

Issues in Accents of English

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Cambridge Scholars Publishing

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This book first published 2008

Cambridge Scholars Publishing

12 Back Chapman Street, Newcastle upon Tyne, NE6 2XX, UK

British Library Cataloguing in Publication Data

A catalogue record for this book is available from the British Library

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ISBN (10): 1-84718-864-8, ISBN (13): 9781847188649

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Preface	vii
<i>Variability in Accents of English: A Non-Native Speaker Perspective</i>	

Part One: Production and Perception

1. Una Cunningham <i>Acoustic Variability in the Production of English Vowels by Native and Non-Native Speakers</i>	1
2. Adrian Leemann <i>Vowel Quality of Swiss EFL Speakers</i>	16
3. Linda Shockey <i>Poles Apart: Polish Students of English Excel in Casual Speech Perception</i>	33
4. Arkadiusz. Rojczyk <i>Cross-Linguistic Priming on Vowel Duration and Delayed Plosion in Polish-English Bilinguals</i>	44
5. Andrzej Porzuczek <i>Stress-Dependent Syllable Duration Variability in Polish Learners' and Native British English Pronunciation</i>	64
6. Monika Zięba-Plebankiewicz <i>Peak Alignment in L2 Intonation</i> . 79	
7. David Levey <i>The Changing Face of Gibraltarian English: TH-fronting on the Rock</i>	91
8. Anna Gralińska-Brawata <i>Speech as a Marker of Social Identity – Geordie English</i>	102

Part Two: Reference Accents

1. Betina Beinhoff <i>Looking for the 'Real' Native Speaker: The Perception of Native and Non-Native English accents by Non-Native Speakers of English</i>	120
2. Rias van den Doel <i>The Blind Spots of Jenkins's Lingua Franca</i> ..	140
3. Erzsébet Balogh <i>Hungarian Student Language Attitudes towards Speakers of Regional American English Accent Varieties</i>	150
4. Włodzimierz Sobkowiak <i>British and American Accents in LDOE4CD-ROM Pronunciation Search</i>	169
5. Irina Sklema-Litwin <i>Unreduced Vowels and Non-Primary Stress in British and American English</i>	181
6. Tomasz Ciszewski <i>The Stem-Suffix conflict? The Sources of Variability of Stress Patterns in –ate Formations</i>	195

Part Three: Pronunciation Teaching

1. Jolanta Szpyra-Kozłowska *English Pronunciation Pedagogy in Poland - Achievements, Failures and Future Prospects* 212
2. Galina Vishnevskaya *Foreign Accent: Phonetic and Communication Hazards*..... 235
3. Alice Henderson *Short Course Focus on Intelligibility: What Type of Progress is Possible?* 252
4. Marta Nowacka *How far is 'Hanover' from 'Hangover'? Misperception of Polish Ear*..... 272
5. Mirosław. Pawlak *Another Look at the Use of Pronunciation Learning Strategies: An Advanced Learner's Perspective* 304
6. Iwona Czyżak, Sławomir. Stasiak, Jolanta Szpyra-Kozłowska *English Pronunciation Clinic – the Case of Low Phonetic Achievers*..... 323
7. Agnieszka Bryła *English in NATO – NATO English?* 346

PREFACE

VARIABILITY IN ACCENTS OF ENGLISH: A NON-NATIVE SPEAKER PERSPECTIVE

EWA WANIEK-KLIMCZAK

Accents of English have been investigated for many years now both from the perspective of native and non-native speakers of the language. When a non-native speaker perspective is adopted, the most typical generalization used is that of a foreign accent as distinct from a native one, with the native accent mostly defined in terms of the so-called reference accents, i.e. standard English English (Received Pronunciation) or General American. Foreign accent studies have a long tradition of focusing on the distance between individual features of pronunciation in native and non-native speech in defining the degree of accentedness of speech. More recent tendencies to revise, or indeed abandon the traditional native-speaker accent in pronunciation teaching have provoked a heated debate as to the role of the model in English speech pedagogy, placing the issue of accent in the foreground of applied phonetic discussion. However, while the role of the model and pedagogical issues will be taken up in this book, its main focus is not on differences, but similarities caused by the central feature of accents: variability.

An element of natural languages, variability characterizes both native and non-native speech. It is found in reference, standard accents; non-standard ones; native, non-native; accents of English as the second, foreign or international language. Taking up variability as the main theme, contributors to this volume investigate different phenomena related to accents. The division of the papers into three main parts corresponds to the difference in the area of application. Part One comprises phonetic studies which analyse variability in accents from the point of view of speech production and perception. This section includes acoustic studies of native and non-native speech, auditory analyses of native accents and a perception study of English casual speech by non-native speakers. The papers apply different methods in the descriptive analysis of actual speech

patterns. In Part Two, the focus shifts away from the investigation of the reality of speech patterns towards the interpretation and use of available sources for description, which lead towards the pedagogical applications discussed in Part Three. Papers in the final section go back to the reality of speech in the sense of analysing individual features of speakers' production and perception, but unlike the papers in the first part, they view accents in a largely prescriptive way, typical for pronunciation instruction.

Different approaches to accent variability presented in this book reflect richness and complexity of the field. Combined, individual chapters investigating accent variability as an instantiation of speech reality, a part of the model accent debate or an element of the teaching and learning process, offer a comprehensive picture of a range of possible ways to study accents. They show that a common core of accent variability can be a stimulating meeting point for specialists in phonetics, phonology, sociolinguistics, applied linguistics and pronunciation teaching.

ACOUSTIC VARIABILITY IN THE PRODUCTION OF ENGLISH VOWELS BY NATIVE AND NON-NATIVE SPEAKERS

UNA CUNNINGHAM

What is the difference between native and non-native speech?

Introduction

The features of non-native speech which distinguish it from native speech are often difficult to pin down. It is possible to be a native speaker of any of a vast number of varieties of English. These varieties each have their phonetic characteristics which allow them to be identified by speakers of the varieties in question and by others. The phonetic differences between the accents represented by these varieties are very great. It is impossible to indicate any particular configuration of vowels in the acoustic vowel space or set of consonant articulations which all native-speaker varieties of English have in common and which non-native speakers do not share. The differences within the group of native speakers are often as large or larger than the differences between native and non-native speakers. And yet many studies have been carried out demonstrating that it is not very difficult to distinguish between native and non-native speech, e.g. the classic work of Brennan and Brennan (1981). Native speakers are generally quite good at “spotting the non-native speaker”, although they can sometimes be misled by particular phonetic features which strongly suggest nativeness (glottaling and Estuaryesque vowel fronting come to mind as candidates here).

Vowel quality and quantity

Differences in vowel quality are a major part of what distinguishes one variety of English from another. Systematic, phonological differences are crucial for the difference between RP and GenAm or Irish English, and

more subtle phonetic differences in vowel quality explain how we can tell GenAm from Canadian, Birmingham from Liverpool, or Ulster Scots from Glasgow or maybe even General Australian from New Zealand English or RP. Wells' (1982) using his set of key words (KIT, etc.) offers a neat summary of vowel differences between many varieties. His system allows the potential contrasts offered by the English language to be easily described and discussed, although not with much phonetic detail.

Vowel quantity is less obviously useful as a way for listeners to distinguish varieties in real time, although there certainly are well-known systematic differences in the temporal relationships found in different varieties. It may well be the case that some accents make extensive linguistic use of vowel length distinctions for phoneme identification (e.g. in *beat-bit*). Others may rely less on temporal relationships and more on vowel quality in such situations. This variation is not well documented as far as I am aware. Certainly this is a potential area where native and non-native pronunciation may differ from each other.

One of the better-documented features of native English pronunciation is the use of vowel length differences as the most salient (to native listeners) cue to post vocalic consonant voicing (e.g. Gimson 1974). The enhancement of fortis clipping for linguistic purposes is an excellent candidate for being overlooked or otherwise misinterpreted by non-native speakers of English. This is a feature of some kinds of non-native accents which gives rise to significant comprehensibility issues, and may well be a useful cue for native listeners' identification of a speaker as non-native.

Consonant articulation and quantity

The exact articulation of consonants is obviously a potentially important factor for the identification of non-native accents. Influences from the L1, on the one hand, and the typological rareness of certain consonant articulations (e.g. [ð, θ]), on the other, may leave the non-native speaker of English with a particular set of consonants which only partly resembles that of any native speaker, regardless of variety. But of course the matter of learner models cannot be disregarded in this respect. Even if the non-native speaker does not aspire to the target of a standard (or indeed non-standard) native variety, they have presumably had a native variety (generally GA or RP) as a model for their production throughout their formal language education. These accents of English have largely the same consonant articulations, phonotactic constraints and consonant quantity conditions. While consonant articulations may seem less salient as identifiers of non-native pronunciation than vowel quality, it has been

shown that they can be give-aways. Flege and Hammond (1982), Flege (1984), showed that 30ms of speech was enough for American English-speaking listeners to distinguish native English from French-accented speech. He found that listeners were particularly sensitive to the noise burst (and presumable formant transitions and presence/absence of aspiration) around the release of initial /t/.

The exact place of consonant articulation is another variable that is not constant for all native speakers, but the standard models do have e.g. alveolar stops where other languages have dental stops, and a lot of freedom for coarticulatory assimilation to take place in the relatively empty velar area, which is certainly not the case for all languages. Similarly, manner of articulation can cause difficulty for some non-native groups, especially in the case of the affricates of English. The exact degree of tongue grooving and place of maximum constriction for /s/, the lip-rounding and colour of the frication of /ʃ/ or the articulation of the notoriously difficult-to-grasp British English /t/ can quite literally be shibboleths.

Phonotactics are one of the most problematic areas for non-native speakers. English is an unusually permissive language in this respect (although Polish does outclass English here, c.f. Jassem 2003). The clusters allowed in citation style speech are extensive, and in casual spontaneous speech there are even more possibilities. Speakers of other languages do not easily free themselves of the phonetic constraints of their L1. An additional effect here is in L1 phonological rules which are often difficult for speakers to consciously access and still less to suppress when speaking English. The phonotactic difficulties of non-native speakers are in many cases a very prominent feature of an accent.

Timing relationships

The relationship between the durational conditions of certain phonetic elements is subject to systematic manipulation. In English, for example, the durations of vowels and of the stops which follow them have an inverse durational relationship. In Swedish this relationship is enhanced and is used linguistically as a salient cue to phoneme identification. Sometimes VC timing relationships are linguistically significant, at other times the result of the application of a phonological rule. In any case, this is an area where different L1s will work differently. Some languages, e.g. Swedish, Italian or Estonian, make heavier use of timing relationships than other languages, such as e.g. Spanish (c.f. McAllister et al. 2002) and it is

reasonable to expect that this will be reflected in the English of speakers of these languages.

In a Swedish study of an impersonator's success in matching the phonetic patterns of the person being imitated it was found that it was a lot easier to accurately trace the formant frequencies and frequency means (Eriksson and Wretling 1997) than the timing pattern (Wretling and Eriksson 1998). They suggest in their 1998 paper that since speech is an "automated motor activity" it is likely that timing patterns in speech are "fairly stable within a speaker". This could suggest that this will be a particularly difficult area for second language learners, which has indeed been found in many studies (for example, Flege 1984, Cunningham 1986, Cunningham-Andersson 1987, 2003). But the non-observance of the timing relationships prescribed in the standard pronunciation models may not be a very salient cue to non-nativeness in the case of English.

Variability

It is sometimes taken for granted that non-native speakers are more variable in their production than native speakers (e.g. Oh et al. 2007, Jongman and Wade 2007). It seems clear that this is the case, for example, in the observance of grammatical gender for English L1 Swedish. Also in, for example, the observation of subject-verb concord in the English of Swedish L1. Sometimes a non-native speaker/writer may get it right, sometimes they may not. These errors are not likely to show up in native speakers' production (at least if they speak and write a standard variety of English) as slips. It is less clear that this will be the case for pronunciation targets. Native speakers also have variable production, particularly if they vacillate between standard and non-standard pronunciations, such as in Trudgill's classic Norwich studies (Trudgill 1974) where he found that almost all his informants had some tokens of [ɪŋ] and some of [ɪn] for the *-ing* suffix. Consider the production of /θ, ð/ as (inter)dental fricatives. Native speakers of standard varieties may almost always have a fricative articulation of these, but in some contexts, due to casual speech phenomena the articulation can be changed. Non-native speakers, on the other hand, may be able to produce these sounds as (inter)dental fricatives when they are able to pay attention to the pronunciation of the speech they are producing, such as in citation form speech with wordlists, but when they are speaking spontaneously there might well be alternative articulations, such as [s, z] or [t, d]. In speech recognition work there appears to be an assumption that non-native speakers are more variable in their articulations than native speakers (e.g. Oh et al. 2007). This

variability, which is presumably an expression of uncertainty and lack of familiarity with target language articulations, may well be a factor which can be used by native listeners to identify non-native speakers, although the occasional non-native pronunciations are probably more salient than the occasional native-like pronunciations.

Accentedness

Non-native speech can be more or less accented. The concept of accentedness can be difficult to pin down. Cunningham-Andersson and Engstrand (1989) found that phonetically naïve listeners were able to estimate global accentedness on a scale in a way that correlates strongly with “expert” phonetic judgement on a variety of parameters. Strong non-native accent will generally interfere with intelligibility. An accent can be perceived as stronger if it has more non-native features, or if the non-native features it has are more pronounced.

Method

Informants

There are four main groups of informants in this study:

- Group one is selected from a longitudinal corpus of ten Swedish students attending an English-medium upper-secondary programme at a Swedish school. The students were sampled in their first and final (sixth) semester. This study uses part of the data from the English material.
- Group two is an embryonic collection of Hiberno-English voices – the beginnings of a corpus of women in South Tyrone. The women whose data are presented here are 17, 70 and 80 years old.
- Group three is a sample of convenience, composed of assorted native speakers (RP, London, GA, California, North and South Hiberno-English) I found in my immediate vicinity at the English Department of Högskolan Dalarna.
- Group four is made up of Vietnamese women (about 20-40 years old), some of whom are university teachers of English and speak English with moderate Vietnamese accents, others who are teachers of other subjects or administrators, and speak English with stronger Vietnamese accents.

Material

The material used in this study was the same for all informants – a text and a word list (see Appendix) containing a selection of the words from the text, chosen with the intention of eliciting tokens of all vowel phonemes in several contexts. The text was read first, and then the word list was read twice by each speaker. During other analyses of parts of the material from Group one (Cunningham 2004) it became clear that the English vowel /u:/ was subject to some variation. In particular a few of the students tended to pronounce this vowel with a raised F_2 (a phenomenon known as fronting) in the context of the word *choose*. Now the reasons for this can be many – the fronting could be conditioned by the context, in particular the palatoalveolar initial consonant. Also this kind of fronting is increasingly heard in young British speakers (noted even by Gimson 1974:120 as “considerable centralization”) and is also a variable with sociolectal significance in a number of American studies discussed by Cheshire (2002). Perhaps these young speakers, who have extremely high integrative motivation, have latched onto this nativeness marker.

Results and discussion

Variability in non-native speech

The formant frequencies of the high vowels in the wordlist were the subject of this study. The words shown in Table 1 were analysed as they occurred in the wordlist.

Table 1 stimulus words with high vowels.

/i:/	/ɪ/	/u:/	/ʊ/
<i>sheep</i>	<i>grin</i>	<i>pool</i>	<i>could</i>
<i>believe</i>	<i>still</i>	<i>school</i>	<i>room</i>
<i>trees</i>	<i>think</i>	<i>through</i>	<i>pull</i>
<i>green</i>	<i>this</i>	<i>choose</i>	<i>would</i>
<i>see</i>	<i>quickly</i>		
<i>feel</i>	<i>ship</i>		
<i>leaves</i>	<i>window</i>		

The formant measurements were made using WaveSurfer at a point of the vowel where formant frequencies were judged to be relatively steady and representative.

Figure 1 shows the high vowels of the speaker we call Sara, one of the Swedish speakers of English in group one at the first recording (when they were 16 years old and at the beginning of their 3-year English-medium programme) as a formant plot with F_1 plotted against F_2 arranged in such a way as to resemble the articulatory vowel quadrilateral. Sara can be seen to have discrete categories for her /i:/, /ɪ/ and /ʊ/ except that her /u:/ spreads out over the part of the vowel space occupied by her /ɪ/ and /ʊ/. Now vowel quality is not the only way open for speakers to distinguish vowels, and it may well be that Sara maintains a clear quantity distinction between /u:/ and /ɪ/ and /ʊ/. Notice the two tokens of /u:/ that are farthest to the front, with a F_2 value above 2000Hz. These are the two tokens of *choose*.

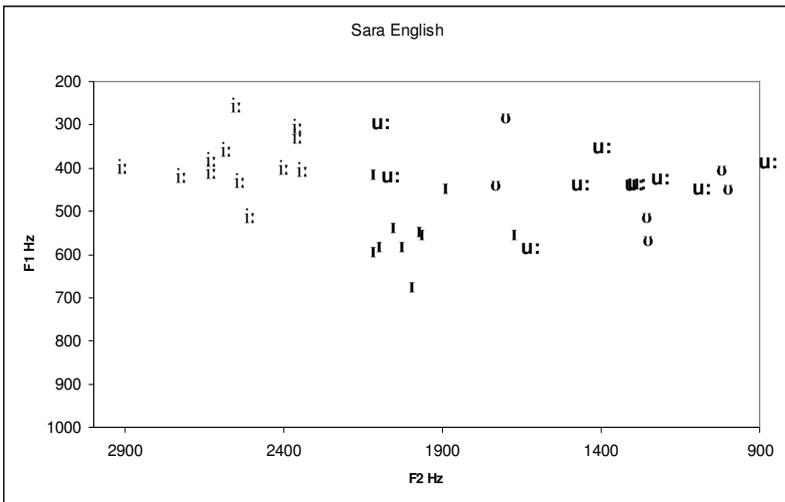


Fig. 1 Sara's high vowels in English

Variability in native speech

Let us examine our notion that non-native speakers are more variable in their pronunciation than native speakers, by comparing the native Swedish speech and the non-native English speech of the same speakers. Jongman and Wade (2007) looked at acoustic variability in vowel quality for native speakers of English and Spanish-L1 speakers uttering the same eight English vowels, and found considerable variability and overlap in the

twice in citation form and in three times a read text by a selection of native speakers (group three above).

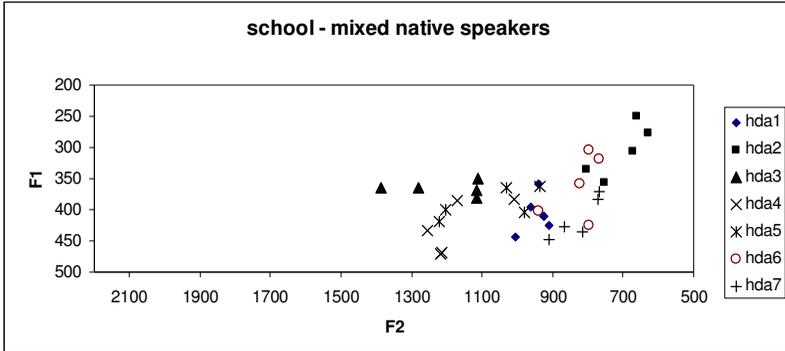


Fig. 3 Native speaker pronunciations of /u:/ in school

The speakers here are different from each other in the acoustic quality of their vowels, but there is not a great deal of within-speaker variation. Interestingly, the geographical varieties represented are quite distinct. HDA1 and HDA6 are female speakers of GenAm, and they have the lowest F₂ after HDA2 who is a male RP speaker. HDA7 (female) from London is also represented. The three speakers with the highest F₂ are HDA5 from Australia, HDA4 from Northern Ireland and HDA3 from the Republic of Ireland (all female).

Compare these native speakers with three speakers from a single accent of English, that of South Tyrone in Northern Ireland, as shown in figure 4 below.

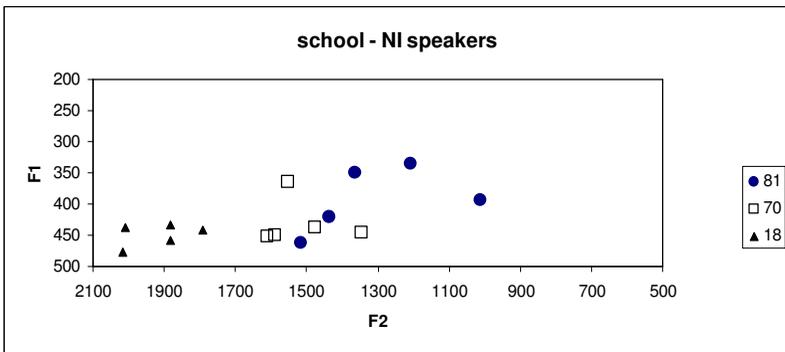


Fig. 4 Northern Hiberno-English women

Notice that the 81-year old speaker shows more variation in the quality of her vowel than the other two speakers. Notice also that the youngest woman, just 18-years old, seems to be most “extreme” in her pronunciation, i.e. her F2 is much higher than any other speaker, perhaps because she has never lived outside the area of rural South Tyrone.

Learner varieties

So, we have perhaps established that some native speakers have quite a lot of within-speaker variability, and the between-speaker variability is considerable. But let us then consider non-native speakers, again in the case of the word *school*, as it occurs three times in the text and twice in citation form in the wordlist.

Figure 5 shows relatively proficient speakers of Vietnamese-accented English (university teachers of English) and Figure 6 shows less proficient speakers (university administrative staff).

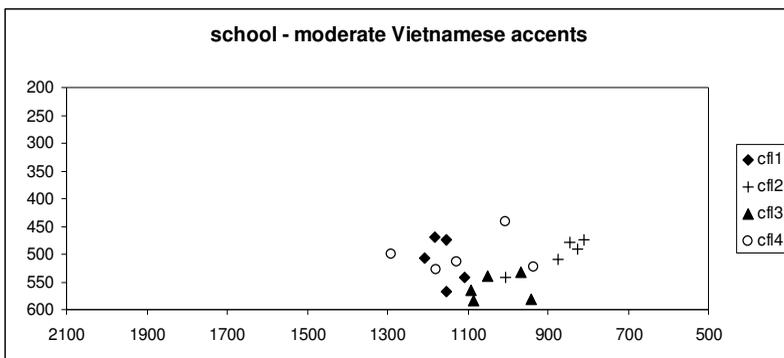


Fig. 5 Moderately Vietnamese-accented English

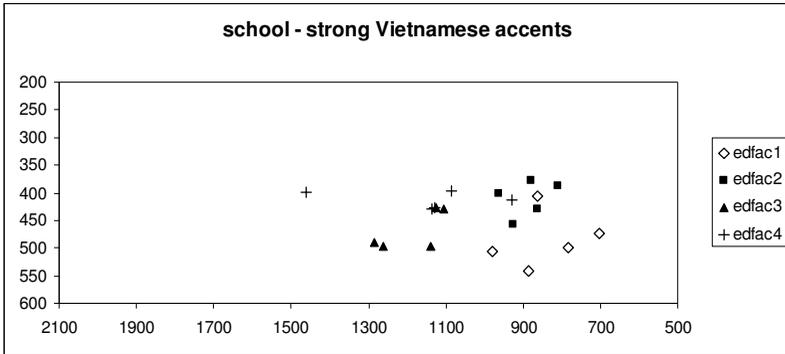


Fig. 6 Strongly Vietnamese-accented English

Now here there does appear to be an effect. The more proficient learners have less within-speaker and less between-speaker variation than the less proficient speakers over the five tokens of the word *school*. But of course there may be other explanations for this kind of difference. We cannot be sure that individual variation is not behind this apparent difference. So let us then see what happens in a single speaker over time. Figure 7 shows the pronunciation of the vowel in *school* was compared in a single speaker from the longitudinal study of the Swedish girls in group one in the first and last of the six-semester (three-year) course.

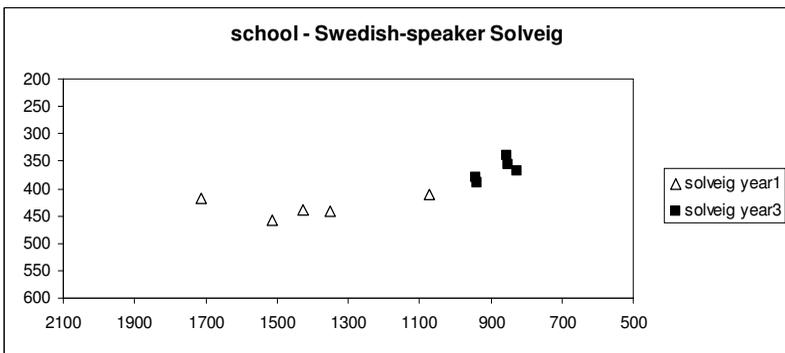


Fig. 7 Solveig: /u:/ in school at the beginning and end of a 3-year English-medium programme

Notice that the speaker we call Solveig has considerably more variable pronunciation at the beginning of her three years of study than at the end. Her /u:/ is very concentrated by year 3 in a area of the acoustic vowel

space towards that occupied by JWH, our RP speaker (F_1 between 250 and 350 Hz and F_2 between 600 and 800 Hz, marked by a circle in Figure 7).

Figure 8 shows the equivalent measurements for Susanna, another speaker in group one.

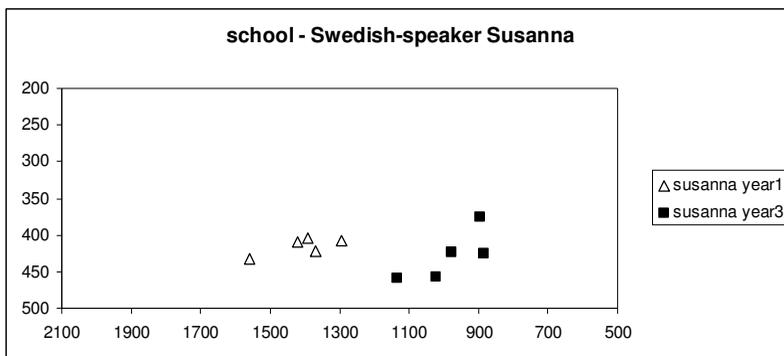


Fig. 8 Susanna: /u:/in school at the beginning and end of a 3-year English-medium programme

Here again we can see that the pronunciation has moved in the direction of RP /u:/, though the year three pronunciation cannot be said to demonstrate less within-speaker variation than the year one pronunciation. As a point of comparison, let us consider if a parallel development is happening in Swedish high back vowels of these speakers. Figure 9 shows Solveig's Swedish pronunciation of the /u:/ in the words *bot* and *bod*, each occurring once in the wordlist and once in the text.

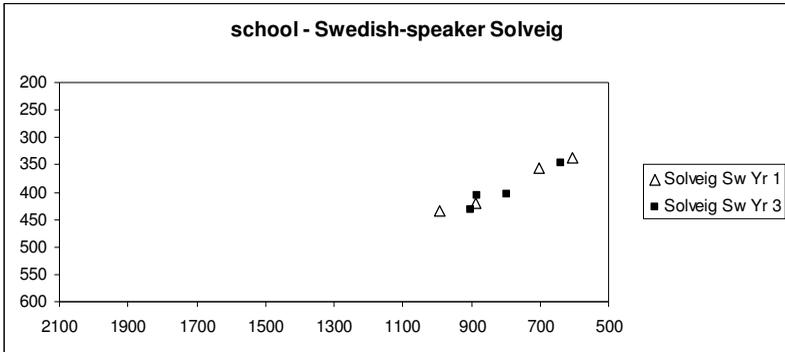


Fig. 9 Solveig: /u:/ in bot and bod at the beginning and end of a 3-year English-medium programme

Clearly, very little has changed in Solveig's Swedish. She still has some variability in her Swedish /u:/, but the acoustic quality of the vowels is still in the same area of the vowel space in year three as it was in year one.

Conclusion

The main conclusion that can be drawn from the results above is that the amount of variability shown by a speaker is very individual. Some native speakers seem to vary a lot in their vowel quality. Perhaps this is due to their being drawn by more than one regional or sociolectal variety. Non-native speakers also seem to be more or less variable, but here we do seem to see an effect of increasing proficiency, in that the more proficient (or perhaps more schooled) Vietnamese and Swedish speakers of English appear to be less variable than the less proficient or less schooled speakers. This is a thread that merits further attention, and obviously a larger set of words.

The status of variability as a potential cue to nativeness or even to non-nativeness is far from clear. The variety of vowel quality demonstrated by those who call themselves native speakers of English is enormous. It is not at this stage possible to draw conclusions on variability, but this is certainly an area of second language speech that will yield interesting results in further work.

Appendix - Stimulus material

Wordlist

sheep because this believe boy choose comfort could ship day pull shut
small still think become grin through trees see very longer green room feel
country would places window school like leaves unhappy great thought
quickly adult house friends man pool run govern high

Text

A small boy lives in this house. There are fields with sheep all round the house. His room is at the back and he can see his school from the window through the green leaves of the trees if he wants to pull them to one side.

He feels very unhappy because he has no friends and he believes that if he could become adult quickly he wouldn't have to go to school. If he could choose, he would like to govern the country and think great thoughts about the world and have friends in high places. But he is not yet a man and he must still shut up and do what he is told.

One day he might run away from school and make his way to another country in a ship. But really, it is not long until he will no longer be a boy. He can comfort himself with that thought. He starts to grin and goes down to the pool for a swim.

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VOWEL QUALITY OF SWISS EFL SPEAKERS

ADRIAN LEEMANN

Introduction

The moment we hear someone converse in a foreign language, we are likely to make judgments, conscious or unconscious, about whether this person is a native or non-native speaker.¹ On a linguistic level, we draw such conclusions from a speaker's global foreign accent, which Major (2001: 19) defines as "the overall impression concerning a speaker's form whether or not and to what degree a person sounds native or non-native". The word "accent" is a blurry term in need of further qualification. On the one hand, it can denote the manner of pronouncing the words of a language in such a way that the speaker's regional provenance permeates. On the other hand, accent also refers to the phenomenon of stress prominence in words and phrases. Moreover, there is a third definition of accent – most pertinent to this study – namely that of accent in the context of second language acquisition. This second language (L2) accent is what interests me in particular.

Lippi-Green describes the L2 accent as "breakthrough of native language phonology into the target language" (1997: 43). In other words, the L2 spoken by the non-native speaker thus neither pertains to the L1 nor to the L2. Selinker (1972) captures this phenomenon adequately in coining the term *interlanguage*, which refers to the systematic knowledge of an L2 that is independent of both the target language and the learner's L1. The *interlanguage* can of course be studied on various linguistic levels such as its syntax, lexicon, its use in discourse, suprasegmentally etc. In the case of this study, the focus is put on an acoustic observation of interlanguage, in particular, the interlanguage of Swiss English (henceforth SE), which is submitted to an acoustic phonetic observation.

In Switzerland, where 4 languages are spoken officially and English is continuously gaining impetus, language practice, language use, and language attitudes are often the subjects of heated debates. These days it is

¹ Note: The present paper rests on the author's MA Thesis (Leemann 2006).

especially the issue of whether English should be taught as the first foreign language at primary schools in the German, French, and Italian parts of the country, which is discussed time and again. From personal encounters and observations, I am also under the impression that the pronunciation with which Swiss speakers converse in a foreign language is, too, regularly debated and discussed.² For this reason, it is the accented speech of learners of English as a foreign language (EFL) in Switzerland that is investigated in this study. To be more precise, I will examine the vowel quality of Swiss EFL speakers.

This paper is subdivided into four main parts. To begin with, I will qualify and define two significant concepts of the study, which are vowel quality, i.e. the reasoning behind why vowel quality was chosen as indicative of a foreign accent, and the comparison to the standard. Then, the method will be addressed, that is the criteria according to which the sample was chosen, reading tasks, questionnaire, recordings, and actual measurement of vowel quality. The main section consists of the results section, which is followed by the final section, designed to seek explanations regarding the obtained results. I will end this paper with a few conclusive remarks and with a brief outlook.

Key concepts

The rationale behind this second introductory section is primarily to qualify the object under scrutiny, i.e. vowel quality of Swiss EFL speakers. Secondly, I would like to devote a few words to the issue of Standard Language, i.e. a norm which acts as a point of reference and comparison regarding the performance of non-native speakers' speech, and how this concept is understood in the present study.

Vowel quality

A foreign accent is acoustically perceptible on different levels. It manifests itself on the segmental and suprasegmental level, of which the former one has been studied meticulously in terms of interlanguage phonologies. For this reason, the present paper argues along similar lines and attempts to highlight how the monophthong vowels as spoken by Swiss English speakers deviate from the vowels as represented in Received Pronunciation

² Clearly, this foreign language is assessed by a standard language or standard dialect, i.e. a norm. I will address the concept of Standard Language and its relevance for this study in the following "Key concepts" section.

(RP) and General American (GA). Primarily, monophthong vowels, as opposed to consonants, were selected because vowels offer a larger “corroding surface” for individual variation; secondly, vowels are not as categorical as consonants. Each vowel bears a distinctive acoustic quality, which can be measured with an adequate signal analysis program. In the case of the present study PRAAT (2008) was used.

Vowel quality is largely determined by the constellation of the first 2 formants, F1 and F2. The lower the F1 value, the closer the tongue to the roof of the mouth, i.e. the higher the vowel. The F2 value, conversely, is proportional to the frontedness or backness of the highest part of the tongue during vowel production. That is to say, the higher the F2 value, the more fronted the vowel. The Swiss English vowel quality is compared to the vowel quality of RP and GA. The values for these two varieties were retrieved from two studies, which will be briefly introduced in the following section.

Comparison to norm

As mentioned earlier, when we make conscious or unconscious judgments of non-native speakers’ speech we do so by comparing it to a norm. Clearly, this raises issues regarding the actual existence of a standard language or a standard dialect. As mentioned earlier, this paper, too, applies a comparison of an interlanguage variety to a standard variety. In the context of this paper, however, standard language is not thought of as a concrete language; rather, the author adheres to Milroy and Milroy’s definition of Standard English as “an idea in the mind rather than reality – a set of abstract norms to which actual usage may conform to a greater or lesser extent” (1991: 22-23).

The formant values were taken from two studies, one conducted on General American, the other on Received Pronunciation. The formant values from GA were retrieved from Hillenbrand et al.’s study “Acoustic characteristics of American English vowels” (1995). It was their purpose to replicate a seminal study by Peterson and Barney who explored the acoustic characteristics of American English vowels in the mid 50s (1952). Hillenbrand et al. selected 139 subjects which primarily came from Michigan’s Lower Peninsula. The subjects performed reading list tasks which included 12 English vowels in /hVd/ phonological environments.

The values for the RP vowels were taken from Deterding’s study “The formants of monophthong vowels in Standard Southern British English pronunciation” (1997). In this study, which retrieved its data from the

MARSEC database,³ Deterding investigates the formant of eleven monophthong vowels of Standard Southern British English. Unlike Hillenbrand's study and the present study, which both adhered to prepared speech obtained through word list tasks, Deterding analyzed BBC monologues from the 1980s, which included news readings and commentaries.

At this point it is crucial to reiterate that the two studies are different in terms of how the data was obtained. While Hillenbrand et al.'s (1995) study considered English monophthong vowels in an identical /hVd/ environment, Deterding (1997) studied prepared speech also, yet the target vowels did not occur in identical phonological environments. This difference has repercussions in terms of the vowel quality obtained, where particularly Deterding's (1997) corpus contains fast speech, which in turn shows vowel centralizations and varying coarticulation phenomena (Strik et al. 2000). These differences in data collection and the repercussions thereof shall be borne in mind when the results of the present study are presented.

Method

The subjects in the study at hand were screened according to their L1 background, L2 experience, age, and gender. One of the most suitable ways to control such variables is in the school context, as variables such as age, sex, L1, and L2 background can be monitored. The secondary school in Zofingen was chosen as recording location due to Zofingen's preferable geographical location, nestled in a valley between the largest Swiss German-speaking cities, Zurich, Bern, Basel, Lucerne; cities which all feature distinctive Swiss German dialects. From a pool of potential 40 subjects, 20 subjects were recorded whose data served as the basis for the corpus of the present study. The students were asked to perform word list reading tasks and fill out a questionnaire – the latter elicited external variables that are known to have an effect on L2 articulation. The following section attends to the reading tasks, the recordings, and the vowel quality measurement applied in this study.

Word lists

In acoustic phonetics, word lists have become well-established. On the one hand, they are practical in that word lists allow for an integration of

³ MARSEC stands for *Machine Readable Spoken English Corpus*.

vowels in identical environments. Furthermore, the researcher can elicit much data with little effort during the recordings, as word lists can be applied mechanically. The word lists which were applied contained the English target vowels in an /hVd/ phonological environment.⁴ Table 1 shows the word list containing the Swiss English target vowels.

/hVd/ construction	Supporting word	Target vowel
heed	(need)	/i: /
hid	(bit)	/ɪ /
head	(bed)	/ɛ /
had	(sad)	/æ /
hod	(God)	/ɑ: /
hawd	(saw)	/ɔ: /
hood	(good)	/ʊ /
who'd	(noon)	/u: /
hud	(but)	/ʌ /
heard	(bird)	/ɜ: /
heed	(need)	/i: /

Table 2-1: Swiss English target vowels.

The word lists are structured according to a number of criteria. A second and third column, not depicted in Table 2-1, repeat the words that appear in the first column, yet in random order, so as to prevent memory effects on the part of the subjects. Furthermore, each column ends with a dummy word, usually the first word in the specific column, as the reading of word lists triggers a falling intonation in the last word, which may affect vowel length and vowel quality. The dummy words are not included in the analyses. The words in brackets – captured as “supporting words” in Table 2-1 - are meant to help the students pronounce the target words correctly. By means of a questionnaire, a number of factors which are considered to affect L2 articulation were elicited – more on these external variables in the results section.

⁴ The vowels were selected according to Ladefoged's (2001: 27) conception of English vowels.

Recordings and measurement

Recordings were made with four Digital Audio Tape (DAT) recorders⁵ and signal analysis was performed with PRAAT (2008). The DAT recorder was interfaced with an Apple Macintosh G5. Altogether, 320 minutes of recordings were analyzed which yielded 2220 segments, 2 formant values/segment, i.e. 4440 measurement points. The current study opts for an interval measurement in the F1 and F2's most stable phases. A PRAAT script automatically measures the labeled vowel formants 50 ms around the middle of the vowel including its standard deviation.⁶ Formant measurements were rechecked by hand and by observing the output standard deviations in *Microsoft Excel*. Fig. 2-1 shows the vowel measurement as applied in this study.

In case the vowels could not be measured with the PRAAT script, due to unfavorable spectrograms for example, formants were measured manually according to their linear predictive coding (LPC) traces. Here, the temporal midpoint of the nucleus of the target formant was measured. If LPC traces were completely absent the formants were measured according to their grey scales.

⁵ The DAT recorders were of the types SONY DTC-57 ES, SONY TCD-D7, SONY TCD-D8, and SONY TCD-D100; three microphones of the type SONY ECM-MS907 and a Behringer B2 condenser microphone were used with a directive angle of 90°. Recordings were made with a sampling frequency of 48kHz.

⁶ The script was kindly provided by Beat Siebenhaar from the University of Berne / University of Leipzig.

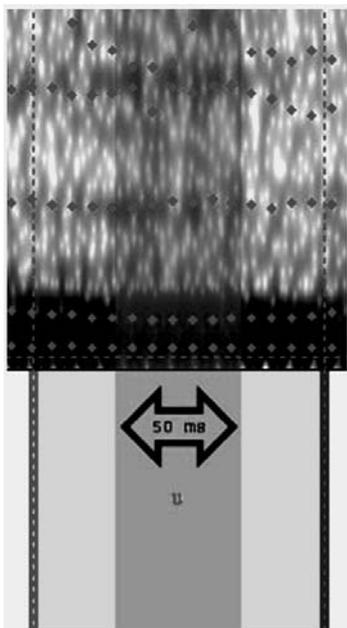


Figure 2-1: Vowel measurement of 50 ms around the nucleus of the vowel including its standard deviation.

Results

During recordings, it was noticed that third of the three attempts was articulated correctly in most cases, while in the first and second attempts, the subjects mispronounced tokens. It is probable that this improvement is due to learning effects. The implications of such mispronunciations are, however, crucial in that the variation between the three attempts might be so significant that subsequent tests with the mean values of the three attempts are disputed. Consequently, it first needed to be tested to what degree such variation exists in order to answer the question if mean values could be used for further analyses.

Variation between three attempts

A repeated measures ANOVA was run to test for this variation. Results indicated that it is mainly front vowels that present variation between the three attempts; yet, only one p value under the threshold level .05 appeared.