

جمهورية العراق
وزارة التعليم العالي والبحث العلمي
جامعة الأنبار



مجلة جامعة الأنبار للغات والآداب

مجلة علمية فصلية محكمة
تعنى بدراسات وأبحاث اللغات وآدابها

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المجلد (17) العدد (3) الشهر (أيلول)

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جامعة الأنبار - كلية الآداب

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المجلد : (17) العدد (3) لشهر ايلول - 2025

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شروط النشر في المجلة

تهدف رئاسة تحرير المجلة وأعضاء هيئتها إلى الإرتقاء بمعامل تأثير المجلة تمهيداً لدخول قاعدة بيانات المستوعات العلمية والعالمية، وطبقاً لهذا تنشر مجلة جامعة الأنبار للغات والآداب البحوث التي تتسم بالرصانة العلمية والقيمة المعرفية، فضلاً عن سلامة اللغة ودقة التوثيق بما يوافق شروطها المدرجة في أدناه:

التسليم:

يمارس إرسال المراسلات جميعها بما في ذلك اشعارات قرار المحرر وطلبات المراجعة إلى هذه المجلة عبر نظام (E-JOURNAL PLUES) وعبر الرابط: <https://www.aujll.uoanbar.edu.iq/> ، وتقبل البحوث وفقاً للنظام كتابة البحوث (Word و LaTeX) ، وبالاتماد على نظام التوثيق العالمي APA ، ويجب كتابة النص بمسافة مزدوجة، في عمود مزدوج باستعمال كتابة من 12 نقطة.

التحضير:

يستعمل برنامج الورد (Word software) لكتابة المقالة. من المهم أن يتم حفظ الملف بالتنسيق الأصلي لبرنامج الورد (Word software) ويجب أن يكون النص بتنسيق افقي. اجعل تنسيق النص بسيطاً قدر الإمكان. ستم إزالة معظم رموز التنسيق واستبدالها عند معالجة المقالة. وعلى وجه الخصوص، لا تستعمل خيارات برنامج الورد لتبرير النص أو لوصل الكلمات. ومع ذلك، يستعمل وجهاً عريضاً ومائلاً وخطوطاً منخفضة ومرتفعات وما إلى ذلك. عند إعداد الجداول، إذا كنت تستعمل شبكة جدول، فاستعمل شبكة واحدة فقط لكل جدول فردي وليس شبكة لكل صف. إذا لم يتم استعمال شبكة، فاستعمل علامات الجدولة، وليس المسافات، لمحاذاة الأعمدة. ويجب إعداد النص الإلكتروني بطريقة تشبه إلى حد بعيد المخطوطات التقليدية.

الملاحق

يجب إعطاء الصيغ والمعادلات في B، A الخ إذا كان هناك أكثر من ملحق واحد، فيجب تحديدها على أنها (أ 1)، مكافئ. (أ 2)، وما إلى ذلك؛ في ملحق لاحق، مكافئ. (ب 1) وهكذا. وبالمثل Eq. :الملاحق ترقيماً منفصلاً بالنسبة للجداول والأشكال: الجدول أ-1؛ الشكل أ 1، الخ

معلومات صفحة العنوان الأساسية

العنوان: موجز وغني بالمعلومات. غالباً ما تستعمل العنوانات في أنظمة استرجاع المعلومات. وتجنب الاختصارات والصيغ قدر الإمكان.

أسماء المؤلفين وعناوين انتسابهم الوظيفي: يرجى الإشارة بوضوح إلى الاسم (الأسماء) المحدد واسم (أسماء) العائلة لكل مؤلف والتأكد من دقة كتابة الأسماء جميعها. ويمكنك إضافة اسمك بين قوسين في البرنامج النصي الخاص بك.

قدم عناوين انتساب المؤلفين (حيث تم العمل الفعلي) أسفل الأسماء: حدد الانتماءات جميعها بحرف مرتفع صغير مباشرة بعد اسم المؤلف وأمام العنوان المناسب. أدخل العنوان البريدي الكامل لكل جهة انتساب، بما في ذلك اسم الدولة وعنوان البريد الإلكتروني لكل مؤلف، إذا كان متاحاً.

المؤلف المراسل: حدد بوضوح من سيتعامل مع المراسلات في جميع مراحل التحكيم والنشر، وأيضاً بعد النشر. تتضمن هذه المسؤولية الإجابة على أي استفسارات مستقبلية حول المنهجية والمواد. تأكد من تقديم عنوان البريد الإلكتروني وأن تفاصيل الاتصال يتم تحديثها من قبل المؤلف المقابل.

عنوان الانتساب: تستعمل الأرقام العربية العالية لمثل هذه الحواشي السفلية. مثال، اسم المؤلف¹، اسم المؤلف².

الملخص

الملخص: الملخصات باللغتين العربية والإنجليزية تكون معلوماتها متطابقة في المعنى، عدد الكلمات في كل ملخص (150-250) كلمة. كما يجب التأكد من صياغة اللغة للملخصات بحيث تكون لغة صحيحة ودقيقة مع مراعاة علامات الترقيم الصحيحة في الفقرات؛ لأن ضعف الصياغة اللغوية للملخصات يؤثر على قبول نشر الأبحاث في الموعد المحدد لها.

تنسيق الملخص: (نوع الخط: Simplified Arabic حجم الخط: 12 ومسافة بادئة 1.5 cm ومسافة النهاية: 1.5cm). ويجب أن يحتوي الملخص على (الأهداف، المنهجية، النتائج، الخلاصة)

الكلمات الدالة: كلمة، كلمة، كلمة. (الكلمات الدالة مفصولة بفواصل، الحد الأدنى 3 كلمات، الحد الأقصى 5 كلمات)

الكلمات الدالة (كلمات افتتاحية)
مطلوب مصطلحات أو كلمات رئيسية، بحد أقصى ثماني كلمات مفتاحية تشير إلى المحتويات الخاصة للنشر وليس إلى أساليبها يحتفظ المحرر بالحق في تغيير الكلمات الرئيسية.

طباعة أو لصق عنوان البحث باللغة العربية (تنسيق عنوان البحث - نوع الخط: Simplified Arabic حجم الخط: 14)

متن البحث:

تنسيق العنوان (اللغة العربية نوع الخط: Simplified Arabic حجم الخط: 12). (اللغة الإنجليزية نوع الخط: Times New Roman حجم الخط: 12).

تنسيق الفقرة: استعمل هذا التنسيق لطباعة الفقرات داخل العناوانات. توثيق المرجع آخر الفقرة (بالاسم الأخير للمؤلف، السنة) توثيق مرجع لغة إنجليزية (Last Name, Year). (اللغة العربية: نوع الخط: Simplified Arabic وحجم الخط: 12). (اللغة الإنجليزية نوع الخط: Times New Roman وحجم الخط: 10 ومسافة بادئة 0.5 للفقرة).

الرسوم التوضيحية

- نقاط عامة

تأكد من استعمال حروف وأحجام موحدة لعملك في الرسوم التوضيحية.

قم بتضمين الخطوط المستعملة إذا كان التطبيق يوفر هذا الخيار.

استهدف الخطوط الآتية في الرسوم التوضيحية: Arial أو Courier أو Times New Roman أو Symbol أو استعمال الخطوط التي تبدو متشابهة.

قم بترقيم الرسوم التوضيحية وفقاً لتسلسلها في النص.

استعمال اصطلاح تسمية منطقي لملفات الرسوم التوضيحية.

قدم تعليقاً على الرسوم التوضيحية بشكل منفصل.
حدد حجم الرسوم التوضيحية بالقرب من الأبعاد المطلوبة للإصدار المنشور.
أرسل كل رسم توضيحي كملف منفصل.

الصور الفوتوغرافية الملونة أو الرمادية (الألوان النصفية)، احتفظ بها بحد أدنى 300 نقطة في البوصة.
رسومات خطية نقطية (بيكسل أبيض وأسود خالص) (TIFF أو JPEG)، احتفظ بحد أدنى 1000 نقطة في البوصة. تركيبة خط
نقطي / نصف نغمة (ألوان أو تدرج رمادي) (TIFF أو JPEG)، احتفظ بحد أدنى 500 نقطة في البوصة.
الرجاء تجنب ما يأتي :

ملفات الإمداد (مثل GIF و BMP و PICT و WPG) تحتوي هذه عادةً على عدد قليل من البكسل ومجموعة محدودة من الألوان ؛

توفير الملفات منخفضة الدقة للغاية ؛
إرسال رسومات كبيرة بشكل غير متناسب مع المحتوى
- الشكل التوضيحي

تأكد من أن كل رسم توضيحي يحتوي على تعليق. والتعليقات منفصلة عن بعضها ولا تتعلق بشكل واحد فقط. يجب أن يشمل التعليق
على عنوان موجز (وليس على الشكل نفسه) ويكون وصفاً للرسم التوضيحي. احتفظ بالنص في الرسوم التوضيحية بحد أدنى ولكن
أشرح جميع الرموز والاختصارات المستعملة.

- الرسوم التوضيحية

حدد حجم الرسوم التوضيحية وفقاً لمواصفات المجلة الخاصة بعرض الأعمدة. يتم تقليل الأشكال بشكل عام إلى عرض عمود واحد
(8.8 سم) أو أصغر. أرسل كل رسم توضيحي بالحجم النهائي الذي تريد أن يظهر به في المجلة. • يجب أن يحضر كل رسم توضيحي
للاستنساخ 100%. • تجنب تقديم الرسوم التوضيحية التي تحتوي على محاور صغيرة ذات تسميات كبيرة الحجم. • تأكد من أن
أوزان الخط ستكون 0.5 نقطة أو أكثر في الحجم النهائي المنشور. سوف تتراكم أوزان الخط التي تقل عن 0.5 نقطة بشكل سيئ.

- الجداول

يجب أن تحمل الجداول أرقاماً متتالية. الرجاء إضافة العنوانات مباشرة فوق الجداول

الاستشهاد المصادر

برنامج إدارة المراجع

استعمال ملحقات الاقتباس من أنماط المنتجات، مثل: Endnote plugin أو Mendeley

قائمة المصادر والمراجع

ملاحظة مهمة: قائمة المراجع في نهاية البحث مرتبة ترتيباً هجائياً، وإذا استعمل الباحث مصادر باللغة العربية وأخرى باللغة
الإنجليزية فيجب أن تُرفق في نهايته قائمتان بالمراجع باللغتين العربية ثم الإنجليزية وفي حال عدم توفر مراجع باللغة الإنجليزية
تترجم المراجع العربية وتضاف في نهاية البحث.

المجلة تعتمد نظام ال APA في التوثيق. دليل المؤلف يوضح آلية التوثيق في نظام ال APA (اللغة العربية: نوع الخط Simplified Arabic حجم الخط: 10.5)

أمثلة:

الكتب:

الأسد، ن. (1955). مصادر الشعر الجاهلي. (ط1). مصر: دار المعارف.

مقالة أو فصل في كتاب:

الخلف، ع. (1998). الجفاف وأبعاده البيئية في منطقة الرياض. في منطقة الرياض دراسة تاريخية وجغرافية واجتماعية، (ص 174-278). الرياض: إمارة منطقة الرياض.

توثيق المجلة

مشاقبة، أ. (2011). الإصلاح السياسي المعنى والمفهوم. مجلة الدبلوماسية الأردنية، 2 (2)، 24-33.

ورقة علمية من مؤتمر:

مزريق، ع. (2011). دور التعليم العالي والبحث العلمي في تحقيق تنمية اقتصادية واجتماعية مستدامة. المؤتمر العربي الأول الرؤية المستقبلية للنهوض بالبحث العلمي في الوطن العربي، 2011- آذار، جامعة اليرموك، إربد.

الرسائل الجامعية:

السبتين، أ. (2014). المشكلات السلوكية السائدة لدى طفل الروضة في محافظة الكرك من وجهة نظر المعلمات، رسالة ماجستير غير منشورة، جامعة مؤتة، الأردن.

يجب كتابة المراجع بالشكل الآتية:

1. يكتب مع مؤلف واحد

تضمن (إن وجد): الاسم الأخير للمؤلفين والاسم الأول؛ سنة النشر؛ لقب؛ طبعة (إن لم تكن الأولى)؛ مكان النشر والناشر. أمثلة

نيوت. ار. ١٩٨٨. اللافتاريات: دراسة استقصائية للحفظ النوعي. نيويورك. مطبعة جامعة أكسفورد.

بيناك، ار. دبلو. ١٩٧١. لافقاريات المياه العذبة في الولايات المتحدة. الطبعة الثانية. نيويورك. جون ولي وسونس.

2. كتب مع مؤلفين أو أكثر

ويلستر، ار.ال. و ولفروم، ام، ال. ١٩٦٢. طرق في كيمياء الكربوهيدرات. نيويورك ولندن. الصحافة الأكاديمية.

بونابيو، اي. دوريكو، ام. و ثراولاز، جي. ١٩٩٩. ذكاء السرب: من النظم الطبيعية إلى الاصطناعية. نيويورك. مطبعة جامعة أكسفورد.

3. الكتب الإلكترونية

يجب تقديم نفس المعلومات بالنسبة للكتب المطبوعة، انظر الأمثلة أعلاه. بالنسبة للكتب التي تمت قراءتها أو تنزيلها من موقع مكتبة أو مواقع لبيع الكتب، يجب إضافة المعلومات التي تفيد بأنه كتاب إلكتروني في نهاية المرجع. مثال:

بون، ان. كي و كيو، اس. ٢٠١٢. نموذج لهيكل المعادلة. نيويورك: مطبعة جامعة أكسفورد. الكتاب الإلكتروني.

تتوفر أحياناً بعض الكتب التي انتهت صلاحية حقوق النشر الخاصة بها مجاناً على الإنترنت (وهي في الملك العام). في هذه الحالات ، يجب عليك إضافة عنوان URL الكامل (http: //) (أو الرابط الذي قدمه الناشر وتاريخ وصولك ، تاريخ تنزيل / قراءة الكتاب.

4. فصول الكتاب

تضمنين (إن وجد): الاسم (الأسماء) الأخير والاسم (الأسماء) الأول لمؤلف (مؤلفي) فصل الكتاب. سنة النشر. عنوان فصل من الكتاب. في الاسم الأول والعائلة للمحررين والمحرر (المحررون) بين قوسين. عنوان الكتاب. الطبعة (إن لم يكن 1: ش). مكان النشر: الناشر ، أرقام صفحات الفصل.

مثال:

مرتس، جي. اي. ١٩٩٣. الكلوروكربونات وكلورو هيدروكربونات. في: كروسجويتز و هو-كرانت ام (دس)، موسوعة التكنولوجيا الكيميائية. نيويورك. جون ولي و سونس، ٤٠-٥٠.

5. مقالات المجلات

تضمنين (إن وجد): اسم العائلة والحرف الأول من الاسم (الأسماء) الأول للمؤلف (المؤلفين). سنة النشر. عنوان المقال. اسم المجلة المجلد (العدد): أرقام صفحات المقالة. مثال:

شاشانك شارما، رافي شارما. ٢٠١٥. دراسة عن الخصائص البصرية للبلورات النانوية بالمغنيسيوم المشبع بالزنك، كثافة العمليات. علوم. جي. ٢ (١) ١٢٠-١٣٠.
6. مقالات المجلات الإلكترونية

تم تضمين نفس المعلومات لمقالات المجلات (انظر المثال أعلاه) ورقم DOI. DOI

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داس، جي. و اجاريا، بي. سي. ٢٠٠٣. الهيدرولوجيا وتقييم جودة المياه في مدينة كوتاك ، الهند. تلوث الماء والهواء والترربة، ١٥٠: ١٦٣-١٧٥. دوى: ١٠. ١٠٢٣. ١ / ١٠٢٣. ١٠٢٦١٩٣٥١٤٨٧٥.

7. الرسائل الجامعية والأطروحات .

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علي ، س.م. ٢٠١٢. التقييم الهيدرولوجي البيئي لمنطقة بغداد. أطروحة دكتوراه. قسم الجيولوجيا، كلية العلوم، جامعة بغداد، العراق.

8. أوراق وقائع المؤتمرات والندوات

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ميشرا ار. ١٩٧٢. دراسة مقارنة لصافي الإنتاجية الأولية للغابات الجافة النفضية والمراعي في فاراناسي. ندوة حول البيئة الاستوائية مع التركيز على الإنتاج العضوي. معهد البيئة الاستوائية، جامعة جورجيا: ٢٧٨-٢٩٣.

ملاحظة مهمة : يجب ترجمة المصادر والمراجع إلى اللغة الإنكليزية .

المحتويات

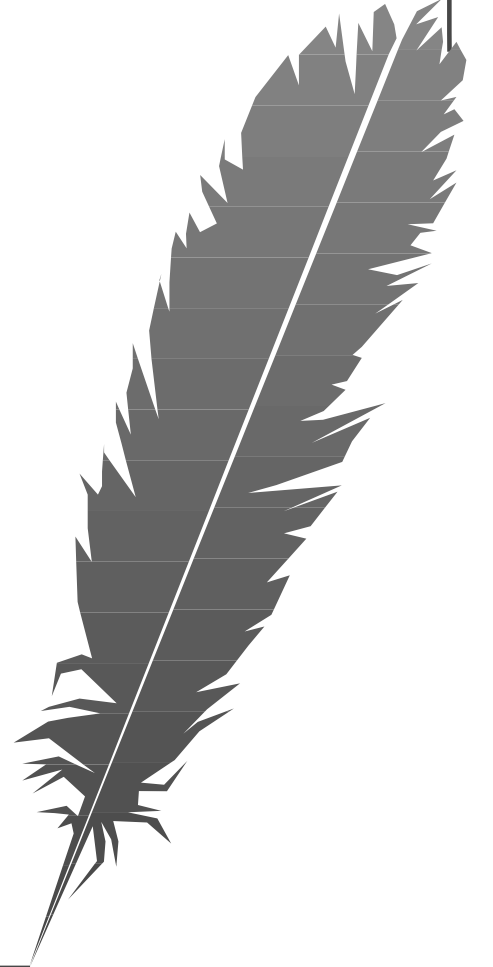
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بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

كلمة هيئة التحرير:

في رحاب اللغات والآداب تتجلى أعمق صور الوعي الإنساني؛ فهي الوعاء الذي يحفظ ذاكرة الشعوب، والجسر الذي تعبر عليه المعارف، والمرآة التي تنعكس فيها التجارب الحضارية والفكرية. ولأن اللغة ليست أداة تواصل فحسب، بل فضاءً لتوليد المعنى وصوغ الهوية، فإن دراستها والبحث في آدابها يظلّ فعلاً نقدياً خلاقاً يتجاوز حدود الزمان والمكان. من هذا المنطلق، تسعى مجلّتنا لأن تكون فضاءً رحباً للباحثين، يلتقون فيه عند تخوم اللغة وسحر الأدب، ويتحاورون عبر مقاربات نقدية ومناهج متجددة، بغية إثراء المشهد العلمي وتوسيع أفق الدرس اللغوي والأدبي معاً. وإذ نضع بين أيديكم هذا العدد، فإننا نطمح أن يكون إضافةً نوعية تسهم في ترسيخ مكانة الدراسات اللغوية والأدبية، وتفتح آفاقاً للبحث الجاد، وتؤكد أن رسالة الجامعة والفكر الأصيل إنما تكمن في الجمع بين الأصالة والتجديد، بين العمق العلمي وثراء الإبداع.

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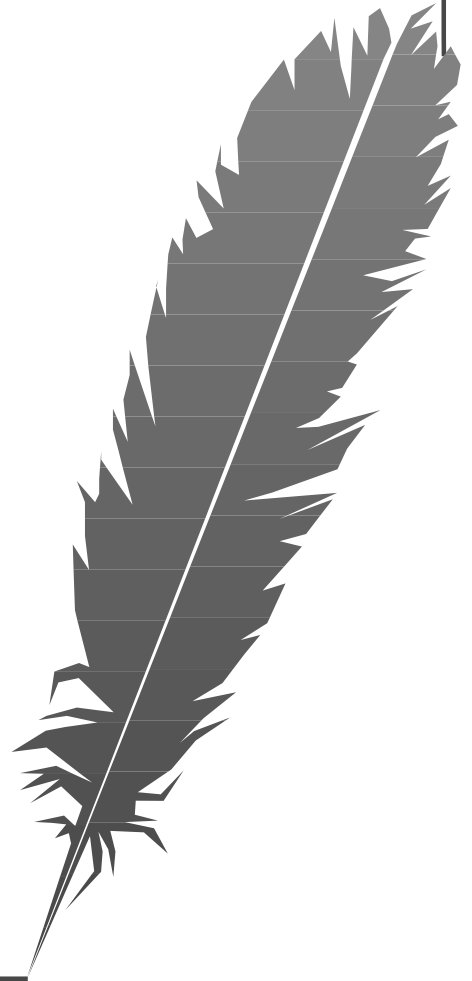
Mishra R. 1972. A comparative study of net primary productivity of dry deciduous forest and grassland of Varanasi. Symposium on tropical ecology with emphasis on organic production. Institute of Tropical Ecology, University of Georgia: 278-293.

In the name of God, the most gracious, the most merciful

Editorial board word:

Within the realm of languages and literature, the deepest forms of human consciousness are revealed. They are the vessel that preserves the memory of peoples, the bridge across which knowledge is conveyed, and the mirror in which cultural and intellectual experiences are reflected. Because language is not only a tool of communication, but also a space for generating meaning and shaping identity, studying it and researching its literature remains a critical and creative act that transcends the boundaries of time and space. From this standpoint, our journal seeks to be a welcoming space for researchers, where they can meet at the edges of language and the magic of literature, engaging in dialogue through critical approaches and innovative methodologies. This aims to enrich the scholarly landscape and expand the horizons of linguistic and literary studies. As we present this issue to you, we hope it will be a qualitative addition that contributes to consolidating the status of linguistic and literary studies, opens horizons for serious research, and affirms that the mission of the university and authentic thought lies in combining authenticity and innovation, scientific depth and the richness of creativity.

Editor-in-Chief of the magazine



Investigating Iraqi EFL Learners' Production of English Gliding Vowels

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ABSTRACT:

Learning a foreign language includes the development of various linguistic subsystems, involving phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics. This study aims to examine the production of English gliding vowels among Iraqi EFL learners, with a special emphasis on the role of first language (L1) transfer. Gliding vowels, such as diphthongs and triphthongs, present significant phonological challenges for learners whose L1 lacks equivalent structures. Despite the importance of gliding vowels, limited research has investigated how Iraqi learners produce them. To achieve this, thirty Iraqi learners from the University of Anbar, College of Education for Women, English language department were selected to participate in this study. To exclude the potential effects of gender and age factors, all participants were females and ranged in age from 19 to 25. A list of 107 target words with gliding vowels were utilized to evaluate learners' production. The production test was used to identify learners' pronunciation abilities. Overall, the production test findings showed a large proportion of learners struggled to produce English gliding vowels correctly. Results showed that gliding vowels like /ʊə/, /ɪə/, and /aɪə/ were the most difficult to produce, whereas diphthongs like /eɪ/ and /aɪ/ were more accurately produced. This study concludes that L1 has a major role in these difficulties. It recommends explicit articulation instruction to develop EFL pronunciation teaching.

Keywords: English gliding vowels, Speech Production, ProductionTest, Iraqi EFL learners, L1 transfer.

دراسة في نطق متعلمي الإنجليزية لغة أجنبية العراقيين للأصوات الانزلاقية في اللغة الإنجليزية

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قسم اللغة الإنكليزية، كلية التربية للبنات، جامعة الانبار، الرمادي، العراق²

ملخص البحث

تعلم اللغة أجنبية يتضمن تطوير عدد من الأنظمة اللغوية الفرعية مختلفة، بما في ذلك الصوتيات، والصرف، والنحو، والدلالة. تهدف هذه الدراسة إلى فحص إنتاج أصوات العلة المنزقة في اللغة الإنجليزية بين متعلمي اللغة الإنجليزية كلفة أجنبية في العراق، مع التركيز بشكل خاص على دور انتقال اللغة الأم (L1). تُشكل الأصوات المتحركة المنزقة، مثل الثنائي والثلاثي الصوتي، تحديات صوتية كبيرة للمتعلمين الذين تفتقر لغتهم الأم إلى هياكل صوتية مماثلة. وعلى الرغم من أهمية الأصوات المتحركة المنزقة، إلا أن

الأبحاث حول كيفية إنتاج المتعلمين العراقيين لها ما زالت محدودة. لتحقيق هذا الهدف، تم اختيار ثلاثين متعلماً عراقياً من جامعة الأنبار، كلية التربية للبنات، قسم اللغة الإنجليزية. لاستبعاد التأثيرات المحتملة لعوامل الجنس والعمر، كانت جميع المشاركات من الإناث وتراوح أعمارهن بين 19 و25 عاماً. تم استخدام قائمة من 107 كلمات مستهدفة تحتوي على أصوات علة منزلة لتقييم إنتاج المتعلمين. تم استخدام اختبار الإنتاج لتحديد قدرات المتعلمين في النطق. بشكل عام، أظهرت نتائج اختبار الإنتاج أن نسبة كبيرة من المتعلمين واجهوا صعوبة في إنتاج أصوات العلة المنزلة في اللغة الإنجليزية بشكل صحيح. أظهرت النتائج أن الأصوات المتحركة المنزلة مثل /uə/، /Iə/، و /aIə/ كانت الأكثر صعوبة في الإنتاج، في حين أن الثنائيات الصوتية مثل /eI/ و /aI/ كانت تُنتج بدقة أكبر. تستنتج هذه الدراسة إلى أن اللغة الأم (L1) تلعب دوراً رئيسياً في هذه الصعوبات، وتوصي بتقديم تعليم صريح ومباشر لطريقة نطق هذه الأصوات ضمن برامج تدريس النطق في اللغة الإنجليزية كلفة أجنبية.

كلمات مفتاحية: الأصوات الانزلاقية في اللغة الإنجليزية، نطق الكلام، اختبار النطق، المتعلمين العراقيين للغة الإنجليزية كلفة أجنبية، تأثير اللغة الأم.

Introduction

Learning a foreign language includes the development of various linguistic subsystems, involving phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics. Theories of language acquisition vary in emphasis, whether it be innate structures or environmental input (Skinner, 1938; Chomsky, 1995). However, they agree on the importance of exposure and practice. Among these subsystems, pronunciation is often considered one of the most difficult aspects for learners. It is often considered as a marker of both linguistic identity and linguistic competence, particularly where the quality and quantity of linguistic input serve as a crucial factor in second language acquisition (Hart & Risley, 1995; Jenkins, 2000, 2002; Weisleder & Fernald, 2013).

Acquiring vowel sounds in a second language is one of the key challenges for L2 learners due to cross-linguistic differences in phonetic and phonological systems. L2 vowel acquisition involves the process of learning to produce, and categorize vowel sounds that may not exist in a learner's first language (L1). This challenge can be understood through several theoretical frameworks, such as the Speech Learning Model (SLM) by Flege (1995) and the Perceptual Assimilation Model (PAM) by Best (1995).

English is taught as a foreign language in Iraq and is considered essential for academic and professional advancement. However, Iraqi EFL learners commonly have difficulty with intelligible pronunciation, especially in vowel systems (Al-Abdely & Thai, 2016). Arabic and English are significantly different in vowel inventory, particularly regarding gliding vowels such as diphthongs and triphthongs, which need spectral movement that Arabic vowels generally lack (Salheen, 2024). As a result, Iraqi learners often substitute English diphthongs with L1 monophthongs or produce altered versions.

Among Iraqi learners of English as a Foreign Language (EFL), gliding vowels often present significant pronunciation challenges due to differences between English and Arabic phonetic systems. These vowels require a smooth transition from one vocalic position to another, a feature that is not prevalent in the Arabic language phonetic inventory (Al-Ani, 1970). Similarly, Aljomaely (2018) finds that Iraqi learners of English language often struggle with the pronunciation of diphthongs, leading to intelligibility issues in communication. These challenges may result in mispronunciations or substitutions that affect intelligibility and communication. Consequently, learners may struggle with the accurate production of these sounds, leading to mispronunciations that hinder effective communication.

Literature Review

SPEECH PRODUCTION THEORIES

1. Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH)

The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) is a linguistic theory developed in the mid-20th century. It focuses on carefully comparing two languages in order to foresee the challenges that language learners may experience. It was first proposed by Charles Fries and further modified by Robert Lado in *Linguistics Across Cultures* (1957). Its basic assumption is that similarities between the native language (L1) and the target language (TL) facilitate learning, while differences lead to difficulties (Lado, 1957).

Differences between L1 and L2 can lead to errors, as learners tend to apply their native language rules inappropriately to the target language. This is referred to as negative transfer (Lado, 1957). CAH was originally designed to predict learner errors by detecting cross-linguistic differences. This function was intended to inform language instruction practices (Ellis, 1994). According to Dulay and Burt (1974), L1 interference is not the cause of all errors. For example, learners make universal or developmental errors unrelated to their native language.

The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) has changed over time, with numerous versions reflecting shifting perspectives on the acquisition of second languages. The original version was offered by Lado (1957), who claimed that learners' errors may be predicted by comparing their first language (L1) to the target language (L2). Later, a strong version of CAH was developed in the 1960s, implying that most errors could be predicted purely through contrastive analysis. However, Wardhaugh (1970) updated this perspective, introducing the weak version, stating that contrastive analysis might explain errors but not necessarily anticipate them in advance.

Versions of CAH:

1. Strong Version

This version indicates that all difficulties in L2 learning can be predicted only by identifying linguistic differences. This version has been challenged for presenting an overly simplistic view of language acquisition. (Wardhaugh, 1970).

2. Weak Version

This version emphasizes clarifying errors after they occur using contrastive analysis to determine the effect of L1 on L2 learning. This version recognizes the complexity of error patterns (Wardhaugh, 1970).

CAH assumes that a logical comparison of L1-L2 differences and similarities can aid in identifying L2 pronunciation problems. As a result of the comparison's findings, effective teaching ways and materials can be produced (Brown & Ranshaw, 2000; Ellis, 1994).

Although the strong version of CAH has been largely discredited, the weak version remains useful in error analysis and interlanguage studies. Cross-linguistic influence is still a significant area in second language acquisition research, but it is now studied within broader frameworks such as Universal Grammar and cognitive approaches (Gass & Selinker, 2008).

The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis will not be used in this study because it does not sufficiently clarify the perceptual and developmental characteristics of the gliding vowels under investigation.

2. Speech Learning Model (SLM)

The Speech Learning Model (SLM), developed by Flege (1995), is a theoretical framework that seeks to explain how second language (L2) learners acquire the phonetic system of a

new language. It primarily focuses on the interaction between the phonetic systems of a speaker's first language (L1) and their L2. According to the SLM, L2 learners perceive L2 sounds based on their L1 phonetic categories, which can lead to difficulties in acquiring native-like pronunciation if the L1 and L2 sounds are perceived as identical or highly similar (Flege, 1995).

Flege developed (SLM) to explain age-related factors on learners' ability to pronounce L2 sounds in a native-like manner. Since SLM focuses on the ultimate goal of L2 pronunciation, studies within SLM typically focus on learners who have been exposed to the L2 and may have been speaking it for years. Because of the extensive and intense exposure to the L1, learners' speech perception is attuned to the contrastive phonetic elements of their L1, which means that these learners may not be able to distinguish phonetic differences between L2 sound pairs or between L2 and L1 sounds. While SLM does not strictly adhere to the idea of a "critical period," it recognizes that age impacts L2 speech learning, with younger learners often achieving greater phonetic accuracy (Lenneberg, 1967). Learners may equate similar L1 and L2 sounds, leading to difficulties in mastering L2 phonetics. For example, English learners of Spanish may struggle with differentiating [b] and [v] (Flege & MacKay, 2004).

According to Flege (1987), L1 speakers are able to recognize invariant phonetic categories in the presence of sensory variability through a cognitive mechanism known as equivalence classification, which will impact L2 learning. This process hinders nativelike perception and production by preventing L2 learners from differentiating the subtle acoustic variations between comparable L1 and L2 sounds.

Studies have supported SLM by demonstrating how bilingual speakers tend to merge phonetic categories of both languages (MacKay et al., 2001). Moreover, the model highlights that L2 phonetic learning is a lifelong process, implying that adults, despite age-related declines in language acquisition, can still improve their pronunciation with proper training and exposure (Bohn & Munro, 2007).

This model will be used to interpret the results because it explains how new phonetic categories emerge over time during second language acquisition and is consistent with the participants' pronunciation patterns.

Gliding Vowels in Iraqi Arabic and RP English

Any basic description of Arabic vowels is likely to begin with the well-known vowel 'triangle' of the major vowels, as coined by Gairdner (1925), a pioneer of contemporary Arabic phonetics and the first to position the Arabic vowels on the Cardinal Vowel Diagram. This represented the physical positions described by mediaeval Arabic philologists such as Sibawayh, the pen name of Abu Bishr Amr b. Uthman b. Qanbar (d. late 8th century) and Ibn Jinni (10th century), as both descriptions are perception-based and strongly tied to tongue locations.

According to Ramelan (1999), diphthongs are sounds that are created when two vowels are combined into a single syllable, or when a deliberate glide is made from one vowel position to another. Many languages use the diphthong sounds, and each language has its own unique way of pronouncing these sounds. For instance, the English language contains three diphthongs: cow (/kaʊ/), light (/laɪt/), and boycott (/boɪ.kɒt/) (Yunisrina et al, 2021). The English and Malay diphthongs, such as laut (sea), kait (saw), and kaloi (fish), are comparable.

In contrast, Arabic diphthongs only contain two sounds, such as *dayf* /darf/ (guest) and *qawl* /qawl/ (word), which do not have the /ɔɪ/ sound. According to Abdulrazzaq et al. (2023) and Mustafa (2022), the Arabic vowel sounds are composed of three primary sounds: /a/, /u/, and /i/, as well as two diphthong sounds: /aɪ/ and /aʊ/, which are a combination of /a/ and /y/, as well as /a/ and /w/.

In the past tense, Arabic diphthongs exhibit a range of phonological modifications among its nouns and weak verbs (al-Bahansāwī, 2008, & al-Şaġīr, 2008). Specific guidelines including several features are needed for every change. Some words use a variety of phonological processes, including assimilation, deletion, disintegration, among other things. These procedures vary according to a number of criteria, including segmentations and phonemes (Hale & Charles, 2008). Previous analyses of Arabic diphthongs did not use any phonological theories or principles and were dependent on quotes from ancient scholars (Norlin, 1985; Abdelgadir, 2021 & Mohammed, 2023) (Mashaqba et al., 2021). Thus, this study analyzes the Arabic diphthongs in deficient verbs using a few phonological theories and criteria.

In RP, A diphthong is defined by Ladefoged and Johnson (2011) as a sound that incorporates a shift within a single vowel. According to Kelly (2000), a diphthong is "a combination of vowel sounds." According to Roach (2010), these vowel-like sounds are made up of a glide or movement from one vowel to another. Similar to other phonemes, diphthongs are grouped based on where they are articulated. Because a central vowel known as "schwa" serves as the last point, centering diphthongs are referred to as "centering." Likewise, closing diphthongs are referred to as "closing".

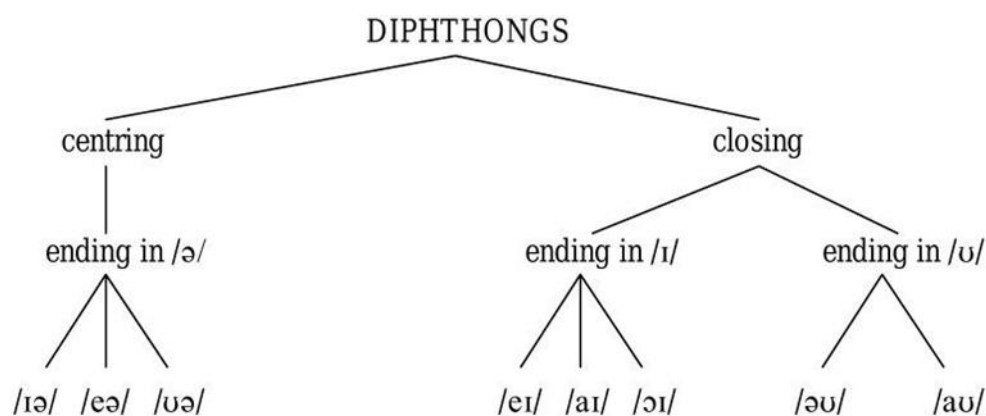
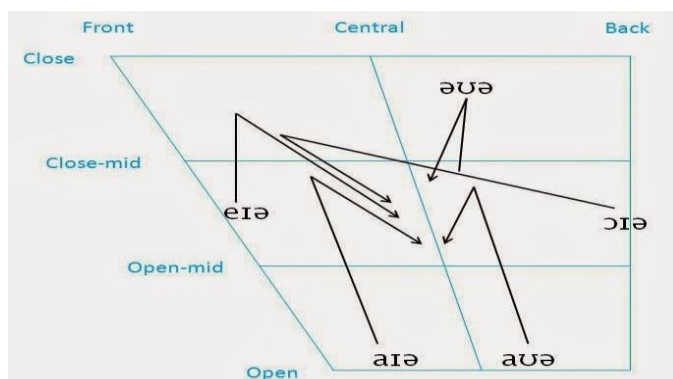


Figure 1: categorization of diphthongs vowel sounds (Roach, 2010)

The most intricate English vowel sounds are triphthongs. They need to smoothly transition from one vowel to another and subsequently to a third (Roach, 2010). RP has five triphthongs, each of which is made up of a final schwa sound and a closing diphthong. It is more probable that triphthongs will be regarded as monosyllabic sounds in terms like *tower* (taʊər) or *power* (paʊər). According to Roach (2010), nouns that contain a suffix, like *player* /pleɪər/ or *lower* /ləʊər/, are more likely to be interpreted as bisyllabic sounds. While some comparative studies have investigated vowel production among Iraqi EFL learners, few have focused on gliding vowels such as diphthongs and triphthongs in relation to Iraqi Arabic. Al-Abdely (2021) and Khalaf & Mohammed (2022) conducted studies on monophthong production and general vowel difficulties but did not go into detail about gliding vowels. This identifies a gap in the literature and emphasizes the need for more context-specific phonetic research in this area.

Chart 1: Triphthong vowel sounds (Adapted from Altaie, 2021)

In this study, "gliding vowels" refers to both diphthongs and triphthongs, vowel sounds that make a smooth transition (or glide) from one vowel quality to another within a single syllable. This usage is consistent with articulatory phonetics and is widely used in English pronunciation lessons (Roach, 2010; Ladefoged & Johnson, 2011).

Previous Studies on the Production of Arab learners of English

Several studies on the production of English vowels among Arab learners have found recurring patterns of difficulty due to L1 interference, limited vowel inventories, and phonetic similarity between native and target sounds. These difficulties are especially evident in the pronunciation of vowels that do not exist in Arabic or are pronounced differently across Arabic dialects. The distinction between L1 and L2 is one of the primary challenges in acquiring pronunciation (Bell, 1995), particularly when L1 is a language that is utilized differently by various speakers. As a result, Arab learners may face some challenges in their attempts to pronounce words correctly in English due to their ignorance of the distinctions between Arabic and English sound structures. According to a study in 1987 done by the California State Department of Education, English vowels are regarded to be the most challenging sounds for students to pronounce. This can be explained phonetically since the phonetic difference between these vowels is typically not enough to correctly identify them.

Ali (2013) sought to provide empirical evidence about several linguistic causes of English production errors made by Sudanese learners. It was expected that the study participants would have trouble pronouncing English vowels in both single words and related real speech. The findings indicated that the majority of the variations were related to the English language's central and back vowels. However, because the English and Arabic long/short vowel distinctions are similar, several English tense-lax vowels did not present any significant issues. Additionally, the production errors found in this study went in different directions, indicating the significant challenges Sudanese English language learners face when acquiring English vowels. According to Ali (2013), L1 interference and Sudanese learners' limited L2 knowledge were the main linguistic causes of these production failures. Because the study focused on production problems, informants were only tested on how well they produced English vowels.

Studies by Hubais and Pillia (2010) and Al-Dilaimy (2012) concentrated on Omani English language learners with the goal of determining the challenges these learners face when producing English. The results showed that while Omani speakers' vowels shared a comparable vowel space with British English vowels, each vowel has unique characteristics. Compared to pairs with length contrast, vowel pairs with quality contrast were less noticeable. Because the vowels produced by Omani speakers were like those produced by

Arabic speakers from other places, the study's findings supported the idea of Arabic-accented English.

Al Abdely, Thai, and Ghani (2016) studied the pronunciation of RPE monophthongs among Iraqi EFL learners. The study examined how L1 interference and L2 experience affect the pronunciation of vowels by Iraqi learners. Data was taken from a production test and rated by specialists. They reported that the vowel /ɒ/ was the most difficult sound followed by /æ/ and /ʌ/. Also, Al-Abdely (2021) examined the production of English low vowels by Iraqi learners and discovered persistent errors that were influenced by both L1 transfer and proficiency level. Khalaf and Mohammed (2022) also found that Iraqi dialectal variation influenced vowel production, particularly in terms of length and quality.

Accuracy in English articulation is highly necessary because, according to Brown (1988), failing to make discrimination between vowels will impact intelligibility and may result in communicative inactivity. According to Saadah (2011), learning a language with a smaller vowel system than English is expected to help with the acquisition of L2 vowels. In contrast, learning a second language with a bigger vowel system would have required learners to deal with more vowels, some of which may include allophones, as well as many variants. L2 vowel acquisition will be more difficult for learners.

Although the reviewed studies have provided useful insights into the pronunciation difficulties encountered by Arab EFL learners, few have translated these findings into practical classroom recommendations. Much of the research has focused on identifying errors rather than proposing specific instructional strategies, particularly for gliding vowels. As a result, the current study aims not only to analyze learners' production patterns but also to inform teaching practices by emphasizing the importance of explicit instruction in the articulation of diphthongs and triphthongs.

Methodology

Research design

The study is quantitative since it evaluates data scientifically and summarizes it in numerical indices using descriptive statistics. However, a theoretical analysis of the data obtained in this study is also performed to account for Iraqi EFL learners' production of English gliding vowels using current speech production models. Since L1 transfer may influence how learners produce second language sounds, the study design controls for this by selecting participants from the same dialect background (Baghdadi Arabic) and by including both familiar and unfamiliar gliding vowels in the test items. This helps explore how prior phonological knowledge affects their ability to produce sounds that are either present or absent in their native language.

Participants

Thirty Iraqi EFL learners who speak Baghdadi Arabic participated in this study. They were all female learners from the University of Anbar, College of Education for Women, English language department. To exclude the potential effects of gender and age factors, all participants were females and ranged in age from 19 to 25. The study's informants were exposed to English in a non-naturalistic environment, a classroom. They were selected due to their familiarity with these sounds, which they had utilized and articulated during their academic experience. Since Arabic language variants are believed to include vowel systems with varying widths and vowels with varying phonetic properties, only Iraqi English language learners were permitted to take part in the study. Only Iraqi Baghdadi speakers

were permitted to take part in the study to prevent any dialectal variance interventions that would compromise the validity of the findings.

Data Collection method

The Production Test

To examine Iraqi EFL learners' performance in producing English gliding vowels, a production test was administered. A list of 107 words used in the production test, which included the 13 English gliding vowels. During the production test, participants were provided with a printed sheet that includes the list of 107 words. Each participant was instructed to read the words aloud clearly and naturally. The recordings took place in the English sound lab at the University of Anbar, College of Education for Women, which is acoustically isolated to ensure high-quality audio capture. Learners were individually recorded using Praat (Boersma & Weenink, 2022, www.praat.org) and all sessions were conducted using laptops and headsets to maintain clarity and consistency. The test was designed to assess learners' ability to accurately produce English gliding vowels in controlled word-level contexts.

Data Analysis method

Production Test Analysis

To analyze the production test data, each gliding vowel's total number of trials was first calculated by multiplying the total number of participants (30 students) by the total number of words representing each vowel. The students' spoken responses were recorded during the test session in the phonetics lab. Their recorded responses were then compared to native-like pronunciation standards; to eliminate bias, three specialist judges were asked to give their judgment on the pronunciation of each word as pronounced by informants. Hence, error rates were calculated and computed in Microsoft Excel that provided the number of accurate and inaccurate productions for each participant

Results and Discussion

Introduction

This section presents and discusses the results of the participants' production of gliding vowels. The primary purpose is to identify which glidings are the most difficult for learners to produce, as indicated by their respective error rates. The study employs a quantitative method, ranking the vowels in a descending order based on their production error rates. Understanding these patterns can help learner improve their pronunciation, particularly in determining which sounds require more specialized training and repetition.

Production Results

1. Difficulty Rank Order for Production

This section represents the production results of Iraqi EFL learners who attempted to pronounce a set of English gliding vowels. The data and tables below provide both the number and percentage of production errors made by participants, allowing us to identify which gliding vowels were the most difficult. The data is examined in two ways: overall production mistakes and ranking difficulties.

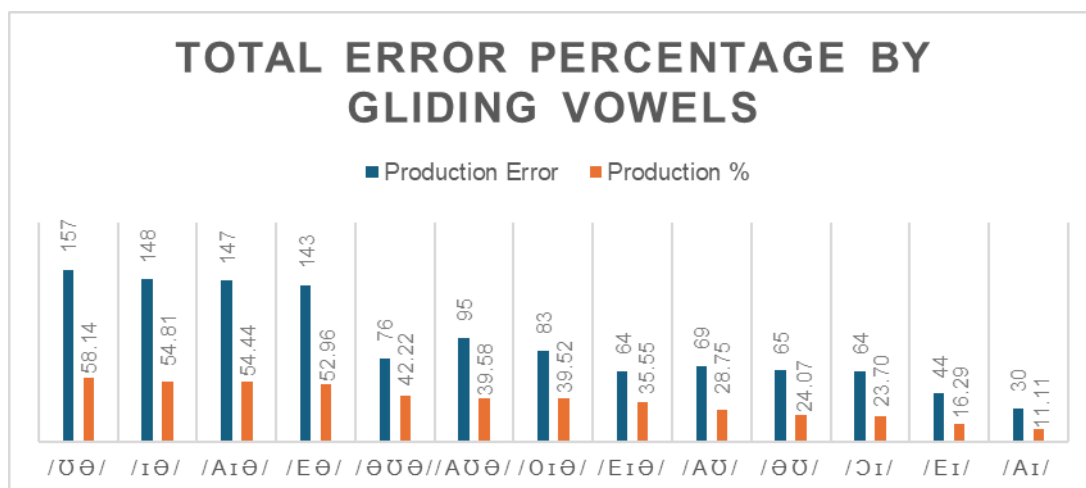


Figure 2: Total error percentage by gliding vowels

Figure 2 depicts the total error percentages in the production of English gliding vowels among Iraqi EFL learners. The sound /ʊə/ had the highest mistake rate, 58.15%, indicating that it was the most difficult vowel for participants to pronounce. This high percentage reflects a considerable difficulty in pronouncing /ʊə/ across the sample. Similarly, /ɪə/ and /aɪə/ followed closely with high error rates of 54.81% and 54.44%, respectively, corroborating the pattern that triphthongs, in general, provide considerable difficulty for Iraqi students. The sound /eə/ had a high mistake rate of 52.96%. In the mid-range, sounds like /əʊə/ (42.22%), /aʊə/ (39.58%), /oɪə/ (39.52%), and /eɪə/ (35.56%) were also quite difficult. While these sounds are slightly easier than top tier triphthongs. Diphthongs /aʊ/ (28.75%), /əʊ/ (24.07%), and /ɔɪ/ (23.70%) showed comparatively lower error rates. Finally, /eɪ/ and /aɪ/ had the lowest error rates, at 16.29% and 11.11%, respectively. This indicates that these sounds are more perceptually accessible and easier to produce for Iraqi learner. Overall, table 1 depicts a rank order and error counts with percentages of production test.

Table 1: Rank order, error counts and error percentages of the production test (No. of trials, 3210)

Vowel	Trials	Production Errors	Error Percentage	Rank
/ʊə/	270	157	58.14815%	1
/ɪə/	270	148	54.81481%	2
/aɪə/	270	147	54.44444%	3
/eə/	270	143	52.96296%	4
/əʊə/	180	76	42.22222%	5
/aʊə/	240	95	39.58333%	6
/oɪə/	210	83	39.52381%	7
/eɪə/	180	64	35.55556%	8
/aʊ/	240	69	28.75%	9
/əʊ/	270	65	24.07407%	10
/ɔɪ/	270	64	23.7037%	11
/eɪ/	270	44	16.2963%	12
/aɪ/	270	30	11.11111%	13

The ranking table above reveals that /ʊə/ was the most difficult, followed by /ɪə/ and /aɪə/. These gliding vowel sounds include slight glides that may be a source of trouble for those who are unfamiliar with such movements. The easiest sound to produce, /aɪ/, was ranked 13th, suggesting its relative familiarity and clear articulation. Despite general trends, individual differences were observed. A few learners showed accurate production of certain diphthongs like /aɪ/ and /eɪ/, indicating higher proficiency or greater exposure to native input. This variability highlights the need for learner-specific instructional support. These findings should be interpreted with caution because the study sample consisted solely of female participants from a specific educational background, limiting the generalizability of the findings to the broader Iraqi EFL learner population. These findings indicate that Iraqi EFL learners consistently struggle with specific gliding vowels. As a result, future instruction could benefit from focused training on problematic diphthongs and triphthongs, particularly the use of minimal pairs and articulatory feedback tools to improve pronunciation accuracy.

DISCUSSION

The results of the production test demonstrate that Iraqi EFL learners experience significant challenges in pronouncing English gliding vowels. These challenges differ between vowel types, implying that the learners' difficulties are not equal but rather dependent on the specific phonetic and phonological characteristics of each vowel. The variation in production accuracy points to a combination of underlying factors that influence learners' performance. One of these is the role of L1 transfer, as many of the English gliding vowels especially triphthongs and centering diphthongs have no direct equivalents in Iraqi Arabic, leading to substitution, simplification, or omission. Furthermore, intralingual factors, such as the complexity of glide transitions, articulatory unfamiliarity, and lack of exposure or practice all contribute to the production difficulties. Together, these interrelated factors help explain the error patterns observed in the production data.

This study's results strongly indicate that Iraqi students' pronunciation of English gliding vowels is significantly influenced by their native language (L1). This L1 influence, also referred to as language transfer, demonstrates how a learner's first language affects their ability to learn and speak a second language (L2). In phonetics and phonology, this often means learners substitute, omit, or mispronounce new sounds due to the sound system they are familiar with in their L1 (Odlin, 1989; Flege, 1995).

Since Iraqi Arabic, which is the first language (L1) of the Iraqi learners, does not have triphthongs, and its diphthongs are phonetically different from English, Iraqi learners often struggle with English gliding vowels like /ʊə/, /ɪə/, or /aɪə/. This is because they prefer to use the pronunciation patterns of their L1 or simplify the sounds. For example, a complex triphthong might become a single vowel sound or be replaced with a sequence of native vowels that are easier for them to pronounce. For example, the triphthong /aɪə/ as found in words like "fire" and "tired" was often simplified or substituted by Iraqi learners. A common example was pronouncing "fire" as "firi" /'firi/ and "tired" as "tird" /tɪrd/, indicating both vowel reduction and restructuring of the syllable to fit more familiar native patterns. These transformations reflect a combination of L1 transfer, where complex glides are absent in Arabic, and intralingual simplification, where learners apply general strategies to make pronunciation easier based on what is already part of their L1 phonological inventory.

The findings of this study are consistent with previous research that has demonstrated the long-term influence of L1 phonological traits on L2 pronunciation. For example, Kharma and Hajjaj (1989) identified four phonological challenges for Arab English learners. Vowels present two areas of difficulty. Mother tongue interference causes certain diphthongs to be

substituted with other sounds, such as /ʊə/ → /u:/, /ɪə/ → /i:/, /əʊ/ → /ɔ:/, and /eə/ → /eɪ/. Almbark (2012) observed that Arabic-speaking English learners typically replace difficult diphthongs and triphthongs with easy monophthongs due to articulatory restrictions imposed by their mother language.

Furthermore, studies by Flege (1995) and Major (2001) have emphasized that L2 learners are more likely to experience greater difficulty when the target sounds are phonetically distant from those in the native inventory. This clearly applies to Iraqi learners' performance on triphthongs such as /ʊə/ and /aɪə/, where both articulatory unfamiliarity and perceptual inaccessibility converge to produce high error rates.

According to Flege's Speech Learning Model (1995), when learners hear a sound in a second language that resembles a sound from their first language but is not the same, they often interpret it as if it were the familiar one. This can result in mispronunciation. In this study, the most frequent errors were identified with the gliding vowel /ʊə/ (58.15%) and /ɪə/ (54.81%), indicating that learners had trouble producing these sounds correctly, most likely because Arabic does not contain equivalent vowel combinations.

According to Best and Tyler (2007), the Perceptual Assimilation Model (PAM-L2) filters learners' capacity to perceive L2 contrasts via the lens of their L1. If the contrast is not clear in native phonology, learners may struggle to differentiate or create sound distinctions accurately. This may explain why informants in this study exhibited more confusion with triphthongs than with diphthongs. Smoother transitions in /aɪ/, with only 11.11% mistake, may have been viewed as more controllable due to relative familiarity and simpler articulatory strain.

The rating of production difficulty corresponds to the L1 transfer hypothesis. As demonstrated by Aziz et al. (2023, 2025), gliding vowels that are structurally distant from learners' L1 like /ʊə/, /ɪə/, and /aɪə/ were the most common errors. Diphthongs such as /aɪ/ and /eɪ/, which may have partial counterparts in Iraqi Arabic or are more commonly encountered in English learning environments, exhibited the lowest error rates.

Vowel transitions in Iraqi Arabic typically occur between syllables rather than within a single syllable, as in English diphthongs and triphthongs. As a result, learners may make glottal stops, pauses, or wrong glides while speaking, indicating a negative transfer (Major, 2001). Beyond phonological principles, insufficient oral input in Iraqi EFL courses has transfer implications. In Iraq, English education usually prioritizes grammar and reading over pronunciation and listening (Mahmood & Ali, 2020), exposing students to very few natural vowel glides. In such cases, L1 transfer is much more evident, as learners resort to familiar native articulations due to a lack of corrective feedback.

1. Difficulty Rank Order Analysis

The gliding vowels are rated from most to least difficult based on production mistake percentages, as shown below. Each vowel is briefly analyzed to emphasize the most likely source of difficulty or ease for Iraqi learners. A logical interpretation is attempted for the error rate recorded for each vowel.

1. /ʊə/ represents 58.15% error percentage. This triphthong was the most challenging for students. It involves a transition from a high back rounded vowel to a schwa, which is not seen in Iraqi Arabic, resulting in articulatory confusion or reduction.
2. /ɪə/ represents 54.81% error percentage. A centralizing transition from a high front vowel to a schwa. The lack of a similar movement in Arabic most likely resulted in misarticulation, either by emphasizing one part or completely removing the glide.

3. /aɪə/ represents 54.44% error percentage. Another triphthong with a complicated transition from an open front vowel to a high front vowel to a schwa. The articulatory stress and unusual sequencing contributed to frequent errors.
4. /eə/ represents 52.96% error percentage. This centering diphthong also proved tough. While shorter than triphthongs, the mid-front to central glide is still absent in Arabic, making it difficult to perceive and pronounce.
5. /əʊə/ shows 42.22% error percentage. A triphthong composed of a central vowel, a rear rounded vowel, and a schwa. The duration and intricacy of the sound most likely surpassed learners' phonetic processing abilities.
6. /aʊə/ shows 39.58% error percentage. It combines an open vowel, a back glide, and a schwa. Though learners may recognize /aʊ/, adding the schwa increases the challenge significantly.
7. /oɪə/ shows 39.52 percent mistake, begins with a rear rounded vowel, progresses to a front vowel, and ends with schwa. This sort of triple vowel motion is most noticeable in L2 settings without L1 counterparts.
8. /eɪə/ represent 35.56% error percentage. The transition from a mid-front vowel to a high front glide, followed by schwa, is a challenge for learners because to the centralization necessary in the last vowel.
9. /aʊ/ -shows 28.75 percent mistake. A common English diphthong without a direct Arabic equivalent. Learners may replace it with monophthongs or shorten the glide due to L1 influence.
10. /əʊ/ represents 24.07% error percentage, starting with a central vowel and progresses to a back-rounded vowel. While tough, its slightly more known trajectory makes it more manageable than triphthongs.
11. /ɔɪ/ shows 23.70% error percentage. Although it is not found in Arabic, this diphthong exists in many commonly used English terms, increasing exposure and, hence improving production.
12. /eɪ/ represents 16.29% error percentage, this glide from mid-front to high front is rather simple and may mirror natural vowel variations in Iraqi Arabic, making it easier to learn and produce.
13. /aɪ/ shows 11.11 percent mistake, The easiest gliding vowel for learners, most likely due to its frequent occurrence in common English words (e.g., I, my, like) and possible phonetic similarity to Arabic diphthong-like patterns.

Conclusions

The current study shows how Iraqi EFL learners produced English gliding vowels and revealed a distinct hierarchy of difficulty that was heavily influenced by the phonological system of their native tongue. The gliding vowels /ʊə/, /ɪə/, and /aɪə/ were the most difficult to produce, while diphthongs /aɪ/ and /eɪ/ were quite easy. These data give substantial support for the hypothesis that negative L1 transfer has a considerable impact on L2 phonological performance. The restricted number of diphthongs and lack of triphthongs in Iraqi Arabic made it difficult for Iraqi learners to articulate complex vowel glides. Overall, the findings emphasize the need of targeted pronunciation training that increases students' phonological awareness and emphasizes on difficult sounds. Therefore, EFL teachers should implement practical strategies to address these production difficulties. For instance, using software such as PRAAT can help learners visualize and understand vowel glides more clearly. Teachers may also incorporate minimal pair drills, repetition-based pronunciation exercises, and corrective feedback during speaking tasks. Including focused activities on triphthongs and complex diphthongs within the curriculum can help Iraqi learners build

articulatory accuracy and overcome the influence of negative L1 transfer. These pedagogical steps can promote a more supportive learning environment for mastering difficult vowel sounds.

Recommendation

1. Teachers should break down complex gliding vowels especially triphthongs into their constituent parts and model them step by step. For instance, /aɪə/ can be practiced as /aɪ/ + /ə/, allowing learners progressively internalize the gliding transition.
2. Incorporating minimal pairs that contrast gliding vowels (e.g., fire vs. far, tire vs. tear) can help learners develop auditory sensitivity to subtle vowel differences and improve their production accuracy through repetition.
3. Visual aids (like vowel charts and articulatory diagrams) and kinesthetic activities (like hand gestures that represent tongue movement) can help learners conceptualize and physically produce glide transitions.
4. While isolated practice is essential, learners should also be had the opportunity to use gliding vowels in context through role plays, reading aloud, and guided conversation, through that pronunciation will be functional, not just mechanical.
5. English teachers can incorporate pronunciation practice into courses to provide students with meaningful opportunity to improve their pronunciation skills.
6. Students can benefit from drilling exercises focused on high-frequency errors to improve their awareness of their mouth, lips, and teeth. Teachers can help learners develop independent skills, such as studying phonetic alphabets and using computer software for pronunciation.

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