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# The Influence of the French Accent of the *Suisse Romande* on the Pronunciation of English

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## **Abstract**

I developed the topic for my thesis during numerous stays in Switzerland. Most of my visits, however, led me to the west of the country, which the locals refer to as *Suisse Romande*. Counting French, German and Italian as their three official languages, foreign visitors frequently speak English as well. Nevertheless, the most predominant language in the *Suisse Romande* is French. Looking back, I find that especially at the beginning of my visits to this part of the country my knowledge of French was quite limited. Consequently, I had to rely on English for conversations during most of my time there, And despite mastering three languages, already the locals of the *Suisse Romande* do not hesitate to speak English.

Nevertheless, the French accent could easily be recognized when being spoken to. In fact, in some cases this was more and in other cases less obvious. The varying occurrence of the French accent brought up the question, whether native speakers of French pronounce English in a way that is close to the one of a native speaker of English, or if in fact there is a difference and the, for the foreign listener, ‘real French accent’ becomes apparent.

Throughout my thesis I will present several different examples of spoken English enunciated with a French accent which are correspond to the attached transcriptions and sound files. Through the comparison of these sound files with each other as well as with recordings of English native speakers I would like to examine, if there are vocal phenomena and features substantiating or attenuating the just expressed assumption. In conclusion, I will devise my findings to prove or disprove that there is an influence of the French accent on the pronunciation of English.

## Table of Content

<b>Abstract.....</b>	<b>II</b>
<b>Table of Content .....</b>	<b>III</b>
<b>Table of Charts, Figures and Tables .....</b>	<b>V</b>
<b>Table of Abbreviations and Symbols .....</b>	<b>VII</b>
<b>1 Introduction.....</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>1.1 General Aim.....</b>	<b>3</b>
<b>1.2 The Methodology .....</b>	<b>6</b>
<b>2 Multilingual Switzerland .....</b>	<b>8</b>
<b>2.1 The Distribution of the Four National Languages .....</b>	<b>9</b>
<b>2.2 The Special Position of English .....</b>	<b>13</b>
2.2.1 An Educational Overview.....	14
2.2.2 The General Situation .....	17
<b>3 Annotations in Terms of French .....</b>	<b>21</b>
<b>3.1 The French Language .....</b>	<b>21</b>
<b>3.2 The Phonetic System of French .....</b>	<b>22</b>
3.2.1 Consonants.....	22
3.2.2 Vowels.....	23
<b>4 The Methodology .....</b>	<b>27</b>
<b>4.1 Searching for an Appropriate Reference Model .....</b>	<b>27</b>
<b>4.2 The Candidates .....</b>	<b>29</b>
4.2.1 The English Native Speakers .....	29
4.2.2 The French Native Speakers.....	31
<b>4.3 Experimental Method .....</b>	<b>33</b>
4.3.1 The Text.....	33
4.3.2 Recording the Data .....	34
<b>4.4 Working with the Recorded Data .....</b>	<b>36</b>

4.4.1	Setting up the Tables .....	36
4.4.2	Transcribing the Recordings.....	37
<b>5</b>	<b>Analysis .....</b>	<b>40</b>
<b>5.1</b>	<b>Segmental Features .....</b>	<b>40</b>
5.1.1	Assimilation .....	41
5.1.2	Elision .....	50
5.1.3	Word Linking Phenomena.....	57
5.1.3.1	Avoiding the Hiatus.....	58
5.1.3.2	Linking /r/ .....	60
5.1.3.3	Special Occurrence of Word Linking .....	64
5.1.4	H-Dropping.....	67
<b>5.2</b>	<b>Particular Features.....</b>	<b>69</b>
5.2.1	Occurrences in Matters of /ð/ and /θ/.....	70
5.2.1.1	Diverseness in Pronunciation .....	70
5.2.1.2	Strong and Weak Forms of <i>the</i> .....	73
5.2.2	Occurrences of Nasalisation.....	74
5.2.3	Differences in the Pronunciation of Vowels .....	75
5.2.4	Mispronunciation and Errors in Word-Stress .....	78
<b>6</b>	<b>Conclusion .....</b>	<b>81</b>
	<b>Bibliography .....</b>	<b>VIII</b>
	Literature .....	VIII
	Internet.....	IX
	<b>Appendix .....</b>	<b>XI</b>
	Orthographic and Phonetic Description .....	XI
	Transcription Tables .....	XIII
	Key Tables.....	XXXIII
	<b>Deutsche Zusammenfassung.....</b>	<b>XXXVI</b>
	Selbstständigkeitserklärung.....	XXXIX

## Table of Charts, Figures and Tables

Chart 1: <b>Synopsis of the Results</b> .....	XII
Figure 1: <b>Switzerland in the Roman Empire</b> .....	1
Figure 2: <b>Language Distribution in Switzerland</b> .....	12
Figure 3: <b>Text, <i>The Rainbow Passage</i></b> .....	34
Figure 4: <b>Extract of the Transcription Tables</b> .....	37
Figure 5: <b>Waveform-panes</b> .....	38
Figure 6: <b>Different Lengths of /l/-Articulation</b> .....	44
Figure 7: <b>Visualisation of a Glottal Stop</b> .....	56
Figure 8: <b>Occurrence of an ‘Air Flow’ after Final /t/</b> .....	66
Figure 9: <b>Orthographic and Phonetic Description</b> .....	XI
Table 1: <b>Language Distribution in Percent</b> .....	12
Table 2: <b>The French Vowels and Glides</b> .....	25
Table 3: <b>The English Vowels</b> .....	26
Table 4: <b>The English Native Speakers (ENS)</b> .....	30
Table 5: <b>The French Native Speakers (FNS)</b> .....	31
Table 6: <b>Special Acknowledgements of the FNSs</b> .....	32
Table 7: <b>Anticipatory Assimilation</b> .....	41
Table 8: <b>‘Pure’ Perseverative Assimilation</b> .....	47
Table 9: <b>‘Special Cases’ of Perseverative Assimilation</b> .....	49
Table 10: <b>Occurrences of Elision</b> .....	52
Table 11: <b>Avoiding the Hiatus</b> .....	58
Table 12: <b>Linking /r/</b> .....	60
Table 13: <b>Producing Final /r/</b> .....	62
Table 14: <b>Appearance of Word Linking by a „High Flow of Air“</b> .....	65
Table 15: <b>H-Dropping</b> .....	68
Table 16: <b>Words with /ð/ and /θ/</b> .....	71
Table 17: <b>Disparities in Vowels</b> .....	76
Table 18: <b>Mispronunciation and Errors in Word-Stress</b> .....	78

Table 19: <b>Headline</b> .....	XIII
Table 20: <b>Sentence 1</b> .....	XIV
Table 21: <b>Sentence 2</b> .....	XVI
Table 22: <b>Sentence 3</b> .....	XVIII
Table 23: <b>Sentence 4</b> .....	XX
Table 24: <b>Sentence 5</b> .....	XXII
Table 25: <b>Sentence 6</b> .....	XXIII
Table 26: <b>Sentence 7</b> .....	XXV
Table 27: <b>Sentence 8</b> .....	XXVI
Table 28: <b>Sentence 9</b> .....	XXVII
Table 29: <b>Sentence 10</b> .....	XXIX
Table 30: <b>Sentence 11</b> .....	XXXI
Table 31: <b>Used Symbols and their Meaning</b> .....	XXXIII
Table 32: <b>Vowels – English and French</b> .....	XXXIV
Table 33: <b>English Diphthongs and French Nasal Vowels</b> .....	XXXV
Table 34: <b>Colour Key</b> .....	XXXV

## Table of Abbreviations and Symbols

C <sup>f</sup>	Is the abbreviation for the final consonant.
C <sup>i</sup>	Is the indication for the initial consonant.
Ex.	In between parenthesis it abbreviates <i>example</i> (cf. sent.).
L1	Within this essay the L1 of a speaker corresponds to the first language or the mother tongue every person possesses.
L2	According to the aforementioned fact, the second language refers to the first foreign language a person acquires.
L3	Correspondingly, the third language applies to the second foreign language of a person.
Sent.	In between parenthesis it abbreviates <i>sentence</i> . Within the text the formula is indicating a specific sentence and/or example → ( <u>sent. X</u> , <u>ex. Y</u> ).
WS	The two initial describe the online sound analysing program <i>WaveSurfer</i> .
<X>	The angle brackets indicate a letter in its orthographical appearance.
/X/	A sign or -s in diagonal slashes describes the general appearance of the sound or -s.
[X]	The squared brackets express how the particular example has been realised by the respective person. <sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> I have (re)defined this pattern for my work, as the indication of the respective feature differs from volume to volume. For example, Laver indicates all his general transcriptions predominantly with squared brackets. On the contrary, Cruttenden gives all these examples in diagonal slashes (cf. Laver 1994 and Cruttenden 1994).

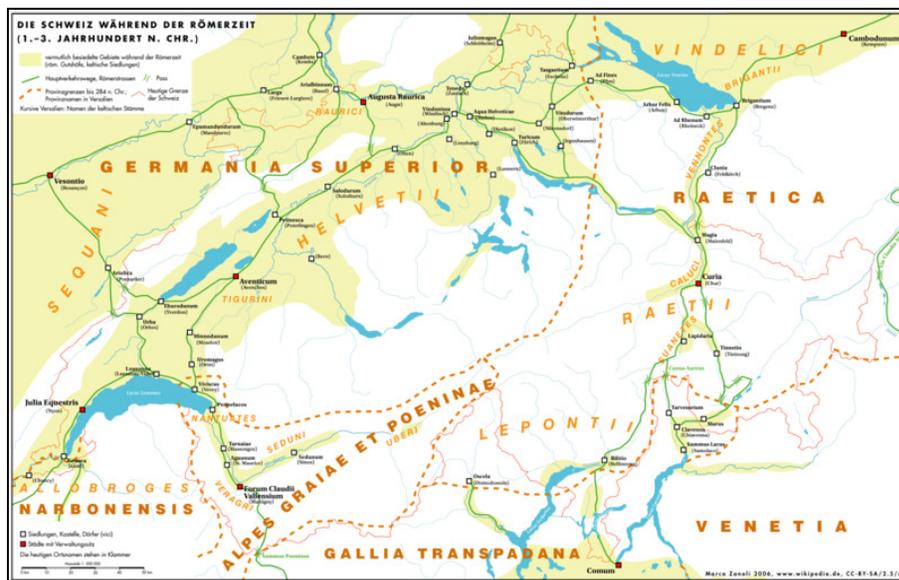
## 1 Introduction

Seven years ago, Duermueller (2002) assessed that

“English has quite definitely become a part of Swiss life. People [...] are now often more familiar with English than with the languages of their compatriots. English [...] has moved from the fringe to the centre, from the status of a foreign language to that of an additional language with lingua franca functions.”

If visiting Switzerland today, there is almost no difficulty to utilise English, if one is not familiar with one of the country’s official languages. The motivation and easiness of the Swiss people to communicate in a language other than their mother tongue has many reasons. One, and the perhaps most important, is the multilingualism, which, however, cannot be explained without doing a brief excursion back into history. Due to its geographical position, Switzerland has always been an “agglomeration of [various] peoples, cultures” (Zinggeler 2004) and languages. According to this, already in ancient times Germanic and Celtic languages were present in the region.<sup>2</sup>

Figure 1: Switzerland in the Roman Empire



Source: Wikipedia 2009

<sup>2</sup> Amongst others, the Celtic tribes of the Helvetians, whose ancestry can still be found in the official name of Switzerland today, i.e. *Confoederatio Helvetica*, or the Rhaetians, who gave their name to the later Roman province *Raetia* [cf. Wikipedia 2009].

After the annexation to the Roman Empire in the first century A.D., Latin was added. Past the doom of the Roman Empire, Alemannic (north), Burgundian (west) and Lombardic (south) tribes started to settle in the region (cf. Zinggeler 2004). The people of “the Rhaeto-Romans withdrew to the valleys of [...] Grisons” (ibid.). Already these ancient movements paved the way to a continuous and enduring multilingualism. Within centuries, the ‘Confederation of Helvetians’ started to shape up. In 1815, “its present boundaries were recognised at the Congress of Vienna [...] and its first truly constitution”, wherein “German, Italian and French [are mentioned] as the three national languages” (Grin 1998), was established in 1848. It can be seen, even in this historical abridgement, that languages always played a highly important role, more than in other countries.

The involvement of English started mainly within the 20<sup>st</sup> century, whereas this was primarily characterised, due to the two world wars, by immigrants and refugees entering the “peace-loving and fiercely independent” (Grin 1998) country. But its neutrality brought Switzerland also “a decisive role in international affairs as a mediator and collaborator, e.g. in the United Nations [or in] the World Trade Association” (Zinggeler 2004). The second half of the 20<sup>st</sup> century showed tremendous developments within the service and tourism sector, as well as an escalating increase of international trade relations. People from various nations and all different parts of the world entered the country. “Today, foreigners are 20% of the population, living in Switzerland” (Zinggeler 2004). “According to the census of the year 2000” (ibid.), there are 73.425<sup>3</sup> people living in Switzerland, who are native speakers of English. Within the language ranking, English comes in 8<sup>th</sup> place among all the languages spoken in the country. Zinggeler further indicates that “31% of the anglophone population” (ibid.) lives only in the area of *Lac Lemman*, a region in the French speaking part of Switzerland. “One out of two French-speaking Swiss [converse in] English and they [master it] best besides their mother tongue” (ibid.). In 1990, 44.5% French speaking Swiss indicated to speak English.<sup>4</sup> If people are asked for the location they are utilising the language the most,

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<sup>3</sup> Zinggeler (2004) lists this number in her table “Swiss population according to [the] main languages: Census 2000. Swiss Federal Statistical Office”.

<sup>4</sup> Regarding this number, Zinggeler (2004) refers to the “National Office of Statistics: Census 1990”.

the majority signifies work. As will be explained more precisely later on, especially within the last 20 years, English established as one or **THE** important language in many Swiss businesses and companies (cf. 2.2.2), wherein sometimes, these enterprises are foreign companies which were moved to Switzerland (cf. 2). Accordingly, Grin discovered already in 1998 that “in the eyes of large segments of the [Swiss] population, national languages [were] losing relevance by comparison with English”. Though, in his text the issue of English gathering a too severe importance compared to the national languages, becomes apparent. To emphasise the severity of the ‘problem’ he claimed that some people even fear “the spread of English as a ‘global’ [...] language posing [and] a threat to the linguistic and cultural character of societies” (ibid.). However, considering the increasing globalisation and the fact that the ‘world economy’ adopted mainly English as the common language of communication<sup>5</sup>, the spread of English in Switzerland should not be seen as a ‘threat’. English as a tool to facilitate the communication between people who do not have the same mother tongue, but perhaps the same foreign language, i.e. English, establishes itself increasingly in the world and naturally also in Switzerland. Perhaps there, its adoption is even more straightforward, as the country looks back on a long history of multilingualism and multiculturalism.

### 1.1 General Aim

As it has been indicated above, English plays a highly important role in the everyday life of Swiss people. Besides the frequent use at work or school, people are also not shy of practicing the language in conversations during their leisure time. I experienced this fact in person during various visits and stays in the French speaking part of the country. As my knowledge of French was rapidly exhausted, I often had to make use of English to be able to communicate. During numerous conversations, I discovered eventually, that some people showed a capability of the language, where an accent or something similar indicating the actual mother tongue, was nearly not perceptible. Certainly, it is

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<sup>5</sup> According to many authors, and the latest developments, English adopted the role of being the language of international communication and exchange, as the majority of people can speak in English, e.g. cf. Pennycook, A. (1994). *The Cultural Politics of English as an International Language*. New York: Longman. or Myers-Scotton, C. (2006). *Multiple Voices – An Introduction to Bilingualism*. Malden: Blackwell.

proven that people, after having acquired a defined level of a language, they speak without almost any noticeable accent or simply – like a native speaker. But this is predominantly the case, if a speaker has lived for a very long time, or still lives, in the respective country, i.e. in this case, in an English speaking country. What was surprising for me, however, that most of these people did not have any connection with the ‘respective country’ anymore, but still performed the language as if they would. Naturally all the people, to whom I had talked, had spent a certain time in an English speaking country, but in many cases, this time had long passed. I started to wonder, how it was possible to produce a foreign language in the environment of the actual mother tongue so perfectly. Perhaps in some cases the ability of speaking English got facilitated by the fact of using the language every day at work. But even if English is the ‘company language’ in some cases, for the majority of the cooperative environment, French is still the native language. What I would like to point out here is that some people, although living in a French speaking environment, pronouncing English in a way that comes near to the one of a native speaker of English. As a result of that, the question slowly emerged: Is it possible that some people, although living in Switzerland and being surrounded by the French language in this case, still speak a ‘French accent free’ English, i.e. without any trace of French? Or are there possible hidden features, revealing the French language, which are not apparent at a first sight?

In this context, this thesis will analyse to what degree the French accent influences the pronunciation of English. More precisely, how professional do some native speakers of French perform the English language? The focus of attention will thereby be on recordings, which are examined for selected features of connected speech. Is it possible that native speakers of French perform the English language in a manner that is equal with the one of a native speaker, although living in the environment of another language? And if so, to what degree or is there a limit? Or are there a number of weak points, concealed in details, where the native French speaker meets its limits and the actual mother tongue is exposed?

In order to elaborate on these questions, the second chapter will outline the distribution of languages in Switzerland to give an impression about the multilingual situation of the country. The chapter will first of all take a closer look at the three,

depending on the author, four national languages of Switzerland. But it will also examine the significance of English. In doing so, the situation in terms of education is commented as well as its appearance in the everyday life of Swiss citizens.

Chapter 3 will then focus on a selection of outstanding features of the French language. After a brief abstract about the French language itself, some special points regarding phonology are illustrated and exemplified. The characteristics have been ‘selected’ according to a possible relevance within the analysis later on. Where it appeared appropriate, they are put in comparison with features of the English sound system.

The development of an applicable methodology is the core of chapter 4. In this respect, it is important to explain the search for an appropriate reference model, providing me with a certain amount of information I could utilise in my later analysis. Moreover, the chapter explains all candidates, who enabled me to collect all necessary data, and the experimental method, which provided me with a foundation for my work. The explanation of how I worked with all collected data, to make it applicable for the later analysis, will be illustrated in detail at the end of this chapter.

Chapter 5 describes the analysis explicitly. Therefore it is divided into two main sections, wherein the first concentrates solely on main features of connected speech, focusing exclusively on the ones appearing within word boundaries. Hence, besides the characteristics of assimilation and elision, also word linking phenomena and features of h-dropping are examined. By contrast, the second section is primarily engaged with special occurrences, emerging within words and concerning single sounds. Correspondingly, the pronunciation and production of “th” is scrutinized, as well as appearances concerning vowels and diphthongs. Finally the topics of stress and accentuation are referred to briefly.

## 1.2 The Methodology

Given that chapter 4 contains a detailed explanation of the procedural method, I will present only a brief summary about the methodology at this point. After I had acquired some proper information about language analysis and, insofar existing, gathered similar studies dealing with this topic, e.g. Delattre, Ladefoged or Roach, I considered an appropriate methodology for my thesis. To answer the aforementioned questions (cf. 1.1), I needed a suitable method. What should be noticed, however, at this point is that with a work like the present one, it is impossible to discover linguistic legalities with far reaching effects. Nevertheless, it is still possible to recognise certain features or phenomena, which allow assumptions and perhaps even to draw conclusions regarding the example at hand. I want to emphasise that this work must only be seen as a case study and can therefore not be generalised. All discovered features and phenomena are only exemplary, and show at most tendencies, but no generalities.

To execute my examinations, I decided to choose a text which I had read out aloud by seven people, all native French speaking, while I recorded them. – But first things first. The text was selected from a database providing text- and language samples for research purposes. Some difficulties emerged in terms of suitable candidates I could record. Originally I planned to take in persons with unequal levels of English. But the problem became apparent expeditiously, after the first recordings had been concluded. The recorded examples differed tremendously in the level of language proficiency and a real foundation for comparison as well as a valid general aim was far out of sight. After having reconsidered my approach, I decided to record a smaller group of people, with a similar background in terms of English, i.e. the same education at school, a certain time spent abroad or a frequent use of the language in their present life. To improve the now solid basis for comparison and unmask possible language features, I resolved to record two native speakers of English in addition. With finally nine recorded text samples, I had a reasonable foundation for an analysis. The transcription of these data was the upcoming step.

The decision, to create tables in order to facilitate the overview and to display the results of all speakers at one glance, proved to be right. After the conclusion of these

tables – I had inserted the transcriptions of all speech examples into *Excel* tables, each sentence had its own sheet, giving all realisations of the respective sentence – I got a general idea about possible language features among the French and English native speakers. As already indicated, I concentrated on characteristics of connected speech exclusively, as an analysis of features appearing within words would have probably doubled the amount of this paper. Finally I came up with a reasonable list of language features, where I was already curious to see, how these results would appear in the upcoming analysis. I proceeded in examining the non-native speakers (of English) first and comparing them with the native speakers afterwards.

To record all gathered data and to recall them when needed, I designed corresponding tables again. For each characteristic, the concerned phrases or combinations, their realisations without and/or with the language phenomenon, and finally the amount of demonstrations among the two defined language groups, i.e. English and French, were displayed. However, in matters of little distinguishing details, the tables differ slightly. In addition to the summarisation of the results within the single tables, I also marked all noticeable occurrences within the transcription tables.

As already mentioned above (cf. 1.1), the characteristics themselves are represented by some of the most common features of spoken language. In order to assign each feature in a proper way, I distinguished into segmental and particular features. Thereby, the first classification concentrates explicitly on topics related to connected speech, such as word linking phenomena, elision, assimilation or h-dropping. But also other phenomena, such as glottal stops or aspirations are mentioned, where they occur. The second classification is dealing with phenomena appearing within words and concerning single sounds.

## 2 Multilingual Switzerland

This chapter will give a brief explanation of the language distribution in Switzerland. Frequently the country is associated with banks, chocolate or mountains.<sup>6</sup> But also its “linguistic diversity [is] widely regarded as one of the hallmarks of Swiss national culture” (Rash 1998: 26) as there are altogether “three main official languages” – German, French and Italian. Even a fourth official language, Romansh, exists, but it “is spoken by a very small proportion of the population [...] and is very likely to disappear because of its lack of an adequate number of speakers” (Ager 1990: 86). How these languages are locally spread out and how people deal with this multilingual<sup>7</sup> situation, will be described in the first topic. Later on I will draw the focus on the role of English. In this first topic, the language’s utilisation regarding education but also its use in everyday life will be displayed. – Similar to many other countries, the importance of English as a foreign language increases permanently “[...] in a country which is keen to maintain its economic strength in the world arena” (Rash 1998: 30). One supporting reason for this might be the fact that more and more international companies decide to move preferably their headquarters to Switzerland.<sup>8</sup> As this frequently means gaining exposure to a multilingual and multicultural working environment, it also results in the English language predominating Swiss’ other official languages and Swiss employees are required to use English as their L2 or L3. I will end this chapter with a concise recapitulation about the current situation of English in Switzerland along with suppositions for a possible future development.

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<sup>6</sup> Nowadays “Swiss [have] to abide a quaint stereotype [...] – the familiar Alpine idyll of cheese and chocolate, Heidi and the Matterhorn – [...]” (Rough Guides 2009).

<sup>7</sup> The terms *multilingual* and *multilingualism* in this topic will not describe the language situation of single persons but of the entire country. The bilingualism and multilingualism of single people is “difficult to measure because of the subjective way in which most individuals estimate their own linguistic capabilities [...] The nation is multilingual, but most of its inhabitants are monolingual” (Rash 1998: 44).

<sup>8</sup> In 2001, the “*Philip Morris International* headquarters [were] relocated from the USA to Lausanne, Switzerland” ([http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Altria\\_Group](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Altria_Group)). Other companies, such as *Polo Ralph Lauren*, *John Deere* or *General Mills*, also moved parts of their headquarters to several cities in Switzerland (<http://www.freedomandprosperity.org/Articles/wsje10-09-03/wsje10-09-03.shtml>).

## 2.1 The Distribution of the Four National Languages

Despite of its rather small size, Switzerland provides a rather unique phenomenon within Europe utilising four different official languages - German, French, Italian and Romansh<sup>9</sup> - whereas the latter is not even spoken by 1 percent of the population, a rather unique phenomenon in Europe. Within the essay of Demont-Heinrich (2005: 72) the situation is described as follows:

“Switzerland is [...] a multilingual country, [...] as it has designated multiple official languages. Four languages – French, German, Italian and Romansh – are legally codified national languages. Three – French, German and Italian – are official languages, meaning that all federal government documents must be made available in those three languages.”

(ibid.)

In addition to these four languages, numerous regional and even local dialects exist.

This fact applies primarily to the Swiss German area.<sup>10</sup> In a total of 26 cantons, 18 of them are German speaking. However, this German cannot be equated with the standard German (or *Hochdeutsch*) from Germany. Although the written language is “similar [but not identical] with the standard German of Germany” (Rash 1998: 49) and moreover “in school, all [...] German-speaking Swiss study standard German” (Myers-Scotton 2006: 83), “most German-Swiss speak one of the many regional dialects<sup>11</sup> of *Schwyzertütsch* in their day-to-day lives” (Hega 2001: 215). The first required language for every German speaking Swiss is a regional dialect. However, these dialects almost solely exist verbally (cf. Rash 1998: 49), and are rarely recorded phonetically. When it comes to a Swiss German communicating in standard German, to a German or another outsider it appears to be the widely known as “Swiss German (*Schwyzertütsch*)”<sup>12</sup> (ibid.) for a German or another outsider. At the moment people use their respective vernacular, it might “be virtually unintelligible” (Demont-Heinrich 2005: 72) for the untrained listener. The people of the French region are also very familiar with this

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<sup>9</sup> In German this language is called *Rätoromanisch*. During my research, I came upon different English spellings of this term such as, *Romansch* (Demont-Heinrich), *Rhaeto-Romansh* (Rash) or *Romansh* (Hega). For my essay, I decided for the latter, *Romansh*, as it is used in text of Hega (2001).

<sup>10</sup> The Swiss German part represents the biggest part of Switzerland. It reaches from the cantons Zurich, Schaffhausen, St. Gallen and Grisons until the cantons Basel, Bern, Fribourg and Valais.

<sup>11</sup> These dialects exist almost exclusively verbally. There are hardly any written pieces of the vernaculars.

<sup>12</sup> Swiss German is the “umbrella term” that comprises all Swiss German vernaculars (cf. Rash 1998: 49).

prediacment, as they learn standard German at school as well. But once they visit a German speaking canton, no matter how well they speak and understand the German language, they hardly understand a word as the “everyday communication [is] a dialect” (Rash 1998: 42). Finally the differences between the written and spoken language in the Swiss German part often cause conversations and discussions. “Problems associated with diglossia [...] and matters relat[ed] to education in the two language forms and their use in radio and television” (Rash 1998: 40) result in debates also on the political level.

The aforementioned problem does not appear in the Swiss French region where “it is not usual to speak of diglossia” (Rash 1998: 51). All French speaking cantons are located in the West of Switzerland. The area is typically referred to as the *Suisse Romande*<sup>13</sup> (cf. Hega 2001: 209). Four cantons that make up the West are exclusively French speaking. However, as there is no language border identical with the cantonal border, the cantons Bern, Fribourg and Valais are bilingual.<sup>14</sup> Besides French, also German is spoken in these areas. Even some cities are bilingual in these cantons, e.g. in Fribourg or Biel, one part of the population speaks French and the other German. But as already mentioned the language situation in the French cantons does not correspond to the situation in the German cantons. Except for few words that deviate, “standard French is used almost exclusively” (Rash 1998: 51)<sup>15</sup>, while different regional dialects in the Swiss Romande have mostly disappeared.

Italian is spoken only in the south of Switzerland. It is the official language of the entire canton of Ticino, and is also utilized throughout the southern border of the canton Grisons (cf. Figure 2). In the case of Italian the situation of the Swiss German cantons reappears. Even though the Italian language is spoken by only about 6.6 percent of the entire population (cf. Table 1), it is furthermore fragmented into several dialects, which differ remarkably from the Italian spoken in Italy. Rash (1998: 51) states that several “urban and rural Lombardic dialects exist alongside standard Italian” in the canton of

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<sup>13</sup> The English diction for this term would be, the French-speaking Switzerland, however, within my essay I used the French version.

<sup>14</sup> More concise information about the Swiss cantons and its names in English or in German can be found on [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cantons\\_of\\_Switzerland](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cantons_of_Switzerland).

<sup>15</sup> For the number 80, French people would say, *quatre vingt*. However people from the Suisse Romande say *huitante*.

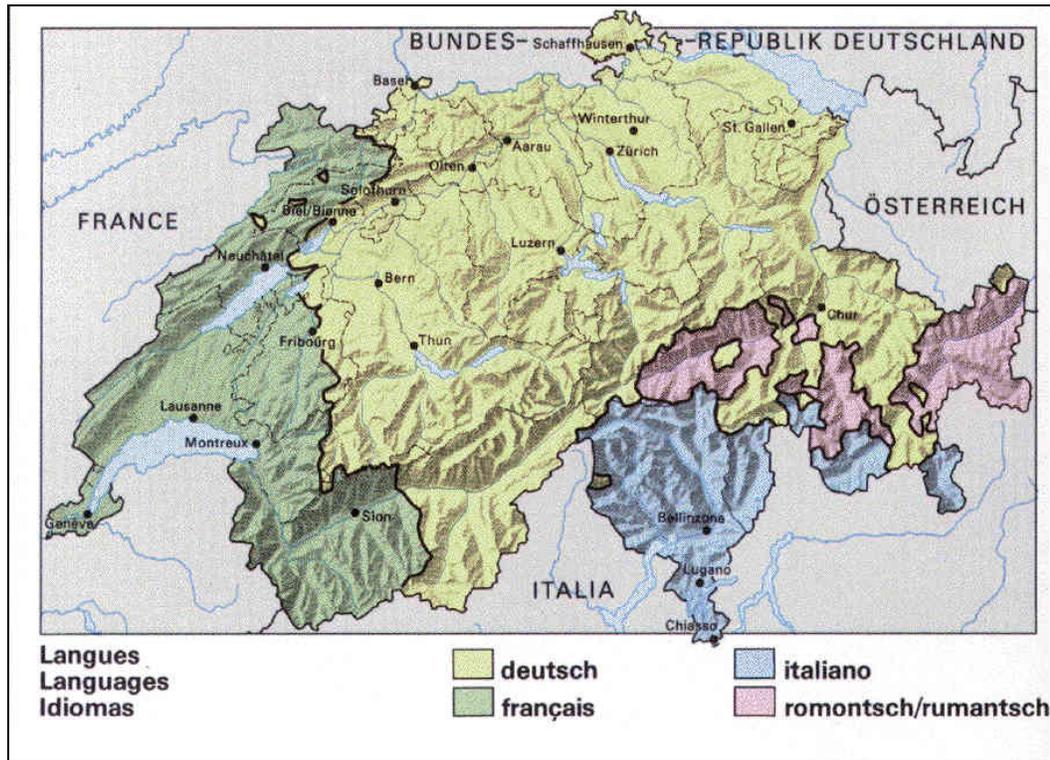
Ticino. And again, similar to the Swiss German cantons, “the standard language is [predominantly] used in writing” (swissworld 2008) as well as in public affairs. Which in turn suggests that dialects are “mainly reserved for the private sphere” (ibid.) and also that these dialects rarely exist in any written form.

The fourth official language Romansh, is the least spread out one, despite being the oldest language in the country, it can only be found in the canton of Grisons. Stuecheli (2004: 12) describes that “die Bündner haben als Amts- und Muttersprachen Deutsch, Italienisch oder Romanisch. So stellt Graubünden eine Schweiz im Kleinformat dar”. The term Romansh itself was created only in 1982 to define the existing five different dialects. Since 2001, it is “the form to be used in official election material and the legal code” (Swissworld 2008). Moreover “it is hoped [to] be successful as a standard language for literature, education and interregional communication” (Rash 1998: 51). The earlier indicated history of Romansh dates back into ancient times, when the Roman Empire called its province in the Alps *Raetia* (cf. 1). In the German term for Romansh, *Räto-Romanisch*, this ancestry is still visible. Stuecheli (2004: 12) explains more precise that the dialects of Romansh developed out of a “Vulgärlatein der Römerzeit” and remained until today in certain valleys of the Alps.

The unusual language utilisation or multilingualism of Switzerland can be summarised from several points of view. With an overview about the language distribution (Figure 2) I would like to give a first example. The following map shows the aforementioned canton and language borders that do not always correspond. Further it illustrates the trilingual canton of Grisons and substantiates the statement of Stuecheli (2004: 12) previously referred to:

“Die Schweiz hat [jedoch] Anteil an den drei grossen europäischen Sprachräumen in ihrer Nachbarschaft: Sie teilt das Deutsch mit ihren germanischen Nachbarn im Norden und Osten, das Französisch mit den westlichen und das Italienisch mit den Nachbarn im Süden.”

Figure 2: Language Distribution in Switzerland



Source: <http://www.ey.ch/swissgen/chspra.jpg>

Additionally, the table according to “the 2000 Swiss census” of Demont-Heinrich (2005: 72) gives an appropriate outline of the language distribution. This table makes “the unequal relationship between French and German” (Rash 1998: 29) very obvious. Furthermore it underlines the extreme minority of Italian and Romansh. Even if those two languages are added, they still form a lesser percentage than ‘Other’ languages.

Table 1: Language Distribution in Percent

Language	Percentage
German	63,9
French	19,5
Italian	6,6
Romansh	0,5
Other	9,5

Source: Demont-Heinrich 2005: 72

Ager (1990: 86) takes up the topic of multilingualism by establishing that a “true bi- or trilingualism is not common, and the population of the cantons of Geneva, Vaud, Neuchâtel and Jura use French more or less exclusively, with Fribourg and the Valais in a more mixed linguistic situation”. In this coherency Rash points out another interesting opinion that, according to McRae, Switzerland is not a ‘multilingual [but a] plurilingual society’ (cf. Rash 1998: 25) which means a “society [that] is less linguistically fragmented and in which the two largest languages (French and German) dominate the other national languages (Italian and Romansh)” (Rash 1998: 25). This also corresponds to the preceding table. Finally Hega (2001: 207) elaborates on the special circumstance of the canton Grisons, which he describes as “a mirror image of multilingual Switzerland as a whole”. Further concerning the language distribution he states that “about 65 percent of its population speaks German, 14 percent Italian and 21 percent Romansh” (ibid.).

## 2.2 The Special Position of English

Similar to many other European countries, English has gradually enlarged its position as a ‘world language’ also in Switzerland (cf. Rash 1998: 47). However, pertaining the English language, two different aspects need to be taken into consideration. First, the political perspective needs to be examined, and secondly, to what extent the educational policy deals with this subject. In this regard Hega (2001: 213) indicates that “in a country with four different [official] languages, language instruction has always played an important role [...]”. And looking at this statement from the angle of the national languages, Switzerland appears to be considerably flexible and willing to make extensive efforts in expanding their curricula. Contrary, this flexibility changes nearly to rigidity concerning the use of English, and the willingness to expand their curriculum now is blocked by intransigence. Rash (1998: 40) claims first that “if Swiss adults were given the chance to return to school, most would chose to learn English as their first non-native language”.<sup>16</sup> Subsequently she states that “particularly younger [people]

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<sup>16</sup> This is related to an “opinion poll commissioned in 1986 by the weekly newspaper, *Weltwoche*”. 58% of German-speaking and 65% of French-speaking Swiss established this result (cf. Rash 1998: 40).

believe that to invest most effort into learning English may improve their chances in the job market” (ibid.). I would argue that the opinion of the people towards this subject must not be disregarded, especially because the Swiss people themselves seem to prefer to learn English as a L2, and that despite officials rather seeing them aspire one of Switzerland’s national languages. In the following section, I would like to examine this topic in light of education and also of “its potential impact on Swiss collective (national) identity” (Demont-Heinrich 2005: 66) more closely. Finally with a concluding thought I would like to sum up briefly the increase and importance of the English language in Switzerland.

### 2.2.1 An Educational Overview

The situation concerning language education in Switzerland is slightly difficult. This might be due to the fact that, especially for outsiders, the entire educational system appears rather complicated and difficult, especially for outsiders. Hega (2001: 205) establishes that the “regional and local linguistic and cultural differences affect the education policies of the Swiss federal government [...]”. Further he even mentions nuisances on the political level by characterizing Switzerland as “a weak national government that has almost no legislative or administrative authority in the education sector, except for the areas of vocational training and university education” (Hega 2001: 206). A comparable explanation of this situation highlights the ‘linguistic diversity’ even more, and can be found in Rash (1998: 29):

“The Swiss political system, characterized by a decentralized federalism and a consensual system of democracy, allows national linguistic diversity to be maintained, as many issues concerning language and culture are the responsibility of the cantons or even individual communes within the cantons.”

Examining the Swiss educational system more detailed, these statements become obvious. Concerning education, basically every canton makes its own decisions, however, “second language acquisition is seen to be in the national interest” (Rash 1998: 45). But second language acquisition in Switzerland does not target on English as a L2 but instead one of the ‘other’ national languages. According to the previous quotation, every canton establishes, which one of the national languages should be taught first and moreover when. In most cases the L2 gets introduced “immediately after

the transfer from primary to lower secondary education” (Hega 2001: 213). Up until now, Switzerland enforces that “[...] the first foreign language [is] one of the [...] Swiss languages and thus exclude[s] English as the first foreign language” (Hega 2001: 215).<sup>17</sup> Consequently the German cantons appoint French as their L2 and the French cantons German. In Ticino and parts of Grisons, students are able to choose between French, German and Italian (in Grisons). Although the latter gets chosen the least often, as the percentage of people in Switzerland who speak Italian is very low. English can therefore only be chosen as a L3. However, this entire pattern is not obligatory it can rather be seen as a ‘recommendation’. Hega (2001: 216) summarises the subject concluding that students will have “instruction[s] in a first foreign language compulsory for all students [...] and that this first foreign language [is] one of the three official national languages of Switzerland, i.e. German, French and Italian, but not English”. He further names the ideal time to start with the study of foreign languages, as well as a special solution for the cantons Ticino and Grisons:

“Instruction should generally start in the fourth [...] or fifth grade, with exceptions allowed for the cantons of Ticino and [Grisons] because of their special language situation as the only Italian-speaking and trilingual canton, respectively.”  
(ibid.)

Since 2003, the canton of Zurich has antiquated this just mentioned model, which had been more or less adopted in all of Switzerland until then, by “designat[ing] English rather than French” (Demont-Heinrich 2005: 75). This step, however, resulted in a number of discussions wherein supporters appreciated the idea, because of “the [already] dominant global position of English [...]” (Demont-Heinrich 2005: 68) and opponents argued that this was “an attack against French” (Hega 2001: 222) and the other languages. The discussion and debates finally resulted in a “comprehensive linguistic concept for [all] Switzerland” (Hega 2001: 222) and after an appropriate solution for both sides had been found, the current situation appears as follows:

“[...] a first foreign language [should] be introduced, at the latest, in the second grade of primary school as a compulsory subject, and [that] a second foreign language [should] be taught, starting in fifth grade. A third foreign language would be added in seventh grade.”  
(ibid.)

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<sup>17</sup> This regulation has been established “in 1975 at the Swiss Conference of Cantonal Education Directors (*Eidgenössische Konferenz der Kantonalen Erziehungsdirektoren, EDK*)” (Hega 2001: 215).

This solution, however, gives the cantons sufficient freedom to assign the “language [that] should be taught first” (Hega 2001: 222) and also at what time English should be introduced. However, the declaration states that “in addition to English” always a “second national language and preferably a third” (ibid.) should be taught, in which is evident that national languages cannot be omitted entirely. And debates related to this issue are still continuing. An interesting fact is that already in 1998, Rash gave her attention to this subject too when she wrote about the “English threat to the Swiss national languages” (1998: 47). Inside her work she states that, if people could chose their L2 and L3 they would probably give English the precedence over French, German or Italian, as it is “the most useful language in an international setting” (cf. Rash 1998: 47). One of the reasons that made her discuss this topic was the educational policy, which, already at that time, insisted to elect one of the national languages as a L2 except English. Many companies militated against this legislation, reminding that future employees primarily need to have knowledge in English. And even though some drew their conclusions by hiring their own English teachers (cf. Rash 1998: 48) officials still insisted on their position. To this day the educational policy in Switzerland, especially in regards to English appears, perhaps because of all the permanent changes, considerably opaque and confusing. And even though the rise of English cannot be denied or delayed, it seems to be rather difficult to make out its exact position and importance inside the educational apparatus or among the Swiss citizens, especially as there are – mainly related to the fact that every canton can make its own decisions – no general or homogeneous rules. In the end Myers-Scotton (2006: 406) brings the entire subject to a conclusion that in the future

“language planners increasingly include English [...] in their decisions because they recognize that their own decisions are not isolated from the international context. For example, national planning for education has to take account for this spread of English. The result is that English is becoming part of school curricula all over because nations, states and private businesses believe that in order to retain their influence in international communication, their citizens and representatives have to be able to use English”.

The situation pertaining to the secondary and tertiary level of education appears slightly different. For vocational colleges “no national guidelines exist” (Rash 1998: 46). Though many schools advise their students to continue their L2 what they have studied at school. To study English often, the occupational field is determining, and if its knowledge is required, English is frequently counselled. Otherwise students are

urged to learn even another national language as their L3 (cf. Rash 1998). Still, more and more people “concentrate on English as [it is] the most useful language in an international setting, and as [it is] a language which many people find easier to learn than French, German or Italian” (Rash 1998: 47). The importance of English on the academic level increases as well. Evermore universities utilise “English as a language of instruction, partly to suit the needs of students with a variety of mother tongues, and partly because so much of the compulsory reading [...] is published in English” (ibid.). This applies most notably to the scientific and technologic sector, where the majority of instructions or specific reports are created in English, in order to be comprehended on a national and international level (cf. Rash 1998). Speaking to this context, Demont-Heinrich (2005: 74) mentions that “in 1995 [...] 90 percent of required course literature in the natural sciences at the University of Bern was in English”. And also Myers-Scotton (2006: 51) points to the fact that most of the “academic scholarship across many fields is published” in English.

### 2.2.2 The General Situation

Regarding the common position towards English Rash (1998: 47) indicates that it has a “considerable status as a language of communication in Switzerland”. Like for every country, naturally, economical and commercial interests play a highly important role. And of course tourism leads annually countless numbers of people from all over to world to Switzerland. But also other reasons, such as professional or personal interests, guide people to Switzerland and even make them settle. Correspondingly Demont-Heinrich claims (2005: 71) that Switzerland “[encourages] foreign clients to move to Switzerland”, for personal or financial reasons. In conclusion, aside from touristic motives, people enter the country for commercial, professional or personal matters. Unlike Rash, Demont-Heinrich gives an appropriate and especially more concise quotation concerning the current situation of English:

“The Swiss come with three languages as standard equipment: their mother tongue [...], another national language that is not their mother tongue and English [...]. Good news for speakers of English [...] the Swiss are so fond of English that many advertisements are in English, which has the [...] advantage [...] of avoiding the need to translate everything three times.”

(ibid.)

Believing this statement it could be assumed that “Switzerland is apparently becoming a two-and-a-half-language [country]. Many people speak their mother tongue and English and understand a second national language” (Hega 2005: 72). And effectively, the dominance of English is visible in nearly all the areas of everyday life.<sup>18</sup> Therefore it does not appear exceptional to “see or hear English in various realms of consumer and pop culture, including advertising music, film and the mass media”. Besides that, “[...] Swiss banking and financial elites in international business centres [...]” (Hega 2005: 74) are using English, “the lingua franca of the international business world” (Myers-Scotton 2006: 51), as their professional language for many years. And also other enterprises and companies appoint English as their first, or at least as their second company language, whereupon also Myers-Scotton (2006: 62) corresponds to by citing that

“[...] many European companies have made English the official corporate language [even though] this does not mean that everyone employed there speaks English; the average workers still speak the local language to each other. But the board-room language is English”.<sup>19</sup>

Additionally Demont-Heinrich (2005: 75) states “that many Swiss businesses use English for some external and internal correspondence in part, because it is cheaper [than] to pay for multiple translations”. Finally he comes up with another interesting theory, by indicating that “English language skills are associated with significant earnings gains on the Swiss labour market” (ibid.). And looking at the present situation, this does not seem to be so absurd. The fact that nowadays many people seize the chance to take an employment in Switzerland supports this assumption. Demont-Heinrich (2005: 75) finally claims that “the link between English and socioeconomic success is clear to many Swiss”.

Now all the previous examples support the impression that English will eventually replace national Swiss languages as first foreign or L2. And indeed the influence of English increases in view of education – even though politics still restrict its progress strongly – as much as in the view of everyday and business life. So it seems save to say, that Swiss people prefer to learn English than studying one of the three original Swiss

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<sup>18</sup> “English now even appears alongside the four national languages in a Swiss passport” (Rash 1998: 47).

<sup>19</sup> The corporate language of *Crédit Suisse* is English (cf. Myers-Scotton 2006: 407).

national languages. But a current article from the *Tagesanzeiger* indicates the contrary. The article even disproves the statement that English “has steadily increased to the detriment of [the] other national languages” (Rash 1998: 47):

“Die Bevölkerung beherrscht die jeweils andere Sprache am besten: In der Deutschschweiz rangiert Französisch - von 71% der Befragten genannt - vor Englisch (67%). In der Westschweiz liegen Hoch- und Schweizerdeutsch (47%) vor Englisch (43%), im Tessin Französisch vor Deutsch (65%) und Englisch (42%).”  
(Gruebeler 2008)

This statement perhaps indicates the fact that the majority of older people uses a national language as a L2, but not English (cf. Rash 1998). Rash (1998: 48) lastly establishes that the “notion [of English] becom[ing] a lingua franca in everyday communication between Swiss nationals is largely a myth”. Although some officials still fear English becoming a “key language for Switzerland”, it may “have a[n important] role alongside the national languages, [but] only being used when it is really needed” (ibid.).

To conclude this section it can be said that the multilingualism of Switzerland (cf. Myers-Scotton 2006: 65) is attributed to a certain multiculturalism of the country. For many years, people from all different countries have come to Switzerland as tourists and temporary visitors, some even to start a new life. Their reasons are as various as their nationalities. But neither do all these people necessarily speak a language agreeing with one of the Swiss languages, nor is everybody immediately familiar with one of them. So in order for people to communicate at all, and before acquiring one of the national languages, English appears to be an appropriate solution to fill this gap in the meantime. Therefore English takes up a very important position within the language culture in Switzerland. Nevertheless, I feel that it should not be overestimated. In fact, English as “the global language of progress” (Demont-Heinrich 2005: 78) does occupy the place of the first foreign language in several countries, supporting the fact that it is one of the languages with the highest frequency in the world. Or as Myers-Scotton (2006: 51) describes, it is “the language [that] has the widest range of usefulness”. It is a language, wherein people, “who do not share the same first language” (Myers-Scotton 2006: 51) can easily communicate. The multilingualism of Switzerland only supports this phenomenon. And, as already mentioned, the majority of the people visiting the country are not fluent in one of the local languages. One could suppose, that this occurrence

might even encourage the Swiss citizens to learn additional languages, like for instance English. Demont-Heinrich (2005: 67) elaborates on this topic by indicating that Switzerland has “[...] established multilingualism as a basic component of its national identity”. The subject of *identification* can also be found in Myers-Scotton (2006: 407) quoting House who, however, “distinguish[es] between ‘languages for communication’ and ‘languages for identification’”. The latter gives special importance to the first language which, besides allowing for the communication among fellow countrymen, it also helps retaining a certain part of national identity. English as a L2, on the contrary, fosters understanding between people of different language backgrounds. Therefore opponents of English in Switzerland should not fear it becoming the fifth national language one day.<sup>20</sup> And should this be the case, would it really be unacceptable seeing the ongoing “discussion of English [becoming] a world lingua franca” (Myers-Scotton 2006: 406).

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<sup>20</sup> In 2001, R. J. Watts and H. Murray published a book with the title: *Die fünfte Landessprache? Englisch in der Schweiz*.

### 3 Annotations in Terms of French

The present chapter will highlight the most salient features of the French language, and put them in contrast with relevant ones of the English language respectively. As there are innumerable manuals explaining the French phonology and sound system in detail (the same applies to English), I will summarise only several selected ones, and for the later analysis perhaps interesting and valuable features of others. After having provided a general idea about the French language, I will outline a small number of special qualities regarding consonants and vowels.

#### 3.1 The French Language

One of the main sources of French, as well as of English, is the Latin language, whereas the Latin origin is more obvious in French. This is due to the fact that French adopted most of the Latin corpus directly. English on the contrary, derived most of the Latin contents through French.<sup>21</sup>

For an examination of the French language and dialects, it should be distinguished between three main aspects:

- a) French as a language in the world, e.g. in Canada, parts of Africa and on numerous islands
- b) French in Europe, e.g. parts of Belgium and Switzerland as well as in other border regions adjacent to France, e.g. the Aosta Valley in Italy or some of the Channel Islands
- c) French in France and its various dialects and accents.

It can be seen that the field appears to be enormous. Because of this reason, I will exclusively concentrate on the aspects b), as the persons of my analysis speak the Swiss French, and c), to define some features of 'standard' French. Concerning their naming,

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<sup>21</sup> Detailed descriptions and explanations concerning these developments can be found in Baugh, A. C. and T. Cable (2006). *A History of the English Language*. 5<sup>th</sup> ed. Oxon: Routledge AND Wartburg, W. v. (1988). *Évolution et Structure de la Langue Française*. 11<sup>th</sup> ed. Bern: Francke.

the French accents may be labelled according to their geographical or social origin. In this coherency the Canadian accent or the *accent pointu* (accent from Paris), refer to regions. ‘Social’ accents, on the other hand, reflect a certain social affiliation or background (cf. Tranel 1987: xivf). To be able to highlight some special features of French it is necessary to specify one French accent, one can refer to. Unlike German or English, there is no particular accent that everybody refers to as ‘standard French’, such as *Hochdeutsch* or *RP English*. However, the French that is taught to students and foreigners consists of the accent of northern France, in particular Paris, which is “considered as language of the social norm” (Tranel 1987: xv). This accent offers several different termini defining it, e.g. Parisian French, Standard French, General French, International French or Common French (cf. *ibid.*).

### 3.2 The Phonetic System of French

The French language features an overall number of 35 sounds, which means more precisely 17 consonants, 15 vowels and three glides (cf. Tranel 1987: 3). This section will focus on providing a short summary of the French phonetic system. At the same time this section will highlight a few selected dissimilarities that vary from its English counterparts, as a detailed description of the French phonology is not the subject of this work.

#### 3.2.1 Consonants

The differences of consonants appear to be quite clear. There are basically two symbols indicating the for the language unique phenomena. The first sound, which does not appear in the English sound system, is /ɲ/. It corresponds to the letter <n>, if a word is written with it. In words like *gnon*, [ɲɔ̃], or *montagne*, [mɔ̃taɲ], it describes the sequence ‘gn’, respectively (cf. Tranel 1987: 5). Occasionally it can be mistaken with the English symbol /ŋ/ describing the sequence ‘ng’. Although the latter sound occurs in French every once a while, it usually does in connection with English words, e.g. *camping* [ˈkæmpɪŋ] (cf. *ibid.*). Another difference to the English language can be found in the sound /ʃ/. Even though it exists in both languages, in English it describes the

combination ‘sh’ like in *ship*, [ʃɪp], or *shake*, [ʃeɪk]. In French on the contrary, it defines the sequence ‘ch’ as it appears in *chaude* [ʃod] or *chic* [ʃik] (cf. *ibid.*).

### 3.2.2 Vowels

Regarding vowels the particularities are more numerous. Similar to the English occurrence, where <e> equals /i/<sup>22</sup>, the French vowel <u> corresponds to the phoneme /y/. What makes this case even more complicated is that there is in fact also a phoneme /u/ in addition. However, both phonemes are indicating different sounds. According to this, <u>, as in the term *rue*, would appear as [ry] in a phonetic transcription (cf. Tranel 1987: 6). In contrast, in a written form the phoneme /u/ would be displayed as <ou>, like in the word *roue*, [ru] (cf. *ibid.*). The reason for this phenomenon is the language development. French adopted the sound /u/ from Latin, which, however, slowly changed into becoming a /y/ when pronounced, instead of remained as /u/, as for example in German. The sound /u/ reappeared later. In some occasions, as for instance in the German language, the sound /y/ is expressed as <ü>, orthographically (cf. *ibid.*). Other phenomena occur in terms of the symbols /ɛ, ø, œ, ɔ/. The sign /ɛ/ often describes the letter <è> as in *père*, [pɛr], or *très*, [trɛs]. Its occurrence in English is fairly rare (cf. *ibid.*). A sound, vainly searched for in the English phonetic system is /ø/. In French it is used to form words like *feu*, [fø], or *heuerux*, [øʀø] (cf. *ibid.*). The German language found a way to indicate the sound in written language with “ above the vowel <o>, which finally forms <ö> (cf. *ibid.*). What can also not be found in the English sound system is the phoneme /œ/. Different to the preceding example this sound can also be expressed orthographically. According to this it appears within terms like *cœr* or *œuf*, but can also be expressed by the segment ‘eu’, as in *heure*, [œr] (cf. Tranel 1987: 7). Infrequently, the sound is indicated by the sign /ɔ̃/. The characteristic of the following sound, or sounds, is the differentiation between open and closed /o/. While /ɔ/ represents the open-mouth version of the sound, /o/ indicates the closed one.

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<sup>22</sup> According to this the word *sheet* is written with <ee>, whereas its phonetic description appears with /i:/, i.e. [ʃi:t].

Consequently there is a distinction between *sotte*, [sɔt], enunciated with a very short and sharp /ɔ/ and *sot*, [so], enunciated with a long and closed /o/ (cf. *ibid.*). Another characteristic can be found between the phonemes /a/ and /ɑ/. Whereas the orthography does not differentiate between *pâte* and *patte*, phonology does, i.e. [pat] and [pat] (cf. *ibid.*). The problem here is similar to the example before. While the first phoneme appears to be longer and more open when pronounced, the second phoneme is spoken succinctly. The English sound system exhibits a similar feature. There the phoneme /ɑ/ is generally referred to as vowel of Northern English. By contrast /ɑ/ corresponds primarily to RP English (cf. Weisser 2001: 110). The words *catch* [kætʃ] and *far* [fa:] present two different occurrences of an /ɑ/-sound. At the same time, the first term exhibits the third English possibility of /ɑ/-sounds, the /æ/. A characteristic which does not appear all throughout the English sound system is the existence of nasal vowels. French possesses altogether four of these phonemes, i.e. /ẽ, œ̃, ɑ̃, õ/. The ‘tilde’ marks their nasal quality, which becomes apparent during pronunciation (cf. Tranel 1987: 7) and on what I will elaborate on in the following. During the process of pronouncing these phonemes, the air, which would normal pass only through the mouth, passes through the nose as well. Consequently they feature a certain degree of nasalisation, other than their oral correspondents. These ‘nasals’ always occur in combinations with /n/ or /m/ as in *fin*, [fẽ], *un*, [œ̃], *enfant*, [ɑ̃fɑ̃] and *bon*, [bõ] (cf. *ibid.*). A final distinguishing mark of the French language, are the glides. Different to English, the French sound system possesses three glides. Besides /j/ and /w/, also the symbol /ɥ/ can be found. Both signs have, similar to English, a corresponding letter in the alphabet, i.e. <j> and <w> (cf. *ibid.*). Unlike the English sound system, however, the French indicates the glides in standard small script like their other phonemes, i.e. in the normal font size, /j/, /w/ and /ɥ/. In English on the contrary, they are mostly indicated as superscript, e.g. /j̥/ and /w̥/. The symbol /w/ is the only phoneme that also represents its orthographic correspondent, e.g. *walkman*, [wɔkman] or *wishbone* [wiʃbɔn]. The aspect most intriguing is that, firstly almost all words in a French dictionary that start with an initial /w/ and <w>, are actually English words.<sup>23</sup> Second, the phonetic transcription of the

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<sup>23</sup> There are also words showing the letter within, e.g. *kiwi*, but they are very rare (cf. Tranel 1987: 7).

preceding examples appears as stated in the French dictionary. Most notably are the differences among the vowels and diphthongs, where the English dictionary describes the two examples as follows: [ˈwɔːkmən] and [ˈwɪʃbɔːn]. So according to the French description of the words (above), *walkman* is pronounced with a very short and sharp /ɔ/, whereas a /a/ in *-man* and *wishbone* is pronounced with a longer /i/ and a closed /o/. The case of /j/ and <j> on the contrary, appears to be completely different. The phoneme and the letter do not correspond at all. This is the case in French and in English. The latter the phoneme represents the letter <y> as in *you* or *yes* (cf. *ibid.*). The last glide, /ɥ/, which does not occur in the English sound system describes the segment ‘ui’ as in *huit* [ɥit] or *nuit* [nɥi] (cf. *ibid.*). However this glide must be handled carefully within phonetic transcriptions as it can be easily mistaken for /y/. To summarise this section, especially for the French language, it is very important to distinguish between orthography and phonology, as the pronunciation often differs vastly from the way the word is written. Tranel (1987: 16) concludes the problem by quoting, the “French orthography is a far cry from being phonetic”.

The following tables will highlight the differences between the French and the English sound system again. What can be seen immediately is that French distinguishes only between ‘front’ and ‘back’ vowels. Besides, it offers the nasals and glides within the table.

Table 2: **The French Vowels and Glides**

		Front		Back	
		unrounded	rounded	unrounded	rounded
<b>Glides</b>		j	ɥ		w
<b>Oral Vowels</b>	closed	i	y		u
	half-closed	e	ø		o
	half-open	ɛ	œ		ɔ
	open	a		ɑ	
<b>Nasal Vowels</b>		ɛ̃	œ̃	ɑ̃	õ

The French vowels and glides according to Tranel 1987: 30.

What must be noticed regarding the English table is that this specific characterisation of the system is composed by Tranel. Comparing this table with a presentation of *the*

*phonetic alphabet of the International Phonetic Association* as depicted in Laver (1994: 395), Tranel's description especially in terms of the English vowels leaves a large space for discussion. For instance, he uses symbols that are not adopted in other descriptions of the English sound system, such as /ɔ/. Tranel skips signs which usually appear in such a description, e.g. /a/ or /ʌ/. But, what he clearly indicates is the fact that the English system has 'front', 'central' and 'back' vowels, whereas the French exhibits only 'front' and 'back'. Furthermore, the French system also displays the glides and the nasals within the description.

Table 3: The English Vowels

		Front	Central	Back	
		unrounded	unrounded	unrounded	rounded
<b>Closed</b>	tense	i			u
	lax	ɪ			ɔ
<b>Half-closed (tense)</b>		e			o
<b>Half-open (lax)</b>		ɛ	ə		ɔ
<b>Open</b>		æ		ɑ	

The English vowels according to Tranel 1987: 37.

## 4 The Methodology

To accomplish an analysis like mine, factual as well as vocal research needs to be conducted. The following chapter will therefore give a concise overview of all preparatory steps and examinations that were necessary to realise the later analysis. After tracing back steps to finding an appropriate model to refer to in terms of phonetic analysis, the candidates will be highlighted in more detail, wherein the main focus ought to be on *age*, *gender*, *place of origin* and *educational background*, all regarding their individual English skills.<sup>24</sup> With a description of the text for the recordings and the recordings themselves – how they have been executed and where they took place – I want to direct information towards the practical part of my thesis. Finally I will give a precise view on all preparatory steps that where necessary to provide a profound basis for the following investigations.

### 4.1 Searching for an Appropriate Reference Model

The search for a comparable or similar study in this particular topic turned out to be somewhat difficult in at first. Certainly there are numerous studies that are engaged in the analysis of phonetic features of either English *or* French, however, it proves to be quite complicated to find suitable material that deals with the comparison of both languages or even examines special language features that occur, when a French native speaker talks English or vice versa. (But the situation was not entirely hopeless.) To receive some first evidence at all, I contacted the *Institute of Linguistics and the Science of Language* of the University of Lausanne<sup>25</sup>, especially since the subject is closely connected with this region. Even though no comparable studies or investigations for this particular matter had been established at that point, through discussions and email exchange, I was still given new perspectives and aspects that I could employ in my later analysis. Further investigations made me come across the volumes of Ladefoged and

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<sup>24</sup> The latter point, naturally, applies only to the French native speakers. The point of *age* for the male English native speaker could not be determined.

<sup>25</sup> Further information can be found on <http://www.unil.ch/ling/page10109.html>.

Delattre. Delattre's work explores the phonetic features of four different languages<sup>26</sup>, and thus appeared to be quite useful. However, the book had already been published in 1965 and the way the examinations had been performed as well as the results had been recorded, seem a little obsolete in the day and age of computers and highly developed recorders. Further, its subtitle, "an interim report" (cf. Delattre 1965), already indicates that it is only an intermediate result of a study but not a completed methodology. Nevertheless, I regarded several of his approaches as rather interesting and helpful during the evaluation of my analysis and his procedures comprised of some beneficial points as well. Ladefoged, in contrast, provides a more convenient and contemporary manual, even though most of his information is much too detailed for the purpose of my work. Aside from helpful indications regarding preparatory steps and fieldwork, he also gives useful advice on technical topics. Especially during the use of *WaveSurfer* in my analysis, his work turned out to be the most appropriate. A third valuable source appeared to me in the methodology of Weisser. Although he concerns himself with the examination of special language features that occur when Germans speak English, his aim

"to devise a methodology that is suitable for extracting the most salient features out of the speech of a group of native speakers of a certain educational background and contrast them with commonly accepted ideas about the use and validity of RP [...]"  
(Weisser 2001: 6)

seemed to be quite appropriate. In addition his approaches of the topic as well as parts of his methodology were very helpful. Finally the fact that I could only refer to parts of each work was actually quite convenient as I wanted to develop my own methodology and to draw my own conclusions. Moreover would the general aim of all academics, e.g. Delattre (1965: 19) aspired an "improvement of language teaching" and Weisser (2001: 2) intended to "develop a solid, flexible and expandable methodology" to form a base for further studies in this field, but also to provide some indication regarding language teaching, giving special attention to "features of intonation and cohesion" (2001: 3), probably have gone far beyond the scope of my work.<sup>27</sup>

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<sup>26</sup> "Comparing the phonetic features of English, Spanish, German and French", Delattre 1965.

<sup>27</sup> Ladefoged appoints many aims and evidence as well, but his book appeared to be more a manual than a study with a general aim.

## 4.2 The Candidates

The candidates form one very important component in my analysis. To collect suitable information I started by recording twelve French native speakers. Although I did seek out people that approximately had equivalent English skills, the differences were enormous, when I then listened to the recordings. The recordings did not only vary remarkably in the quality, but also the lengths of the recited texts. Consequently I decided to repeat the recordings and this time choosing the candidates with special attention to their educational background regarding English. Additionally I distinguished between education received only during primary and secondary *school* as well as at *university*. Further I devised the criteria, *time spent in an English speaking country*<sup>28</sup>, which I consider as important and especially interesting, as well as *professional use*.<sup>29</sup> An additional table, referred to as *specials*, contains information regarding English, which is not elaborated on by one of the preceding topics, but could still lead to interesting conclusions later on. Continuing my recordings, only eight people (seven French and one English native) participated. Despite having access to plenty examples from the *audio archive*, these samples were unfortunately of poor recording quality. Thus, I decided to record two native English, which would allow me to expand later on in my analysis. More substantial information will be given within the following sections.

### 4.2.1 The English Native Speakers

The English natives<sup>30</sup> are comprised of one female and one male. As the main emphasis of this thesis is not on the special features of English language I have decided to utilise this rather manageable number of native speakers. Furthermore they predominantly provide a basis for comparison to the French examples, and to highlight

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<sup>28</sup> This particular topic, however, defines a time frame of at least six months or more. Short term stays or vacations appear in *specials*.

<sup>29</sup> Here I am targeting on the use of English at work in particular. The frequency is distinguished by *never, seldom, frequently* and *daily*.

<sup>30</sup> In my analysis they will be indicated as **ENS1** and **ENS2**, i.e. English native speaker 1 and English native speaker 2.

potential language or accent features. The male speaker (**ENS1**) has been chosen from the *audio archive*, which provides a small selection of the most common accents of English, i.e. accents of BrE, AmE or Australian English. There he is listed as a general mid-western speaker from Michigan, US (cf. Audio archive 2008). The *audio archive* also gives an example for a RP speaker from England, however, it is stated on the same page that “there is a difference between [his] pronunciation and RP” (ibid.). And in fact, the accent of the female speaker turned out to be much closer to RP than the reported RP speaker. Besides, the opportunity of having an English speaker from the UK and from the US enlarges the spectrum of my later comparison even more. As the French candidates have spent their time abroad either in the US or in the UK<sup>31</sup>, I would certainly come across differences regarding vowels, such as /ɑ:/ and /æ/ such as in *pass* or the diphthongs /əʊ/ and /oʊ/<sup>32</sup>, as in the word *no*, to name only a few. The female speaker (**ENS2**) comes from a city near Southampton, England. She has gone through the conventional English education and is currently a law student at the University of Plymouth. The table below will give a brief overview of the candidates. Besides the categories *age*, *gender* and *place of origin* I also added *English*, distinguishing between the *kind* of English the respective informant speaks, and finally the assumed or *estimated accent*.

Table 4: **The English Native Speakers (ENS)**

Speaker	Age	Gender	Place of Origin	English	
				Kind	Estimated Accent
<b>ENS1</b>	Un-known	Male	Michigan, US (assumed)	Mother-tongue	General mid-western speaker
<b>ENS2</b>	22	Female	Southampton, UK	Mother-tongue	Accent close to RP

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<sup>31</sup> One had even lived in Australia (cf. Table 5). However, as his accent, how will be shown later on, does more reflect a British English accent than the typical Australian accent, I decided not to add an Australian speaker to the list.

<sup>32</sup> Both times does the first phoneme represent the British English (BrE) and the second phoneme the American English (AmE) version.

#### 4.2.2 The French Native Speakers

The French speakers<sup>33</sup> account for seven (four female and three male) of the total number of participants. Their age ranges from 28 to 45. Without any exceptions do all candidates originate from and live in the area of the Swiss Romande, to be exact, in the canton of Vaud (cf. 2.1). To provide a better overview, I created the following tables. The first one contains information with reference to *age*, *gender* and *English*. The latter again distinguished between *school*, *university*, *time spent in an English speaking country* and *English for professional use*. The second table contains the above mentioned *specials* (cf. 4.2).

Table 5: **The French Native Speakers (FNS)**

Speaker	Age	Gender	English			
			School	University	Time Spent in an English Speaking Country	Professional Use
<b>FNS1</b>	34	Female	6 years	1 semester	6 months, USA	Seldom
<b>FNS2</b>	30	Female	6 years	4 years	1 year, USA 4 months, England	Frequently
<b>FNS3</b>	28	Female	6 years	1 semester	1 year, England	Seldom
<b>FNS4</b>	45	Female	6 years	4 years	1 <sup>1/2</sup> year, England	Daily
<b>FNS5</b>	37	Male	0	0	0	Seldom
<b>FNS6</b>	36	Male	6 years	1 year	2 years, USA	Daily
<b>FNS7</b>	38	Male	6 years	1 year	1 <sup>1/2</sup> year, Australia	Daily

What can be noticed is that especially FNS5 is an exception to the other French natives, neither having received a formal English education, nor having spent time abroad. Nevertheless, I decided to include his English-speaking performance, because I

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<sup>33</sup> Accordingly to the English native speakers the French native speakers are indicated as **FNS1**, **FNS2**, etc. in the further course of this work.

found it to be special.<sup>34</sup> In regards to punctuation, I also considered his example as appropriate, because on occasion he displays features typical for a non-native (and/or French) speaker. Something similar applies to FNS1. Even though she provides a certain ‘history’ of English, in matters of *time spent abroad*, she has only been exposed to the language outside of her studies for a short period of six months abroad. But, because of certain features, displayed during her recital of the sequence I was convinced to include her in my examinations. The following table adds some *special* information for every FNS. Perhaps a few of the details will hint to some phenomena occurring later on in my analysis.

Table 6: **Special Acknowledgements of the FNSs**

Speaker	English
	Specials
<b>FNS1</b>	- is the sister of FNS6
<b>FNS2</b>	- lived together with an English native speaker (from Scotland) for nearly 9 years
<b>FNS3</b>	- after her stay in England, she passed the Cambridge Certificate in Advanced English
<b>FNS4</b>	- she owns the above mentioned certificate as well and is a teacher of English
<b>FNS5</b>	- spends 1 month in New Zealand every year
<b>FNS6</b>	- speaks English with his wife, who is, however, not a native speaker of English
<b>FNS7</b>	- raises his two children bilingual, i.e. in English and French

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<sup>34</sup> According to his information, his knowledge of the language results from translating English books into French, working a lot with English sites on internet and knowing two ancient languages – i.e. Latin and Greek – which form the basis of many European languages.

### 4.3 Experimental Method

#### 4.3.1 The Text

To produce appropriate data I could later work with, I decided to ask my candidates to recite a text, which was then recorded. As it contains several examples for language analysis, a text appears to be ideal for later comparison. But in order to emphasise the value of a text, I want to recite an applicable definition by Brinker (2001: 17), who underlines the advantages of a text as a “sprachliche und zugleich kommunikative Einheit [...]”. He continues by illustrating that a text forms a “[...] begrenzte Folge von sprachlichen Zeichen, die in sich kohärent ist und die als Ganzes eine erkennbare kommunikative Funktion signalisiert” (ibid.). These explanations intensified my plan to use a recorded text. And aside from offering multiple phonetic examples a text would also allow examinations on an intonational level. First I wanted to create a body text that includes all special language features I had noticed every now and then. However, this attempt turned out to be too complex and unilateral, as I would have only had a text with special features. Hence I resorted to utilising a text from the *audio archive* with which I had worked before.<sup>35</sup> The online archive provides a large number of texts recited in various English accents. Besides RP or BBC English, also American or Australian English can be selected. Among several different texts I chose *The Rainbow Passage*, which offers common vocabulary that can be found in everyday speech.<sup>36</sup> Alongside the function words it gives two *academic words* (apparently/physical)<sup>37</sup> and a small number of proper names. Furthermore it does include all vowels, nearly all diphthongs and the majority of consonants of the English language. The original version comprises 335 words, however, for my analysis this would have been slightly too long

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<sup>35</sup> The *audio archive* from the *alt.usage.english* newsgroup can be found on <http://alt-usage-english.org>.

<sup>36</sup> Beside a written version, the text appears overall in accents from Australia, England and the USA, cf. [http://alt-usage-english.org/audio\\_archive.shtml](http://alt-usage-english.org/audio_archive.shtml).

<sup>37</sup> This result is according to the *Academic Word List*. The AWL contains a certain number of words that are defined as being ‘academic’. Foreign students are recommended to have proper knowledge of these words before starting to study at an English speaking university. More information can be found on <http://www.nottingham.ac.uk/~alzsh3/acvocab/index.htm>.

and resulted in an enormous amount of data. Therefore I reduced the text to 174 words which are distributed over 11 sentences.<sup>38</sup> The final version of the text reads as follows:

Figure 3: Text, *The Rainbow Passage*

**The Rainbow Passage**

When the sunlight strikes raindrops in the air, they act like a prism and form a rainbow. The rainbow is a division of white light into many beautiful colours. These take the shape of a long round arch, with its path high above, and its two ends apparently beyond the horizon. There is, according to legend, a boiling pot of gold at one end. People look, but no one ever finds it. When a man looks for something beyond his reach, his friends say he is looking for the pot of gold at the end of the rainbow.

Throughout the centuries men have explained the rainbow in various ways. Some have accepted it as a miracle without physical explanation. To the Hebrews it was a token that there would be no more universal floods. The Greeks used to imagine that it was a sign from the gods to foretell war or heavy rain. The Norsemen considered the rainbow as a bridge over which the gods passed from earth to their home in the sky.

[...]

Source: [http://alt-usage-english.org/rainb\\_txt.html](http://alt-usage-english.org/rainb_txt.html)

#### 4.3.2 Recording the Data

As already mentioned above I carried out two sets of recordings (cf. 4.2). Nearly all the recordings of the second set were realised in a work office. ENS2 was recorded in a different place, but nevertheless with similar surroundings as occurred in the office. All throughout the recordings, I made sure that was as little noise as possible in and around the room as “the main factors in analysing spoken data is the quality of the recordings” (Weisser 2001: 53). Nevertheless, some background noise just could not be avoided.<sup>39</sup> Weisser furthermore states that “background noise, loudness or clarity of enunciation can have a major influence on the listener’s perception and therefore the quality of the transcription”. Especially relating to phonetic transcriptions he remarks that “this

<sup>38</sup> This count excludes the headline.

<sup>39</sup> Additionally, the background noise of the audio archive speaker is very bad. Unfortunately I could not have any influence on this recording.

[attempt] becomes even more difficult as one has to perceive not only **what** is said, but also, and especially, **how**” (ibid.). Despite wanting my candidates to maintain a natural composure, I provided each of them with a copy of the text in advance to familiarise with, before they then read out the text during the recording. I believe that being entirely unaware of the contents of the text would have caused nervousness and consequently completely different results. It would have also enlarged the data tremendously, as it could have caused immoderate “hesitation phenomena like extended pauses” (Weisser 2001: 57)<sup>40</sup>, repetitions or mispronunciations of words. Finally I was equipped with text samples that were all reproduced in a way I could properly work with. All texts show a reasonable degree of fluidity (the longest recording lasts 01:19sec and the shortest 00:52sec)<sup>41</sup>, despite some occasional hesitation pauses, or mistakes due to mispronunciation or intonation. They feature some of the language phenomena I hoped would emerge, e.g. some examples showing hints of assimilation or elision. Others, I expected to turn out in a slightly different way, e.g. pronunciation of the phoneme /h/, while with some I did not count at all – e.g. high occurrence of an audible ‘air flow’ after a final plosive.

To achieve a high degree of quality and decrease the influence of background noise, I executed the recordings with the *ARES-M* audio recorder from *Nagra Audio*. Facing the subject of working with the recorded data on the computer later on, Weisser (2001: 54) highlights in his work the importance of reducing background noise during a recording to a great extent as “computer programs usually need an extremely high quality input in order to be able to interpret and display the data correctly [...]”. Additionally he cites Liebermann and Blumstein<sup>42</sup> who advice that “the signal should be at least 20 dB above the level of background noise” (ibid.). With the selected recording device and the proper room I tried to comply with these parameters the best I could. The already mentioned device *ARES-M* was appropriate to operate with. Even though it had been produced for professional use in the first place, its “built-in microphone [and] [...] an external clip-on

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<sup>40</sup> Weisser has dedicated an entire topic to the subject of familiarity, cf. Weisser 2001: 57.

<sup>41</sup> These indications of time exclude the ENS. The length of their presentations amounts 00:50sec each, however, they both skipped the headline.

<sup>42</sup> The indication of source for this volume is given as follows: Liebermann P. & S. Blumstein (1988). *Speech Physiology, Speech Perception, and Acoustic Phonetics*. Cambridge: CUP.

stereo microphone” (Nagra 2008), enable recordings with an excellent quality. I accomplished my recordings with a sampling rate (frequency) of 44.1 kHz and with a bit rate of 705 kbps. Furthermore the “recording media [of the *ARES-M*] is a 1 GB built-in memory, for the recording of PCM Mono or Stereo audio” (ibid). I recorded every text in Mono.<sup>43</sup> The device allowed me to record in a \*.wav sound format.

#### 4.4 Working with the Recorded Data

The following topic will illustrate the steps that enabled me to accomplish the subsequent analysis, and helped me draw my final conclusions. After the completion of all recordings I just needed to complete a few more little steps until eventually I could start with my analysis. I decided to accomplish my examinations with the sound program *WaveSurfer*<sup>44</sup>, which provides quite comprehensible applications for speech analysis or sound description. However, before using my recordings on WS, I needed to convert them into mp3 formats, as these turned out to be the best to work with on WS. Applicable shareware programs for this task can be found on the internet easily. The subsequent topics will now explain how I proceeded in detail.

##### 4.4.1 Setting up the Tables

To form a proper basis that provides all the collected data at a glance, I created a set of tables in an Excel worksheet. There, each table corresponds to exactly one sentence, with its content in orthographic (green) and phonetic<sup>45</sup> (grey) mode and finally its execution by each candidate (lavender). According to this the appearance of the tables is as follows: the first vertical column lists the orthographic version, the second gives the phonetic version of the dictionary and finally all subsequent columns gives each sentence in the manner the respective candidate recited it. I started with the English

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<sup>43</sup> Further information in this regard can be found on <http://www.nagraaudio.com/pro/index.php>.

<sup>44</sup> In the further course, the program will be indicated by the abbreviation WS. A detailed description of the entire program can be found on <http://www.speech.kth.se/software/>.

<sup>45</sup> This column gives the phonetic transcription in British and American English (→ BrE & AmE).

native speakers and proceeded with the French native speakers. The following illustration will visualise the criteria I have just devised.

Figure 4: Extract of the Transcription Tables

Sentence 1	Dictionary		ENS1 (00:00sec)	...	FNS1 (00:02sec) <sup>46</sup>	...
	BrE	AmE				
<i>when</i>	wen		wen ðə 'sʌnlɑɪt̩		wen ðə 'sʌnlɑɪt̩	
<i>the</i>	ði: - ði - ðə					
<i>sunlight</i>	'sʌnlɑɪt					
<i>strikes</i>	straɪks		ʃtraɪks̩ 'reɪndrɔ:bs		ʃtraɪk̩	
<i>raindrops</i>	'reɪndrɒps	'reɪndrɑ:ps			'reɪndrɔ:bs̩	
<i>in</i>	ɪn		ɪn ði eər̩		ɪn si eər̩	
<i>the</i>	ði: - ði - ðə					
<i>air</i>	eə - æ̃r	ẽr				
,						
<i>they</i>	ðei		ðei ækt̩ laɪk ə̩		sei 'ækt̩ laɪk ə̩	
...						

The complete versions can be found in the appendix.

Furthermore, all tables also include the indication of the punctuation marks (yellow), to specify possible phenomena related to stress or intonation. Having completed this basic body of tables, I started to transcribe the recordings for each candidate.

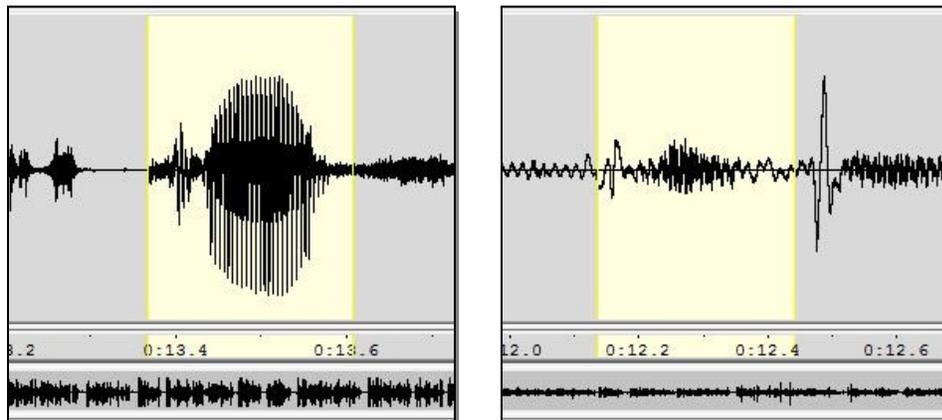
#### 4.4.2 Transcribing the Recordings

I realised the transcriptions with the *waveform*-pane of WS. Due to the quality of the recordings, and together with the *zoom*-applications the program provides, I achieved a detailed display of the waveforms of virtually all recordings. In this manner I gathered much valuable and interesting information which were of particular importance for my continued work. I then inserted each recital word of its respective candidate. However, due to the features of connected speech, i.e. assimilation, elision or different word linking phenomena, it was impossible to write every transcription into a single cell as it appears in the column of a dictionary. Occasionally, using a single cell for the entire

<sup>46</sup> The time below each speaker indicates the starting point of the sentence, e.g. at 00:02 seconds.

transcription succeeded, but for most of the time I had to merge the cells were I encountered the aforementioned phenomena, i.e. complex phrases.<sup>47</sup> As already mentioned above, the solution to individualise the recordings was ideal to work with. The fact that I had paid much attention to conduct my recordings with an advanced device and to decrease the background noise to a minimum, now had paid off. Plosives, aspirations, pauses or stops were perfectly visible on the *waveform*-pane. The benefit became even more eye-catching once I worked with the sample of ENS1, the only speaker on whose recording I had no influence on. The sampling rate of this recording is 11 kHz and the bit rate 176 kbps. This significantly low sampling and bit rate affected its display and quality on WS. Besides the low volume it had been recorded in, the extremely high background noises also made this particular example fairly hard to analyse. The following figure will illustrate the difficulty.

Figure 5: *Waveform-panes*



The highlighted part shows the realisations of the word *path* – left, the version of ENS2 and right the version of ENS1.

The illustrations clarify the differences in quality. On the left picture, the beginning of the word *path*, the end of the preceding word, as well as the stop in between them can be recognised precisely. The waveform has a clear shape. In the illustration on the right-hand side, the position of the word can be supposed only by the compaction of the waves. But it is quite complicated to spot either a beginning or an end of the word.

<sup>47</sup> Cf. to the table in Figure 4. The cells marked in lavender visualize the explained topic again.

Furthermore, the waves before the recited word give an example of the extra, or the background noise.

## **5 Analysis**

The content of the subsequent chapter deals exclusively with the analysis of the recordings. At the same time I differentiated between two major topics – segmental and particular features. This classification was necessary, as I wanted to address some general characteristics of connected speech applying to all available candidates, as well as some particular appearances referring only to individual cases. While the first section (cf. 5.1) discusses phenomena occurring in between words, such as assimilation, elision, word linking and h-dropping, the second section (cf. 5.2) will concentrate on singular cases, by highlighting its special features occurring in words.

### **5.1 Segmental Features**

This section will give detailed information about selected features of connected speech. Besides the characteristics of assimilation, elision and h-dropping, some special occurrences in regards to word linking will be discussed as well. I have chosen these particular features according to their execution throughout the recordings. It would have been unproductive to mention features, which only occur briefly or not at all. I must point out, however, that within the present examination, the aforementioned features concentrate exclusively on “phenomena occurring between words, i.e. [related] to transitional effects” (Weisser 2001: 105), as some of them can also appear within words. The wealth of collected data made me arrive at the following decision. The analysis is primarily engaged with patterns related to consonants. Nevertheless, interesting appearances in matters of vowels are not left untouched. I proceeded with my work by observing the recordings of the FNSs first and comparing them with the ones of the ENSs subsequently. The main focus and the results of each topic are shown in tables which follow a recurring pattern – the first column defines the sentence, the second the phrase. Afterwards the samples vary, but in most of the cases, the respective feature is indicated in an appropriate manner. The last columns mostly display the results by indicating, how many of the ENSs and FNSs have attained the particular phenomenon.

### 5.1.1 Assimilation

“When a sound anticipates some feature of pronunciation of a following sound, or continues some feature of a preceding sound, it is said to ‘assimilate’ to that sound” (Knowles 1990: 130) – this distinguishing element of connected speech appears in many languages. However, specific analyses demand a more detailed division into perseverative and anticipatory assimilation (cf. Laver 1994: 383f). English and French, both, tend towards the latter type, as Laver (ibid.) states, “anticipatory assimilation [...] is much more common” in English, but also “not uncommonly heard in French”.

Characteristic for the anticipatory type is for instance that “the alveolar consonants /t, d, n/ [...] tend to assimilate to a following [bilabial] or velar consonant” (Knowles 1990: 130). Subsequently phrases like *that person*, /ðæt pɜːsn/, become [ðæp pɜːsŋ] or *one king*, /wʌŋ kiŋ/, becomes [wʌŋ kiŋ] (cf. Roach 1991: 124f). The situation appears a little different with the alveolar consonants /s/ and /z/. “The only noticeable change [in their case is] that **s** becomes **ʃ**, and **z** becomes **ʒ** when followed by **ʃ** or **ʒ**, as in: ‘this shoe’ **ðɪʃ ʃuː**” (ibid.). Although assimilation “in English functions predominantly in a[n] [...] ANTICIPATORY direction” (Cruttenden 1994: 225), the present text, however, shows only three occurrences of this feature, which will be given in the following table. Besides the *official phonetic transcription* of the *phrase*, its *appearance* featuring assimilation is indicated and finally how many of the *ENSs* and *FNSs* realised it.

Table 7: Anticipatory Assimilation

Sentence	Phrase	Official Phonetic Transcription	Appearance	Realisation	
				ENS	FNS
9	<i>would be</i>	wʊd bi	wʊb bi	0	1
10	<i>Greeks used</i>	ɡriːks juːzd	ɡriːkʃ juːzd	1	0
11	<i>Norsemen considered</i>	nɔːsmen kənˈsɪdəd	nɔːsmenɿ kənˈsɪdəd	2	0

What can be seen immediately is that the final result of anticipatory assimilation consists of a manageable number. Nevertheless, the results are still significant. Regarding the ENSs, the realisation is a total of 50%. Both produce a final velar nasal

/ŋ/ in *Norsemen*. Moreover does ENS2 create a clear final postalveolar fricative /ʃ/ in the unit [gri:kʃ]. In contrast to that ENS1 even makes a little stop between the two words. However, for the phrase *would be*, where I had estimated the highest frequency, both pronounced a final /d/ in *would*, even though in the case of ESN2 it appears to be very weak, in matters of ENS1, both words still show a certain degree of connection.

The results of the FNSs illustrate a different situation. Out of 27 possible assimilations, only one has been realized (FNS1 = *would be* → [wu:bbi:]) and for this particular example the estimation must be seen as subjective.<sup>48</sup> All other FNSs pronounce the phrase without assimilating the adjacent consonants /d/ and /b/. However, other constructions and phenomena appear instead. Besides the pronunciation of /d/ in *would*, FNS3 seems to insert a dark /ɹ/ before the final plosive. FNS6 and -4 make an audible stop between the two words. Furthermore does the latter pronounce [wuʔ], with a stressed final plosive. An elision occurs in the realisation of FNS5. As the written form of *would* shows a /l/, he also produces the consonant, in all probability a /ʔ/ in his example. However, the final /d/ of *would* gets omitted and the construction appears as [wuʔbi] after all. FNS7 changes the phrase, as he makes a mistake in reading, i.e. *would not be*. After all, this version would open new possibilities such as [wunnɒpbi]. Unfortunately his realisation of this phrase still does not give any evidence for assimilation. None of the French candidates assimilates the phrases *Greeks used* and *Norsemen considered*. All FNSs make a more or less audible stop between the words. Except the speakers FNS2 and -3 seem to link the words of both phrases to a certain extent, speaker FNS1 does this only in the latter combination. However, there is neither a perceptible assimilation from /s/ to /ʃ/ nor from /n/ to /ŋ/.

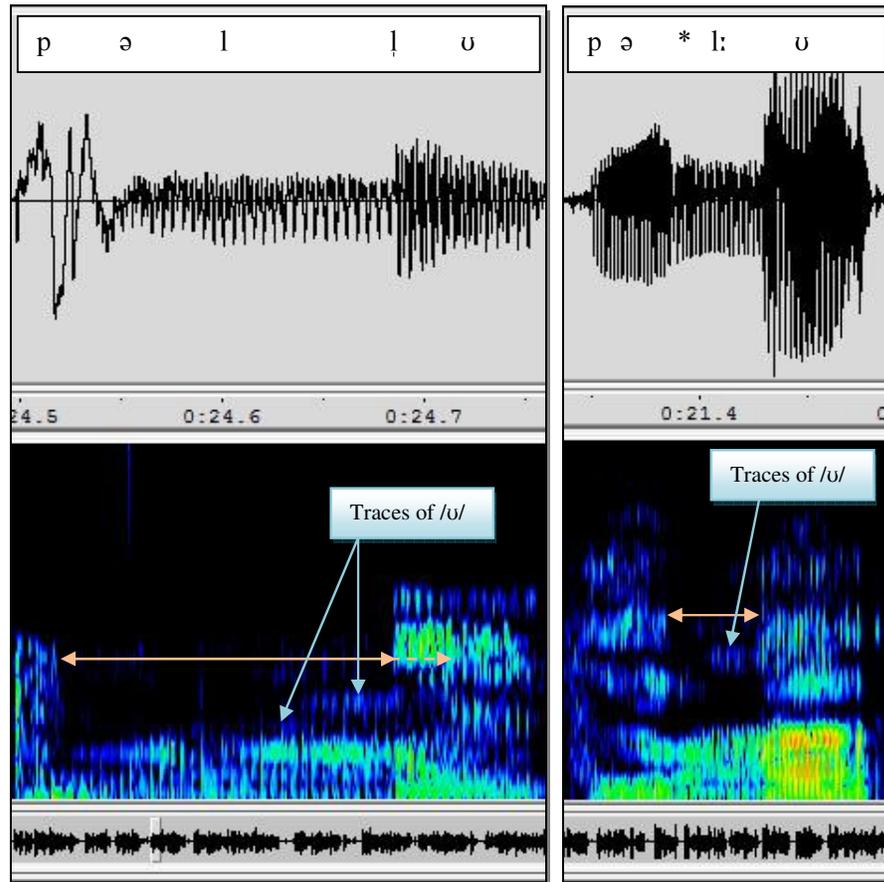
Two particular realisations that feature quite a high frequency among the ENSs, as well as among the FNSs, appear within the phrases *people look* (sent. 5) and *friends say* (sent. 6). Knowles characterises it as the feature of *double consonants* (cf. Knowles 1990: 134), where “in most cases the duration of the first consonant is held for the duration of the second”. In its final realisation there “is only one alveolar articulation,

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<sup>48</sup> To my ears, the speaker produces the construction [wu:bbi:].

and it would not be normal to release the first [consonant] before starting the second” (ibid.). He substantiates his statement with the phrase *ten nuns*, which would rather appear as [ten:ʌnz] “than [ten] followed by [nʌnz]” (cf. ibid.). The characterisation of the phenomenon applies to some of my examples, but the consequent description corresponds only to a certain extent. Some candidates, primarily the ENSs, produce the above mentioned feature, though in my opinion with an accentuated and partly prolonged C<sup>i</sup> of the following word and not a lengthened C<sup>f</sup> of the preceding word. I attached both examples to anticipatory assimilation, as in my opinion, they incline to assimilate, due to the same or a similar C<sup>f</sup> and C<sup>i</sup> (→ **I** – **I** and **z** – **s**). During rapid speech, however, the weaker one, which seems to be C<sup>f</sup> in both phrases, is subordinated, in some cases even elided, and constructions like ['pi:pə\*l:ʊk] or [fren(d)\*s:eɪ] emerge. Because of that, I differentiated the first phrase by ‘elision after assimilation’ and ‘accentuated assimilation’. The latter point results from the fact that some of the FNSs produce both /l/, with an accentuation on the C<sup>i</sup>. The first classification has been realised by five candidates (both ENSs and three FNSs), the latter, which conforms to the transcription ['pi:pəl|ʊk], by four. Unfortunately, I had difficulties to find a concrete visible proof for the just explained occurrence within the spectrogram, although my ears convince me that the just mentioned facts are applicable. Nevertheless, I still decided to insert the pictures below to exemplify the different lengths of /l/-articulation, which, to me, forms one reason that my suspicion is at least somewhat reasonable.

Figure 6: Different Lengths of /l/-Articulation



The pictures show the fragments [-pəll̩u-] (pic. 1) and [-pə\*l:u-] (pic. 2) with the arrows indicating the approximant length of /l/-articulation (light orange) and traces of the subsequent vowels (light blue).<sup>49</sup>

Observing these pictures, the different lengths of /l/ are clearly visible. It must be noticed though, that the arrows indicate only the approximant place of /l/-articulation. Listening to the recordings, the preparation of /l/ within the pronunciation of the preceding /ə/ can be heard. According to this, the preparation of the following /u/ can already be noticed within the pronunciation of /l/. Especially the latter case can be seen in both pictures. The first image represents the ‘accentuated assimilation’. Its normal arrow is extended with a dashed arrow, whose starting point, in my opinion, is the onset of the second, accentuated /l/. However, at this point, it is merging with the following vowel. The influence of the two phonemes on each other can be recognised. On the

<sup>49</sup> The first picture gives the realisation of FNS2 and the second of ENS2.

contrary, the second picture shows a very short arrow, indicating the length of /l/. Furthermore it specifies the preceding /ə/ and following /ʊ/, which almost merge. This, consequently, leaves only little space for the articulation of /l/. The results concerning the second phrase, *friends say*, appear in a similar manner. Though in this particular case, there are even two consonants (/z/ and /d/ of *friends*) which get elided in some examples and finally a form like [frenseɪ] emerges. Among the realisations are three occurrences that correspond to this combination (FNS1, -2, -5). Three other persons skip the /z/ but pronounce a weak /d/ (ENS2, FNS6, -7). For ENS1 and FNS3 it is not sure whether there is a /d/ or not.<sup>50</sup> FNS4 is the only case where it is clearly definable that she produces both consonants, nevertheless, the final voiced /z/ is replaced by a voiceless /s/.

All stated results, except the last ones, disprove the statement of Laver (cf. p. 41), that assimilation takes place in English and is also not uncommon in French. I assumed, the fact that assimilation, according to Laver, also occurs occasionally in French, would benefit the present results. One reason that probably impinged on them is that this examination shows merely a small selection of persons expressing only a fraction of the English vocabulary by reading out a text. The latter influences the results even considerably – I have described the problem of naturalness, as well as the importance of having an appropriate basis for comparison in 4.3.1 and 4.3.2. Another possible explanation is expressed in the paper of Niebuhr (et al 2009) who contradicts to the statement of Laver by claiming that “in contrast to English, [...] assimilation in general is [...] non-existent in French”. As a seldom ‘exception’ he names the case where a final /z/ occasionally becomes a /ʒ/, as in the combination *quinze juin*, [kɛ̃z ʒỹɛ̃] (cf. *ibid.*). He defines this occurrence as ‘regressive assimilation in sibilant sequences’ (cf. *ibid.*), which finally cause the combination to appear as [kɛ̃ʒỹɛ̃]. However, as the /z/ is completely taken off in this phonetic transcription and not being replaced by another /ʒ/, it is arguable, whether this feature is assimilation or actually elision. He continues with similar examples, as *je suis*, [ʒəsɥi], becoming [ʃ:ỹɥi] or *je sais*, [ʒəsɛ], becoming [ʃ:ɛ] (cf. *ibid.*), which substantiate this suspicion, as both times the /ə/ is elided. In summary

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<sup>50</sup> This latter possibility appears as (/d/) within the transcription tables.

he gives the information that this kind of assimilation is “restricted to certain regional variants of French” only (ibid.). So apart from some small combinations taking place only in certain regional contexts, anticipatory assimilation seems to be uncommon in French. And finally considering the statement of Niebuhr (et al 2009), and the fact that many native speakers of French answer the question after an appropriate example of anticipatory assimilation in French with a long silence, could explain the obtained results. The circumstance of reading out a text aloud, influences them in addition.

Regarding perseverative<sup>51</sup> assimilation, the analysis disproves the statements of Laver (cf. p. 41) and Cruttenden (1994: 260) that “*progressive (or perseverative) assimilation is relatively uncommon*”. Both, ENSs and FNSs, show a much higher occurrence of perseverative assimilation than anticipatory.<sup>52</sup> But as already mentioned, this result applies only to the present case and can therefore not be generalised. To examine the text on perseverative assimilation, it was necessary to classify this specific type a little more. Due to the existing examples in the text, I subdivided into ‘pure’ assimilation and ‘special cases’. ‘Pure’ assimilation covers all clear occurrences, where the initial consonant of the following word assimilates to the final of the preceding. In my text, this mainly applies to constructions where “a word-initial **ð** follows a plosive or nasal at the end of a preceding word” (Roach 1991: 125). Because of this reason I decided to divide again into ‘pure’ assimilation with a) nasals and b) plosives. The category ‘special cases’ concerns an overall number of three matters, which I would assign to assimilation, however, this assumption can be discussed.

The realisation of ‘pure’ assimilation among the ENSs shows a result of 70%, yet there is one example that I excluded from this table as it contains an exceptional attribute, which will be described later on. Nevertheless the results show that at least for this text perseverative assimilation is maybe not as uncommon as often claimed. The FNSs confirm this assertion, despite an overall occurrence of only<sup>53</sup> 31.4%, as also here the realisation is more frequently than for the anticipatory assimilation. The table below

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<sup>51</sup> In some volumes it also appears as *progressive* assimilation.

<sup>52</sup> The realisations of anticipatory assimilation are located around 50%, the ones for perseverative assimilation around 70%.

<sup>53</sup> In comparison with the ENSs, this number is of course far less.

demonstrates all combinations of ‘pure’ assimilation. Besides the *phrase*, it nominates the *consonants* which are involved in the process of, and show their appearance in *assimilation*. Finally, the *realisations* of the respective candidates are given.

Table 8: ‘Pure’ Perseverative Assimilation

Sentence	Phrase	C <sup>f</sup> - C <sup>i</sup>	Assimilation	Realisation	
				ENS	FNS
1	<i>when the</i>	n - ð	→ nn <sup>n</sup>	2	2
	<i>in the</i>	n - ð	→ nn <sup>n</sup>	1	0
6	<i>at the</i>	t - ð	→ tt <sup>p</sup>	2	6
7	<i>throughout the</i>	t - ð	→ tt <sup>p</sup>	1	5
9	<i>token that</i>	n - ð	→ nn <sup>n</sup>	1	0
	<i>that there</i>	t - ð	→ tt <sup>p</sup>	2	4
10	<i>imagine that</i>	n - ð	→ nn <sup>n</sup>	0	1 <sup>54</sup>
	<i>from the</i>	m - ð	→ mm <sup>n</sup>	1	0
11	<i>considered the</i>	d - ð	→ dd <sup>p</sup>	2	3
	<i>in the</i>	n - ð	→ nn <sup>n</sup>	2	1

The abbreviations C<sup>f</sup> and C<sup>i</sup> indicate the final consonant of the preceding, and the initial consonant of the following word (cf. Roach 1991: 124). The superscript <sup>n</sup> and <sup>p</sup> indicate the assimilation with nasals or plosives.

The table gives the realisations of both subdivisions – with nasals and plosives.<sup>55</sup> ‘Pure’ assimilation with

a) nasals appears within six examples of the text. The ENSs realise it altogether seven times, which gives an occurrence of 58.3%. Only in matters of the phrase *from the* (sent. 10), of ENS2, it is a little uncertain. I have identified the realisation as [fəmmə]. Nevertheless, it is also possible that there is a slight trace of initial /d/ before the second /ə/. By contrast, only 7.1% of realisations appear among the FNSs. A closer look into the transcription tables and Table 5 shows that the persons (FNS2 and -6), who present an assimilation, have lived either in the USA or England for a longer period of time. Perhaps this could be a small sign showing that the level of English of those two

<sup>54</sup> This example should actually be nasalised, but it has been realised with /dd/ instead of /nn/. It is counted as assimilation, but in the list of the plosives and not in the nasals.

<sup>55</sup> The nasals include the bilabial /m/ and the alveolar /n/, the plosives the alveolar /t/ and /d/.

persons is, to a certain extent, close to the one of a native speaker. The other speakers pronounce an initial /ð/ in *the*, some even produce a small stop between the words, e.g. FNS5 and -7 (sent. 1). In *imagine that* (sent. 10), FNS6 adds a final /d/ to the preceding word, which therefore appears like [ɪ'mædʒɪnd]. Consequently, the following initial /ð/ is not being influenced by /n/, but by /d/ and thus assimilates to [ɪ'mædʒɪnddə]. So the actual nasal assimilation changes towards a plosive. An exceptional attribute appears within the phrase *man have* (sent. 7). However, as this assimilation is the effect of the replacement of the consonant /h/, I decided to mention it separately. Weisser (2001: 113) describes the phenomenon as 'assimilation after elision', where the "initial /h/ can assimilate after [a process] of elision". I tend to characterise it as 'assimilation by the replacement of one element' – in this case /h/ by /n/ – as the /h/ is more replaced than elided. According to this, the aforementioned phrase would appear as [mɛnnəv] in a fluent conversation. Among my candidates only ENS2 realises this exact version. All FNSs, except FNS5, who nevertheless, connects the words to a high extend, separate the two words and pronounce the /h/ of *have*. 'Pure' assimilation with

b) plosives can be found altogether four times. But the less it is in number, the more it occurs. Among the ENSs its occurrence is of 87.5%, among the FNSs of 67.8%. According to this rather high number of appearances in both language groups, it can be claimed that this type of assimilation is perhaps easier to realise than the type prior. Among the candidates, two demonstrations can be found that tend more to elision than to assimilation. Both times, this refers to the phrase *throughout the* (sent. 7). First, ENS1 forms something like [θru'ɑʊt.ə]. It seems, as if the concentration in this lies on the final plosive /t/. This affects the weaker initial /ð/ to such an extent that it finally gets elided. The situation regarding FNS4 is slightly diverse. Her realisation of the phrase, [θru<sup>h</sup>ɑʊ\*ðə], shows a final /t/ in *throughout* that gives way to the following /ð/ and is therefore omitted. However, if this is correct, the example should be assigned to anticipatory assimilation accompanied by elision. The special phenomenon in *imagine that* (sent. 10), realised by FNS6, has already been explained in the section before.

The three 'special cases' of assimilation, which have been indicated earlier, will be summarised now. I have decided to mention them separately, as they, in my opinion,

follow the pattern of perseverative assimilation, however, I could not assign them to any generally applicable rule. The little table below will name them and give their *appearance in assimilation*, to facilitate the overview.

Table 9: ‘Special Cases’ of Perseverative Assimilation

Sentence	Phrase	Possible Appearance in Assimilation
2	<i>of white</i>	ə <b>ff</b> <sup>w</sup> ait
6	<i>of the</i>	ə <b>ff</b> ə
11	<i>which the</i>	wɪt <b>ʃ</b> ə

The consonants in **bold** indicate the assimilation.

Two of the combinations involve a final fricative /v/, or rather /f/, that is followed by a semi-vowel /w/ in the first case, and by a fricative /ð/ in the second. The assimilations are caused by the C<sup>f</sup> of the preceding word influencing the initial of the following word. However, for the two examples with /f/, actually the initial of the following word makes the speaker produce a C<sup>f</sup> /f/ instead of a /v/. This, on the other hand, influences the initial in a way that it assimilates with the preceding /f/. The situation in the third example is not that complicated. There the C<sup>i</sup> /ð/ subordinates itself to the stronger preceding C<sup>f</sup> /ʃ/ and both assimilate. The realisations of the just mentioned examples are easy to survey. The second example has not been realised at all. In contrast to that the other two examples show occurrences to a certain degree. In matters of the first, FNS5 produces something like [ə**ff**<sup>w</sup>ait]. Though, this claim is debatable, as there is – and probably will always be – a certain degree or trace of lip rounding due to the semi-vowel /w/ in *white*. But if the construction is spoken in rapid speech the lips are definitely less rounded and the articulation of /w/ is more dentalised because of the preceding /f/. The third example is executed by three persons. ENS2 and FNS6, both, produce both a construction like [wɪt**ʃ**sə] and [wɪd**ʃ**sə]. Even though this does not completely correspond to the pattern in the table, it can be recognized that both speakers assimilate the initial consonant of *the* to the preceding final /ʃ/. Also FNS3 assimilates the combination, but this is more due to mispronunciation. As she says [wɪt], instead of [wɪtʃ], her final realisation becomes [wɪttə] and could therefore perhaps be related to ‘pure’ assimilation with plosives.

Completing this section, it becomes obvious that the results in terms of assimilation are not as satisfactory as perhaps favoured. On the contrary, would a realisation of 90% or even 100% have also been quite peculiar. Nevertheless, the acquired awareness still allows to draw a number of conclusions. According to this, I disproved that the frequency of anticipatory assimilation is higher than perseverative assimilation. This of course applies only to my sample text. Furthermore, regarding the FNSs, I revealed the partly high developed ability of speaking English – e.g. when the FNSs produced various features of assimilation – or a certain high degree of English, which, showed its limitations in matters of assimilation – e.g. in cases where the FNSs, albeit in possession of a good English, failed to produce the respective feature. But as assimilation is a characteristic that indeed occurs frequently, though not even always within the English language, the obtained results are not insignificant. Moreover an analysis like this, also involves a number of problems. Some arise from the perspective of examination. Appropriately Weisser (2001: 119) points out that by

“analysing phenomena such as assimilation, elision and glottal stops, it is extremely easy to be misled by preconceived assumptions. This is partly due to the fact that, on a purely auditory basis, it might be extremely difficult to tell the different phenomena apart [...].”

Another difficulty emerges out of the modality, the data has been collected. Even though a text sample offers many benefits to do an analysis as the present one (cf. 4.3.1), it also shows limitations, especially in terms of naturalness and fluidity. However, in order to achieve applicable data and to have some similar indications for comparison, it was necessary to find an acceptable compromise.

### 5.1.2 Elision<sup>56</sup>

According to Roach (1991: 127) “elision is typical of rapid, casual speech”. But the characteristic cannot only be found within the English language, also French shows combinations were elements “especially at or in the vicinity of word boundaries”

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<sup>56</sup> As already mentioned, my examinations concentrate exclusively on features of elision in word boundaries. Possible elisions within words are indicated in the transcription tables, however, not specifically explained in the analysis.

(Cruttenden 1994: 261) are elided, e.g. in the case of *je suis* the /ə/ is elided occasionally and a form like [ʃ:ʔi] appears. The same appears in *petit*, where also the /ə/ is omitted, which is finally spoken as [pti]. After the identification and location of possible elisions within my text sample, I examined all transcriptions and realisations and was astonished, which of them had been realised, by whom and how.<sup>57</sup> Due to a certain pattern of appearance and to facilitate the overview, I distinguished the features into three subcategories – a) ‘elision of vowels’ (e+v), b) ‘elision of consonants’ (e+c) and c) ‘elision of C<sup>f</sup>, which is, however, occasionally replaced by a glottal stop’ (eC<sup>f</sup>/rb/?/). Furthermore, I developed the following table, containing the just mentioned classifications. Besides a precise specification of *sentence* and *phrase*, it indicates the *ENSs* and *FNSs*, each with the three different classifications of elision (→ e+v, e+c and eC<sup>f</sup>/rb/?/) to distinguish, which elisions have been realised, by how many speakers. To tag the possible candidates for elision, I allocated a certain colour to each classification and highlighted the candidates accordingly.

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<sup>57</sup> For the analysis I decided to mention only examples, which have been realised to some extent.

Table 10: Occurrences of Elision

Sentence	Phrase	ENS			FNS		
		e+v	e+c	eC <sup>f</sup> /rɪ/?/	e+v	e+c	eC <sup>f</sup> /rɪ/?/
1	<i>they act</i>	2		1eC <sup>f</sup>	1		
1	<i>like a</i>				2		
1	<i>and form</i>	1	1		2	3	
3	<i>take the</i>			1rɪ/?/			1e of /ð/
3	<i>high above</i>	2			5		
3	<i>and its</i>		2			7	
3	<i>beyond the</i>		2			4 <sup>58</sup>	
4	<i>is according</i>				1		
4	<i>to legend</i>					2	
4	<i>part of</i>			1rɪ/?/			
4	<i>gold at</i>			1rɪ/?/			1eC <sup>f</sup>
5	<i>no one</i>	2			6		
6	<i>beyond his</i>					2 <sup>59</sup>	
6	<i>he is</i>	1			6		
6	<i>end of</i>					3	
7	<i>explained the</i>		2			7	
8	<i>without</i>			1eC <sup>f</sup>			
9	<i>it was</i>						3eC <sup>f</sup>
10	<i>used to</i>		2			7	
10	<i>it was</i>			1eC <sup>f</sup>			2eC <sup>f</sup>
11	<i>gods passed</i>					4	

The empty cells indicate that no kind of elision has been realised.

What becomes obvious immediately is that the ENSs show a certain number of performances of category a). Nearly all possibilities have been realised, even the three cases involving diphthongs (sent. 1, ex. 1; sent. 3, ex. 2 and sent. 5). According to this Cruttenden (1994: 261) defines that if “one syllable ends with a closing diphthong ([...] in RP) and the next syllable begins with a vowel, the second element of the diphthong may be elided”. The pattern partly applies to my examples, however, I am not exactly sure, whether I should assign the phrases *they act* and *high above* to elision, i.e. the

<sup>58</sup> Additionally, there are two special cases among the FNS, where the final /d/ of *beyond* is replaced by a /ŋ/.

<sup>59</sup> There are again two special cases as in sentence 3 that replace the final /d/ of *beyond* obviously by a /ŋ/.

second element of the diphthongs /eɪ/ and /aɪ/ would be elided in connection with the following /æ/ and /ə/ and forms like [ðe\*ækt]<sup>60</sup> or [ha\*ə'bʌv] would appear, or if they match more with the features of “vocalic junctures [...] [with] a slight linking [j]” (Cruttenden 1994: 264), i.e. also here the second element of the diphthong is elided, but the transition from /e/ to /æ/ and /a/ to /ə/ creates a linking or gliding /j/ to facilitate the pronunciation and finally combinations like [ðe<sup>j</sup>ækt] and [ha<sup>j</sup>ə'bʌv] would emerge. In cases of incidence within my transcriptions I decided for the latter possibility, yet I still cited the examples in this topic, as elision is preside over the entire process. The third event, where a diphthong is involved, appears in the phrase *no one* (sent. 5). But recalling the above mentioned quotation of Cruttenden, this diphthong is not followed by another vowel, but by a semi-vowel /w/. Nevertheless, in rapid speech the second element of the diphthong also seems to get lost, as it frequently appears like [no\*wʌn]. And the realisations of elisions of both, ENSs and FNSs, prove this assumption. So perhaps the statement of Cruttenden could also include the semi-vowel /w/, if following a closing diphthong. Regarding the other e+v-combinations, one ENS omitted the initial /ɪ/ in *is* (sent. 6, ex. 2) so that the pronoun finally appears as [hi:z]. The feature results, as the vowel /ɪ/ is preceded by a long /i:/ which is subordinating the following initial. In this case, the subordination leads to elision. Furthermore the initial /ə/ of *and* (sent. 1, ex. 3) is omitted, as it is a weak form in this particular case. The other two possibilities of a weak /ə/ are not realised by the ENSs. In matters of the FNSs, the results appear slightly different. Compared to the ENS the realisation of classification a) is less, however, towards possible phrases it is more. Only one FNS realised the above mentioned form of *they act*. All other candidates produce a clear stop between the two words. On the contrary, the other combinations with diphthongs have been realised by more people. This raises the question, if the statement of Cruttenden really applies only to RP English, or if also some other dialects of English should be included, as even non-native speaker show the phenomenon? Moreover, the FNSs offer two cases where a weak /ə/ is elided (sent. 1, ex. 2 and sent. 4, ex. 1), besides the initial /ə/ in *and* (sent. 1, ex. 3). According to this, the weak initial of *according* gets omitted by one FNS. The

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<sup>60</sup> The asterisk indicates the elided element.

term appears as follows [<sup>\*</sup>ˈkɔːrdɪŋ], with a very strong primary stress on /k/ and the first syllable. Finally also the phrase of sentence 6, example 2 exhibits quite a high frequency of realisations.

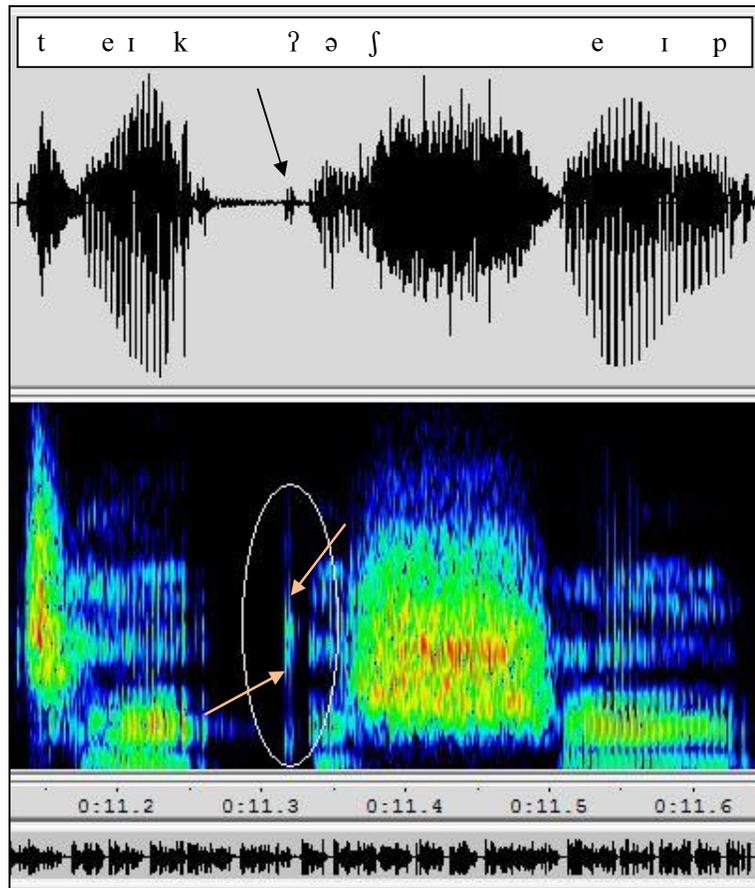
Another situation can be examined in matters of classification b). The ENSs show a realisation of 50%. By contrast, the FNSs, for the first time, come up with a higher frequency, namely of 61.9%. Supplementary include the realisations of the FNSs even more examples of elision, however, they are exceptional. Consequently, I decided to mention them separately. The first realisation appears in both combinations with *beyond* (sent. 3, ex.4 and sent. 6, ex. 1). There, additionally to the normal realisations, two forms, which contract the final /n/ and /d/ to a /ŋ/, appear (both times realised by FNS1 and -7) and produce a form like [biˈjɔŋ]. Furthermore, does FNS3 elides the final /t/ of *it* (sent. 8), and /s/ as well as /t/ of the first *its* (sent. 3). FNS5 omits the final /d/ of *gold* and *end* (sent. 4). Sentence 11 shows a case, where the plural /s/ of *gods* is elided. This is realised by FNS1. If all these elisions would be added to the above mentioned count, the result would be even higher than 61.9%. But how does a results like these emerge and why? One possibility could be that also in French many word finals, mainly plurals or endings due to tenses, are skipped, e.g. *fruits*, is ideally pronounced as [fruʁi], *alors*, as [alɔʁ] or the second person present of *avoir* (have), *as*, is spoken as [a]. Unlike English, this is not only a consequence of rapid or casual speech, this is an universally valid rule in the French language. However, it must be noted that most of these phenomena in French are not due to elision, but to contractions and word linking. Nevertheless, regarding this work, it is possible that they still influenced the pronunciation of English and maintained the existing result. Another explanation could be that the rather high frequency of elisions among the FNSs is due to inaccuracy in reading or mispronunciation of the respective terms. Personally, I tend towards the first explanation. Regarding the other ‘regular’ elisions the ENSs correspond to the general norm that “/t/ or /d/ may be ELIDED or ‘dropped’ [...] in the middle of a consonant cluster, usually when the next consonant begins the following word” (Knowles 1990: 129). Within my recordings, this is the case in sentence 1, example 3 and in sentence 3, example 4, whereas the results are in an acceptable scope. The third example (sent. 4, ex. 2) was realised only by two FNSs. Furthermore, the table also states two phrases

where the final plosive is elided and the following word starts with a vowel (sent. 3, ex. 3 and sent. 6, ex. 3). Although I did not find any appropriate definition, describing this particular phenomenon, I still decided to include it into my analysis, as some of the ENSs and several of the FNSs have realised them. This applies in particular to *and its*. Another distinctive feature can be found within the combination *beyond his* (sent. 6, ex. 1). Even “though elision of the alveolar plosives is relatively rare before /h/” (Cruttenden 1994: 261), I still discovered six cases among the FNSs (all candidates except FNS2), where the final /d/ has been dropped. The fact that “elision of word-final /t/ or /d/ eliminates the phonetic cue of [the] past tense” (Cruttenden 1994: 262), applies to nearly all examples of the table. The verbs *explained* and *used* (sent. 7 and sent. 10, ex. 1) lost their ending in every realisation. Conspicuously, the word *passed* (sent. 11) on the contrary, was realised with an elision only by four FNSs. Both ENSs pronounced an audible /t/.

Classification c) offers some special characteristics as well. Its description covers two phenomena, once the elision of the final consonant, which mostly involves /t/ in my text, and once the replacement of the final consonant by a glottal stop. I decided on this distinction, as not all final voiceless plosives have been omitted, but as Cruttenden (1994: 261) states, does “the /t/ often remain as [ʔ] e.g. *went down*”. Regarding the present text, I spotted three cases where the latter one occurs. However, I might have been misled with this particular assumption. Nonetheless, within the realisations three ‘assumed’ glottal stops have been produced, all of them by the ENSs. A closer look into the transcription tables reveals furthermore, that they only occur in the recording of ENS2, the person from South England. In contrary to this, the ENS from Michigan, US, does not give any glottal stop, which confirms the fact that the feature is rather unusual in AmE. The first appearance of a glottal stop, *take the* (sent. 3, ex. 1), forms a bit of an exception, as actual not the final consonant /k/ of *take*, but the initial /ð/ of *the*, becomes a glottal stop. In the first place I supposed that the phrase features a certain type of assimilation, which would result in a form like [tɛɪkɔ̯]. However, neither one of the native, nor of the non-native speakers came up with a realisation like that. Afterwards I wanted to allocate the phrase to elision, as one of the FNSs elided the initial /ð/,

([teɪg\*ə]).<sup>61</sup> But having had a closer look into the realisation of ENS2, I discovered that she does not elide the initial fricative, but produces a glottal stop instead. The figure below illustrates the event.

Figure 7: Visualisation of a Glottal Stop



The waveform and spectrogram show the phrase *take the shape* (sent. 3, ex. 1) realised by ENS2 with a glottal stop, indicated by the arrows, [teɪkʔə ʃeɪp].

This particular occurrence probably results from the fact that the speaker concentrates on the final consonant /k/ of *take* and perhaps even on the initial /ʃ/ of *shape* (the word after *the*) that consequently the fricative /ð/ gets weakened to a high extent. In this case it even disappears in some way. The pronunciation of /k/ and the following /ə/ finally effect a glottal stop, as the two sounds could not be produced successively otherwise.

<sup>61</sup> In addition, his realisation features a change from a final voiceless plosive /k/ to a voiced, but very weak plosive /g/.

All other candidates give either the ‘correct’ realisation [teɪk ðə], or forms with a changed initial of *the*, like in the case of FNS5, who pronounces something corresponding to [teɪk də] or FNS1, who formulates [teɪk sə]. In the further course of the text, ENS2 produces two more, I may call it ‘impure’ elisions or replacements, once in the phrase *pot of* and once in the phrase *gold at* (sent. 4, ex. 4 and 5). Except this time it is not the initial of the following word, but the final of the preceding, /t/, which is elided. The other stated examples of the ENSs follow the common pattern of elision. Within all cases, the final /t/ is omitted. The elision of the first phrase, *they act*, was surprisingly produced by ENS1, which appears as [ðe<sup>j</sup>æk\*laɪk]<sup>62</sup>, but not by ENS2, who realises the two last combinations (sent. 8 and 10, ex. 2) again. All remaining cases of the FNSs, except for the one mentioned earlier, show an elision of the final voiceless plosive. What can be noticed is the fact that the phrase of sentence 9 has been realised only by some FNSs, but none of the ENSs.

### 5.1.3 Word Linking Phenomena

“Linking /r/ is frequent in all styles of speech” (Cruttenden 1994: 268), but also “when two vowels come together across the boundary” does “English [avoid] the hiatus as far as possible by using glides to link the syllables together” (Knowles 1990: 132). Both antecedent quotations describe two possibilities of word linking – linking /r/ and avoiding the hiatus. As their number is more or less manageable within my text sample, and in order not to dedicate an own topic to each of them, which would have probably fragmented my work too much, I decided to assemble them among one umbrella term. One further possibility of word linking – the intrusive [r] – does not appear, nevertheless, I wanted to mention it, as it “is an established feature of British English, and must be counted as a characteristic of contemporary RP” (Knowles 1990: 134). Instead, I added another linking phenomenon, which also shows a reasonable frequency within the text. I refer to it as ‘aspiration between two words, to facilitate the transition from the end of the preceding to the beginning of the following word’. Naturally in a

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<sup>62</sup> As he omits the final consonant of *act*, it connects with the following initial of *like*, which links the two words finally.

scientific volume the subject would be attached to the major topic of aspiration, however, as it also exhibits attributes of word linking, I decided to include it at this point, which is finally classified by

- a) Avoiding the hiatus (cf. Knowles 1990: 132)
- b) Linking /r/ (cf. *ibid.*)
- c) Special occurrence of word linking.<sup>63</sup>

### 5.1.3.1 Avoiding the Hiatus

The token appears, as far as I have evaluated correctly, within seven combinations. And as Knowles points out that native speaker of English mostly evade the hiatus (cf. 5.1.3), I was curious to see, first, if my two ENSs are in accordance with this, and second, if also the FNSs match to this pattern, as it “corresponds to the system of standard French” (Tranel 1987: 30) as well. Moreover in this regard, the French language features even three glides, i.e. [j,ɥ,w] (cf. *ibid.*). The table, appropriate to the feature, will specify who of the native and of the non-native speakers executed the pattern. Next to the *phrase*, I have given the phonetic transcription of the diverse combinations in the way they would appear with the respective glide, i.e. [j] and [w].

Table 11: **Avoiding the Hiatus**

Sentence	Phrase	Realisation	ENS	FNS
1	<i>the air</i>	ði:ʝæə	1	6
3	<i>they act</i>	ðeɪʝækt	2	1
3	<i>high above</i>	haɪʝə'bʌv	2	5
3	<i>two ends</i>	tu:wɛndz	1	0
6	<i>he is</i>	hi:ʝɪz	0	0
6	<i>the end</i>	ði:ʝɛnd	0	5
7	<i>rainbow in</i>	'raɪnbəʊwɪn	2	3
11	<i>rainbow as</i>	'raɪnbəʊwəz	1	0

The highlighted rows indicate combinations which have been described already in detail, in an earlier topic (cf. 5.1.2).

<sup>63</sup> The last indication forms the shorter description of the above mentioned long definition.

Explicitly the results show that both groups have avoided the hiatus, the ENSs to 56.2%, and the FNSs after all to 35.7%. I have included the highlighted phrases, although being allocated to elision. Nevertheless, they can also create a glide between the word boundaries. The first example seems to prove the above cited standard. ENSs and FNSs have both a reasonable frequency of realisations. On the contrary, one person of the FNSs, who does not avoid the hiatus, the change from final /i/ to initial /e/ is clearly noticeable. An interesting result show the two phrases of sentence 3 and 6 (respectively the second example). Each of them has been realised by only one group of speakers. Most astonishing, however, is the fact that the FNSs show again a high frequency of realisation with the glide [j] being involved (cf. sent. 6, ex. 2). In contrast to that the realisation of glide [w] in the preceding example equals zero. The same applies to the last phrase *rainbow as* (sent. 11). Solely the combination of sentence 7 shows realisations within both groups. The text contains one more phrase that could include requirements for avoiding the hiatus – *to imagine* (sent. 10). However, in my examples, the word initial /t/ effects a preceding strong form (*to*) among all persons. Consequently, there is not even a suspicion for a possible glide, hence I excluded this example from the table. What can be said in general regarding this feature is that most of the avoidances of the hiatus were realised by ENS2, the person from England. Out of the eight possibilities, she realised an overall number of six combinations. Consequently, the aforementioned supposition of Knowles proves to be correct. Besides, is it perhaps possible that the English accents can also be distinguished into avoiding and performing the hiatus? The fact that ENS1 linked only three combinations with a glide would support this question. Regarding the FNSs, a tendency can be recognized that more examples involving glide [j] have been realised. And the fact that this glide has the highest number of occurrences in the French language, as it does not only appear between word boundaries but also within words (cf. Tranel 1987: 115), could be an explanation. A reason why some other phrases have not been realised at all could be that the FNSs have perhaps problems with the pronunciation of certain sound combinations, e.g. /u:/ & /e/, /i:/ & /ɪ/ and /əʊ/ & /ə/.

## 5.1.3.2 Linking /r/

As the headline already indicates, the main concern of the present topic is to examine, whether there are occurrences of linking /r/ or not. However, as my text does not show excessively many examples involving the pronunciation of final /r/ in general, I decided to include the topic, explained separately, at this point as well. Regarding linking /r/, my text offers seven examples, though I can assign only two for sure. Corresponding to that, I have created the following tables, distinguishing between a) ‘clear’ linking /r/, b) ‘assumed’ linking /r/ and c) ‘producing final /r/’.

Table 12: **Linking /r/**

Sentence	Phrase	- with linking /r/	ENS	FNS
a) Clear				
4	<i>there is</i>	ðeərɪz	2	7
10	<i>war or</i>	wɔːrɔːr	1	1/6
b) Assumed				
9	<i>there would</i>	ðeər wʊd	1	2
9	<i>more universal</i>	mɔːrˌjuːnɪˈvɜːsl	1	5
10	<i>or heavy</i>	ɔːrˈhevi	1	2
11	<i>over which</i>	ˈəʊvər wɪtʃ	0	0
11	<i>their home</i>	ðeər həʊm	1	1

The highlighted numbers indicate examples that show a final /r/, but without exhibiting word linking.

a) The first phrase achieved an outstanding result. All candidates realised the combination with a linking /r/. This is quite surprising, especially in view of the FNSs, as it can be read in Tranel (1987: 143) that “English and French *rs* are extremely different from an articulatory point of view. English *r* is formed in the front of the oral cavity, whereas French *r* is formed in the back”. But most interestingly he states “that the pronunciation of an English *r* in French [...] immediately [creates] the impression of a very strong foreign accent”. So understanding this correctly, if a French native speaker produces an English /r/, he is immediately disclosing his linguistic origin. Now relating this to my examples, there should be indications of a French accent. But especially concerning the first phrase, there is really no evidence, not even a small hint of a French

accent. Moreover, the feature of linking has been realised by each person. In my opinion, all FNSs pronounce the phrase in the same way, in matters of /r/, as the ENSs do. The situation appears slightly different regarding the combination *war or*. Although all seven FNSs pronounce a clearly audible /r/ at the end of *war*, there is only one person who also links the two words.<sup>64</sup> One explanation for this – producing /r/ but not linking – could be that the FNSs actually concentrated too much on the pronunciation of the final /r/ but then also on the articulation of the following /ɔ:/. And in order not to produce something like [wɔ:.ɔ:], they finished the first word and started the following new, omitting the linking. The results of the ENSs correspond to the fact that linking /r/ appears in most of the accents of the United States (cf. Kreidler 1989: 53). ENS1 produces a clearly audible /r/. On the contrary, ENS2 represents the case of a non-rothic accent, omitting the “frictionless continuant [r]” (ibid.).

b) The following examples are listed in the category ‘assumed’, as it was extremely difficult to find appropriate literature explaining the possibility of a linking /r/ before a semivowel or a glottal fricative. However, as the phenomena occur among my examples and even show some telling results, I decided to add them, but within a separate classification. The numbers of this classification look slightly different than the ones before, nevertheless regarding the ENSs, the aforementioned subject continues. All realisations of a linking /r/ are executed by the mid-western speaker from Michigan, USA, which intensifies the characteristic of rothic accents even more (cf. Kreidler 1989: 53). One phrase, *over which*, has not been realised by anybody, although it shows the same pattern like *there would*, i.e. final /r/ and initial /w/. This is probably due to the case that the word *over* contains a /v/, which’s articulation is similar to the one of /w/. Consequently, if one wants to produce a /r/ between those two phonemes, he or she is in fact making the pronunciation more complicated than facilitating it, as /v/ and /w/ are produced in the labiodental region of the mouth and /r/ in the alveolar. Hence, the best way to pronounce the phrase is perhaps [ˈəʊvəwɪtʃ]. The realisations in matters of the FNSs show a frequency that is less high, except for the example *more universal*. Five of the seven persons exhibit a definite word linking with linking /r/. Finally, the phrase *or*

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<sup>64</sup> The numbers of persons who pronounce the final /r/, but also produce a clear stop between the words are highlighted.

*heavy* got pronounced in the same way than *war or* before. Although there is a /r/ at the end of *or*, nevertheless the words are not linked.

c) As already mentioned, I included the subject at this point, as it provides too little information to be explained separately. It concentrates on the realisation of final /r/, which, although having no purpose of facilitating the combination of two words, but demonstrating, who of the FNSs tends towards a rhotic and who towards a non-rhotic way of pronunciation. The associated table will give a brief overview of the words in the text that show a final /r/ in the orthographical appearance. Most important it also indicates, how many of these words have been finally pronounced with a final /r/ and moreover, by whom.

Table 13: **Producing Final /r/**

Sentence	Phrase	- with final /r/	ENS	FNS
c) Producing final /r/				
1	<i>air</i>	eər	1	5
5	<i>ever</i>	'evər	1	1
6	<i>for</i>	fər	1	1
6	<i>for</i>	fər	0	2

What can directly be seen is that only a small number of persons have in fact pronounced the final consonant. In matters of the ENSs the results reflect the generalities as far as possible. Similar to the preceding topics, all realisations of the final /r/ have been produced by ENS1, which consequently substantiates the tendency of rhotic accents appearing mainly in AmE and non-rhotic accents in BrE. Hence there are no irregularities toward the ENSs. The situation becomes different turning the attention to the FNSs. Among their realisations some special phenomena and constructions can be found. This applies to the first example, *air*, the most, where an overall number of five persons produced a final /r/. Aligning this with the transcription tables, it can be noticed that the majority of these five persons has spent a certain time in the United States. Now could there be a connection between these results and the ones of the ENSs? The result shows a tendency towards rhoticity, which appears primarily in accents of AmE. Is it conceivable that a certain time spent in the corresponding

language environment leads to an adaptation like that? Although, the detail that two of the five persons have spent their time in Australia and New Zealand dilutes this assumption, the fact that the two other persons, who do not pronounce a final /r/, have spent their time in England affirms it again. Another explanation for the audible final /r/ could be the following comma, which mostly effects an increasing of voice towards the comma and a small pause after. This assumption gets supported by all other results appearing in the table, whose number of realisations is far less. The other three examples show altogether a smaller number than the first word alone. Probably their position in between other words without a close punctuation mark limited the chances of producing a final /r/. Recapitulating all previous discoveries, they underline on one hand the level of proficiency, all FNSs can communicate in. On the other hand, they also uncover small incidents which identify the respective speaker, sometimes more sometimes less, as a non-native speaker. Until now there has not been any concrete argument, indicating some traces of the French accent. However, this could be found perhaps with the last example, not having been mentioned yet. The specific characteristic occurs in sentence 3. Besides several special pronunciations of the word *arch*, FNS6 gives the one with the highest indication for a French accent. Compared to all other FNSs, his realisation corresponds more to the description of a French /r/ than to an English. Tranel (1987: 143f) describes the procedure as follows: “With French *r* the tongue tip is always inactive and remains behind the lower teeth in a resting position; it is the back of the tongue and its root which play an active role”.<sup>65</sup> With its realisation of the word, FNS6 applies to this pattern. By pronouncing the word as [ɑrtʃ], he produces a fronted /ɑ/ preceding the /r/ that indeed features more of a movement of the root of the tongue than exhibiting a moving tongue tip.<sup>66</sup> The realisations of all other candidates corresponds more or less to the AmE or BrE version, i.e. a long back vowel /ɑ:/, partially followed by a /r/, as in [ɑ:rtʃ] or [ɑ:tʃ]. Also here the fact reoccurs that all FNSs, who have spent a certain time in the US, pronounce the word with an audible /r/, on the contrary the persons who have lived in England, pronounce only an extended /ɑ/.

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<sup>65</sup> By contrast, “for the English *r*, the tongue tip generally plays an active role and is directed upward” (Tranel 1987: 143).

<sup>66</sup> Some corresponding French examples would be [ɑrtist] or [ɑrʒɑ̃].

### 5.1.3.3 Special Occurrence of Word Linking

Since the following feature appears several times within my recordings, I found it worth examining within the analysis. However, in the first place I wanted to describe it as something like ‘word linking by aspiration’ or ‘aspiration between words’, as in the realisations of some of my candidates I came across voiceless plosives being followed by a “turbulent rush of air” (Knowles 1987: 97), e.g. in *pot of* or *at one*. The description of aspiration by Knowles, that it is “following the release of syllable initial voiceless stops /p, t, k/” (ibid.) insured me even more that the obscure phenomenon was about aspiration between words. Although at this point the phrase “syllable initial” should have made me think about the correctness of my theory already. Hence for the present, the detailed description of the development and appearance of the characteristic, in which

“the air which was built up behind the closure is allowed to escape before the voicing is switched on. Immediately before the vowel, the turbulent rush of air thus caused – or the ‘aspiration’ – sounds like intermediate [ʰ], e.g. *pen* [pʰen] [or] *metallic* [mætʰalik]”

(ibid.)

confirmed my suspicion. Two pages further I found the actual explanation of my ‘feature’, which exhibited no aspiration after the final plosive but a “high flow of air” (Knowles 1987: 100). More concretely, the phenomenon which is

“something similar to aspiration can sometimes be observed at the very end of an utterance. When the speaker stops speaking, he [...] abandons the specially controlled kind of breathing used for speech, and returns to normal physiological breathing. A final stop may thus be followed by a high flow of air: [but] this has nothing to do with aspiration, [though] is sometimes confused with it.”

(Knowles 1987: 100)

According to this I had to adjust my procedure. Consequently, I was not looking for possible aspirations<sup>67</sup> with linking functions in between words anymore, but for a certain respiratory technique that still seemed to facilitate the transition between two words in some way. The following table will give a brief overview of the words pertained to the feature at first.

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<sup>67</sup> The realisation of a normal aspiration after a plosive, as Knowles describes it, can be seen in Figure 8.

Table 14: Appearance of Word Linking by a „High Flow of Air“

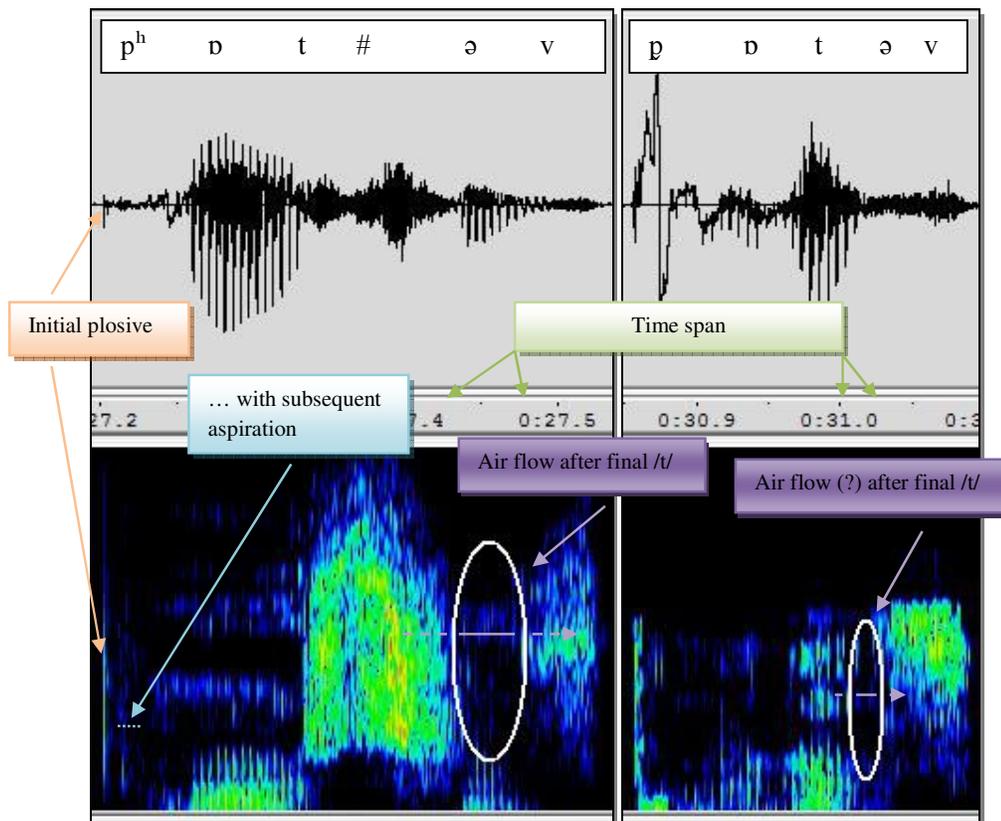
Sentence	Phrase	- With "High Flow of Air"	ENS	FNS
1	<i>act like</i>	ækt#laik	1	0
2	<i>white light</i>	waɪt#laɪt	0	0
4	<i>pot of</i>	pɒt#əv	0	6
4	<i>at one</i>	æt#wʌn	0	5
6	<i>pot of</i>	pɒt#əv	1	2
9	<i>it was</i>	ɪt#wəz	0	1
10	<i>it was</i>	ɪt#wəz	0	1

The # indicates the ‘air flow’.

The table shows immediately that most of the ‘word linking’ has been realised by the FNSs. The two cases of the ENSs appeared within the realisations of ENS2. In matters of the FNSs it can be concluded that the combinations of the two first phrases do not show any indication for a linking ‘air flow’ at the end of the first word. Moreover, there is a tendency, especially in phrase one, in which a clear pronunciation of final /t/ and initial /l/ can be heard, but no kind of aspiration or respiration in between these words. On the contrary, the examples of sentence 4 and 6 show the highest intensity of an appearing ‘air flow’ after the final plosive. What can be noticed by comparing with the transcription tables is that FNS6 is the only person who did not produce any linking ‘air flow’ or anything similar. With regards to the example of sentence 9, the only realisation shows another phenomenon in addition, by adding an initial /h/ to *it*. Finally, the entire phrase appears as [hɪt#wɒz]. In the first place I could not find any explanation for the feature I had at hand. Why were the realisations of this phenomenon so much more in number among the FNSs than among the ENSs? After an acrimonious search, however, I found some suitable explanations. In his volume, *The Sound System of French*, Casagrande (1984: 34) states that “in French, phrase-final nonvoiced noncontinuants can also be aspirated”. However, on the contrary to the aspiration in English he distinguishes that this “aspiration is letting out a puff of air. [There] the speaker relaxes his larynx and allows the ‘puff of air’ associated with aspirated plosives to eject” (ibid.). Towards an indication within phonetic transcription of this ‘puff of air’ he continues, that there is no sign denoting it (cf. ibid.). Applying my observations to this rule, perhaps could be the explanation for the high number of FNSs realisations. To

give a better impression of the problem and to make clear, why I wanted to list this example within my analysis, I extracted two different realisations from the spectrogram, one exhibiting the ‘air flow’ in between two words and one not.

Figure 8: Occurrence of an ‘Air Flow’ after Final /t/



Both pictures show the realisations of the combination *pot of* (sent. 6), the first with, and the second without an ‘air flow’ in between.

What can be seen clearly, are the different spaces between the final /t/ of *pot* and the initial /ə/ of *of*. The ellipses limit the concerned place. In addition, the display of the left picture shows much more details. The shapes in orange and blue demonstrate the phenomenon of aspiration after an initial voiceless plosive (cf. Knowles 1987: 97). The mauve textboxes visualise and indicate the occurrence (pic. 1) and absence (pic.2) of the ‘air flow’. Thereby, the widths of the two ellipses are significant. In both pictures, the

mauve arrows trace the path of the ‘air flow’.<sup>68</sup> Although, in the right picture, I did not notice any occurrence like in the left, nevertheless, as can be seen, there is still a small space between the two phonemes. However, the time span substantiates again the different lengths of the space between /t/ and /ə/. It is obvious that the durations vary considerably.

#### 5.1.4 H-Dropping

To support my thesis, finding traces of a foreign or French accent in the English language would be sufficient. A very popular and widespread supposition is that French people often have problems to pronounce an initial /h/. As the English language exhibits a comparable feature, I decided to examine the recordings in terms of possible h-dropping, to obtain some evidence supporting or invalidating the above mentioned claim. First of all, I verified the ENSs, as it is widely known that also “in many types of popular speech in England [...] and Australia, /h/ is lost” (Cruttenden 1994: 174) and furthermore, to have some material for comparison with the FNSs later on. In order to work appropriately, I set up a table – which appears to be the most efficient way for evaluation – listing all *words with an initial /h/*, since the “English /h/ occurs only in syllable-initial, pre-vocalic positions” (ibid.), their *frequency*<sup>69</sup> and finally the speakers of both groups. Different markings show to whom the phenomenon applies. Starting out, I just wanted to see, how many of the candidates omit the /h/. At this point, however, I had not mentioned every single candidate, just the two classifications *ENS* and *FNS*. According to this, the result was not really satisfactory and quite inaccurate. During the analysis I had discovered three different types of eliding or omitting /h/. I discovered that it would be the best to differentiate between ‘h-dropping’, the ‘insertion of a weak glottal fricative /<sup>h</sup>/’ and ‘glottal stop /ʔ/’. But the rather simple table, I had developed the beginning, made it impossible indicate or specify these three distinctions. Hence, I revised the first table by subdividing the sections *ENS* and *FNS* and assigned

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<sup>68</sup> The dashed lines outside the ellipsis are indications for the ‘air flow’ as well, however, there, it is only an assumption.

<sup>69</sup> The words *have* and *his* appear twice within the text. N° 1 and N° 2 mark the first and second appearance each time.

one column to each candidate. With signs and symbols described beneath the following table, I indicated the aforementioned distinctions.

Table 15: **H-Dropping**

Word	Sentence	Frequency	ENS		FNS						
			1	2	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<i>have</i>	7	N° 1							h		h
	8	N° 2		h						h	h
<i>he</i>	6	1									
<i>heavy</i>	10	1									
<i>Hebrews</i>	9	1			hd						h
<i>high</i>	3	1									
<i>his</i>	6	N° 1						h	hd	hd	
	6	N° 2		h				h	h	h	
<i>home</i>	11	1			?						
<i>horizon</i>	3	1			hd					hd	

The table shows the three different types eliding initial /h/: ‘h-dropping’ (hd), the ‘insertion of a weak glottal fricative’ (<sup>h</sup>) and the occurrence of a ‘glottal stop’ (?) (cf. Cruttenden 1994: 174). The empty cells denote that none of the classifications took place and /h/ is pronounced.

A first glance shows that the incidences of h-dropping are of a manageable amount. ENS2 produces a weak glottal fricative, or aspirated /<sup>h</sup>/, one time for *have* and one time for *his*. For all other listed words the native speakers pronounce initial /h/. One possibility for this rather low number of h-dropping among the ENSs might be that there are just a few function words starting with /h/. The number of weak forms among them is even lower. Besides, the phenomenon of h-dropping is also known for indicating an improper way of speaking English. A different view gives the table in matters of the FNSs. It shows an overall number of six cases of h-dropping. At the time of my decision utilising this text, I was wondering, how the FNSs will deal with the words *Hebrews* and *horizon* in particular. Especially for the latter, three FNSs omitted the /h/ completely. Most notably, FNS1, who elides the initial in both words by pronouncing [i:b<sup>w</sup>u:z] and [ɜ:rɪzen]. One possible reason for this could be – with regards to FNS5 and -6 as well – that they concentrated too much on the word/words before and the vowel after /h/, i.e. *the* + /i:/ for *Hebrews* and *beyond the* + /ə<sup>1</sup>raɪ/ for *horizon*. Consequently, the omission of the sound took place. The other example of h-dropping appears in the first *his*, where FNS6 and -7 drop the initial. This might

correspond to the fact that the word is represented in a very weak form. On the other hand, both speakers have also spent more than one year in an English speaking country, especially FNS7, who had lived in Australia. Perhaps their proficiency of English is sophisticated to such an extent, although h-dropping does not represent 'good' English, that they have no difficulties performing the feature. Nevertheless, it shows certain fluidity in speaking. Furthermore, would the case of FNS7 apply to the above mentioned quotation of Cruttenden (cf. 1994: 174), saying that in Australia the /h/ is frequently omitted. Another supporting fact that exactly these two candidates come up with h-dropping could be their daily use of English at work. As the ENSs, also some FNSs perform an aspirated construction. Whereas among the ENSs actually only ENS2 produces it. At the same time, the concerned words do not seem to be pronounced with a clear initial /h/, but also not completely without. As this 'in-between'-occurrence shows many similarities to an aspirated /h/, I decided to indicate the concerned positions correspondingly. Within the transcription tables the realisations are described as [ʰəv], FNS6 or [ʰɪz], FNS 7. Another interesting fact is that the last mentioned characteristic is performed only by the male FNSs. All female FNSs, except FNS1, pronounce in all cases, audible initial /h/'s. A last attribute, which is only performed by FNS1, is the insertion of a glottal stop before *home*. However, in her case, this is not causing the /h/ to disappear. Her realisation of the word appears as [ʔhoom]. Finally, in matters of all FNSs, a reason for the rather small number of avoiding the /h/ completely could be that, as they are all non-native speakers, they especially concentrate on the pronunciation of the sound. In addition, all candidates read the text from the paper and did not narrate or report it. Consequently, the naturalness, which I explained in 4.3.2, is limited to a high extend.

## 5.2 Particular Features

This section will exhibit a more extended scope. As the focus here is only on individual or isolated cases, i.e. features within words in terms of vowels, mispronunciation, but also word stress, will be touched. It must be considered that, especially in this topic, the main focus is on individual realisations of the FNSs. The ENSs will be mentioned only in matters of comparison. To examine the correct

pronunciation, or possible difficulties with an appropriate pronunciation, of the two dental fricatives of English, I created the first subsection. Furthermore, special nasalisation phenomena and occurrences within the production of vowels will be observed. The section is ended with a list and subsequent explanation of specific word creations. There I attached importance to features appearing in matters of stress and correct pronunciation.

### 5.2.1 Occurrences in Matters of /ð/ and /θ/

Throughout my analysis I came across some occurrences related to the two fricatives, of which two patterns of realisation caught my interest in particular – peculiarities in pronunciation, and the fricatives in the context of strong and weak forms. According to this, I distinguished the topic again into two subtopics, i.e. ‘diverseness in pronunciation’ and ‘strong and weak forms of *the*’. It must be pointed out that calculations and evaluations within the following two topics exclude the headline of the sample text. As only the FNSs performed it but none of the ENSs, it appeared to be rather inappropriate for comparison.

#### 5.2.1.1 Diverseness in Pronunciation

Listening to and transcribing the recordings, the differences within the pronunciation of /ð/ and /θ/, whose “areas of articulation [necessitate] a precision [that] is not required in many other languages” (Cruttenden 1994: 162f), caught my attention. I noticed that the fricatives were often weakened to /s/ or /d/ and partly even omitted entirely. Regarding this problem, it is widely known that some non-native speakers of English occasionally struggle with the circumstance to let “the air escape [in a correct way] through [the small] slit” (ibid.) between tongue and front teeth, and a somewhat peculiar articulation is mostly the result. More precisely is “the [tongue] tip touching the inside of the lower front teeth and the blade touching the inside of the upper teeth” (Roach 1991: 49). Especially in French does “the absence [...] of dental fricative phonemes [allow] a dentalised quality in the alveolar articulations, which is liable in English to cause confusion with /θ,ð/, or to produce a ‘lispings’ fricative” (Cruttenden 1994: 163).

Consequently, to produce at least a similar sound or to facilitate that manner and not to deform the sound, or even word, entirely, people often make use of the alveolars /s/, /z/, /t/ or /d/. An analogue definition can be found in Tranel (1987: 43), who describes the phenomenon in the way that “native speakers of French who are learning English [...] often have serious difficulties with the English fricatives [θ] and [ð] (because these sounds do not exist in French) and they usually substitute [s] and [z] for them”. Correspondingly, a word like *the* would not be vocalised as [ðə] but rather as [sə] or [də]. To receive a first overview of all occurring alveolar fricatives within my text, I marked them (cf. Figure 9) and accordingly listed them in the table below. The latter displays the words and their frequencies within the text in numbers.

Table 16: **Words with /ð/ and /θ/**

<b>Word</b>	<b>Number</b>
<i>earth</i>	1
<i>path</i>	1
<i>something</i>	1
<i>that</i>	2
<i>the</i>	17
<i>their</i>	1
<i>there</i>	2
<i>these</i>	1
<i>they</i>	1
<i>throughout</i>	1
<i>with</i>	1
<i>without</i>	1

Now observing all these words in the transcription tables, rapidly a tendency becomes apparent. Most of the weakening, or ‘substitutions’, appear among the speakers FNS1, -5 and -6. All other persons show only small emergences. One fact, which catches the attention is FNS1, who weakens nearly all forms of /ð/ or /θ/ to /s/. Almost all words containing one of the dental fricatives, are pronounced with /s/ instead, e.g. [ˈsamsɪŋ], [sruˈaʊt] or [sæt], to mention only a few. Similar to that are the realisations of FNS5. FNS6 on the other hand, also exhibiting many ‘substitutions’, facilitates the articulation by saying /d/ or /t/, instead of /θ/ or /ð/. Correspondingly, his realisations show a high

quantity of constructions like [di] [dæt] or [deɪ]. Furthermore, FNS5 and -6 even skip two complete forms. In this context, FNS5 omits the last *the* of sentence 3 and FNS6 does not produce any audible word before *rainbow* (sent. 2). Finally, the frequency of ‘substitution’ of the dental fricatives among the FNSs is of 44.8%.<sup>70</sup> At a first glance, this result seems perhaps a little high, nevertheless, it mostly concerns the two FNSs, who have spent only a short period of time or no time at all in an English speaking country, i.e. FNS1 and -5. Surprising was the result of FNS6, whose frequent use of English would, as I thought, diminish such phenomena. In matters of the ENSs, the situation appears slightly different. Although their realisations show some weakened forms of the two fricatives as well<sup>71</sup>, in my opinion they are only the result of a very rapid speech. Subtracting the combinations which are involved in other features of connected speech (16), and the number of weakened dental fricatives (4), the final result among the ENSs is 33.8%. Finally, a feature that appears the other way around, is the insertion of a /θ/, where there is actually a /s/, as in the word *passage* (headline) of FNS5. Tranel (1987:43) describes this appearance in his volume by stating

“when [native speakers of French] strive to learn to pronounce [θ] and [ð] and integrate these new sounds in their speech, many [s]s and [z]s incorrectly become [θ] and [ð] (for example *something*, which was at the beginning *somesing*, becomes *thomething*).”

As already suggested within my recordings this applies to the realisation of the word *passage*, which is pronounced as [ˈpæθɪdʒ], by FNS5. Perhaps his case corresponds entirely to the pattern described by Tranel. Although the person is able to pronounce the dental fricative – what he proves in the word *passage* – he still fails to articulate it at the correct place – what can be seen in all the realisations where he replaces the fricatives by /s/, /d/ or /t/. Another occurrence exhibiting the just described phenomenon appears in the realisation of the word *prism* (sent. 1), by FNS6 (cf. also to 5.2.4).

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<sup>70</sup> This result is composed of a total number of possible <th>-realisations within the text. This number is multiplied by 7. What is subtracted from this result are that realisations, which are involved in other features of connected speech and the actual ‘substitutions’ of <th>, i.e. for the FNSs the calculation would be as follows: 210-24-70=116 → the percentages are calculated additionally.

<sup>71</sup> ENS1 pronounces [di] in sentence 1 and [dæt] in sentence 9 and 10. ENS2 pronounces [ˈsʌmsɪŋ] in sentence 6.

### 5.2.1.2 Strong and Weak Forms of *the*

I included the following topic, as the rather high occurrence of the article *the* provides the opportunity to examine the recordings in matters of this feature. Weak and strong forms, “function words [that] have two or more qualitative and quantitative patterns according to whether they are unaccented (as is usual) or accented (in special situations or when said in isolation)” (Cruttenden 1994: 228), represent an important part of connected speech. Furthermore, “since practically all native speakers of British English use them” (Roach 1991: 102). However, I restricted the investigations to the article only, as an examination of all possible forms and their realisations would have limited the space for other language features vastly. The article *the*, which is pronounced [ðə] before consonants and [ði] before vowels (cf. Roach 1991: 103), appears, without the headline, altogether 17 times in the text sample. In matters of the ENSs, everything went according to the just mentioned pattern. The realisations resulted in a total of 11.7% strong and 88.2% weak forms. Correspondingly, the strong forms [di] or [ði:] appear within the phrases *the air* (sent. 1) and *the end* (sent. 6). Both times they are realised by ENS1 and ENS2. The situation appears to be different in terms of the FNSs. Although the realisations of strong forms are not extraordinary, 16.8% (and 81.5% weak), they still show some occasions of inappropriate use. Concerning this circumstance Roach (1991: 102) states that “it is possible to use only strong forms in speaking, and some foreigners do this”. Even though he does not clearly define that mostly non-native speakers use the forms unsuitably, it seems quite obvious. And comparing the realisations of strong forms of the FNSs with the ones of the ENSs it seems to substantiate this conjecture. Especially, within the phrases *the horizon* (sent. 3) or *the Hebrews* (sent. 9), several FNSs (FNS1, -2, -3, -4, -6 and -7 in the first example and FNS1 and -6 additionally in the second one) formulate a strong form before the noun. Compared to that, both ENSs pronounce weak forms in these particular cases. In matters of *the air* (sent.1), ENSs and FNSs agree in the positioning of a strong form. The same applies to the phrase of sentence 6, with the exception of FNS5, who forms a construction like [sə end]. A final phenomenon that only occurs among the FNSs is the fact that speaker FNS5 and -6 omit, each at a time, one form of *the* (FNS5 sent. 3 ~~the~~ *horizon* and FNS6 sent. 2 ~~the~~ *rainbow*). Consequently, a percentage of 1.6% of ‘the-omission’ must be added to the 16.8% of strong and 81.5% of weak forms of the FNSs.

### 5.2.2 Occurrences of Nasalisation

Different to English “in French nasality is distinctive, it plays a part in changing meaning: [E.g.] *vin* is different from *vais* [and] *banc* from *bas*, largely because of the nasality in *vin* [and] *banc*” (Delattre 1965: 69). This nasality, however, is not about consonants as in English, it refers to special vowels, which are utilised for words like in the just mentioned quotation (cf. Table 33). Yet, that this nasality can apparently not easily be deactivated by talking another language, show the examples of the FNSs in the recordings. Especially in matters of vowels, many examples show a strong tendency towards nasalisation. But of course the English nasals /m/ and /n/ are affected in some way as well. The following topic will demonstrate some selected examples in terms of a) vowels and b) the nasals /m/ and /n/. The term ‘selected’ implies that the explanation will demonstrate the phenomenon on the basis of some extracted cases only. All examples can be found within the transcription tables.

a) Constructions with nasalised vowels appear predominantly within the recordings. Consequently, the following examples will be only exemplary. As will be indicated below, in the transcription tables, these nasalised vowels are indicated with the sign ~ above. Sentence 1 shows that the words *and*, *raindrops* and *sunlight* are affected. Accordingly, FNS1 and -5 pronounce [ãnd] and FNS3 [ˈsɛ̃nlɑɪd] and [ˈreɪndrɔ̃ps]. In sentence 3, the word *its* is formulated as [ɪs], by FNS3, *long* appears as [lɔ̃ŋ] in the realisation of FNS4, and *beyond* becomes [biˈjɔ̃n] in the pronunciation of FNS5.

b) The realisations regarding the nasals /m/ and /n/ appear similar. According to this the words *rainbow* (FNS3) and *prism* (FNS1) of sentence 1, are pronounced as [ˈreɪ̃nbəʊ] and [ˈprɪz̃m]. There the first example even seems to have the /b/ nasalised. Furthermore, the word *division* (sent. 2) is realised as [dɪˈvɪz̃ɪɔ̃n], by FNS7. Finally, FNS3 formulates the four words *and*, *end*, *beyond* and *apparently* of sentence 3 as [ə̃n], [æ̃nz], [əp̃æ̃r̃ɔ̃ndli] and [biˈjɔ̃n].

What can be seen among all examples of nasalisation are actually two things. First, it becomes apparent that the word *and* is the most susceptible to nasalisation. Several persons pronounce the word with a nasalised vowel and/or with a nasalised nasal. Second, it appears that the occasions of nasalisation become fewer in realisation towards the last sentences, to say the end of the text. Perhaps it can be assumed that after a certain time of reading the text and getting used to the differences in pronunciation, the persons adapted themselves more to the manner of speaking English and slowly neglected the habit of nasalising not only vowels, but also consonants.

### 5.2.3 Differences in the Pronunciation of Vowels

The following topic deals with special or different pronounced vowels, among the FNSs. During the transcription, I came across several cases where the production of an English vowel, especially a back vowel, failed for the benefit of a (French) front vowel. According to this Casagrande (1984: 20) explains that “French [...] has more front vowels than back vowels”. Following this statement he also gives a concise explanation in matters of pronunciation techniques in French. Consequently, because of “this imbalance in the vocalic system [...], French speakers appear to pronounce primarily with the lips” (ibid). This fact seems to apply also to some examples of my recordings. Accordingly, the realisations of some candidates appear with a much more fronted vowel than it would naturally be spoken in English. As in the previous subsection, however, I will quote some selected features only. All examples exhibiting this feature can be found within the transcription tables in the appendix.<sup>72</sup> The table below gives a composition of all examples which will be discussed later on. I managed to find a suitable representation for each occurrence.

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<sup>72</sup> This applies basically to all examples, among the FNS, which deviate from the original version of the word. Because of that they are not marked explicitly.

Table 17: Disparities in Vowels

Example	Word	Sentence	Pronunciation	Persons
1	<i>raindrops</i>	1	'reɪndrɔ:bs	FNS1
2	<i>air</i>	1	ɜ:r	FNS5
3	<i>beyond</i>	3	bi,jɒn	FNS4
4	<i>of</i>	3	ʊf	FNS5
5	<i>boiling</i>	4	'bɔɪlɪŋ	FNS4
6	<i>look</i>	5	lu:k <sup>h</sup>	FNS1
7	<i>various</i>	7	ˌvɛr <sup>j</sup> əs	FNS3
8	<i>token</i>	9	'tɔkən	FNS2
9	<i>floods</i>	9	flɒdz	FNS6
10	<i>war</i>	10	wɔ:r	FNS7
11	<i>bridge</i>	11	bredʒ	FNS7
12	<i>earth</i>	11	æð	FNS4

The first example shows the realisation of the word *raindrops* with a different /o/-sound. An accurate pronunciation of the sound would have been /ɒ/ in BrE and /ɑ:/ in AmE. However, FNS1 formulates something like a long closed-mid /o/, as in the German word *Boden*, for instance. What can be seen in this occurrence is that, instead of pronouncing a dark open back vowel, the speaker seems to lengthen his ‘mouthpiece’ by protruding the lips (cf. Casagrande 1984: 20) and pronouncing a long, more fronted, vowel /o:/. The same appears in example 3 – though this sound is not as long as the just mentioned, but even more fronted – and in example 6, where the vowel /u/ is spoken in the same manner. Another phenomenon can be found in example 2. There, several speakers create a form like [ɜ:] [ɜ:r], instead of using the diphthong /eə/ or the vowel /æ/. It seems that they prefer the central vowel /ɜ/, which is even more intensified by some persons adding a /r/ at the end of the word. Example 4 shows the shifting from *of*, featuring an open-mid back vowel /ʌ/ with a following voiced fricative /v/, to a closed back vowel /u/, preceding a voiceless fricative /f/. The next example (ex. 5) displays a certain phenomenon regarding diphthongs. Although the person pronounces the word with the diphthong /ɔɪ/, it appears to be far less rounded than usual. Within example 7, FNS3 replaces the possible diphthong /eə/ (in BrE) by /eɪ/. Additionally, she connects the diphthong and the following /ə/ with a glide (<sup>j</sup>/), whereby the pronunciation of a /r/

is avoided. Example 8 exhibits the case of the open and short and back vowel /ɔ/ (cf. 3.2.2). The entire word, *token*, is pronounced very short and sharply. But especially the vowel, which would actually be the diphthong /əʊ/ or /ou/, is accentuated in particular. And examining the example a bit more, detailed the fact, that “in French there is a one-to-one correspondence between the syllable and the vowel” (Casagrande 1984: 21) seems to apply. Although in English the word *too*, consists of only one syllable, the special pronunciation emphasises this even more. Regarding example 9 I hesitated, whether to allocate the word to a failure in pronunciation or just to the utilisation of another vowel. However, the above mentioned explanation of Casagrande (cf. 1984: 20) assured me to insert it at this point. Instead of producing an open-mid back vowel /ʌ/, FNS6 formulates a clear open front vowel /a/, which supports the above cited statement. Example 10 shows a similar occurrence. Even though in this case, the vowel appears more to be an extended back /ɑ:/. This shows that FNSs can produce a darker vowel, even though there is still a difference between the realisation of [wɔ:r] from ENS1 and [wɑ:r] from FNS7. A construction with numerous appearances is example 11, *bridge*. Instead of forming a short vowel /ɪ/, several speakers realise only a close-mid /e/, which is even lengthened in some cases. In French this would correspond to the first and second vowel in *précéder*. The last example, (ex. 12), appears to be the most obvious indication of a French feature hidden in an English construction. Seeing this realisation from a technical point of view, it is performed in a flawless manner. However listening to it more precisely, the vowel does not show the features of an English /ɜ/, but of a French /œ/. Besides, there is no sign of intensifying the vowel. As the whole word seems to be articulated in a very soft and flimsy way, the following dental fricative is not the voiceless version, but the voiced one in this construction.

Concluding this subsection it can be said that most of the selected examples emphasise the facts explained by Casagrande. Most of the cases show that the respective person avoided or struggled with the problem of pronouncing a ‘real dark’ English back vowel as in *from*, [frɒm] or *ball*, [bɔ:l]. Finally, as I have remarked at the beginning of this subsection, the examples of the table are only a small extract. As it can be seen in the transcription tables, these cases are much more in number.

### 5.2.4 Mispronunciation and Errors in Word-Stress

Adjacent to a small excursion into the suprasegmental level, by highlighting examples showing discrepancies in word-stress, this part will furthermore present a small number of special cases, exhibiting clear evidence for mispronunciation. However, as already in the sections before, the selected examples act as representatives for all occurring cases. The complete collection can be found within the transcription tables.

Table 18: Mispronunciation and Errors in Word-Stress

Example	Word	Sentence	Pronunciation	Persons
1	<i>passage</i>	headline	'basadʒ	FNS6
2	<i>prism</i>	1	'prizm̃	FNS1
3	<i>prism</i>	1	priθəm	FNS6
4	<i>horizon</i>	3	'ɜ:rɪzən	FNS1
5	<i>gold</i>	4	gɜ:l	FNS5
6	<i>beyond</i>	6	'biɦɑnd	FNS2
7	<i>as</i>	8	hæz	FNS1
8	<i>miracle</i>	8	'mirɪkəl's	FNS1
9	<i>Hebrews</i>	9	'hæb <sup>w</sup> ru:z	FNS6
10	<i>imagine</i>	10	ɪmæ'dʒen	FNS5
11	<i>Norsemen</i>	11	ɪnɔ:'si:mæn	FNS4
12	<i>considered</i>	11	'kɔ:rnsɪdɜrd	FNS5
13	<i>earth</i>	11	hɜ:θ <sup>h</sup>	FNS7

A first indication of questionable correctness in pronunciation appears in the word *passage*. Although its realisation in matters of stress agrees with the English version more or less, the way it is spoken, however, is more reminiscent of the French pronunciation [pasaʒ]. The speaker creates the impression that he accentuates both vowels the same way and not the first one more than the second – as it would be in English. Furthermore, he begins the word with a soft /b/ instead of a /p/. The second example displays a case of French word-stress that creeps into the English pronunciation. Although the stress is put at the beginning of the word, the vowel appears quite strong. Also, the nasal is much more accentuated than in the English version. It seems as if the /m/ is followed by a very weak /ə/. Consequently, the

construction would highly answer the French pronunciation of the term, [pʁism(ə)]. Another interesting variant is produced by FNS6. Different to all other persons, he replaces the alveolar by a dental fricative and creates a word like [pʁiθəm]. This pronunciation does not show any excessive accentuation of the nasal, but the insertion of /θ/ makes the word sound a little peculiar. A definite case for different word-stress can be found within the fourth example. Instead of putting the stress on the second syllable, the speaker advances the first, which influences the final appearance of the word. The following example shows the perhaps most divergent term, from the original, of all realisations. In trying to express the word *gold*, FNS5 pronounces a word that appears to be closer to *girl* than to *gold*. First, this is probably due to the fact that he inserts a /ɜ:/ instead of /əʊ/ or /oʊ/ and second, he also omits the final /d/, so the word moves far away from its original version in the end. Example 6 shows an explicit case of failure in pronunciation. Instead of reading *beyond*, FNS2 reads *behind* which causes the mispronunciation of this example. The next occurrence can be summarised with the last example. The original versions of these words are *as* (ex. 7) and *earth* (ex. 13). In both cases the respective speaker adds a /h/, which cannot be equalised with the phenomena of aspiration. Perhaps it can be described as ‘h-adding’? In any way could each pronunciation lead to misapprehension in case of doubt and the listener could understand the terms as *has* and *hers*. Example 8 features some more small signs of mispronunciation. Next to two accentuated vowels /ɪ/, FNS1 finishes the word as it would be a plural. On the contrary the //, that should actually end the word, is almost inaudible. In matters of example 9 the person produces a vowel /æ/ instead of a long /i/. Furthermore, he seems to insert a glide /<sup>w</sup>/ between /b/ and /ɪ/, to facilitate the pronunciation. Alongside FNS6, also FNS1, -3 and -7 make use of this expedient. Regarding the word *imagine* in example 10, the realisation shows some variations in terms of word-stress. Normally, this would be placed after the first vowel /ɪ/, which is, however, elided in this case. Moreover, the speaker seems to put only a secondary stress before /m/, but a primary before /d/, which makes the word sound very strange. A case of discrepancy in word-stress and mispronunciation occurs in the word *Norsemen*, realised by FNS4. The construction she produces can be seen in the table above. Normally, the pronunciation of the term would have a primary stress on the first syllable. By adding a long vowel /i/ after the /s/, the primary word-stress seems to be on

the inserted /i/ and not at the beginning of the word. I finally transcribed the construction with a secondary word-stress at the onset, as also this appears to be accentuated in a certain way. Because of this insertion of the vowel /i/, the word does not only seem to be stressed in a bizarre way, but also pronounced very inappropriately. For the listener, this deforms the entire term in some way. The last example is a realisation of FNS5 again. As the previous example, also his realisation shows diversities in stress and pronunciation. Originally the word would feature its primary stress on the second syllable. Yet, in his realisation it is clearly recognisable that he moves this primary stress to the beginning of the word. He produces a long vowel /ɔ/ and, moreover, seems to insert a /r/. When listening to the construction, it is audible that the emphasis of the word is concentrated on the first syllable.

What can be said in conclusion is that after a cursory glance on all recordings and realisations, the first impression is that of a very highly developed and well executed English of all non-native speakers. However, minor incidents like the ones I last mentioned reveal that there are small discrepancies or difficulties one or another has to deal with. And perhaps only these little differences reveal the searched hint – the one for the French accent.

## 6 Conclusion

The influence of the French accent on the pronunciation of English – are there cases among the FNSs that produced the English language as professional as a native speaker or was the French accent perceptible, even if sometimes a little hidden?

First of all it must be said that all FNSs demonstrated a high degree of English throughout the analysis. Now taking the scientific point of view into consideration, however, some distinctions must be pointed out. And looking at all results in summary, these distinctions become apparent. The synopsis of the results visualises them (cf. Chart 1). Thus, regarding assimilation and word linking phenomena, the ENSs clearly illustrate a higher frequency in realisations than the FNSs. And in fact, at this point the language perfection of the ENSs clashes with the limits of ability of the FNSs to speak English. Due to the permanent use and to the fact that it is the native language of the ENSs, excluding, whether these language phenomena represent good or bad English, they perform ‘real’ fluent English. By contrast, the FNSs, although in possession of a high level of English, cannot reproduce these language features easily. Towards elision, the tendency slightly changes. Although within the first category, ‘elision of vowels’, the ENSs exhibit still higher results, but in terms of ‘elision of consonants’, the frequency of realisations of the FNSs is higher. The same applies to h-dropping. While the ENSs do not present any realisation of the feature, the FNSs do. This fact, however, unmasks some of the FNSs as non-native speakers. First, this result substantiates the estimation, whereby native French speaker occasionally show problems with the pronunciation of initial /h/ and second, the little obstacle, to produce the language ‘perfectly’, could not be overcome. The situation regarding the production of a ‘weak glottal fricative’ appears similar. Again, the FNSs show a higher frequency of realising a sound that could be taken for a very weak /h/, than the ENSs. In terms of strong and weak forms of *the*, the results of both language groups are likewise. Although it can be recognised, who are the native and who are the non-native speakers, but the number of incorrect positioning is kept within a limit.

At this point I would like to summarise the achievements of all candidates briefly, to begin with the FNSs. Within this analysis, the persons FNS2 and -7, present the highest

level of English. In both cases it is nearly impossible to notice any trace of a French accent. If listening to the recordings superficially only, the fact, that both are non-native speakers of English, stays concealed. If one wants to find some evidence of a foreign accent, it is essential to listen to the recordings intensively. In this regard, the English of FNS2 shows mixed features originating in AmE as well as in BrE. The case of FNS7 exhibits a higher tendency towards BrE. FNS2 eventually, performs the best realisation of the text. The demonstrations of FNS3 and -4 show a satisfactory level of English, although, their realisations offer more obvious indications of a French accent. What can be recognised easily here, is the proximity to BrE. The performances of FNS1 and -5 present the highest degree of a French accent appearing in English. Although, both persons possess a reasonable level of English, their French accent is audible easily. Besides, both perform the 'typical' mistakes, such as irregularities in terms of vowels and diphthongs, problems with the correct pronunciation of the dental fricatives or translating French stress patterns into English. Nevertheless, in consideration of the fact that FNS5 has never attended any English classes, nor spent a longer period of time abroad, his realisation is well done. The same applies to FNS1, who gives, despite of her rare use of English, quite a good demonstration of the text. The accomplishments of FNS6 can be placed between the realisations of the 'groups' FNS3 & -4 and FNS1 & -5. Although his pronunciation does not feature a bad quality of English, it still shows a number of irregularities. The manner he speaks English displays tendencies towards AmE. Moreover, some occurrences within his realisations correspond with the ones of FNS1, his sister. An examination with a psycholinguistic focus could certainly give explanations in this regard. The presentations of the ENSs served as good models for comparison. Especially ENS2 turned out to be an excellent example for an analysis like mine. Additionally to her clear and precise pronunciation, she provided me with the perfect material to recognise language features and to draw comparisons. Although she does not speak the real RP English, I personally think that her pronunciation is excellent, and for a foreign speaker easily to understand. The case of ENS1 appears slightly different. Even though his performance is good and he represents one of the American accents perfectly, as the recording is of a rather bad quality, the use of his language example was limited.

In summary, the analysis shows that the influence of the French accent on the pronunciation of English is in some cases more and in some cases less audible. What can be seen clearly, however, is the fact that there is, even if, in some cases very little, a difference between the pronunciation of a native and a non-native speaker. Some of the French candidates demonstrated a high proficiency of English, but also for them there was that little step, what they were not able to vanquish. Nevertheless, listening to the recordings superficially, some of the realisations could be taken for the ones of a native speaker. In some other cases, the French accent appears immediately and the actual native language is revealed. A tendency can be seen, wherein persons utilising English daily at work or elsewhere, perform a much better pronunciation of English than the ones, using the language every once a while. However, this is not compulsory. Even though, it applies to FNS7, -2 or -4, FNS3 for instance, does not use the language daily. By contrast, FNS6, who works in an English speaking environment, still shows certain discrepancies.

Considering the fact that all FNSs live in a French speaking environment, the level of their English is excellent. The level of nearly all FNSs, i.e. FNS2, -3, -4, -6 and -7, is tremendous, taking into account that they are all surrounded by the French language. Regarding the persons FNS1 and -5, the short time spent in an English speaking country (FNS1 and -5) and the lack of English education (FNS5), affected the pronunciation of English, but their straightforwardness and readiness to participate in this examination, must not be disregarded. Finally, a number of weak points, revealing the mother tongue and showing the limits of 'proficiency', can be found within the examples of each candidate.

Finally it can be summarised that none of the FNSs has performed a realisation that can be equalised with the one of a native speaker of English. Or in different words, the French accent influences the pronunciation of English, in some cases more and in some cases less obvious. Living in a multilingual country, all FNSs immediately announced their willingness to participate in my work. Moreover, none of the persons showed any problems with the circumstance that I wanted to record his/her way of speaking English and to examine their proficiency in this language afterwards. Naturally, there are many places in the world, where people do not have any problems using English as a "vehicle

of communication [...] when [they] have to talk to someone not able, or not willing, to speak their [...] language” (Duermueller 2002). In some countries this willingness and capability is more and in some less distinctive. According to the facts and attributes stated in chapter 1 and 2, it seems most likely that Switzerland can be assigned to the first category. Due to its multilingual and multicultural history, but first and foremost recent situation, it is nowadays no problem, to find people willing to communicate in another language than their mother tongue, i.e. primarily in English. And with the words of Duermueller (2002) who claims that “there is no doubt that English now belongs to the language repertoire of Swiss people and to the language repertoire of the nation” I want to end this work.

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## Appendix

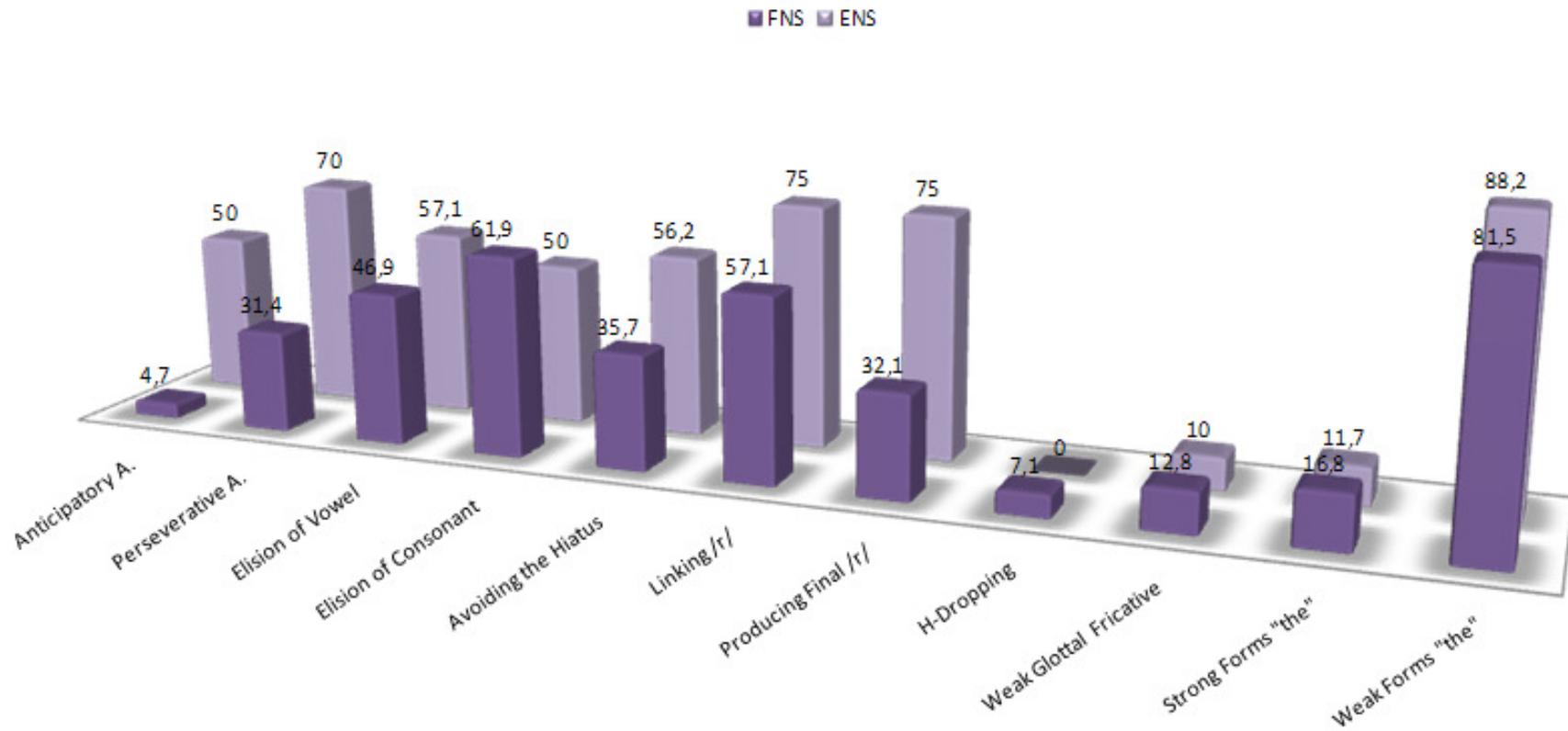
### Orthographic and Phonetic Description

Figure 9: Orthographic and Phonetic Description

<p>The rainbow passage ðe 'reɪnbəʊ 'pæsiɪdʒ</p> <p>When the sunlight strikes raindrops in the air, they act like a prism and form a wen ðə 'sʌnlɑ:t straɪks 'reɪndrɒps ɪn ðə eə ðeɪ ækt laɪk ə 'prɪzəm ənd fɔ:m ə rainbow. 'reɪnbəʊ</p> <p>The rainbow is a division of white light into many beautiful colours. ðə 'reɪnbəʊ ɪz ə dɪ'vɪʒn əv waɪt laɪt 'ɪntə 'meni 'bjʊ:tɪfl 'kʌləs</p> <p>These take the shape of a long round arch with its path high above and its two ends ði:z teɪk ðə ʃeɪp əv ə lɒŋ raʊnd ɑ:tʃ wɪð ɪtz pa:θ haɪ ə'bʌv ənd ɪtz tu: ends apparently beyond the horizon. ə'pærəntli bɪ'jɒnd ðə hə'reɪzn</p> <p>There is, according to legend, a boiling pot of gold at one end. ðeər ɪz ə'kɔ:dn̩ tə 'ledʒənd ə 'bɔɪlɪŋ pɒt əl gəʊld ət wʌn end</p> <p>People look, but no one ever finds it. 'pi:pl lʊk bət nəʊ wʌn 'evər faɪnds ɪt</p> <p>When a man looks for something beyond his reach, his friends say, he is looking for the wen ə mæn lʊks fər 'sʌmθɪŋ bɪ'jɒnd hɪz ri:tʃ hɪz frends seɪ hi: ɪz lʊkɪŋ fər ðə pot of gold at the end of the rainbow. pɒt əv gəʊld ət ðə end əv ðə 'reɪnbəʊ</p> <p>Throughout the centuries, men have explained the rainbow in various ways. θru:'aʊt ðə 'sentʃəri:s men həv ɪkspleɪnd ðə 'reɪnbəʊ ɪn 'veəriəs weɪs</p> <p>Some have accepted it as a miracle without physical explanation. səm həv ək'septɪd ɪt əz ə 'mɪrəkl wɪðəʊt 'fɪzɪkl ɪksplə'neɪʃn</p> <p>To the Hebrews it was a token that there would be no more universal floods. tə ðə 'hi:brʊ:s ɪt wəz ə 'təʊkən ðət ðeər wʊd bi nəʊ mɔ:r ju:nɪ'vɜ:sɪ flʌds</p> <p>The Greeks used to imagine that it was a sign from the gods to foretell war or ðə gri:ks ju:zd tə ɪ'mædʒɪn ðət ɪt wəz ə saɪn frəm ðə gɒds tə fɔ:'tel wɔ:r ɔ:r heavy rain. 'hevi reɪn</p> <p>The Norsemen considered the rainbow as a bridge over which the gods passed from ðə nɔ:smen kən'sɪdərd ðə 'reɪnbəʊ əz ə brɪdʒ 'əʊvər wɪtʃ ðə gɒds pɑ:sd frəm earth to their home in the sky. ɜ:θ tə ðeər həʊm ɪn ðə skaɪ</p>
--

The orthographic and phonetic description of the text applies to the *Longman Pronunciation Dictionary* (Wells 1990).

Chart 1: Synopsis of the Results



## Transcription Tables

This section contains all transcription tables, the actual core of the analysis. Each table represents one sentence and its realisation, transcribed in phonetic symbols, by all speakers. The explanations regarding colours, symbols and signs can be found within the ‘key tables’, subsequent to the transcription tables. Regarding the transcription tables, please note that, although I have mainly described features of connected speech, I still indicated numerous characteristics and appearances within words represented by the respective signs, but not explained explicitly within the analysis. While I was transcribing the recordings, naturally, I indicated all features and phenomena I came across with. The design of the transcription tables has been described in detail in chapter 4 (cf. 4.4.1). The ‘key tables’ give concise explanations and information regarding used symbols and signs as well as vowels (the table displays the ones of English and French).

Table 19: **Headline**

Headline	Dictionary		ENS1 (omitted)	ENS2 (omitted)	FNS1 (00:00sec)	FNS2 (00:00sec)
	BrE	AmE				
<i>the</i>	ði: - ði - ðə		0	0	se 'reɪnbou	ðə 'reɪnbou
<i>rainbow</i>	'reɪnbəʊ	'reɪnbou	0	0		
<i>passage</i>	'pæsɪdʒ		0	0	ˌba'sadʒ	pæsɪdʒ

FNS3 (00:00sec)	FNS4 (00:00sec)	FNS5 (00:00sec)	FNS6 (00:00sec)	FNS7 (00:00sec)
ðə 'reɪnbou	ðə 'reɪnbəʊ	se 'reɪnbou	ə reɪnbou	ðə 'reɪnbou
bæsɪdʒ	'pæsɪdʒ	'pæθɪdʒ	'basadʒ	'p <sup>h</sup> æɪsɪʒ

Table 20: Sentence 1

Sentence 1	Dictionary		ENS1 (00:00sec)	ENS2 (00:00sec)	FNS1 (00:02sec)	FNS2 (00:01sec)	FNS3 (00:02sec)	
	BrE	AmE						
<i>when</i>	wen	'reindra:ps	wennə 'sʌnlɑɪt	wennə 'ʃʌnlɑɪt	wen ðə 'sʌnlɑɪt	wennə 'ʃʌnlɑɪk	wen ðe 'sʌnlɑɪd	
<i>the</i>	ði: - ði - ðə		'straɪkɪʃ	ʃtraɪkɪʃ 'reɪndrɑ:bs	'straɪk	'ʃtraɪks 'reɪndrɒbs	sdraɪkɪʃ	
<i>sunlight</i>	'sʌnlɑɪt							
<i>strikes</i>	straɪks		'reɪndrɒps	'reɪndrɒps	'reɪndrɒ:bs	'reɪndrɒps ɪn ði:'eɪ:		
<i>raindrops</i>	'reɪndrɒps		eʔr	ɪn di eər	ɪn si eər	ɪn ði'eər		
<i>in</i>	ɪn							
<i>the</i>	ði: - ði - ðə							
<i>air</i>	eə - æʔr							
,								
<i>they</i>	ðeɪ	fɔ:rm	ðe*ɪækt*laɪk ə prɪzɪm	ðe*ɪækt#laɪk	seɪ 'ækt ɹlaɪk ə	ðeɪ ækt laɪk ə	ðe*ɪækt laɪk ə	
<i>act</i>	ækt		ə 'prɪzəm	*n*fɔ:rm ə 'reɪnbəʊ	ænd fɔ:m ɹ	'prɪzɪm̩	'prɪzəm ænd fɔ:rm	'prɪzəm
<i>like</i>	laɪk							
<i>a</i>	ə, əɪ		'reɪnbəʊ	'reɪnbəʊ	'reɪnbəʊ	ə 'reɪnbəʊ		
<i>prism</i>	'prɪzəm							
<i>and</i>	ænd - ənd - ən							
<i>form</i>	fɔ:m							
<i>a</i>	ə - əɪ							
<i>rainbow</i>	'reɪnbəʊ							
.								

FNS4 (00:01sec)	FNS5 (00:01sec)	FNS6 (00:02sec)	FNS7 (00:02sec)
wen ðə ,sʌn(d)laɪt 'ʃtraɪks	wən t̪ə 'sʌnlaɪt	wɛnnə 'sʌnlaɪt	wen ðə sʌnlaɪt
	ʃtraɪks̩	ʃtraɪks̩	straɪks̩
'reɪndrɒps ɪn di:'leə		'reɪndrɒbs ɪn di'ɜ:r	reɪn'drɒps ɪn di'ɜ:r
	reɪndrɒbs ɪn di'ɜ:r		
ði:	seɪ ækt laɪk ə	deɪ	ðeɪ ækt
ækt		ækt lārk*prɪθəm	laɪk ə
laɪk*'prɪzəm			'prɪzn
	'prɪzəm		
ən* fɔ:m	ān* fɔ:m ə 'reɪnbou	*n* fɔ:m ə 'reɪnb(r)ou	*nd' fɔ:m ə reɪnbou
ə 'reɪnbou			

Table 21: Sentence 2

Sentence 2	Dictionary		ENS1 (00:03sec)	ENS2 (00:05sec)	FNS1 (00:09sec)	FNS2 (00:06sec)	FNS3 (00:07sec)		
	BrE	AmE							
<i>the</i>	ði: - ði - ðə	'reɪnbəʊ	ðə 'reɪnbəʊ ɪz ə	ðə 'reɪnbəʊ ɪz ə	sə 'reɪnbəʊ	ðə ˈreɪnbəʊ ɪz ə	ðə 'reɪnbəʊ <sup>(1)</sup> ɪz ə		
<i>rainbow</i>	'reɪnbəʊ								
<i>is</i>	ɪz - z - s				ɪz ə dɪ'vɪʒnt əf				
<i>a</i>	əɪ - ə								
<i>division</i>	dɪ'vɪʒən	ˌv - ɑ:v	dɪ'vɪʒn əf	dɪ'vɪʒən əf	dɪ'vɪʒn əf	dɪ'vɪʒn əf w'haɪt laɪt	dɪ'vɪʒən əf w'haɪt laɪt		
<i>of</i>	ɒv - əv								
<i>white</i>	waɪt				waɪt laɪt 'ɪntə	waɪt laɪt		waɪt laɪt	
<i>light</i>	laɪt				'ɪntə 'meni	ɪntə meni		ɪntə məni bju:tɪfəl	'ɪntə 'meni 'bju:tɪfəl
<i>into</i>	<sup>(1)</sup> ɪntə - ɪntə								
<i>many</i>	'meni - məni - mni				'meni 'bju:tɪfəl	'bju:tɪf(ə)l 'kʌləz		'bju:tɪfəl	gʌlərz
<i>beautiful</i>	'bju:tɪfəl -ɪf -ɪfəl				'kʌlərz				
<i>colours</i>	'kʌləz	'kʌlərz	'kʌlərz	'kʌlərz	'kʌlərz	gʌlərz			
.									

<b>FNS4</b> (00:08sec)	<b>FNS5</b> (00:06sec)	<b>FNS6</b> (00:09sec)	<b>FNS7</b> (00:08sec)
ðə 'reɪnbəʊ	də 'reɪnbou	* reɪnbou	ðə 'reɪnbou
ɪz ə dɪ'vɪʒɪn	ɪs ə dɪ'vɪʒən əff'waɪt	ɪz ə	ɪz ə dɪ'vɪʒɪn əf
ɒv waɪt laɪt		dɪ'vɪʒn əf	
	leɪt	waɪt laɪt	w <sup>h</sup> aɪt laɪt
ɪntu 'meni	ɪntə məni 'bjʊ:tɪfʊl	'ɪndu 'meni	ɪnt <sup>h</sup> ə 'məni ,bjʊ:tɪfəl
'bjʊ:tɪfʊl 'kɒləz		'bjʊ:t <sup>h</sup> əfl	
	'kɒləz	'kɒlrz	( <sub>l</sub> )kɒlə:rz

Table 22: Sentence 3

Sentence 3	Dictionary		ENS1 (00:08sec)	ENS2 (00:08sec)	FNS1 (00:14sec)	FNS2 (00:10sec)
	BrE	AmE				
<i>these</i>	ði:z		ði:z teɪk ðə	ði:z teɪkʔə ʃeɪp	si:z teɪk sə	ði:z teɪk ðə ʃeɪp
<i>take</i>	teɪk					
<i>the</i>	ði: - ði - ðə					
<i>shape</i>	ʃeɪp		ʃeɪp ʌv ə		ʃ <sup>h</sup> e:p	
<i>of</i>	ɒv - əv	ʌv - ɑ:v		əv ə lɒŋ raʊnd	ʌv ə	əv ə lɒ:ŋ raʊnd
<i>a</i>	əɪ - ə					
<i>long</i>	lɒŋ	lɑ:ŋ	lɑ:ŋ raʊnd ɜ:rtʃ		lɒŋ rɒnd	
<i>round</i>	raʊnd					
<i>arch</i>	ɑ:rtʃ	ɑ:rtʃ		ɑ:rtʃ	ɑ:rtʃ	ɑ:rtʃ
,						
<i>with</i>	wɪð	wəð - wəθ	wɪð ɪts pæθ	wɪð ɪs	wɪs ɪts	wɪð ɪts
<i>its</i>	ɪts - əts					
<i>path</i>	pɑ:θ	pæθ		p <sup>h</sup> ɑ:θ hɑ* <sup>j</sup> ə'blʌv	ɸɑs hɑɪ ə'bo:v	pæθ hɑ* <sup>j</sup> əblʌv
<i>high</i>	haɪ		hɑ* <sup>j</sup> ə'blʌv			
<i>above</i>	ə'blʌv					
,						
<i>and</i>	ænd - ənd - ən		æn*ɪts tu: endz	æn*ɪts tu:ˈwendz	ān*ɪts	æn*ɪts ju enz
<i>its</i>	ɪts - əts					
<i>two</i>	tu:				tu: ændz	
<i>ends</i>	endz					
<i>apparently</i>	ə'pærəntli - 'peər - 'per		ə'pærəntli bɪjən*ðə	ə'pærəntli	ə'bɜ:rentli	a'pɜ:rentli
<i>beyond</i>	'bɛ- bɪ'jɒnd - bi'bnd	bi'a:nd		bɪ'jɒn*ðə hə'raɪzn		bɪ'jɒnd
<i>the</i>	ði: - ði - ðə					ðə hɜ:'raɪzən(d)
<i>horizon</i>	hə'raɪzən		hə'raɪzən		bɪ'jɒŋ si 'ɜ:rɪzən	
.						

FNS3 (00:12sec)	FNS4 (00:14sec)	FNS5 (00:10sec)	FNS6 (00:14sec)	FNS7 (00:13sec)
ði:z ɖeik ðə ʃeip	ði:z	siz	es(t)	ði:z
	teik ðə ʃeip <sup>h</sup>	teik̚ də ʃeɪp	deig*ə ʃeib	ʃ <sup>h</sup> eik ðə
				ʃeib
ʊv ə lɔŋ raʊnd 'ɑ:(:)tʃ	əv ə lɔŋ raʊnd	ʊf ə lɔŋ raʊnd̥	əv ə	ʌv ə 'lɔŋ
			lɔŋ raʊnd	raʊnd <sup>h</sup> ɑ:dʒ
	ɑ:tʃ	ɑrdʒ <sup>h</sup>	ɑrtʃ	
wið ɪ*	wið its	wið its	wɪz	wið its
			its̥	
ba:θ	pa:θ	ba:θ ha* <sup>j</sup> əbʌv(n)	bæʃ	ˌpæθ 'hɑ* <sup>j</sup> əbɒv
ha* <sup>j</sup> ə'bouʊ/əbʌv	hɑɪ ə.bɑ:w		'ha* <sup>j</sup> əbouʊ	
ən* <sup>i</sup> s tu ænz	en* <sup>i</sup> s	en* <sup>i</sup> s tu	ən* <sup>i</sup> s	en* <sup>i</sup> s
	tu:		tu: ænz	tu: <sup>(l)</sup> ændz
	ændz	ændz ə'berentli		
əpærəndli	ə'pærɛntli biˌjɔn* <sup>d</sup> i	bi'jɔnt*ə'rizən	ə'bɜ:əntli	ə'pærɛntli
ˌbi'jɔn* <sup>d</sup> i hə'raɪzən	'bɪ:ɔn* <sup>d</sup> i 'ɜ:ɪzən		biˌjɔn* <sup>d</sup> i 'hɔɪzən	
	'hɔɪzən			

Table 23: Sentence 4

Sentence 4	Dictionary		ENS1 (00:14sec)	ENS2 (00:15sec)	FNS1 (00:21sec)	FNS2 (00:17sec)	FNS3 (00:20sec)
	BrE	AmE					
<i>there</i>	ðeə - ðə	ðer - ðər	ðerɪz	ðerɪz	serɪz	ðərɪz	ðer'ɪz
<i>is</i>	ɪz - z - s						
,							
<i>according</i>	ə'kɔ:rdɪŋ	ə'kɔ:rdɪŋ	ə'kɔ:rdɪŋ tə	ə'kɔ:rdɪŋ	əkɔ:rdɪŋ	əkɔ:rdɪŋ tu ə	ə'kærdɪŋ
<i>to</i>	tu: - tu	tə		tə 'ledʒɪnd	tu le'dʒɪnd		
<i>legend</i>	'ledʒənd		'ledʒənd			'ledʒɪnd	tu 'ledʒend
,							
<i>a</i>	əɪ - ə		ə 'bɔɪlɪŋ pɑ:d	ə 'bɔɪlɪŋ	ə bɔɪlɪŋ	ə 'bɔɪlɪŋ pɔɪ#əv	ə bɔɪlɪŋ pɔɪ#ʌv
<i>boiling</i>	'bɔɪlɪŋ						
<i>pot</i>	pɒt	pɑ:t		pɒʔɒv	p'hɔ:t#ov		
<i>of</i>	ɒv - əv	ʌv - a:v	ʌv gəʊld				
<i>gold</i>	gəʊld	gəʊld		gəʊd əʔ wʌn	gold æt#wʌn	gəʊld æ.*wʌn ænt	gəʊld
<i>at</i>	æt - ət		æt wʌn end				æt#wʌn ænt
<i>one</i>	wʌn				enʔ		
<i>end</i>	end			end			
.							

FNS4 (00:24sec)	FNS5 (00:18sec)	FNS6 (00:23sec)	FNS7 (00:22sec)
ðeriz	ðeriz	ðər'ez	ðeriz
*'kɑ:rdɪŋ tə ðe 'ledʒɪnd	a'kædɪŋ tə <sup>(l)</sup> ledʒen*	ə'kɑ:dɪŋ	'akʊ:dɪŋ
		tə 'ledʒɪn*	tə 'ledʒ(hə)nd
ə 'bɔɪlɪŋ pɔʃ#ʌv  gouʃt æt#w <sup>h</sup> ɒn ænt	ə 'bɔɪlɪŋ pət#əv  gɜ:l* æt#wʌn æn*	ə <sup>(l)</sup> bɔɪlɪŋ ɪbət əv	ə <sup>(l)</sup> bɔɪlɪŋ
		pɔʃ#ʌv	pɔʃt#ʌv
		gɔ:ld	gould æt#w <sup>h</sup> ʌn ænd
		æt	
wʌn ænd			

Table 24: Sentence 5

Sentence 5	Dictionary		ENS1 (00:18sec)	ENS2 (00:19sec)	FNS1 (00:27sec)	FNS2 (00:21sec)	FNS3 (00:26sec)	
	BrE	AmE						
<i>people</i>	'pi:p <sup>1</sup> l		'pi:pə* <sup>1</sup> l:ʊk̚	'pi:pə* <sup>1</sup> l:ʊk <sup>h</sup>	pi:pe* <sup>1</sup> l:u:k <sup>h</sup>	'pi:pəllʊk <sup>h</sup>	'pi:pəllʊk <sup>h</sup>	
<i>look</i>	lʊk							
.								
<i>but</i>	bʌt - bət	nou	bət no*wʌn	bət nə*wʌn	bət no.ʊ wʌn	bʌt dount	bʌt no*wʌn	
<i>no</i>	nəʊ - nə					'ev <sup>3</sup> r		
<i>one</i>	wʌn							no*wʌn
<i>ever</i>	'evə							
<i>finds</i>	fʌndz							
<i>it</i>	ɪt							'evər fʌndz ɪt
.								

FNS4 (00:29sec)	FNS5 (00:22sec)	FNS6 (00:28sec)	FNS7 (00:28sec)
'pi:pəllʊ(:)k̚ <sup>h</sup>	'pi:pə* <sup>1</sup> l:ʊk <sup>h</sup>	'pi:pə* <sup>1</sup> l:ʊk <sup>h</sup>	'pi:pəllʊk <sup>h</sup>
bat no*wʌn	but no*wɔn evə	bət ( <sup>1</sup> )no*wɔn evə	bət no*wʌn
evə fʌndz			<sup>(1)</sup> evə fʌnz ɪt
	'fʌndz ɪt	'fʌndz ɪt	
ɪt			
.			

Table 25: Sentence 6

Sentence 6	Dictionary		ENS1 (00:20sec)	ENS2 (00:21sec)	FNS1 (00:30sec)	FNS2 (00:24sec)	FNS3 (00:28sec)
	BrE	AmE					
<i>when</i>	wen		wen ə mæn lʊks	wen ə mæn	wen ə mæn	wen ə 'mæn ˌlʊks	wən ə mæn ˌlʊks
<i>a</i>	əɪ - ə						
<i>man</i>	mæn						
<i>looks</i>	lʊks			lʊks fɔ: 'sʌmsɪŋ	'lu:kʰs		
<i>for</i>	fɔ: - fe	fɔ:r - fʰr	fɔ:r 'sʌmθɪŋ		fɔ:r 'samsɪŋ	fɔ: ʃʌmθɪŋ	fɔ:(:) 'sɔmθɪŋ
<i>something</i>	'sʌmθɪŋ						
<i>beyond</i>	'bə- 'biːjɒnd - bi'ɒnd	bi'a:nd	bi'a:nd hɪz ri:tʃ	'biːjɒnd hɪz ri:tʃ	'bi:jɒŋ hɪz	'bihaɪnd hɪz ri:tʃʰ	bi'ɒn* hɪz ri:dʒ
<i>his</i>	hɪz - ɪz						
<i>reach</i>	ri:tʃ				re(:)dʒ		
.							
<i>his</i>	hɪz - ɪz		hɪz fren(d)*s:eɪ hi	'hɪs fren*s:eɪ	hɪz fren*ʃ:eɪ	hɪz fren*s:eɪ	hɪz fren(d)*s:es
<i>friends</i>	frendz						
<i>say</i>	seɪ						
<i>he</i>	hi: - hi - i			hi ɪz 'lʊkɪŋ fɔ: ðə	hi:*z 'lu:kɪŋ	hi:*z 'lʊkɪŋ fɔ: ðə	hi:*z 'lʊkɪŋ fɔ:r ðə
<i>is</i>	ɪz - z - s		ɪz 'lʊkɪŋ fɔ: ðə				
<i>looking</i>	'lʊkɪŋ						
<i>for</i>	fɔ: - fe	fɔ:r - fʰr			fə sə		
<i>the</i>	ði: - ði - ðə						
<i>pot</i>	pɒt	pɑ:t	pɑ:d ʌv ɡəʊld	pʰɒt#əv	pɔ:t#ov gold	pɒt əv	'pɒt əv 'ɡəʊld
<i>of</i>	ɒv - əv	ʌv - ə:v					
<i>gold</i>	ɡəʊld	ɡəʊld		ɡəʊld ætti: end		ɡəʊld ætti:en*əv ðə	
<i>at</i>	æt - ət		ætti: end ʌv		ætti: end		ætti:enḁ əv ðə
<i>the</i>	ði: - ði - ðə						
<i>end</i>	end						
<i>of</i>	ɒv - əv	ʌv - ə:v		əv ðə 'reɪnbəʊ	əf sə 'reɪnbəʊ		
<i>the</i>	ði: - ði - ðə		ðə 'reɪnbəʊ				
<i>rainbow</i>	'reɪnbəʊ	'reɪnbəʊ				'reɪnbəʊ	'reɪnbəʊ
.							

<b>FNS4</b> (00:33sec)	<b>FNS5</b> (00:25sec)	<b>FNS6</b> (00:32sec)	<b>FNS7</b> (00:31sec)
wɪn ə mæn ˌlʊk <sup>h</sup> s	wen ə mæn lʊks	wən ə ˈmæn lʊks	wen ə ˈmæn lʊks
fə: ˈsɑmθɪŋ	fə: ˈsɑmsɪŋ	fə: səmsɪŋ bɪˈjɑ:ndɪz	fə: ˈsɑmθɪŋ
bɪˌjɒnd hɪz ri:dʒ	<sup>(1)</sup> bɛjʌn* <sup>h</sup> ezw <sup>h</sup> etʃ		<sup>(1)</sup> bɛjθŋ ɪz re(:)dʒ
		re(:)dʒ	
hɪz frends	<sup>h</sup> ɪz fren*s:ei	<sup>h</sup> ɪs ˈfrend*s:ei	<sup>h</sup> ɪz frɛnd*s: <sup>h</sup> ei
sei			
hɪ*s ˈlʊkɪŋ	hɪ*z ˈlʊkɪŋ fə:r se	hɪ: ɪz	hɪ*z lʊkɪŋ ˈfə ʔə
		ˈlʊkɪŋ	
fə: ʔə pɒt#əv		fə ʔə	
	pɒt əv goʊd(ə)		ˈpɒt əv goʊld
gould		pɒd(d) əv	
		gould	
ætti:ˈent ʌv ʔə ˈreɪnbou	æt se	ætti:ˈen*əv	<sup>(1)</sup> ætti:ˈen*əv ʔə
	end əv ʔə ˈreɪnbou		
		ʔə ˈreɪnbəʊ	
			<sup>(1)</sup> reɪnbou

Table 26: **Sentece 7**

Sentence 7	Dictionary		ENS1 (00:26sec)	ENS2 (00:27sec)	FNS1 (00:38sec)	FNS2 (00:30sec)
	BrE	AmE				
<i>throughout</i>	θru'aʊt		θru'aʊt ðə 'sentʃəri:z	θru'aʊt.ə 'sentri:z	sru'aʊt sə	θru'aʊt ðə
<i>the</i>	ði: - ði - ðə				senturi:z	'sentʃri:z
<i>centuries</i>	'sentʃər_ji:z				men hæv	men hæv 'ik'spleɪn*ðə
<i>men</i>	men		mæn hæv	men æv 'ik'spleɪn*ðə	eksplen*se	
<i>have</i>	hæv - həv - əv - v				'reɪnbəʊ ɪn	'reɪnbəʊ ɪn
<i>explained</i>	ek- ək- ɪk'spleɪnd		ɪk'spleɪn*ðə 'reɪnbəʊ^wɪn	'reɪnbəʊ^wɪn	'veriəs weɪz	'veriəs weɪz
<i>the</i>	ði: - ði - ðə				'veriəs weɪz	veriəs weɪz
<i>rainbow</i>	'reɪnbəʊ	'reɪnbəʊ				
<i>in</i>	ɪn					
<i>various</i>	'veəriəs	'væɪ- 'veriəs				
<i>ways</i>	weɪz					
.						

FNS3 (00:36sec)	FNS4 (00:43sec)	FNS5 (00:32sec)	FNS6 (00:40sec)	FNS7 (00:39sec)
θru'aʊttə	θru'həʊ*ðə 'sentʃərez	sruaʊddə 'sentʃərez	tʰru'aʊttə	tru'aʊttə <sup>(1)</sup> sendʒəri:z
'sentri:z			'sentri:z	
men hev ɪk'spleɪn*tʰə	mæn hæv ɪk'spleɪn*ðə	mæn <sup>h</sup> æv ɪk'spleɪn*sə	men hæv ɪkspleɪn*də	mæn <sup>h</sup> æv 'ɪk <sub>(1)</sub> spleɪn*ðə
'reɪnbəʊ^wɪn	'reɪnbəʊ	'reɪnbəʊ	<sup>(1)</sup> reɪnbəʊ^wɪn 'veriəs	'reɪnbəʊ^wɪn
	ɪn 'væɪrɪəs weɪz	ɪn vərɪəs weɪz(ə)		'væɪrɪəs weɪz
'veriəs weɪz			weɪz	

Table 27: Sentence 8

Sentence 8	Dictionary		ENS1 (00:30sec)	ENS2 (00:31sec)	FNS1 (00:43sec)	FNS2 (00:34sec)	FNS3 (00:40sec)
	BrE	AmE					
<i>some</i>	sʌm - səm		sʌm hæv ɪk'septɪd ɪt	sʌm <sup>h</sup> əv ɪk'septɪd ɪt	sʌm hæv	sʌm hæv	sʌm hæv
<i>have</i>	hæv - həv - əv - v						
<i>accepted</i>	æk- ɪk- ək'septɪd -id -ed				æk'septɪd ɪt	ɪk'septɪd ɪt	æk'septɪd ɪd æz ə
<i>it</i>	ɪt						
<i>as</i>	æz - əz		æz ə 'mɪrɪkəl wɪð'ɑʊt	æz ə 'mɪrɪkəl wɪð'ɑʊ*	hæz ə	æz ə 'mɪrɪkəl	
<i>a</i>	əɪ - ə						
<i>miracle</i>	'mɪrəkəl				'mɪrɪkəl's		'mɪrɪkəl
<i>without</i>	wɪð'ɑʊt				wɪs <sup>h</sup> ɑʊt	wɪðɑʊt 'fɪzɪkəl	wɪð'ɑʊt 'fɪzɪkəl
<i>physical</i>	'fɪzɪkəl		fɪzɪkəl 'eksplə'neɪʃən	'fɪzɪkəl ,eksplə'neɪʃən	'fɪzɪkəl		
<i>explanation</i>	ˌeksplə'neɪʃən				ˌɪksplə'neɪʃən	ˌeksplə'neɪʃən	ˌɪksplə'neɪʃən
.							

FNS4 (00:49sec)	FNS5 (00:37sec)	FNS6 (00:45sec)	FNS7 (00:44sec)
sam hæv æksæptɪd	sam hæv ekseptɪd et	sʌm	sʌm <sup>h</sup> əv æk'septɪd ɪt
		<sup>h</sup> əv æk'septɪd	
ɪt		ɪt hæz ə 'mɪrɪkəl wɪð <sup>h</sup> ɑʊt	
æz ə mɪrɪkəl	æz ə (ə)		æz ə 'mɪrɪkəl
	'mɪrɪkəl		
wɪð'ɑʊt 'fɪzɪkəl	wɪsɑʊt 'fɪzɪkəl		wɪðɑʊt <sup>(1)</sup> fɪzɪkəl
(1)ˌeksplə'neɪʃən	ˌɪksplə'neɪʃən	'fɪzɪkəl ,eksplə'neɪʃən	ˌɪksplə'neɪʃən

Table 28: Sentence 9

Sentence 9	Dictionary		ENS1 (00:34sec)	ENS2 (00:35sec)	FNS1 (00:48sec)	FNS2 (00:38sec)	FNS3 (00:44sec)
	BrE	AmE					
<i>to</i>	tu: - tu	tə	tu ðə 'hi:b <sup>w</sup> ru:z	tu ðə 'hi:bru:z	tu si	tə ðə 'hi:bru:z	tu ðə 'hi:b <sup>w</sup> ru:z
<i>the</i>	ði: - ði - ðə						
<i>Hebrews</i>	'hi:bru:z				'i:b <sup>w</sup> u:z		
<i>it</i>	ɪt		ɪt wəz ə 'tɒkən	ɪt wəz ə	ɪt wəz ə	ɪ <sup>*</sup> wəz ə	hɪt#wɒz ə 'tɒkən/ ɪt wəz ə 'tɒkən
<i>was</i>	wəz - wɒz	wʌz - wɑ:z					
<i>a</i>	əɪ - ə						
<i>token</i>	'tɒkən	'tɒkən		'tɒkənætə wɒd	'tɒkən	'tɒkən nɒt	
<i>that</i>	ðæt - ðət		dætə wɒd bi		sæt ser wu:bbi:	dætə wɒd	dætə wɒd
<i>there</i>	ðeə - ðə	ðer - ðər					
<i>would</i>	wɒd - wəd - əd						
<i>be</i>	bi: - bi			bi nəʊ mɔ:	nəʊ mɔ:r	bi: nəʊ mɔ:	bi: nəʊ mɔ
<i>no</i>	nəʊ - nə	nəʊ	nəʊ mɔ:r 'ju:nɪ'vɜ:səl				
<i>more</i>	mɔ:	mɔ:r - mɔ:r					
<i>universal</i>	ˌju:nɪ'vɜ:səl			ˌju:nɪ'vɜ:səl flʌdz	ˌju:nɪ'vɜ:səl	ˌju:nɪ'vɜ:səl flʌdz	ˌju:nɪ'vɜ:səl flʌdz
<i>floods</i>	flʌdz		flʌdz		flɒdz		
.							

FNS4 (00:54sec)	FNS5 (00:41sec)	FNS6 (00:51sec)	FNS7 (00:48sec)
tə ðə 'hi:bru:s	tə ðə 'hi:bru:z	tə si 'hæb <sup>w</sup> ru:z	ʒə ðə 'hi:b <sup>w</sup> ru:z
i* wəz ə	ɪt wəz ə 'tɔkən	i* wəz ə	ʒɪtwəz ə 'tɔukən
'tɔkən		'tɔukən	
dætter wɒt	sət se wɒt bi nou mɔ:r	dæt	ðætter wɒd nɒt
bi:		ðe wɒd	
nou		bi: nɔ mɔ:r ju:nɪvɜ:səl	bi:
mɔ:r			0
'ju:nɪvɜ:səl flɒdz	ju:nɪ'versəl flɒdz		'mɔ:r
		flɒdz	ʃju:nɪvɜ:səl flɒdz



FNS4 (01:02sec)	FNS5 (00:45sec)	FNS6 (00:58sec)	FNS7 (00:54sec)
ðə gri:kks	ðə gre:ks	ðə gre:ks	ðə gri:kʰs
ju:z*tu	ju:ztə* ,mæ'dʒen	ju:z*tu i'mædʒɪnddæt	ju:z*tu i'mædʒɪn ðæt
i'mædʒɪn			
dædi*wɒz	sæt it wɒz ə saɪn	ɪt	ɪt wɒz ə ʃaɪn(ə)
		w(u)ɒz	
ə saɪt		ə 'saɪn fəm	
fɾəm ðə <sup>(t)</sup> gɒds	fɾəm sə gɒds	ðə 'gɒds	fəm ðə 'gɒds
tə 'fɔ:ɹ(ə)tel	tu fɔ:ɹ'tel	ʒə fɔ:ɹtel	tu 'fɔ:tel (ə)wɑ:ɹ
wɔ:ɹɔ:	wɑ:ɹ ɔ:ɹ 'hevi reɪn	wɔ:ɹ ɔ:	
hævi 'reɪn		hævə 'reɪn	ɔ:ɹ <sup>(t)</sup> hevi:
			reɪn

Table 30: Sentence 11

Sentence 11	Dictionary		ENS1 (00:44sec)	ENS2 (00:44sec)	FNS1 (01:00sec)	FNS2 (00:47sec)	FNS3 (00:57sec)
	BE	AE					
<i>the</i>	ði: - ði - ðə		ðə nɔ:rsmeŋkənsɪdərddə	ðə 'nɔ:rsmeŋkənsɪdərddə	sə 'no:rsmæn	ðə 'nɔ:rsmæn	ðə ,nɔ:rsmæn
<i>Norsemen</i>	'nɔ:smən	'nɔ:rsmən					
<i>considered</i>	kən'sɪdəd	kən'sɪd'rd			kən'sɪdɜ:r	kən'sɪdərð ðə	,kən'sɪdərddə
<i>the</i>	ði: - ði - ðə				sə 'reɪnbəʊ		
<i>rainbow</i>	'reɪnbəʊ	'reɪnbəʊ	reɪnbəʊ æz ə	'reɪnbəʊ æz ə		'reɪnbəʊ æz ə bre(:)dʒ	'reɪnbəʊ æz ə
<i>as</i>	æz - əz				æz ə brɪdʒ		
<i>a</i>	ə - ə						
<i>bridge</i>	brɪdʒ		'brɪdʒ 'əʊvə wɪtʃ ðə	brɪd.ʒ əʊvə			b <sup>h</sup> brɪdʒ
<i>over</i>	'əʊvə	'əʊvər			,əʊvə w <sup>h</sup> ɪtʃ ðə	'əʊvə wɪtʃ ðə	əʊvə wɪttə
<i>which</i>	wɪtʃ			wɪtʃsə ɡɒdz pɑ:st			
<i>the</i>	ði: - ði - ðə						
<i>gods</i>	ɡɒdz	ɡɑ:dz	ɡɑ:dz pæst frʌm		ɡo:d* pæʒ*	ɡɒts pɑ:s* frəm	ɡɒts
<i>passed</i>	pɑ:st	pæst		frəm ɜ:θ t(h)ə			bɑθ*/bɑʒ*
<i>from</i>	frɒm - frəm	frʌm - frɑ:m			frʌm_		frəm ɜ:θ
<i>earth</i>	ɜ:θ		ɜ:rθ tu ðerhəʊm		ɜ:rs	ɜ:θ tə ðeɪ həʊm	
<i>to</i>	tu: - tu	tə			tu ser		tu ðə həʊm
<i>their</i>	ðeə - ðər	ðeər - ðər		ðeə həʊm ɪnnə skaɪ			
<i>home</i>	həʊm	həʊm			?həʊm		
<i>in</i>	ɪn		ɪnnə <sup>(1)</sup> skaɪ		ɪn se skaɪ	ɪn ðə skaɪ	
<i>the</i>	ði: - ði - ðə						
<i>sky</i>	skaɪ						ɪn ðə skaɪ
.							

FNS4 (01:10sec)	FNS5 (00:54sec)	FNS6 (01:06sec)	FNS7 (01:02sec)
ðə 'nɔ:'si:mæn	ðə 'nɔ:'smæn	də nɔ:'mæn	ðə 'nɔ:rʃmæn
kən'sidəd	'kɔ:rnsɪdəd 'se	kənzi:dəddə	ˌkən'sidə(r) ðə
ðə 'reɪnbəʊ	'reɪnbrou	'reɪnbəʊ	'reɪnbou
æz ə pʰrɪdʒ	æz ə brɪdʒ	æz ə	æʃ ə bredʒ
əʊvə wɪtʃ	əʊvə 'wɪtʃ	bre(d)ʒ	əvə wedʒ
ðə ɡɒds	sə ɡɒts	əvə	ðʰə ɡʰɒds
pæsd frəm	bæst frəm hɜ:s	wɪdʃsə	'gɒds
æð		pæs*fəm <sup>(0)</sup> hɜ:sʰ	pæstʃ
tu ðe̞ hɔʊm	tə se hɔm in se skɑɪ	tə ðe̞*hɔʊm	frəm hɜ:θʰ
in ðə skʰɑɪ		ɪnə 'skɑɪ	tu ðe̞ <sup>(0)</sup> hɔʊm
			in də skɑɪ

## Key Tables

The key tables summarise the used symbols and signs. Generally, the transcriptions have been executed according to the parameters of the *International Phonetic Alphabet* (revised to 1993, corrected 1996) (Ladefoged 2005), although I have adapted some symbols to special occurrences within my recordings, in order to describe them a bit better.

Table 31: Used Symbols and their Meaning

Symbols and Signs	Meaning
ɫ	= dark /l/
(...)	= letters in parenthesis indicate a suggestion of a sound, where I am not sure if it is really there or not
~	= nasalised sound
˘	= indicates that the sound is accentuated, however, not necessarily in the sense of voiceless or voiced, as declared in the IPA
ʂ	= retroflex /ʂ/
ʐ	= retroflex /ʐ/
ʀ	= uvular trill
j	= indicates the facilitation of the connection between two words
w	= indicates the facilitation of the connection between two words
ⁿ	= indicates a nasal release after the sound
ʰ	= indicates an aspiration after a sound
̄	= indicates that a sound is dentalised
◌̠	= indicates that a sound is pronounced very weak or low (the symbol does not necessarily mean that the sound is voiceless)
◌̚	= indicates that the sound is syllabic
◌̙	= indicates that the sound is more rounded
◌̘	= indicates that the sound is less rounded
ˈ	= primary word stress
ˌ	= secondary stress
◌̤	= indicates that the sound is produced with a breathy voice
◌̥	= indicates that the sound is pronounced with a creaky voice
◌̚	= the sound is extra short
◌̣	= indicates a syllable break
ʔ	= indicates a glottal stop
ː	= indicates a longer duration of the sound

Source: “The International Phonetic Alphabet (revised to 1993, corrected 1996)”, cf. Ladefoged (2001).

The following tables present the English and French vowels. Furthermore, one table showing the English diphthongs and French nasal vowels is given. The last table displays the colours, the examined features are accentuated in. Within the transcription tables, the colours indicate, which combinations have been examined in terms of what feature.

Table 32: **Vowels – English and French**

Vowels	English	French
i	*	*
ɪ	*	
e	*	*
ə	*	*
ɜ	*	
ɑ	*	*
æ	*	
ɒ	*	
ɔ	*	*
o	*	*
ʌ	*	
ʊ	*	
u	*	*
ɛ		*
y		*
ø		*
œ		*
a	(*)	*

Source: LPR1 (1990), OALD (2000), Wells (1990)

Table 33: English Diphthongs and French Nasal Vowels

English Diphthongs	French Nasal Vowels
eɪ	ã
əʊ	ẽ
oʊ	õ
aɪ	œ
ɔɪ	
aʊ	
ɪə	
eə	
ʊə	

Source: LPR1 (1990), OALD (2000), Wells (1990)

Table 34: Colour Key

Feature	Colour
Anticipatory Assimilation	Red
Perseverative Assimilation	Purple
Elision	Green
Avoiding the hiatus	Yellow
Linking r	Cyan
Final r	Red
Air Flow	Grey
H-Dropping	Pink
Words with "th"	Blue

## Deutsche Zusammenfassung

Die vorliegende Magisterarbeit mit dem Titel „The Influence of the French Accent of the *Swiss Romande* on the Pronunciation of English“ beschäftigt sich mit der Hörbarkeit eines französischen Akzentes im Englischen, genauer, wenn Personen aus dem französischsprachigen Teil der Schweiz Englisch sprechen. Kern der Arbeit ist ein Text, den eine ausgewählte Gruppe von Personen, zwei Englischmuttersprachler und sieben Französischmuttersprachler, laut vorgeliesenen hat, während ich dies mit einem entsprechenden Gerät aufzeichnete. Ziel der Untersuchung soll es sein, den Grad der Fertigkeit zu bestimmen, den ein Französischmuttersprachler aufweist, wenn er Englisch spricht. Da ich für die Untersuchung Personen mit einer bestimmten Bildungsgeschichte im Bezug auf Englisch ausgewählt habe, hört man die Auffälligkeiten meist nur im Detail.

Zu Beginn der Arbeit wird zunächst der Weg, wie ich zu dem Thema gefunden habe, das Ziel und schliesslich die Vorgehensweise erläutert. Das zweite Kapitel skizziert die Sprachensituation der Schweiz, indem zunächst die drei, nach manchen Quellen auch vier, Amtssprachen erläutert werden. Desweiteren wird die spezielle Situation im Bezug auf Englisch beleuchtet, da Englisch neben den Amtssprachen in den letzten Jahren einen immer höheren Stellenwert eingenommen hat.

Das dritte Kapitel beschreibt einige ausgewählte Merkmale der französischen Sprache, die für die spätere Analyse von Nutzen sein können. Dabei wird zunächst ein Kurzporträt der Sprache selbst gezeichnet, und anschliessend werden bestimmte Charakteristika und Merkmale der ‚connected speech‘ (Umgangssprache) angeführt. Abschliessend werden die Vokale beider Sprachen vergleichend gegenübergestellt.

Kapitel vier beschäftigt sich mit der Vorgehensweise. Zunächst wird die Suche nach einem vergleichbaren Forschungsmodell, was bei einer Untersuchung wie dieser unerlässlich ist, beschrieben. Dabei werden drei Autoren angeführt, von denen ich jeweils unterschiedliche Untersuchungspunkte an meine Arbeit angepasst habe. Danach werden die Personen beschrieben, mit welchen ich die Aufnahmen durchgeführt habe. Zunächst die Englisch- und dann die Französischmuttersprachler. Alle, für die spätere

Analyse wichtigen Daten, habe ich in Tabellen festgehalten, um später einen einfacheren Überblick zu erhalten. Bei den Englischmuttersprachlern unter den Klassifikationen *Alter*, *Geschlecht* und *Herkunftsort*, letzteres im Bezug auf Englisch, und bei den Französischmuttersprachler unter *Alter* und *Geschlecht*, sowie ‚Sprachgeschichte‘ im Bezug auf Englisch. Der letzte Punkt beinhaltet alle Fakten, die mit dem Lernen und Gebrauch von Englisch einer jeden Person zu tun haben. Anschliessend wird der Text genauer beschrieben, d.h. wo ich ihn gefunden habe und wieso ich mich gerade für diesen Text entschieden habe. Schliesslich werden die Umstände und das Stattfinden der Aufnahmen beschrieben. Das Ende des Kapitels erklärt die Arbeit mit den Aufnahmen sowie deren nachfolgende Anwendung.

Die Analyse dominiert das fünfte Kapitel, welches in zwei grosse Kategorien unterteilt ist. Die erste beschäftigt sich explizit mit den Merkmalen der ‚connected speech‘ (Umgangssprache). Neben Charakteristika wie Assimilation und Elision, werden auch das Phänomen ‚H-dropping‘ (Auslassung des /h/‘s) sowie wortverbindende Erscheinungen eruiert. Die zweite Kategorie konzentriert sich im Besonderen auf Einzelfälle, die auch IN Wörtern vorkommen, wie zum Beispiel Abweichungen bei Vokalen, Unterschiede in der Betonung oder fehlerhafte Aussprachen einiger Laute oder ganzer Worte. Neben Tabellen, die den überwiegenden Teil der Ergebnisse wiedergeben, werden auch einige Besonderheiten, die im Spektrogramm gut sichtbar waren, dargestellt. Den Tabellen liegt ein generelles Muster zugrunde. Alle geben jeweils den Satz sowie die betroffene Wortkombination an. Weiterhin ist die phonetische Transkription dieser ohne, und mit dem jeweiligen Merkmal zu finden. Abschliessend werden die Anzahl der Durchführungen der Englisch- und der Französischmuttersprachler angezeigt. Nach jedem Merkmal findet sich eine kurze kurze Zusammenfassung.

Das letzte Kapitel fasst die Untersuchung sowie die gesamte Arbeit zusammen. Dabei wird festgestellt, dass sich der zu Beginn geäusserte Verdacht, dass Personen, deren Muttersprache Französisch ist, zwar bis zu einem bestimmten, in manchen Fällen sehr hohen, Grad Englisch sprechen, die letzte Stufe zur Gleichstellung mit einem Englischmuttersprachler jedoch nicht überwinden können. Zwar is der Akzent in manchen Fällen nur noch mit einem geübten Gehör oder durch eingehende

Untersuchungen zu erkennen, ein gänzlich tadelloses Englisch hat jedoch keiner der Französischmuttersprachler wiedergegeben. Dennoch sind die Leistungen aller Französischmuttersprachler bemerkenswert. Das Kapitel endet mit dem Versuch einer Erklärung, warum viele Schweizer keine oder wenig Probleme haben, in einer anderen Sprache, als ihrer Muttersprache zu parlieren, in diesem Fall in Englisch. Möglicherweise aufgrund der langen Geschichte der Multilingualität und Multikulturalität, fällt es der schweizer Bevölkerung erheblich leichter, eine neue Sprache zu erlernen und zu gebrauchen. Ich beschliesse die Arbeit mit einem Zitat von Urs Duermueller der erklärt, dass ‚die Englische Sprache zum Repertoire der schweizer Bevölkerung und zum Repertoire der schweizer Nation gehört‘.

Im Anhang der Arbeit sind die Transkriptionstabellen zu finden. Sie zeigen jeden Satz sowie alle Personen und ihre jeweilige Wiedergaben an. Die Transkriptionen wurden nach den Regeln des Internationalen Phonetischen Alphabets (IPA), vorgenommen (*International Phonetic Alphabet* (revised to 1993, corrected 1996), Ladefoged 2005).

**Selbstständigkeitserklärung**

Hiermit versichere ich, dass ich die vorliegende Arbeit selbständig und nur unter Zuhilfenahme der angegebenen Hilfsmittel verfasst habe. Alle wörtlich übernommenen Aussagen sind eindeutig gekennzeichnet. Die Herkunft der indirekt übernommenen Formulierungen und Gedankengänge ist angegeben.

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