the Saudi students as one of the characteristics of the Egyptian- accented English. Thus, it is recommended to apply LFC in teaching English in higher studies with the consideration of the students' attitude towards teachers' English accents.

Regarding Zoghbor's study (2010), it investigated how attitude may affect listening comprehension in the framework of ELF in the upper secondary level. However, this research concentrates on how attitude could affect pronunciation in light of EFL/ESL acquisition. It is found that students, themselves, wish to have a native like pronunciation and the limited exposure of English which is narrow use of English in restaurants or hospitals, in the social media and Internet, and in the teacher-centred classrooms.

In spite of these attitudes, perceptions and preferences for particular accents, when we consider whether this affects students' pronunciations, overall, this study does not support this position. That is, the attitudes and preferences do not make a significant difference to their ability in pronunciation. The evidence for this is in the finding of no significant different in the means among the different groups. As for the finding that students of TE1 and TT1 performed the best among the six groups, this may be traced to the teachers' experiences or their preparation program, which is discussed in the next theme.

5.3.4.2 Theme 2: Teachers' education and preparation

The second emergent theme and concerns is of the education and preparation of teachers. Teachers are aware of themselves having a certain accent and their weaknesses in English, but the underlying reason may be due to the training they are given, or in some cases not given at all.

Notable, the Ministry of Education (2004) acknowledges that many of the teachers graduate from its colleges with inadequate training in EFL, and "are therefore neither competent in English nor in the affair of teaching it". An investigation of the training needs of Saudi EFL teachers in-service by Al-Harbi (2006) also confirmed "an alarming lack of competence". This finding is based on a study involving 551 participants comprising mostly of teachers (259 female and 272 male) and also teaching supervisors. The results also showed that the teachers need more training in teaching methods; in teaching all four language skills, and in using teachings aids and technology besides the need also for improvement in teaching grammar and classroom management.

This highlights the need for improved training, both pre-service and in-service training, and for providing continuing professional development with the goal of preparing competent Saudi EFL teachers. If the teachers are trained adequately and competent to teach English effectively, they would also be more likely to assist their students confidently and effectively. Moreover, teachers should be trained in a variety of areas related to teaching a second or foreign language so that the teaching quality delivered to Saudi students can be enhanced. In this regard, several disciplines within the field of English language teaching can be recommended for inclusion, such as computer assisted language learning (CALL), curriculum and syllabus design of language courses, language assessment and testing, language planning and policy, language programme evaluation, second and foreign language teaching and learning, second-language acquisition, sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics and teaching methodology.

Since these disciplines are more thoroughly developed in English speaking countries, teacher trainees of Saudi origin can be made to undertake some of these courses in those other countries or at least be made to spend some time in those countries to improve their own proficiency in English. Another possibility would be to support the provision of joint university programmes to work closely with foreign universities in order to improve the quality of English language teaching in Saudi Arabia.

As described in 3.5.2.1.1.1, the non-Saudi teachers in this study were concerned over being labelled as accented although they did not want to seem uncooperative either, so anonymity was assured. Most of the Egyptian and Tunisian teachers are multilingual, their experience in teaching English makes a difference. Also, the lack of teacher training programs in SA, no TESOL or TEFL

course are given to the Saudi teachers who graduated from universities and those who graduated from colleges where they have teaching strategies in Arabic not in English (Al-Seghayer, 2012). And where teacher training is given, the quality differs substantially between different educational instructions. Many researchers and English language researchers, such as Al-Seghayer (2012, 2014a), Al-Hazmi (2012), Khan (2011) and Fareh (2010) call for the importance of teachers effective and high-quality preparation programs and how they will enrich and enhance teaching and learning English in the Arab world.

It is worth mentioning that ELI, English Language Institute, the place of the current study, does offer various on-job training for the language teachers. The training involves all language skills aspects and exceeds to enhancing students' motivation towards learning English (ELI, 2017). Yet, the number of the attendees of each session is limited and they are scheduled randomly which could not be suitable for some instructors to attend.

Nevertheless, students are also aware of the variable quality of teaching delivered to them. The interviews revealed this state of affairs to be equally applicable to Saudi teachers. Although they recognised some competent Saudi instructors, there are others who lack in their abilities and some are described as more interested in their salaries than in teaching. The negative perceptions are also due to the teachers adopting a teacher-centred approach and not engaging students adequately or involving them in interactive activities, but this in turn is often due to the teachers' own inability to speak in English fluently.

5.3.4.3 Theme 3: Attitude towards ESL Instructors' Accents

The third theme deals with the important issue of students' attitudes towards the accent of their ESL instructors. For instance, it is noted that students have a positive attitude towards their Saudi teachers including their accent. Furthermore, it should be seen how their performance was in all sounds in general.

It was noted that students have nearly a negative attitude towards Egyptian teachers' English pronunciation. What was outcome of the Egyptian teachers in general and, TE2 specifically, since she has accented English in the interdental sounds /Θ/ and /ð/. As per the results of the audio recording analysis, the highest NTL for these sounds was for TE2. For TE1, these sounds were TL with no such deviations. Usually, the sound /Θ/ tends to be replaced by /s/, and the sound /ð/ by /z/. These sounds are significant features in Egyptian dialects. Similarly, many Hijazi speakers themselves tend to pronounce the interdental fricatives differently; as either alveolar fricatives/s,z/ or dental stops /t,d/.

Notably, the students are clearly able to distinguish between different accents, and most can understand the L1 dialect spoken by their teacher. This is evidence that there is phonemic coding ability among the students. However, many were unable to communicate with their teachers in the same manner in order to interact with them effectively, as they considered their own accents to be deficient and even “somewhat awkward” as compared to that of their Saudi instructors. Since the Saudi accent was familiar, it was perceived as being easier to understand, and the students therefore preferred to be taught in it. Indeed, many students specifically mentioned clarity in pronunciation as the most desirable quality of any teacher regardless of their accent.

A highly motivating quote of this study related to a student’s refusal to be enrolled in the Egyptian teacher's class mentioning that, "Do you want a teacher who says /zɪs ɪz a bu:k/ teaches me?". Although Jenkins (2008) lists that the deviations of pronouncing the interdental fricatives /Ɵ/ and /ð/ do not lead to unintelligibility, this student and many others, as revealed in this study, seek to acquire a native like pronunciation of the target language. However, the results of the audio recordings confirm that there is no direct effect from the accented English of the teachers on that of their students. This further confirms that the pronunciation of teachers and exposure to accented teachers are important factors that affect the pronunciation of students (Moussu, 2010). However, the attitudes of learners towards NNESTs differ significantly depending on the country of origin of teachers. That is, the first language of both the NNESTs and the students make a significant difference in how teachers are judged. For instance, Korean and Chinese students are much more negative in their judgements than Spanish, Portuguese, and even Japanese students. Students also tend to judge NNESTs who sound and look “foreign” more harshly than they do NNESTs who have less of a native accent or look “whiter” (Moussu, 2002). From the responses show that students’ attitudes are various, both positive and negative, and that these could be more influential as factors than the teachers’ accent. The study has shown that there are also many other challenges in teaching English in Saudi Arabia besides those focused on in this study. The following is a brief overview of these other particular challenges that may be faced by language learners relating to time, workload, equipment and exam orientation.

5.3.4.4 Theme 4: Exposure to English

No attention was given to pronunciation in previous years in government educational institutions in Saudi Arabia until recently in 2012 when the Saudi government legislated for teaching English in the kingdom’s elementary schools. Consequently students started learning English from a younger age than before. An important feature of this development is that pronunciation is now recognised as one of the major skills in the new curriculum. Thus, we can say that current university students have either none or only some drilling in pronunciation. This ties with the

need to improve the training of English language teachers in order to ensure that official policies and curriculum guidelines develop into effective classroom practices. Moreover, since teaching pronunciation is complex, this makes it even more important for teachers to have an expanded knowledge and awareness to teach it effectively.

The emphasis on exams is another obstacle to teaching pronunciation. English is considered as an exam oriented programme of study, as students are taught in Arabic most of the time, and speaking is considered to be a weak aspect of English language instruction (Alsaedi, 2012). Students normally have to memorize everything, including written passages. The idea behind this is that 'memorization' is one of the important skills in the Saudi education that pervades all subjects, including English, and this is a studying skill other than a subject. Al-Segyaer (2016) mentioned that "the Saudi student is a marks-trader, who concerns on collecting marks other than acquiring a skill." This corresponds with the students' point of view and with Al-Harbi's (2015) that the weak education system for English leads to poor products of low English level of graduates. This leads to increase the gap between the actual product and the market need that directs the Saudi government to hire other 'qualified' non-Saudi teachers in order to fill out the lack of English teachers, specifically, in higher education. This is seen in the many universities that prefer to hire teachers from the US or Canada, often indicating so in advertisements. Also once hired teachers from countries such as England or Australia are sometimes asked to moderate their accents so as to be more easily understood by students (Sewell, 2005).

In higher studies, the curricula usually give special consideration to acquiring the skills of pronunciation, for instance, as how to pronounce /p/ or /b/ and in providing practice to students in differentiating between them through presenting them with specific minimal pairs. Unfortunately, because of the huge amount of information and shortage of time, teachers don't pay enough attention to pronunciation in the time that they are assessed and tested on pronunciation. Moreover, another demotivating factor for learning speaking or pronunciation in the Saudi context is the speaking grade which only comprises of 10% of the total marks, see Appendix A and refer to S6:"And even if it is hard, speaking costs me only 10% of the total mark to pass this level. Thus, I don't pay a lot of attention to that."

The study has shown that there are many challenges in teaching English in Saudi Arabia. The following are particular challenges faced relating to time, workload, equipment and exam orientation:

It is further assumed that the 7 week teaching period of exposure by the students to their teacher's English is sufficient to make a difference during their learning activities. Eventually, if there are some students' achievements towards the TL pronunciation, this means that the 7

weeks of teaching phase is a successful factor towards this goal. It is noticed that time, textbooks and skills of teaching English do differ from highschools and universities in Saudi Arabia. We can illustrate this from students' results in their pre-test, i.e. output of highschools, compared to their post-test results, i.e. their university teaching output. In light of these results, I recommend further intensive studies to compare teaching inventions, methods, activities and environments between both sectors.

In 2015, the Ministries of Higher Education and General Education were merged into one entity, the Ministry of Education (moe.gov.sa, 2017). This recent merge aims to unify the directions of improving the students' learning and minimizing the gap that could be found between the highschool productions and universities inputs. In other words, it aims to prolong teaching English where students have stopped at highschool and to assure to produce a fully comprehensive English sentence. Therefore, comparing both sectors' aims, goals, objectives, teaching methods and products helps to achieve some of the ministry vision towards this merging.

5.3.5 Other Additional Findings

5.3.5.1 Time

The time for teaching in school is very limited, as they usually have about one 90 minutes session a week at elementary level, and 18 hours a week at intermediate and secondary levels (MOE, 2016). Also, the atmosphere of classes is typically of a teacher-centred environment wherein students are only allowed to answer the questions given to them directly. This condition of teaching is applied as well in the university English classes as illustrated by S8: "No negotiation with the students. They don't let the student talks or listen to me or take my opinion as what do you think of that or what do you mean by this or activities like this. Usually, they say let's do this exercise and that's it. She is the one who gives us the information. I just do the task like schools." Thus, students' use of English is confined within the classroom between the time their teacher arrives and when the English teacher goes out of the door.

5.3.5.2 Over-loaded programme of study

There are about 12 units that are condensed for covering within 7 weeks only (ELI Instructional Pack, 2013). Each unit includes integrated skills, and the teacher does not have enough time for drilling or practicing, nor for allowing the students to exhibit their creativity in learning.

5.3.5.3 Teaching equipment

Each class in the university is aided by the use of a projector, audio player, internet access, computer, whiteboard, and some smartboards. However, the lack of using these technologies in teaching English affect the students acquisition of the language, and hence, their confidence in using English. In the audio lab, there are about 15 audio labs, with the quantity of 409 computers with internet access (ELI, 2017),that are used for testing students' listening skill, while speaking is tested via two English assessors.

5.3.5.4 Exam-oriented programme

As shown in Appendix A, examinable components constitute 80% of the assessment. 40% is apportioned to a computer-based final examination, 20% to another computer-based but mid-module examination, and 10% each to one writing and one speaking examination, as mentioned previously.

It is apparent that students are not given sufficient exposure to the target language in Saudi Arabia. Only a few students are able to speak in English confidently and clearly with foreigners, and even then, their form of English is not considered as being "grammatically standard" English. Instead, it can be described as a form of Saudi-foreigner English, which is characterised by a hybrid of Saudi and English lexicon joined by an Arabic syntax that is reliant on literal translation. This is evident, for instance, in the phrase "/ʔɪnta/ (you) go yesterday?"

Moreover, this limited and incorrect exposure to English affects students' use of English. So, they move from a real life use into a virtual life use. e.g. from watching TV shows and movies to using English in social media. According to Internet Live Stats (2016), Saudis are ranked at number 31 in the world with respect to usage of the World Wide Web, which is used by 64.7% of the kingdom’s population. However, most Saudi people, who comprise largely of youth, use the internet on a daily basis, and their usage extends into the field of education as well. For instance, they use it to support their education, as information sources, for contacting experts in their subjects, and for using helpful applications, such as translation software and related applications. This leads to the next theme, which is that of external resources.

5.3.5.5 External resources

Although the voice of teachers is for most language learners in SA, the prime source for acquiring an English accent, teachers are not the only persons to be fulfilling the role of teaching pronunciation to them. Students are also exposed to a range of other sources, such as private tutors, classmates, and technology tools, such as electronic dictionaries and computer-assisted

language learning tools. Further examples of external resources are mobile apps, the media and Internet based sources. Besides, they are adults, not as in Fareh's study (2010) which investigates the impact of teachers on their secondary level students. However, it is evident that the time of exposure is not enough for gaining a sufficient command of the English language in terms of its pronunciation and speaking ability.

The classroom environment as a whole plays an important role for a language learner (Altamimi, 2015). The ability to learn may be affected if it is not sufficiently rich to support their learning. There may also be differences in the requirements of younger and older learners. The latter tend to require more non-linguistic support than children, such as confidence building measures and examination of personal goals. The materials and resources used, activities provided should then take these different needs of students into account.

Furthermore, in countries like Saudi Arabia where there is little opportunity of exposure to native varieties of English, the burden on the teacher is much higher to provide their students with a sufficient grounding in the target language. This makes it even more important for Saudi learners to have access to external resources, such as a language laboratory so that they can experience authentic samples of oral discourses of native speakers, and also to encourage them to converse in English outside of the classroom context. Whereas the teachers may be competent enough to teach grammar and vocabulary, skills they may find difficult to teach, such as pronunciation and speaking, can be supported by means of these external resources.

5.3.5.6 General American English or British English

General American English (GA) and British English (BE) are two popular varieties of English that may be considered as native, standard, and which are spoken by educated speakers of English. Their status is mainly due to economic and political power of the UK and USA (Schmitz, 2015), so it is not necessarily a linguistic reason for other accents to be considered as inferior even if they happen to be clearer and more intelligible for students. With respect to Cater and Nunan's (2001) distinction between considering a native variety as either a norm or a model, this suggests the native variety in SA is considered as a norm since it is often imitated without other considerations. This supports the view of Elyas (2015). Also, whichever variety is learnt and adopted, an accent is an inevitability, whether it is a native or non-native accent. In other words, as pointed out by Wardhaugh (1998), 'unaccented English' is not possible.

As for the variety of native English, whether BE or GA, it was noted that the curricula and textbooks are typically based on BE, including the teaching of pronunciation, but outside of the learning context, GA is more common, which is due especially to the influence of American media

and movies. Thus, some notable features of the teaching of English in higher education as compared to general education in SA are a stricter adherence to RP, and a greater representation of different nationalities including foreign nationals. Although the curricula are based on British English, many teachers themselves speak in GA. Students noticed this as one of them, for instance, S4, see section 4.4.1.4.1., stated that her Saudi teacher's accent was British and sometimes she transfers or switches to GA.

5.3.5.7 Students' motivation

This theme is concerned with how this English situation affects student motivation towards learning English. Student motivation is considered as an important factor that affects the pronunciation of students. It is supported, for instance, in studies by Moyer (2007), Tanner (2012) and Gilakjani (2012) among several others.

Studying student motivation and finding ways of improving it is important because many challenges faced by language learners can be attributed to lack of motivation. For instance, Fareh (2010) attributed lack of motivation to various challenges being faced in the Arab world, and Khan (2011) found the same to explain learning difficulties in English despite the overall good planning, curriculum, and provision of textbooks and English language teachers. Liton (2012) also found there to be a lack of intrinsic motivation among Saudi students in learning English, as well as a lack of opportunities for speaking in English outside of the classroom. Notably, one demotivating factor is the poor pronunciation of English teachers (Kikuchi and Sakai, 2009) although earlier, Kelch and Santa-Williamson (2002) found non-native English teachers to be a source of motivation, as they serve as good role models.

Although motivation was not examined directly in-depth in this present study, the findings support the view that Arab students of English are motivated by the desire to improve their own speaking ability, as well as gaining the opportunity to travel and for higher education abroad. It is therefore recommended to investigate this are further into how student motivation towards learning English may affect their own English pronunciation. For instance, some students desire to improve their accent and speaking ability, so pronunciation skills are deemed valuable for them, as evidence, S8's quote represents this highly, "I wish I wake up one day finding me speaks English like natives". Others are motivated to improve their pronunciation because they expect it to be an important skill in their future career, refer to 4.4.1.4.4: students' motivations and goals.

5.4 Conclusion

The comparison of overall results between pretest and posttest scores divided by the three groups of teachers (Saudi, Egyptian and Tunisian) showed that the highest number of correct utterances were made in the posttest scenario by those students taught by an Egyptian teacher (mean = 40.13). Notably, the standard deviation was high in all cases suggesting a great deal of variability. Moreover, the t-test showed that in spite of a sharp rise in the number of correct utterances from the pretest to post-test condition, and the overall difference being significant, there is no direct effort to improve the overall effectiveness of the teaching intervention.

The detailed comparison of means for each sound under pretest and posttest conditions led to rejecting the null hypothesis of there being no difference in several cases. With respect to sound, the results presented earlier show the most significant relationships for the sound /ŋ/, which suggests most improvements were made in pronouncing this sound. This is followed closely by the first sounds of /dʒ/ and /g/. In terms of classes, the most significant relationships were found for the first Egyptian class followed by the first Tunisian class. An important result is that no significant relationships were found for the sixth sound of /r/, and the second Egyptian class. This result for the sound /r/ suggests either it was pronounced without any difficulty or inaccuracy to begin with or that students found it to be the most difficult to improve despite the teaching intervention. The latter explanation is most likely to be the case since this is one of the sounds that is not present in Arabic, and it may have been difficult for the students to pronounce this sound without the trilling effect characteristic of the nearest equivalent in Arabic.

The difficulty in pronouncing /r/ was evident from the results of the audio recording analysis and student interviews. It has also already been noted by Binturki (2008) and Barros (2003) among others, as mentioned in the literature review. There is ample evidence and indications therefore of the need for finding more ways to help students become accustomed to this sound. With the exceptions of the sounds 4 (/Θ/) and 5 (/ð/), the other sounds only posed difficulty for certain classes or students with certain backgrounds. The recognition of these classes, i.e. teacher backgrounds, and student backgrounds, which are mostly new findings, may help to target them for being in possible need of improvement.

Student attitudes towards their teachers was the main psychological factor examined in this study. The importance of acquiring a clear pronunciation is recognised, as well as the advantages of native speakers, and among NNETs, for Saudi teachers due to similarity in accent. Specifically, the native accent is preferred for learning pronunciation and speaking in spite of perceiving it as being too rapid, whereas a NNET is preferred especially for learning grammar. Regardless, many students feel the need to improve their pronunciation, particularly to improve clarity and

intelligibility. Some students even acknowledged the inability of their teachers in helping them in this regard, but it is a major determining factor that shapes their own pronunciation.

As a general analysis for the main research question, if there is an effect from the teachers' dialects on their students' English pronunciation and does students' attitude play a role in their pronunciation, the following lines explain this issue. It is notable from the results and findings that students of Saudi teachers' classes have been influenced by their teachers' pronunciation in the sounds /dʒ, g, ʒ, Θ/ which are distinguished sounds in their Saudi dialect pronunciation as seen in Table 14, where TS1 tends to overuse the sound /dʒ/in words that supposed to be pronounced with the sound /ʒ/ or it may be interpreted that students follow their Saudi teachers' deviation due to the accnt similarity. In contrast, TS2 tends to overuse the sound /ʒ/ instead of /dʒ/, refer to 4.3.2.1. The same finding applies to the Tunisian teachers' classes, where students have been influenced by their teachers' pronunciation in salient sounds of Tunisian dialect. As discussed in section 2.3.5.1.3, Tunisian dialect is affected by the French language. Thus, the sounds /ʒ, ŋ, v/ are highly used in their variety of Arabic and, consequently, the Tunisian teachers' English is influenced by these English/French sounds. What is more noteworthy is that students' attitude towards their teachers' accent could have an effect on their pronunciation. As an evidence for this important point is that most students have a negative attitude towards Egyptian teacher's English accents, see 4.4.1.3.2. This social factor, attitude, is transferred phonetically into their pronunciation. As seen in Table 14, TE1 and TE2 have the most NTL pronunciations in sounds /ʒ, Θ, v/. Hence, their students have not been affected directly by their teachers' NTL pronunciation, specially for new words, see 5.3.1, and tend to pronounce these sounds TL pronunciation. On the contrary, students have positive attitude towards Saudi teachers, and limitedly Tunisian. Subsequently, they have been affected by their teachers' pronunciations whether this pronunciation is TL or NTL. In case of the sound /dʒ/, it is transferred positively into the Saudi teachers' students where it is a TL pronunciation and in the same time it is transferred negatively by Tunisian teachers' students where it is NTL pronunciation. i.e. students follows the pronunciation of their teachers who they have a positive attitude towards them.

Chapter 6: Conclusion

6.1 Overview of the study

This concluding chapter gives a brief overview of the study to highlight its aims, objectives and methodology, key findings, and reviews the central research question. Implications are then drawn in terms of the linguistics related findings and other theoretical implications, pedagogical and sociolinguistic implications, and other practical implications. A further discussion section is included to discuss the ELF and EFL related issues, and the chapter ends with pointing out the limitations of the study and makes recommendations for further research.

6.1.1 Introduction, Aims, Objectives and Methodology

This study investigated factors that affect Saudi students' pronunciation of English as their L2, especially linguistic factors and the attitude of these students towards their non-native, Arabic accented, English teachers. The linguistic analysis focused on the pronunciation of ten particular English consonants: /dʒ, ʒ, g, Θ, ð, ɹ, p, tʃ, v, ŋ/.

The aim of the study was to establish whether there is any significant segmental phonological influence of Arabic teachers' language variety on students' L2 English pronunciation of these ten consonants. Furthermore, it was to identify any relationship between these segmental features of L1 teachers' dialects, and also ascertain any sociological influences in terms of attitude and perception as described. It was hypothesised that teachers' L1 and students' exposure to different English accents do affect the students' attitude towards their teachers' English accent. Moreover, the study was prompted noting the lack of opportunities given to Saudi students to practice speaking in English who are also not explicitly taught pronunciation in schools, and the importance of intelligibility in communicating. These problems are compounded further by the cultural obstacles to learning English, by the variation in the pronunciation abilities of teachers and their dialects, and teachers' own low levels of proficiency in general.

A mixed-methods research design was adopted, which involved a survey of and interviews with students, and an analysis of audio recordings of teacher and student pronunciations. The sample comprised of Saudi female fresher students in the freshman (i.e. preparation) year of their Bachelors degree in a Saudi university in Jeddah city. Notably, all these students started learning English in the 6th grade at approximately 12-14 years of age in a government school, and that the English accent these students are exposed to in Saudi schools is mixed of RP and GA, although the former is the variety presented in their textbooks.

6.1.2 Key Results and Findings

The results reveal a preference of students for NESTs for teaching conversational skills, including that of pronunciation, even though they are perceived as speaking too fast. Specifically, students desire such qualities in teachers as having a clear and intelligible pronunciation, and the practice of repeating words for clarification. Moreover, language learners are motivated by the desire to be able to speak with foreigners as well as understand English movies. The accent that is preferred however, is GA rather than RP, which their learning materials in the university level are based on. Also, NNETs are preferred otherwise, i.e. other than for learning pronunciation. They are especially preferred for learning grammar. In particular, the students prefer the oral articulations in English of Saudi and Jordanian teachers. In short, native teachers are perceived as being better at teaching pronunciation, but non-native teachers are preferred for teaching grammar.

With regard to particular sounds that language learners find difficult, the pronunciation of /r/ was highlighted in this study. For the sound /dʒ/, the highest NTL was evident for the teachers TT1 and TS2; TS1 had the highest NTL for /ʒ/, and TE2 had the highest for the two interdental sounds of /Θ, ð/ and for /p/. The NTL was highest for the interdentals in the case of TE2. The sound /Θ/ was replaced by /s/ and /ð/ was replaced by /z/. As for /p/, it was assumed that for the Tunisian teachers for whom this sound features prominently in their speech, their students are influenced by their L2. The comparison of the means (pre- and post-test) showed a significant difference, and thus evidence of an impact of the classroom intervention.

In contrast, the NTL is found to be lowest for /dʒ/. It was concluded that for this sound, there is no evidence of any direct effect of a teacher's L1 dialect on students' L2. With respect to the sounds of /dʒ/ and /ʒ/, it was found that TS2 overused them, but her students' performance in the posttest was moderate. This also supports the position that a teacher's accent in English does not transfer to her students.

With respect to attitude towards different dialects or accents and the teachers of other nationalities, all interviewees were clearly able to distinguish between them. The general consensus is that the Saudi one is 'heavy', the Tunisian one is 'slow', and it is already mentioned that native accents are perceived as being too fast. Egyptian teachers are perceived as being too serious for the liking of the students, and it could be assumed negative attitude towards their Egyptian accented-English. A Saudi teacher was perceived as having lack of fluency, but students also look for other qualities in their teachers such as morals and dedication to teaching. The data analysis also reveals a minor relationship between teachers' own Arabic dialectal accents and

their students' pronunciation of unknown English lexical tokens but no significant effect on familiar lexical tokens.

In summary, in the context of this study, it has been revealed that Saudi students face many challenging and difficulties in learning English, especially with respect to L2 pronunciation. Surrounded by limited exposure of native English, lack of intelligible communication in the target language, and modest use of L2 inside and outside classrooms, learner outcomes are not raised to the "standard" of fluent English speakers. For the sake of teaching pronunciation of English to Saudi learners, it is important to compromise between the diversity of L2 varieties in SA and the diversity of L1 varieties as well.

6.1.3 Key Research Question

This study was guided by the quest to find out the possible linguistic and sociolinguistic influences that may shape Saudi students' English pronunciation in their preparation year. This is reflected in the structure of this paper. In regard to the central question of the impact of a teacher's accent on a student's English pronunciation, it may be generalised that this depends largely on the level of proficiency of the teacher and students. Based on the interview data, the students did not consider there is any such impact except if the proficiency of either of them is low. The importance of the study is thus underlied by the lack of opportunities given to Saudi learners to learn pronunciation and speak in English, various obstacles they face in acquiring competency in pronunciation, the importance of pronunciation in ensuring comprehensibility and intelligibility, and the need for insight into current pronunciation teaching practices.

6.2 Implications

6.2.1 Linguistics Findings and Theoretical Implications

The results and findings that have shed light on each of the ten sounds in the phonological analysis, also have theoretical implications in terms of whether they uphold or contradict the linguistic theories that were mentioned in the literature review. The notable theories examined were transfer theory, markedness theory, contrastive analysis hypothesis, and error analysis hypothesis.

One of the notable findings in this study is that some sounds that posed little difficulty or which showed significant improvement following the intervention are sounds that are present in MSA. And, conversely, some sounds that did pose great difficulty or which showed the least or no significant improvement following the intervention are sounds that have no nearest equivalent in

Arabic. Perfect examples of the former case are the two interdental sounds of /Θ/ and /ð/, and of the latter is the sound /ɹ/. The findings for the other sounds seem to fall in between these two extremes. This seems to support the CAH, which was formed to explain the role of L1 on acquiring L2 and why certain features of the target language are more difficult to acquire than others. It may be said the findings for these sounds were therefore predictable.

The paper also included a detailed comparative analysis of the Arabic and English phonetic systems, an examination of different theoretical frameworks including Transfer and Markedness theories and Contrastive and Error Analysis Hypotheses. In addition, it identified several factors that may affect pronunciation, and several studies were examined that identify typical pronunciation difficulties faced by Arab learners of English.

The present study has investigated consonantal acquisition only between L1, Arabic, and L2, English. There have been many previous studies into similar/dissimilar vowels in SLA, see 2.3.3.2 and 2.3.3.3. An interesting future direction would be to test similar/dissimilar vowel transfer between Arabic, which has poor vowel system, and English, which is a richer vowel system, to gain a complete picture of the whole phonological system in acquisition.

6.2.2 Pedagogical and Sociolinguistic Implications

In terms of exposure to different varieties of English, it is noted that many Saudi students are surrounded by a variety of English varieties. In the classroom, they are typically exposed to Saudi accented English, especially through having a Saudi teacher of English; they usually work in British English which is the language variety of their textbook; but they also hear GA English, mostly in the media and through watching American English movies, and they may also come across Indian or Pilipino English through interacting with foreigners. All these accents potentially affect the students in terms of their pronunciation, especially if they are at a young age, i.e. before the age of the critical period according to the CPH. However, in the context of higher education, as is the case of this research, there may be very limited and indirect effects of a teacher's L2 accent on that of their students' pronunciation. On this basis, it may be advisable for policy makers and stakeholders to thus hire non-Saudi teachers for teaching the English language at the level of higher education. On the contrary, it may also be considered appropriate education-wise, for language learners to be exposed to a variety of accents, so that they can learn to recognise them and so that they will then be able to distinguish which accent or variety has greater clarity and intelligibility for them, and which can potentially enhance their language learning.

The study also investigated the possible sociolinguistic factors that might influence Saudi students' pronunciation in English. Although the student interviews showed a preference for

either native or non-native teachers, these preferences were for teaching certain aspects of English. Typically, native teachers are preferred for teaching the speaking ability, and for some also reading, but non-native teachers are usually preferred for teaching grammar and communication with low proficiency level of students. The preference for non-native speaking teachers is because they tend to better understand the difficulties of their students, and can provide better insight gained from their own learning of English (Liu and Zhang, 2007). They also have a more realistic understanding of their students' capabilities (Ling and Braine, 2007). It is mainly in relation to teaching pronunciation and vocabulary that natives excel (Mahboob, 2004). On the other hand, these advantages of a native speaker make many students prefer them instead over non-native teachers except for teaching grammar and strategies (Lasagabaster and Sierra, 2005).

Student attitudes and preferences for both types of teachers (native and non-native) have been pointed out and discussed. Both types of teachers are therefore preferred and their roles can be considered as complementary. This point was made clearer in the study by Mahboob (2004) in which no clear preference was found for either native or non-native teachers of English because both kinds were viewed as having their own complementary unique capabilities and attributes. Native teachers are considered as having better oral, pronunciation and vocabulary skills whereas non-native English teachers tend to be better at grammar and literacy. Other than for teaching pronunciation therefore, an Arab teacher would be preferred, particularly a Saudi teacher because a familiar accent makes it easy for students to understand and to relate with the teacher. It is for this reason that the Saudi accent is being promoted as part of the process of Saudization in the kingdom (Naffee, 2014).

This may explain why some students request to be assigned to another teacher when they are unsatisfied with his or her accent, as was noted in 1.3 rationale. These students are usually those who have some knowledge of different varieties, dialects and accents and have a specific preference for a certain one of them over others. The likelihood of an impact of a teacher’s accent on students and which sounds are most likely to be affected were examined in depth in this study. For instance, it is noted an impact is more likely when hearing new words and the teacher is the only source of hearing the pronunciation of those words. Also, as noted in Table 14, it was found that teachers do have certain accented characteristics of their language that are affected by their L1 Arabic dialects. Furthermore, based on SPSS results, students were able to make the most improvements in pronouncing most of the sounds. As for a fresher student, she will most likely have been influenced from studying in intermediate school and exposed to the Saudi accent, but at university the students are exposed to a greater variety of accents and have the opportunity to also possibly experience the native accent as well.

This condition of exposure of students to multiple varieties of English could therefore be a healthy condition. This research showed that students are surrounded by many different English accents, not only in educational institutions where they are taught by teachers with different linguistic backgrounds, but also in other places such as hospitals and restaurants. An overall impression from this research is that the pronunciation of students is not directly affected by this exposure to multiple varieties, as they continue to hold their own Saudi accent, which is unaffected by their teachers' accents unless there is a positive attitude towards them.

6.2.3 Other Practical Implications

There are non-pedagogical implications for teachers as well. Many TESOL professionals are not aware of the bias and deep-running prejudices NNESTs face. This research and replication could make NESTs aware of the situation that NNESTs face. As seen in the results of the research that students do have negative attitude towards certain nationalities, see 4.4.1.3.2.

Besides the role of the teacher, the external environment can also play a potentially major and positive role in shaping a student's accent. Given this potential by improving pronunciation, as Shively and Cohen (2008), Alfallaj (2013) and others have also pointed out, it is recommended for learners to practice speaking English outside of the school environment. With this communicative need in mind, it may be best to approach the teaching of pronunciation through a task-based model rather than a traditional presentation-based model (Walker, 2010). That is, scholars advocate for the language learners to be given tasks that involve applying the language to help them achieve realistic long-range oral communication goals targeted at improving their functional communicability, intelligibility and self-confidence (Gillette, 1994).

NNESTs teachers should participate actively in research studies aimed at the effectiveness or non-effectiveness of NNESTs. Their participation would discover the reasons for bias against them. Moreover, students at Saudi universities should also begin participating more in academic and research studies. Such programs would provide limitless opportunities to engage in communicative activities that involve speaking and pronunciation. This need is even more apparent for the Saudi female student population who will have little interaction with English varieties outside of the university because of social and cultural restrictions.

These findings of the study highlighted in this chapter may thus aid in the explicit teaching of pronunciation. This may be seen as necessary for learners to become acquainted with certain language features, such as pitch, stress and intonation.

6.3 Further Discussion

6.3.1 ESL/EFL and ELF related issues

With regard to ESL/EFL, the sociolinguistic view of EFL is an ongoing roller coaster of debatable topics and controversial views. It seems that the questions revolving around "nativeness", "correct" and "standard" will never be answered. Certain terms and words that have become the norm in the language of EFL research do not have a clear, concise definition. For example, as stated earlier, who is the native speaker? What are the characteristics for a native speaker and non-native English speaker? Does the accent matter? How can researchers come up with clear evidence when they use these terms? Also, many of the hypotheses formed and the methods used for current EFL research seem random. Researchers are using many different methods (survey, focus groups interview or classroom observation) it can make things really confusing. In fact, Hyltenstam and Abrahamsson confirm that there is a “lack of explicit formulation of hypotheses, use of insufficiently sensitive research instruments, conceptual elusiveness and ideological loading (2000: 151) after doing this research, I must admit that I agree with them. There have been so many different overlapping factors and influences in this field which avoid the researcher to predict the outcome and provide a straightforward answer.

Some suggestions for improving these circumstances can be found in Zoghbour (2010), Fareh (2010) Al-Seghayer (2014b) on the coming of EFL in applied linguistics. They suggest that the field of EFL should be combined with other fields. As stated by Jenkins (2009), "we need to find ways of bringing World Englishes and ELF scholars together in recognition of their shared interests, whatever their circle or research focus" (2009a).

Looking at this phenomenon from two different perspectives of EFL and ELF is like treating L2 pronunciation as using two faces of the same coin. Many insights have been gained into this phenomenon, but in order to enhance learning English and approximate to the level required, it is recommended to unify both views and look at all aspects that could affect SLA with the consideration of sociolinguistic factors pertaining to students. Thus, in learning a language, A does not always leads to B, but it could go beyond to include C or D, as well.

6.4 Limitation

Firstly, being conducted on a limited number of female Saudi learners (20 students in each group), over a limited period of time (for only 7 weeks), this research did not cover a wide range of interviews; sampling was limited to 15 interviewees.

Geographically, the study was confined to a university in Jeddah, and the findings were generalised for Saudi Arabia as a whole. Also, the sample studied involved only Saudi female students in the freshman year of their Bachelors degree. The study was therefore delimited by age and length of learning. All the student participants started learning English in their first year of government intermediate school, which is within the 6 year indication for learning after the critical age, as per the CPH. The gender restriction to females and the geographical restriction to the same dialectal region of Jeddah enabled to control the factors of gender and L1 features, as they may affect the output of students. Mostly all the students were all born and raised in Jeddah, and they spoke the Hijazi Arabic dialect at home.

The teachers involved in the study belonged to the three nationalities of Saudi, Egyptian and Tunisian. As for the textbook examined, this was the New Headway Plus Pre-Intermediate English course text, published by Oxford University Press. Linguistically, the focus of the study was on the following ten sounds: /dʒ, ʒ, v, tʃ, ŋ, ɹ, Θ, ð, p, g/. This involved taking into consideration L2 phonetic systems and language orthography. The study of phonetic systems gave a clear illustration of L1 dialects and the target English variety as L2, and language orthography to explain the basis of students' NNL pronunciations.

One of the factors that need to be considered for EFL research is the learners' English proficiency. In the current research, the low level of high school graduates appeared in their results of reading the list of familiar words. This leads to the inspiration of conducting a comparative study between teaching English in SA in general education and higher education. This will enlighten the stake-holders and teachers with useful techniques and methodologies to put Saudi students in a solid base of English proficiency that enable them for the future academic life.

Another limitation of the study is applied on determining the exact proficiency level of the learners. This was a concern that I was aware of, but was unavoidable since the students' proficiency level had been decided earlier by ELI administration when the students enrolled in the foundation year. Also, depending on the word existence in the word lists of previous levels books when designing the word list task was applied in this research. In order to rectify this, the vocabulary knowledge test or language background questionnaire would make better and precise picture of the students' vocabulary knowledge.

It is beyond the scope of this study to examine the teaching strategies or methods inside the classrooms. Thus, conducting classroom observations was regarded as a supplementary tool. Therefore, limit explanation was provided on how students were taught in language classrooms. It is suggested to apply further work on this research context.

6.5 Recommendation

Although identity is one of the factors that may shape a student's pronunciation (Gilakjani, 2012), this factor was not included in the study because the focus was on language aspects other than people identity. It may therefore be recommended to replicate this work and investigate how the identity of teachers or students may shape their pronunciation. The same methodology may also be applied with longer speech, not at a word level, but at the sentence or free speech level. This could give more validity and reliability to the results obtained in this study.

Furthermore, a longitudinal rather than cross-sectional design of research on how students' attitude influence their pronunciation would change over time as L2 experience increases. For example, it may be useful to conduct both a pre-interview and post-interview for ascertaining student attitude because there are indications of some attitudinal changes that can be felt from the answers of some of the students. For instance, one of the interviewed students, S5, mentioned that, "I had an initial attitude towards Egyptian teachers, but after I had been studying with her, I don't care who is my teacher as she explains well." This particular quote inspired thoughts for further work on attitudinal changes, and on how this may be related to student outcomes. Such research demonstrates whether there is a shift in student attitude toward Arab NNESTs in their faculty.

This thesis provides an extensive methodology for testing students on the effect of their teachers' accents on their pronunciation in relation to their attitude towards them. It is hoped that this methodology can be replicated in various language areas of the world such as Arab countries, Asia, South America, and Eastern Europe where regional accents known to EFL students.

Also, the pedagogical factor examined was teaching orientation with respect to the pronunciation teaching strategies adopted by teachers for teaching English, and for any challenges they experienced while teaching English pronunciation. It is recommended to apply more emphasis on speaking and pronunciation tasks in the classroom and shift the class environment to be student-centre environment rather than teacher. In addition, use the 15 available language labs effectively in order to enhance their ability in learning skills.

Further work needs to be done to establish a clear picture on the area of exposure to the target language. Although this factor was studied extensively, see 2.4.1.5, in the current research it is considered as a neglected factor due to the limit use of English outside the classrooms in the Saudi context. Thus, more research is required to determine the efficacy of English exposure in influencing the students' ability to distinguish between accents and consequently affect their L2 learning.

Finally, the results of this study reveal that teaching pronunciation, and pronunciation interventions or teaching strategies are important factors in student outcomes. With this in mind, further work is recommend to be conducted in this context in order to investigate the various teaching methods and strategies of pronunciation adopted in Saudi higher education. It is also recommended to investigate the role of motivation towards learning English further as to how it too may affect the English pronunciation of the students.

Appendices

Appendix A : Students' assessment overview

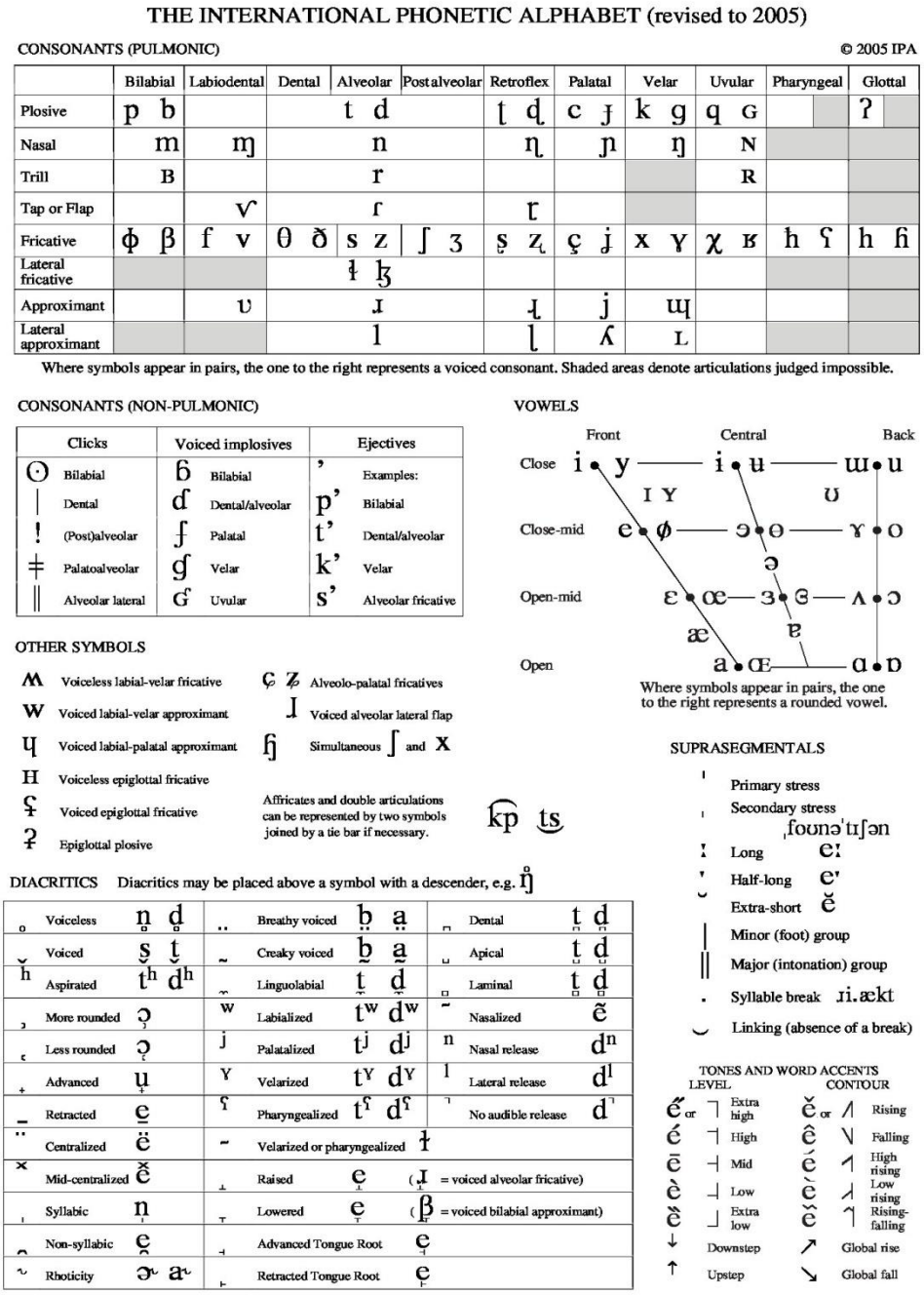
Assessment component	Percentage
Computer-based mid-module examination	20 %
Computer-based final examination	40 %
One speaking examination	10%
One writing examination	10%
Supplementary reading program	5%
Supplementary writing program	5%
Supplementary speaking program	5%
Independent practice	5%

Adopted from the institute instructional pack, 2013

Appendix B : Arabic Phonetic Symbols (transliteration)

Arabic letter	Nearest English equivalent	IPA symbol	Arabic letter	Nearest English equivalent	IPA symbol
أ	a	/ʔ/	ك	k	/k/
ب	b	/b/	ل	l	/l/
ت	t	/t/	م	m	/m/
ث	th as in think	/Θ/	ن	n	/n/
ج	j	/dʒ/	هـ	h	/h/
ح	-	/ħ/	و	w	/w/
خ	kh	/χ/	ي	y	/j/
د	d	/d/	ء		ʔ
ذ	Th as in this	/ð/	Inflections	Short vowels	
ر	r	/r/	◌َ	a	/a/
ز	z	/z/	◌ِ	i	/i/
س	s	/s/	◌ُ	u	/u/
ش	sh	/ʃ/	Letter+ diacritic marks	Long vowels	
ص	s	/S/	اَ	aa	/a:/
ض	d	/D/	يِ	ii	/i:/
ط	t	/T/	وُ	u	/u:/
ظ	th	/ð̣/	Diphthongs	example	IPA Symbol
ع	'	/ʕ/	اَوْ	/laʊn/ لون "colour"	/aʊ/
غ	gh	/ɣ/			
ف	f	/f/	أيْ	/ʕaɪn/ عين "eye"	/aɪ/
ق	g	/q/			
Adapted from Moosa (1979) and Brierley (2014)					

Appendix C: International Phonetic Alphabet



THE INTERNATIONAL PHONETIC ALPHABET (revised to 2005)

CONSONANTS (PULMONIC) © 2005 IPA

	Bilabial	Labiodental	Dental	Alveolar	Postalveolar	Retroflex	Palatal	Velar	Uvular	Pharyngeal	Glottal
Plosive	p b			t d		ʈ ɖ	c ɟ	k g	q ɢ		ʔ
Nasal	m	ɱ		n		ɳ	ɲ	ŋ	ɴ		
Trill	ʙ			r					ʀ		
Tap or Flap		ⱱ		ɾ		ɽ					
Fricative	ɸ β	f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ	ʂ ʐ	ç ʝ	x ɣ	χ ʁ	ħ ʕ	h ɦ
Lateral fricative				ɬ ɮ							
Approximant		ʋ		ɹ		ɻ	j	ɰ			
Lateral approximant				l		ɭ	ʎ	ʟ			

Where symbols appear in pairs, the one to the right represents a voiced consonant. Shaded areas denote articulations judged impossible.

CONSONANTS (NON-PULMONIC)

Clicks		Voiced implosives		Ejectives	
ʘ	Bilabial	ɓ	Bilabial	’	Examples:
|	Dental	ɗ	Dental/alveolar	pʼ	Bilabial
!	(Post)alveolar	ʄ	Palatal	tʼ	Dental/alveolar
ǂ	Palatoalveolar	ɠ	Velar	kʼ	Velar
‖	Alveolar lateral	ʛ	Uvular	sʼ	Alveolar fricative

VOWELS

Where symbols appear in pairs, the one to the right represents a rounded vowel.

OTHER SYMBOLS

ʍ	Voiceless labial-velar fricative	ɕ ʑ	Alveolo-palatal fricatives
w	Voiced labial-velar approximant	ɺ	Voiced alveolar lateral flap
ɥ	Voiced labial-palatal approximant	ʢ	Simultaneous ʃ and x
ʜ	Voiceless epiglottal fricative		
ʡ	Voiced epiglottal fricative		
ʡ	Epiglottal plosive		

Affricates and double articulations can be represented by two symbols joined by a tie bar if necessary. k͡p t͡s

SUPRASEGMENTALS

ˈ	Primary stress
ˌ	Secondary stress ˌfoʊnəˈtɪʃən
ː	Long eː
ˑ	Half-long eˑ
˘	Extra-short ĕ
|	Minor (foot) group
‖	Major (intonation) group
.	Syllable break ɹi.ækt
‿	Linking (absence of a break)

DIACRITICS Diacritics may be placed above a symbol with a descender, e.g. n̥ŋ̊

◌̥	Voiceless	n̥ d̥	◌̤	Breathy voiced	b̤ a̤
◌̬	Voiced	s̬ t̬	◌̰	Creaky voiced	b̰ a̰
◌ʰ	Aspirated	tʰ dʰ	◌̼	Linguolabial	t̼ d̼
◌̹	More rounded	ɔ̹	◌ʷ	Labialized	tʷ dʷ
◌̜	Less rounded	ɔ̜	◌ʲ	Palatalized	tʲ dʲ
◌̟	Advanced	u̟	◌ˠ	Velarized	tˠ dˠ
◌̠	Retracted	e̠	◌ˤ	Pharyngealized	tˤ dˤ
◌̈	Centralized	ë	◌̴	Velarized or pharyngealized	ɫ
◌̽	Mid-centralized	e̽	◌̝	Raised	e̝ (ɹ̝ = voiced alveolar fricative)
◌̩	Syllabic	n̩	◌̞	Lowered	e̞ (β̞ = voiced bilabial approximant)
◌̯	Non-syllabic	e̯	◌̘	Advanced Tongue Root	e̘
◌˞	Rhoticity	ɔ˞ a˞	◌̙	Retracted Tongue Root	e̙

TONES AND WORD ACCENTS

LEVEL			CONTOUR	
é͡ or ˥	Extra high	ě or ˩˥		Rising
é ˦	High	ê ˥˩		Falling
ē ˧	Mid	e᷄ ˧˥		High rising
è ˨	Low	e᷅ ˩˧		Low rising
ȅ ˩	Extra low	e᷄᷅ ˥˩˧		Rising-falling
↓	Downstep	↗		Global rise
↑	Upstep	↘		Global fall

Appendix D : Consent form

إشعار بالموافقة

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته,,,,, وبعد

سعادة ولي امر الطالبة/.....

أفيدكم علما بأنني أنا المحاضرة وفاء العتيبي، معهد اللغة الانجليزية بجامعة الملك عبدالعزيز، أرغب في إجراء بحث حول لهجة المعلمة العربية وعلاقتها بنطق الطالبة للغة الانجليزية، ويتطلب البحث مشاركة ابنتكم "اختياريا" بتسجيل صوتي لها لنطق بعض الكلمات الانجليزية لمدة 5 دقائق.

علماً بأن مشاركتها في البحث لا تتطلب الافصاح عن أي معلومات شخصية ولا تتعارض أبدا مع دراستها أو وقتها وليس له ارتباط بتقييمها أكاديمياً وإنما يعتبر هذا التسجيل مادة علمية لإجراءات بحثية فقط.

لامانع لدي بمشاركة ابنتي .....برقم جامعي .....ورقم جوال .....

في الدراسة المذكورة بعناية الأستاذة وفاء العتيبي للفصل الدراسي الأول للعام الدراسي 2013 – 2014، وعلى هذا تم التوقيع أدناه بالموافقة.

اسم ولي الأمر:..... توقيع ولي الأمر:.....

Translation of consent form

To the guardian's of the student……..

I am Wafa Alotaibi, a lecturer in KAU, ELI, conducting a study about the relationship between teachers' L1 Arabic variety and students' L2 English pronunciation. This study requires your daughter's to participate "optionally" by recording her voice in reading English words for 5 minutes only.

Note that this participation does not require any personal information and is not conflicting her lectures or studying time and it is not related to her academic evaluation, but it is a purely issue for researchable use

I hereby do agree for my daughter to participate in the study under the care of Mrs. Wafa Alotaibi in the academic semester 2013-2014.

Name of student: ……. Students' ID:……Guardian's name:……., Signature:……..

Appendix E: Students' survey

Survey on the relationship between a teacher's L1 varieties and students' L2 English Language pronunciation

The purpose of this survey is to investigate student's preference for a particular English accent and the influence of her native Arabic variety on the student's English pronunciation

1. Selection criteria

This survey is to be taken only by students satisfying the following criteria:

- You are a female fresher student.
- You are studying English as a L2 at a Saudi university in Jeddah.
- You were born and raised in Jeddah and have a pure urban Hijazi accent.
- You have never studied abroad or learnt English elsewhere (e.g. private classes or English language courses).

☐ Please check this box to confirm that you satisfy the above criteria. In case you do not, please return this questionnaire unmarked because you may have been given it by mistake.

2. Demographics

(a) Please indicate your age: ☐ 17 ☐ 18 ☐ 19 ☐ 20

(b) How long have you been learning English in the Saudi education system?

☐ 12 years since 1st level of Elementary school.

☐ 9 years since 4th level of Elementary school.

☐ 6 years since 1st level of Intermediate school through the secondary school.

(c) Write down how many years you have studied in your general education

School	Primary	Intermediate	Secondary
State/Governmental			
Private			

Appendix E

3. When you are taught English, which teacher you most prefer:

☐ Native English speaker ☐ Non-native English speaker

When you are taught English by a non-native teacher,

(a) which Arabic accent do you most prefer, or which would you most prefer, and

(b) which Arabic accent do you least prefer, or which would you least prefer or try to avoid? Both choices cannot of course be the same. Please rank the accents from the best accent you prefer to the worst you don't prefer. Note that 1 is the best and 6 is the worst.

Accent preference

Accent	Ranking 1= best, 6=worst
Yemeni	
Sudanese	
Masri (Egyptian)	
Jordanian	
Tunisian	
Saudi	

(c) *Why* do you most prefer the accent you indicated (no.1=the best) above? Check all significant reasons that may apply.

☐ It is easy to understand because it is a clear accent.

☐ It is similar to my own accent.

☐ I just like the accent, it sounds nice.

☐ I like the Arabs of that region.

(d) *Why* do you least prefer the accent you indicated (no.6= the worst) above? Check all significant reasons that may apply.

☐ It is difficult to understand because it is not a clear accent.

☐ It is very different from my own accent.

☐ I just dislike the accent, it does not sound nice.

☐ I dislike the Arabs of that region.

4. Teacher's accent

(a) How would you describe your own English teacher's accent?

☐ Yemeni ☐ Sudanese ☐ Egyptian ☐ Jordanian

☐ Tunisian ☐ Other:_____

5. English Use:

5.1. At home I speak English.

5.2. At work and/or at school, I speak English.

5.3. At parties and with friends, I speak English.

5.4. Overall, in the past five years, I have been speaking English.

5.5. I watch English language movies and/or videos.

5.6. I watch English-language television shows.

5.7. I listen to English-language radio programs (music/talk shows, etc.)

5.8. I speak English with foreigners in public places as hospitals and shopping malls.

5.9. I speak English in social network chat and/or smart phone applications as Tango, Facetime, Viber...etc.

Thank you for your kind participation.

adapted from Yeni-Komshain, et. al. (2000) and Ballard (2013).

Appendix F: Words list

No.	Reason to test	Sound	Familiarity	Initial position	Middle position	Final position
1	Based on literature, problematic among Arabs, varies among dialects	/dʒ/	Familiar	Jar	Egypt	Orange
			New	Junk food	Suggest	Luggage
2		/g/	Familiar	Gas	Bigger	Egg
			New	Greeting	Luggage	Fog
3		/ʒ/	Familiar	--	Measure	Rouge
			New	--	Treasure	Luge
4		/Θ/	Familiar	Thanks/ Three	Bathroom	Mouth
			Min. pairs	Think/ Three Sink/ Tree		Mouth/ Mouse
			New	Thrill	Wealthy	Earth
5		/ð/	Familiar	This	Brother	With
			Min. pairs			Clothe/ Close Breathe/ Breeze
			New	Therefore	Weather	Breathe
6	Based on literature, problematic among Arabs	/ɹ/	Familiar	Ring	Tree	Jar
			New	Rule	Fresh	Manner
7		/p/	Familiar	Postcard	Apple	Stamp
			Min. pairs	Pig/ Big		Lab/ Lap
			New	Polite	Spoil	Hope
8		/tʃ/	Familiar	Child	White Cheese	Rich
			Min. pairs	Shoes/ Choose		Watch/ Wash
			New	Childhood	Future/ Agriculture	Reach
9		/v/	Familiar	Van	Never/ Evening	Five
			Min. pairs	Van/ Fan		Leave/ Leaf
			New	Value	Novel	Talkative
10		/ŋ/	Familiar	--	Singer	Ring
			New	--	Hangout	Greeting

Appendix G : A sample of sounds data transcription

Egyptian teacher 1 class (Excel spreadsheet)

	Words	RP TRANS.	TE1		TE1_st_1				TE1_st_2			
dʒ				**X**	**Pre-test**		**Post-test**	**X**	**Pre-test**		**Post-test**	**X**
familiar	jar	dʒɑ:	dʒæɹ	0	ʒær	1	ʒær	1	ʒær	1	ʒær	1
	Egypt	i:dʒɪpt	i:dʒɪpt	0	i:ʒɪbt	1	i:ʒɪbt	1	i:ʒɪbt	1	i:ʒɪpt	1
	orange	ɒɹɪndʒ	o:ɹandʒ	0	o:ranʒ	1	o:randʒ	0	o:ranʒ	1	o:ranʒ	1
new	junk food	dʒʌŋk fu:d	dʒʌŋk fu:d	0	ʒʌŋk fu:d	1	ʒʌŋk fu:d	1	ʒʌŋk fu:d	1	ʒʌŋk fu:d	1
	suggest	sədʒest	sadʒɪst	0	sugɪst	1	suʒɪst	1	saʒɪst	1	saʒɪst	1
	luggage	lʌgɪdʒ	lʌgɪdʒ	0	loʒi:	1	loge:ʒ	1	luge:ʒ	1	lʌgɪʒ	1
g				0		6		5		6	0	6
familiar	gas	gæz	gæz	0	Gæs	0	gæs	0	gæz	0	gæz	0
	bigger	bɪgə	bɪgəɹ	0	bɪgər	0	bɪgər	0	bɪgər	0	beʒər	1
	egg	eg	eg	0	eg	0	eg	0	eg	0	eg	0

Appendix H

	Words	RP TRANS.	TE1		TE1_st_1				TE1_st_2			
new	greeting	gɹiːtɪŋ	gɹiːrɪŋg	0	grətɪŋ	0	grətɪŋ	0	grətɪŋg	0	griːtɪŋg	0
	luggage	lʌgɪdʒ	lʌgɪdʒ	0	logeːʒ	0	logeːʒ	0	lugeːʒ	0	lʌgɪʒ	0
	fog	fɒg	fʌg	0	Fog	0	fog	0	fog	0	fog	0
ʒ				0		0		0		0		1
familiar	measure	meʒə	meʒɪɹ	0	miːsɪr	1	meʒɪr	0	meʒɪr	0	meʒɪr	0
	rouge	ɹuːʒ	ɹøʒ	0	roːʒ	0	roːʒ	0	roːʒ	0	roːʒ	0
new	treasure	tɹeʒə	tɹeʒɪɹ	0	trɪsar	1	treʃɪr	1	trɪʃuːr	1	treʒɪɹ	0
	luge	luːʒ	ladʒ	1	log	1	loːʒ	0	luːg	1	ladʒ	1
				1		3		1		2	0	2

Appendix H Students' interview questions

A. Demographic Information

How old are you?

During your general education, have you taught by any target language speakers before?

Have you studied at any English language institute?

At what age did you start learning English?

Have you ever been exposed to the English language outside of classes? If yes, how?

Which region of Saudi Arabia do you come from?

What is your first dialect?

What dialect do you speak at home?

What level are you studying at?

What is the medium of instruction in your English classes?

Roughly how much time do they spend speaking in English in class?

Have you learned any languages other than English? If so, which?

How many L1 English-speaking teachers have you had while learning English?

How many Arabic- speaking ESL instructors have you had while learning English?

B. Perceptions of English accents

Tell me how you feel about "The English Accent."

How do you feel about the "near English" pronunciation?

What do you think are the most valuable qualities or weaknesses of the ESL instructors?

How Arabic-speaking ESL instructors may be different than other ESL instructors?

Which of them would you prefer to have as English teachers and why?

Perception towards Arabic- speaking English teachers' accents

Can you differentiate between different English accents?

If your teacher is NOT from Saudi Arabia, how familiar do you think you are with your Arabic teacher's dialect?

What do you think of your teacher's English accent? Do you speak their Arabic dialects?

Would you recommend a friend to take a class with your current Arab teacher? If so, why?

What would be a preferred accent for the English teacher?

Appendix I Sample of a student's interview (Arabic-English)

Interview of Tunisian teacher's student

تخصصي لغة فرنسية المستوى الأول درست في مدارس حكومية،
المدرسات في المدارس الحكومية سعوديات اول مره يدرسوني اجانب كانت في الجامعة

I'm now in the 1st level of my major, French, and I studied in governmental schools where all teachers are Saudis…the first time I am taught by non-Saudis is in university.

المستوى الأول هندية والثاني سورية والثالث تونسية والرابع سعودية ومصرية

I was taught by Indian in level 1, Syrian in level 2, Tunisian in level 3 and Saudi and Egyptian teachers in level 4.

لهجتي الأصلية عادية جداوية عامية كمان ماما وبابا

My original dialect is Hijazi in general, also my parents.

NS أحسن شيء، Reading و speaking مافيها قاعدات

I prefer the NEST to teach me, specially speaking and reading skills. I don't prefer that she teach grammar.

أستاذة المستوى الأول كانت هندية والـ accent ممتاز بريطاني بس البنات يعانون منها في القواعد، تجي وحدة مننا الطالبات تشرح لهم ولا تفهمهم عشان لازم الشرح بالعربي تفهمهم بشكل بسيط لأن الطالبات في المستوى الأول أغلبهم مو مرة في الانجليزي. الاستاذة العربية افضل في القواعد المستوى الاول افضل عربية

The teacher in the 1st level was Indian and her accent was an excellent British one but the students were struggling with her in grammar…so one of us, the students, explained to them in Arabic…I think the classroom instruction should be in Arabic so the students understand smoothly because in the 1st level they are not quite good in English. In grammar skill in the 1st level, the Arabian teacher is better.

ما أتوقع يضعف ال speaking لان في المستوى الثالث مدرسه سعودية ماتكلمنا عربي كله كان بالانجليزي تحاول تلمح لنا وتشرح واذا مرة قالت كلمة وحدة بس بالعربي وفاهمة البنات ايش يبغون منها، عكس الاجنبية ماتفهم ايش يحتاجوا البنات،بس في ال reading افضل ال native ويأخذون منها الaccent

I don't expect that explaining in Arabic would affect the speaking skills because in level 3, there was a Saudi teacher who speaks only in English. She was trying to gives us some glimpse and explain the meaning… or hopelessly she said only one word in Arabic. She understands what the students' need. Unlike foreigner, she doesn't understand what the students' need but in reading I prefer the natives to pick her accent.

والغير native افضل القواعد عشان تشرح بالعربي وتعرف الطالبة، ايش تحتاج خاصةاذا كانت الاستاذة من نفس اللهجة تعرف الطالبة فاهمة ولا لا ممكن الاجانب يمشونها وهي ماهي عارفة فاهمين ولا مو فاهمين

Non natives are better in explaining in Arabic and know what do the students need, especially, if the teacher comes from the same dialect of the student. She will know if the student understands or not. Maybe the NNESTs don't pay attention and they don't know if students understand or not.

هدفي اتخرج من اللغة الفرنسية وأخذ ماستر وارجع أستاذه طموحي ادرس لغة فرنسية

My goal is to study French and take the master and return here as a lecturer. I dream to study French.

برنامج اللغة حقق طموحي في البيت يعتمدوا علي أخواني، أدرس أخواني فرنسي وانجليزي ويعتمدوا علي في اللغتين، أذاكر لهم واعمل اختبارات لاني فاهمه اللغتين، بي الفرنسي مو مرة.

The English program in the foundation year had achieved my ambition. At home, they rely on me to teach my siblings. I teach them English and French. I explain to them and design some tests because I am capable in both languages, but French not too much.

الهندية ال Accent كويس والسعودية والسورية والتونسية كلهم كويس

The Indian, Saudi, Jordanian and Tunisian teachers' accents were good.

يعني ايش كويس؟

What do you mean by "good"?

يعني كأنك تتكلمين مع اجنبية يعني مرة كويس native أما المصرية كان لا

I mean as if you were talking to a foreigner, as natives. But not the Egyptian.

باين ان نطقها ماكان مزبوط يعني الاكسنت كان بلهجتها المصرية. تتكلم انجليزي بس بلهجتها المصرية.

Her pronunciation wasn't perfect. Her accent was with her Egyptian dialect. She speaks English with her Egyptian dialect. Most of the time, her instruction was in Arabic.

ال Accent يؤثر في الانجليزي على حسب مستوى الطالبه أذا كان مستوى الطالبة عالي ماتتأثر اذا مستواها ضعيف ح يؤثر في الكلمات الجديدة فقط زيها أما الكلمات الثانية الي عارفتها الطالبة ماتتأثر.

I think the teacher's accent may affect that of her students depending on the student's level. If the student level is high, she will not be influenced, while if she is in a low level of English proficiency, this may affect her in the new words only which she will know from her teacher. However, the already known words will not be affected.

متطلبات استاذ اللغة؟

What are the English teacher characteristics?

لازم يكون عند الأساتذة native accent . الاكسنت: متمكنين في اللغة تحدثاً ويكون الاكسنت حقها جيد لأن تغيير حرفين مثلا يغير معنى الجملة كاملة مثلا تفرق بين ال p,b لانها تغير في نطق الكلمه ومعناها.

والاخلاق: يكون طريقة تواصلها مع الطالبات جيدة مثلا تعرف تشرح بس ما تفهّم ماعندها طريقة تواصل ممكن يكون عندها تعالي او كبر، وتكون أخلاقها جيدة وتوصل المعلومة

She has to have a native accent in English. The teacher should be competent in language speaking, and her accent should be very good, because changing two sounds only may change the meaning of the whole sentence. For instance, she can differentiate between /p/ and /b/.

افضل المدرسات العربيات في المستوى الاول لان البنات يستحون يسألون، لأن الطالبة تستحي تقول أنا ماني فاهمة.

I prefer the Arabian teachers in the first level because the students feel embarrassed to ask or to confirm that she doesn't understand.

احس لهجتي الانجليزي(لك عليها صراحة)، مو مرة كويسة ككلامي أنا الجداوي، مثأثر بيها. مثلاً water اقولها انطق الراء /wo:tər/ما اقول /wotəɹ/ زيهم

I feel that my English accent is not so good. It is manipulated by my Hijazi dialect. For example, I don't pronounce the /r/ as they do, I pronounce it /wo:tər/ and don't say /wotəɹ/.

بس بعد ما درست الفرنسي لاحظته وصرت اعدله في لغتي الانجليزية لان الفرنسي يهتمون بالأصوات فصرت أنطق زيهم عشان هي تفهمني ايش اقول.

After I start learning French, I recognize my speech and I try to adjust it in my English because French language does cares about sounds. Thus, I start to pronounce like them, so she can understand what I say.

من الكلام ممكن اعرف الجنسية السعودية لهجتها ثقيلة وال native سريعين في الكلام والتونسية تتكلم بهداوة هداوة فوق ماتتخيلين بطيئة رغم ان لهجتها التونسية سريعة الا انها في الانجليزي جدا بشويش

I can recognize the teacher's nationality/origin from her English. The Saudi teacher's accent is heavy and the native is fast in her speech. The Tunisian speaks very very slowly, you can't imagine how much she is slow, although her Tunisian dialect is fast rhythm, her English was so slow.

أنا افضل استاذات اجنبيات يدرسوني، بس اذا مافي افضل سعودية أوعربية متمكنة، أنا الان ما تهمني الجنسية يهمني تمكنها من اللغة.

I prefer native speaking teachers to teach me. But if there isn't any, I prefer a competent Saudi or Arabian teacher. Now, I don't care about nationality…what I care of is the teacher's language competence.

ايش يعني متمكنة من اللغة؟

What do you mean by language competence?

يعني ال accent ممتاز وشرح القواعد مزيوط وال reading مزبوط كمان. مو شرط تكون من ال native

I mean that her accent is excellent, and her grammar explanation is perfect and al so the reading, but not necessary to be native.

لأن أغلب السوادنة يكون ،حطيت السعودية والسورية لأني جربتهم والسودانية يمنية - مصرية - سودانية - سورية - سعودية الانجليزي حقهم عشان عايشين أغلب حياتهم برا، مثلا المصرية تكون دارسة في بلدها. اليمنية حطيتها بالاخير عشان ماسبق ان حقها ماكان مزبوط Accentجربتها، والمصرية حطيتها في الاخير عشان الـ

I arrange them as Saudi, Jordanian, Sudanese, Egyptian, and Yemeni in order. I place Saudi and Jordanian in at first because I had an experience with them. Then, I put the Sudanese because most of the Sudanese teachers learn English abroad. In contrast, the Egyptian learns English in her country home and the reason why I put her at the end because of her accent. Finally, I place the Yemini at the end because I haven't tried them before

لو اخترت لك الثلاث التالية: سعودية- مصرية- تونسية، ايش تفضلين ترتيبهم؟

If I choose only three; Saudi, Egyptian and Tunisian, How would you arrange them according to your preference?

سعودية بعدين تونسية وفي الاخير مصرية عشان ال Accent حقها نفس السبب.

I will arrange them as Saudi, Tunisian and at the end Egyptian because of her accent.

Appendix J The study plan of the Department of European Languages

(English Language Section- Linguistics Lane) Starting from the first semester of the year of 1432/1433 AH

First					Seco			
English	ELI 101	0			English	ELI 103	2	
Islamic	ISLS 101	2			Thinking and	COMM 102	3	
Linguistic	ARAB 101	3			Communicatio	COMM 101	3	
Computer	CPIT 100	3			Statistics	STAT 111	3	
Mathematics	MATH 111	3			English	ELI 104	2	
English	ELI 102	2			----------	----------	---------	----------
Total Hours of the First		13			Total Hours of the Second		13	

Third					Four			
Listening and Speaking (1)	LANE 211	3			Listening and Speaking (2)	LANE 214	3	LANE 211
Islamic	ISLS 201	3	ISLS 101		Islamic	ISLS 301	3	ISLS 201
Introduction to Natural Sciences	CHEM 205	3	ISLS 101		Philosophical Thoughts in Islam	ISLS 210	2	
The Youth and Citizenship Values	SOC 210	3			Writing and Editing	ARAB 201	3	ARAB 101
Total Hours of the Third		17			Total Hours of the Fourth		17	

Fifth					Six			
Introduction	LANE 321	3	LANE 214		Prose	LANE 342	3	LANE
Introduction	LANE 341	3	LANE 215		Drama	LANE 343	3	LANE
Introduction	LANE 350	3	LANE 216		Phonetics	LANE 332	3	LANE
French Language	LANE 221	3			Morphology	LANE 333	3	LANE 321
Islamic	ISLS 401	2	ISLS 301		Syntax	LANE 334	2	LANE

Total Hours of the Fifth		17		Total Hours of the Sixth		18	
Seventh				Eigh			
Free Course	FR	3		Sociolinguistic	LANE 422	3	LANE
Applied	LANE 423	3	LANE 321	Seminar in	LANE 424	3	LANE
Literary	LANE 446	3	LANE 341	Shakespeare	LANE 448	3	LANE
Poetry	LANE 447	3	LANE 341	Modern	LANE 449	3	LANE
				Practicum (2)	LANE 463	3	All courses
Semantics	LANE 438	3	LANE 321				
Total Hours of the Seventh		1		Total Hours of the Eighth		15	

Appendix K Students' audio recording results

Table 26: Paired T-tests pre/post (TS1) class

Teacher "TS1"		Correlation		Paired Differences			
Sound	**Pair**	**C**	**Sig.**	**Mean**	**SD**	**t**	**Sig.**
dʒ	**Post**	.066	.781	3.05	2.605	-2.730-	.013
	Pre			4.85	1.565		
g	**Post**	.376	.102	3.15	2.519	-3.980-	.001
	Pre			5.25	1.293		
ʒ	**Post**	.326	.161	2.05	1.432	-3.437-	.003
	Pre			3.20	1.105		
θ	**Post**	.514	.020	2.60	2.780	-2.990-	.008
	Pre			4.60	3.235		
ð	**Post**	.625	.003	1.90	2.100	-2.139-	.046
	Pre			2.85	2.434		
r	**Post**	.670	.001	4.10	2.447	-1.577-	.131
	Pre			4.75	1.943		
p	**Post**	.772	.000	4.60	2.836	-.476-	.640
	Pre			4.80	2.726		
tʃ	**Post**	.858	.000	2.40	1.789	-1.505-	.149
	Pre			2.75	2.023		

Appendix K

Teacher "TS1"		Correlation		Paired Differences			
Sound	**Pair**	**C**	**Sig.**	**Mean**	**SD**	**t**	**Sig.**
v	**Post**	.671	.001	1.55	1.504	-2.008-	.059
	Pre			2.25	2.099		
ŋ	**Post**	.730	.000	2.85	1.663	-.384-	.705

Table 27: Paired T-tests pre/post (TS2) class

Teacher "TS2"		Correlation		Paired Differences			
Sound	**Pair**	**C**	**Sig.**	**Mean**	**SD**	**t**	**Sig.**
dʒ	**Post**	.712	.000	2.75	2.149	-4.077-	.001
	Pre			4.15	1.814		
g	**Post**	.696	.001	2.95	2.417	-3.152-	.005
	Pre			4.20	2.042		
ʒ	**Post**	.186	.431	2.10	1.518	-1.656-	.114
	Pre			2.75	1.209		
θ	**Post**	.805	.000	3.65	3.870	-2.624-	.017
	Pre			5.00	3.228		
ð	**Post**	.903	.000	2.25	2.511	-2.292-	.033
	Pre			2.90	2.936		
r	**Post**	.982	.000	4.45	1.731	.000	1.000
	Pre			4.45	1.701		

Teacher "TS2"		Correlation		Paired Differences			
Sound	**Pair**	**C**	**Sig.**	**Mean**	**SD**	**t**	**Sig.**
p	**Post**	.925	.000	4.50	2.460	-.438-	.666
	Pre			4.60	2.683		
tʃ	**Post**	.932	.000	3.25	1.943	-1.674-	.110
	Pre			3.55	2.188		
v	**Post**	.953	.000	2.35	2.661	-.825-	.419
	Pre			2.50	2.626		
ŋ	**Post**	.826	.000	3.30	.865	-1.371-	.186
	Pre			3.45	.759		

Table 28: Paired T-tests pre/post (TE1) class

Teacher "TE1"		Correlation		Paired Differences			
Sound	**Pair**	**C**	**Sig.**	**Mean**	**SD**	**t**	**Sig.**
dʒ	**Post**	.417	.067	2.90	2.222	-4.199-	.000
	Pre			4.80	1.056		
g	**Post**	.472	.036	2.20	1.963	-6.345-	.000
	Pre			4.70	1.261		
ʒ	**Post**	.522	.018	1.50	1.235	-7.000-	.000
	Pre			3.25	1.020		
θ	**Post**	.292	.212	1.95	2.373	-5.470-	.000

Appendix K

Teacher "TE1"		Correlation		Paired Differences			
Sound	**Pair**	**C**	**Sig.**	**Mean**	**SD**	**t**	**Sig.**
	Pre			5.30	2.227		
ð	**Post**	.447	.048	1.60	1.501	-3.442-	.003
	Pre			3.50	2.743		
r	**Post**	.760	.000	4.70	2.055	-1.648-	.116
	Pre			5.20	1.322		
p	**Post**	.950	.000	4.75	2.826	-2.027-	.057
	Pre			5.15	2.681		
tʃ	**Post**	.687	.001	3.15	1.785	-3.317-	.004
	Pre			4.25	1.943		
v	**Post**	.652	.002	1.55	1.538	-3.324-	.004
	Pre			2.80	2.215		
ŋ	**Post**	.550	.012	1.15	1.814	-3.884-	.001
	Pre			2.60	1.698		

Table 29: Paired T-Tests pre/post (TE2) class

Teacher "TE2"		Correlation		Paired Differences			
Sound	**Pair**	**C**	**Sig.**	**Mean**	**SD**	**t**	**Sig.**
dʒ	**Post**	.689	.001	3.55	2.235	-1.094-	.288

Teacher "TE2"		Correlation		Paired Differences			
Sound	**Pair**	**C**	**Sig.**	**Mean**	**SD**	**t**	**Sig.**
	Pre			3.95	1.761		
g	**Post**	.609	.004	3.65	2.084	-1.291-	.212
	Pre			4.15	1.785		
ʒ	**Post**	.895	.000	2.50	1.469	-1.000-	.330
	Pre			2.65	1.461		
θ	**Post**	.857	.000	4.40	3.283	-1.421-	.172
	Pre			4.95	3.170		
ð	**Post**	.699	.001	2.35	2.183	-1.798-	.088
	Pre			3.15	2.758		
r	**Post**	.965	.000	4.85	1.843	.438	.666
	Pre			4.80	1.936		
p	**Post**	.933	.000	5.20	2.687	-1.371-	.186
	Pre			5.50	2.646		
tʃ	**Post**	.976	.000	3.45	2.164	-1.371-	.186
	Pre			3.60	2.257		
v	**Post**	.983	.000	2.60	2.945	.000	1.000
	Pre			2.60	2.761		
ŋ	**Post**	.754	.000	3.20	1.005	-1.000-	.330

Appendix K

Teacher "TE2"		Correlation		Paired Differences			
Sound	**Pair**	**C**	**Sig.**	**Mean**	**SD**	**t**	**Sig.**
	Pre			3.35	.875		

Table 30: Paired T-Tests pre/post (TT1) class

Teacher "TT1"		Correlation		Paired Differences			
Sound	**Pair**	**C**	**Sig.**	**Mean**	**SD**	**t**	**Sig.**
dʒ	**Post**	.528	.017	1.15	1.599	-7.021-	.000
	Pre			3.85	1.899		
g	**Post**	.276	.240	.70	1.342	-7.135-	.000
	Pre			3.65	1.694		
ʒ	**Post**	.336	.147	.80	1.473	-5.044-	.000
	Pre			2.55	1.191		
θ	**Post**	.899	.000	3.05	3.187	-3.835-	.001
	Pre			4.25	2.789		
ð	**Post**	.819	.000	1.35	1.694	-2.373-	.028
	Pre			2.15	2.540		
r	**Post**	.908	.000	3.30	2.296	-2.015-	.058
	Pre			3.75	2.359		
p	**Post**	.862	.000	3.15	2.183	-2.819-	.011
	Pre			4.00	2.656		

Teacher "TT1"		Correlation		Paired Differences			
Sound	**Pair**	**C**	**Sig.**	**Mean**	**SD**	**t**	**Sig.**
tʃ	**Post**	.715	.000	2.55	2.089	-2.897-	.009
	Pre			3.75	2.633		
v	**Post**	.785	.000	3.15	2.661	-3.444-	.003
	Pre			4.55	2.856		
ŋ	**Post**	.681	.001	2.80	1.473	-2.032-	.056
	Pre			3.30	1.218		

Table 31: Paired T-Tests pre/post (TT2) class

Teacher "TT2"		Correlation		Paired Differences			
Sound	**Pair**	**C**	**Sig.**	**Mean**	**SD**	**t**	**Sig.**
dʒ	**Post**	.446	.049	2.20	2.484	-2.641-	.016
	Pre			3.60	1.930		
g	**Post**	.449	.047	2.20	2.462	-2.199-	.040
	Pre			3.40	2.162		
ʒ	**Post**	.650	.002	1.90	1.651	-1.751-	.096
	Pre			2.40	1.314		
θ	**Post**	.752	.000	2.95	3.052	-2.766-	.012
	Pre			4.30	3.147		
ð	**Post**	.784	.000	2.25	2.314	-2.179-	.042

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Teacher "TT2"		Correlation		Paired Differences			
Sound	**Pair**	**C**	**Sig.**	**Mean**	**SD**	**t**	**Sig.**
	Pre			3.05	2.605		
r	**Post**	.919	.000	3.30	2.536	-1.097-	.287
	Pre			3.55	2.523		
p	**Post**	-.075-	.752	3.70	2.658	-3.148-	.005
	Pre			6.10	1.944		
tʃ	**Post**	.889	.000	2.45	1.986	-2.463-	.024
	Pre			3.00	2.176		
v	**Post**	.650	.002	2.45	2.724	-3.488-	.002
	Pre			4.25	2.789		
ŋ	**Post**	.560	.010	3.25	1.070	-.940-	.359
	Pre			3.45	.945		

Table 32: Paired T-tests for pre/post tests, new and familiar, (TS1)

Teacher "TS1"		Paired Differences							
Sound	**Pair**	**New Word (N)**				**Familiar Word (F)**			
		Mean	**SD**	**t**	**Sig.**	**Mean**	**SD**	**t**	**Sig.**
dʒ	**Post**	1.60	1.392	-2.179-	.042	1.45	1.317	-3.249-	.004
	Pre	2.40	.821			2.45	.887		
g	**Post**	1.50	1.235	-4.188-	.000	1.65	1.309	-3.454-	.003

Teacher "TS1"		Paired Differences							
Sound	Pair	New Word (N)				Familiar Word (F)			
		Mean	SD	t	Sig.	Mean	SD	t	Sig.
	Pre	2.70	.657			2.55	.759		
ʒ	**Post**	1.10	.788	-3.269-	.004	.95	.826	-2.773-	.012
	Pre	1.70	.571			1.50	.607		
θ	**Post**	1.00	1.124	-3.107-	.006	.70	1.031	-2.557-	.019
	Pre	1.80	1.152			1.35	1.348		
ð	**Post**	1.05	1.146	-2.179-	.042	.50	.889	-1.831-	.083
	Pre	1.45	1.146			.80	1.056		
r	**Post**	2.05	1.234	-1.677-	.110	2.05	1.276	-1.453-	.163
	Pre	2.40	.940			2.35	1.089		
p	**Post**	1.75	1.209	-.295-	.772	1.70	1.261	-.679-	.505
	Pre	1.80	1.105			1.85	1.137		
tʃ	**Post**	1.00	.858	-.809-	.428	1.10	.968	-.567-	.577
	Pre	1.10	.968			1.15	1.040		
v	**Post**	1.05	1.099	-1.902-	.072	.40	.681	-1.371-	.186
	Pre	1.45	1.234			.55	.759		
ŋ	**Post**	1.35	.933	-.370-	.716	1.50	.827	-.370-	.716
	Pre	1.40	.821			1.55	.759		

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Table 33: Paired T-tests for pre/post tests, new and familiar, (TS2)

Teacher "TS2"		**Paired Differences**							
Sound	**Pair**	**New Word (N)**				**Familiar Word (F)**			
		Mean	**SD**	**t**	**Sig.**	**Mean**	**SD**	**t**	**Sig.**
dʒ	**Post**	1.50	1.147	-3.290-	.004	1.25	1.164	-3.115-	.006
	Pre	2.25	.967			1.90	1.119		
g	**Post**	1.55	1.317	-3.387-	.003	1.40	1.231	-2.438-	.025
	Pre	2.35	.988			1.85	1.182		
ʒ	**Post**	1.00	.795	-1.917-	.070	1.10	.788	-1.073-	.297
	Pre	1.45	.686			1.30	.657		
θ	**Post**	1.30	1.261	-3.322-	.004	1.15	1.387	-2.438-	.025
	Pre	1.95	.999			1.60	1.314		
ð	**Post**	1.20	1.196	-2.032-	.056	.65	.988	-1.561-	.135
	Pre	1.45	1.276			.90	1.210		
r	**Post**	2.00	1.076	.000	1.000	2.45a	.826	---	--- *
	Pre	2.00	1.076			2.45a	.826		
p	**Post**	1.70	1.129	-1.000-	.330	1.85	1.137	.000	1.000
	Pre	1.75	1.118			1.85	1.137		
tʃ	**Post**	1.40	1.142	-1.000-	.330	1.45	.945	-1.000-	.330
	Pre	1.45	1.099			1.55	.999		
v	**Post**	1.00	1.214	-1.453-	.163	.75	1.118	-1.000-	.330

Teacher "TS2"		Paired Differences							
Sound	Pair	New Word (N)				Familiar Word (F)			
		Mean	SD	t	Sig.	Mean	SD	t	Sig.
	Pre	1.10	1.210			.85	1.226		
ŋ	**Post**	1.45	.759	-1.831-	.083	1.85	.366	.000	1.000
	Pre	1.60	.598			1.85	.366		

*T-test cannot be calculated since standard error is 0

Table 34: Paired T-tests for pre/post tests, new and familiar, (TE1)

Teacher "TE1"		Paired Differences							
Sound	Pair	New Word (N)				Familiar Word (F)			
		Mean	SD	t	Sig.	Mean	SD	t	Sig.
dʒ	**Post**	1.75	1.118	-4.254-	.000	1.15	1.226	-3.047-	.007
	Pre	2.70	.470			2.10	.968		
g	**Post**	1.35	1.137	-6.175-	.000	.85	1.137	-3.943-	.001
	Pre	2.80	.523			1.90	1.071		
ʒ	**Post**	.75	.716	-6.892-	.000	.75	.716	-4.265-	.000
	Pre	1.75	.444			1.50	.688		
θ	**Post**	1.05	1.276	-6.254-	.000	.25	.716	-4.046-	.001
	Pre	2.80	.410			1.20	1.105		
ð	**Post**	1.25	1.251	-3.344-	.003	.25	.639	-2.238-	.037
	Pre	2.10	1.334			.80	1.240		

Appendix K

Teacher "TE1"		Paired Differences							
Sound	Pair	New Word (N)				Familiar Word (F)			
		Mean	SD	t	Sig.	Mean	SD	t	Sig.
r	**Post**	2.25	1.164	-1.677-	.110	2.45	.999	-1.000-	.330
	Pre	2.60	.821			2.60	.821		
p	**Post**	1.80	1.196	-2.027-	.057	1.80a	1.281	---	---*
	Pre	2.20	1.152			1.80a	1.281		
tʃ	**Post**	1.55	1.234	-3.199-	.005	1.50	.946	-.698-	.494
	Pre	2.25	1.209			1.60	1.095		
v	**Post**	1.10	1.165	-2.666-	.015	.35	.671	-2.032-	.056
	Pre	1.80	1.322			.60	.940		
ŋ	**Post**	.55	.887	-4.156-	.001	.60	.940	-2.438-	.025
	Pre	1.55	.945			1.05	.999		

* T-test cannot be calculated since standard error is 0

Table 35: Paired T-tests for pre/post tests, new and familiar, (TE2)

Teacher "TE2"		Paired Differences							
Sound	Pair	New Word (N)				Familiar Word (F)			
		Mean	SD	t	Sig.	Mean	SD	t	Sig.
dʒ	**Post**	1.95	1.099	-.203-	.841	1.60	1.231	-1.926-	.069
	Pre	2.00	.973			1.95	1.050		
g	**Post**	1.85	1.137	-1.453-	.163	1.80	1.105	-1.000-	.330

Teacher "TE2"		Paired Differences							
Sound	Pair	New Word (N)				Familiar Word (F)			
		Mean	SD	t	Sig.	Mean	SD	t	Sig.
	Pre	2.15	.933			2.00	1.026		
ʒ	**Post**	1.25	.786	-1.831-	.083	1.25	.786	.000	1.000
	Pre	1.40	.754			1.25	.851		
θ	**Post**	1.75	1.118	-.623-	.541	1.35	1.348	-.809-	.428
	Pre	1.85	1.040			1.45	1.276		
ð	**Post**	1.35	1.226	-1.561-	.135	.65	.988	-1.831-	.083
	Pre	1.60	1.314			.95	1.234		
r	**Post**	2.40	.995	.000	1.000	2.45	.887	1.000	.330
	Pre	2.40	1.046			2.40	.940		
p	**Post**	2.10	1.119	-1.453-	.163	1.95	1.234	-1.000-	.330
	Pre	2.30	1.081			2.00	1.214		
tʃ	**Post**	1.65	1.226	-1.000-	.330	1.45a	.945	---	--- *
	Pre	1.70	1.261			1.45a	.945		
v	**Post**	1.35	1.387	.567	.577	.80	1.152	.000	1.000
	Pre	1.30	1.302			.80	1.056		
ŋ	**Post**	1.25	.910	-1.371-	.186	1.95	.224	.000	1.000
	Pre	1.40	.821			1.95	.224		

* T-test cannot be calculated since standard error is 0

Table 36: Paired T-tests for pre/post tests, new and familiar, (TT1)

Teacher "TT1"		Paired Differences							
Sound	Pair	New Word (N)				Familiar Word (F)			
		Mean	SD	t	Sig.	Mean	SD	t	Sig.
dʒ	**Post**	.50	.761	-8.718-	.000	.65	.988	-4.819-	.000
	Pre	2.10	.852			1.75	1.164		
g	**Post**	.35	.745	-8.008-	.000	.35	.671	-4.721-	.000
	Pre	2.15	.813			1.50	1.051		
ʒ	**Post**	.45	.826	-5.688-	.000	.35	.671	-3.621-	.002
	Pre	1.50	.688			1.05	.686		
θ	**Post**	1.15	1.348	-2.854-	.010	.80	1.152	-1.926-	.069
	Pre	1.75	1.118			1.15	1.268		
ð	**Post**	.40	.821	-1.926-	.069	.35	.745	-2.032-	.056
	Pre	.75	1.118			.60	1.046		
r	**Post**	1.65	1.182	-2.032-	.056	1.65	1.182	-1.710-	.104
	Pre	1.90	1.165			1.85	1.226		
p	**Post**	.60	.821	-3.115-	.006	1.65	1.226	.000	1.000
	Pre	1.25	1.209			1.65	1.226		
tʃ	**Post**	.75	.851	-2.932-	.009	1.10	.968	-1.552-	.137
	Pre	1.20	1.105			1.40	1.046		

Teacher "TT1"		Paired Differences							
Sound	Pair	New Word (N)				Familiar Word (F)			
		Mean	SD	t	Sig.	Mean	SD	t	Sig.
v	**Post**	1.25	1.251	-2.179-	.042	1.15	1.268	-2.438-	.025
	Pre	1.65	1.182			1.60	1.231		
ŋ	**Post**	1.35	.745	-2.349-	.030	1.45	.826	-1.453-	.163
	Pre	1.65	.671			1.65	.671		

Table 37: Paired T-tests for pre/post tests, new and familiar, (TT2)

Teacher "TT2"		Paired Differences							
Sound	Pair	New Word (N)				Familiar Word (F)			
		Mean	SD	t	Sig.	Mean	SD	t	Sig.
dʒ	**Post**	1.15	1.268	-1.993-	.061	1.05	1.276	-2.904-	.009
	Pre	1.70	1.129			1.90	.968		
g	**Post**	1.10	1.210	-2.156-	.044	1.10	1.334	-1.927-	.069
	Pre	1.75	1.164			1.65	1.182		
ʒ	**Post**	1.05	.887	-2.269-	.035	.85	.875	-.370-	.716
	Pre	1.50	.761			.90	.852		
θ	**Post**	1.15	1.137	-3.387-	.003	.90	1.165	-1.561-	.135
	Pre	1.95	1.050			1.15	1.268		
ð	**Post**	1.05	1.099	-2.373-	.028	.75	1.070	-1.453-	.163

Appendix K

Teacher "TT2"		Paired Differences							
Sound	Pair	New Word (N)				Familiar Word (F)			
		Mean	SD	t	Sig.	Mean	SD	t	Sig.
	Pre	1.45	1.146			.95	1.191		
r	**Post**	1.65	1.268	-1.000-	.330	1.65	1.268	-1.143-	.267
	Pre	1.75	1.251			1.80	1.281		
p	**Post**	1.40	1.095	-3.584-	.002	1.30	1.081	-2.405-	.027
	Pre	2.50	.761			2.00	.973		
tʃ	**Post**	1.20	1.240	-1.561-	.135	.95	.826	-1.453-	.163
	Pre	1.45	1.191			1.05	.887		
v	**Post**	1.15	1.348	-2.557-	.019	.85	1.137	-3.040-	.007
	Pre	1.80	1.281			1.45	1.234		
ŋ	**Post**	1.35	.875	-1.073-	.297	1.90	.308	.000	1.000
	Pre	1.55	.759			1.90	.447		

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