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English PronunciationS
The Pronunciation of English around the World
Geo-social Applications of the Natural Phonetics & Tonetics Method

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169. A brief introduction to the Celtic accents (& map)

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169.1. One important thing must be quite clear from the very beginning, when talking about the pronunciation of English in the Celtic areas of the British Isles. English is a Germanic language, while the substratum languages in Wales (pop. about 3,000,000), Scotland (pop. more than 5,000,000) and Ireland, made up by Ulster (or Northern Ireland, pop. less than 2,000,000) and Eire (/ˈɛɪɹə/, or Southern Ireland, pop. more than 4,000,000) –arguably– are Celtic. (The population of England is about 50,000,000.)

Thus, these peoples cannot be considered to be actual monolingual speakers, because they constantly have around them both English and *Welsh* or (Scottish or Irish) *Gaelic*, /ˈgɛlɪk, ˈgæ-, ˈgɑː-. This is true even when they do not actively use any Celtic language. In fact, the sounds of these languages are always there, because other people, in everyday life, or on the radio and TV, do use them.

Often some Celtic words are used for expressive or jocular purposes, even by those who speak only English. Besides, as always happens with different –and foreign – languages, the results of spelling pronunciation are more or less present in the speech of people who are not exactly monolingual.

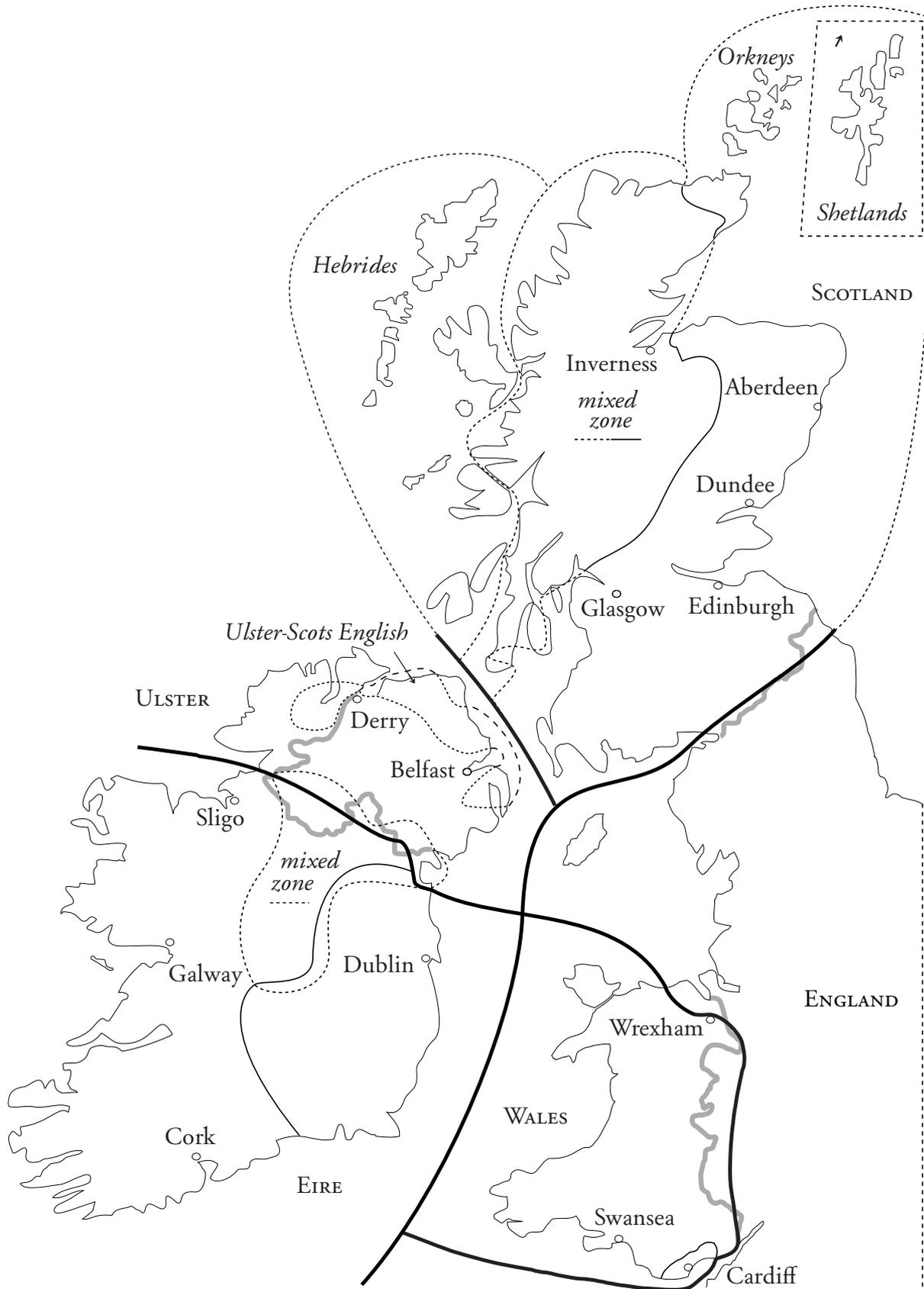
169.2. While actual loanwords are adapted to the English phonic system, in the Celtic areas it is English that is pronounced according to the phonic system of the substratum language, even when the speakers are quite fluent in English, or do not actually speak any Celtic languages. Their social and cultural environment is decisive, indeed, although far from being absolutely uniform, too.

On the contrary, with different languages spoken on the same territory, the possibility of less systematic and more varied interference is more real than ever. This is why the Celtic accents that we will see (in ¶ 170-177) are generally less stable than actual monolingual accents, depending on geo-socio-phonic factors.

Of course, these same factors are not quite uninfluential on monolingual speakers in England, as well. It is a very well-known fact that the *use of language* varies according to different sociolinguistic parameters, while the language itself remains just the same. The Celtic peoples have actually been English-speaking –not ‘monolingual’, indeed– only for two (or, at most, three) centuries.

169.3. The map in fig 169 shows the phonic areas and subareas we have identified for the Celtic accents. *Wales* and the *Cardiff* region, with a considerably less

fig 169. The Celtic areas of English accents.



Welsh accent than anywhere else in Wales. In a following map of Wales (fig 170.1), we will indicate nine sectors, useful for signaling given sound occurrences.

For *Scotland* we have three main areas: an *eastern* one (where Scots is spoken more or less actively), which includes the *Lowlands* (or southern, or southeastern, Scotland), and the *Orkneys & Shetlands*. The other two areas are the *Highlands* (or northern, or northwestern, Scotland, including the *Inner Hebrides*), and the *Outer Hebrides*. The most representative Scottish accent is the southern one, including Edinburgh and Glasgow, while the most different are those of the Islands. The intermediate area is a linguistically mixed zone, with less defined features (so that the best Scottish pronunciation is said to be found in Inverness).

169.4. *Ireland* is linguistically divided into *Ulster* (or, roughly, Northern Ireland) and *Eire* (or Ireland, or Southern Ireland). In turn, in Ulster we have two accent areas: *Ulster English* proper, with Belfast, and *Ulster-Scots English*, a north-eastern complex area, as can be seen in the map of fig 169.

For *Eire*, we have an *Eastern* (Southern-)Irish area, with Dublin, and a *Western* (Southern-)Irish area, with the rest of the Republic of Ireland. Besides, there is a mixed zone between their northern parts and Ulster, with oscillating and less defined features.

169.5. In certain local studies on particular areas or cities, where English is spoken, often (too often, indeed), we read that certain features are peculiar to that area or city, while they are given as absent from other areas or cities (for instance, between Glasgow and Edinburgh). As a matter of fact, by analyzing various different areas or cities, we have seen that the Celtic accents are quite similar, within the boundaries we have drawn. Their actual peculiarities are in the frequency of their features, not in their being present or absent. Of course, all this is determined by the geo-socio-phonetic factors typical of each individual speaker. When possible, however, we will indicate more localizable features.

In addition, we are sick of reading about ‘sociolinguistic classes’ of people who are *expected to speak* in a given way because they belong to one of those *sociolinguistic classes*: UC (upper class), MC (middle class), WC (working class). Besides, each one can be specified by one of three *degrees*: U (upper), M (middle), L (lower), as, for instance: MMC (middle middle class).

169.6. Instead, different people, almost independently from any supposed sociolinguistic class, usually realize the phonemes of English in a given way. They are used to pronouncing certain words in a given way, according to their own linguistic story.

It is true that age, education, housing, income, locality, mobility, occupation, sex and status mostly determine one’s own conscious or unconscious attitude towards the pronunciation of one’s language.

But phonic things do not necessarily obey any absolute, mathematical, or universal laws. In fact, inevitably, people do oscillate. Only specific awareness and knowledge can bring to a coherent and consistent use of language.

Thus, especially non-monolingual people hardly ever can be expected to exhibit any kind of normalized pronunciation. Even good actors seldom succeed in speaking with a flawless and convincing (normalized) accent.

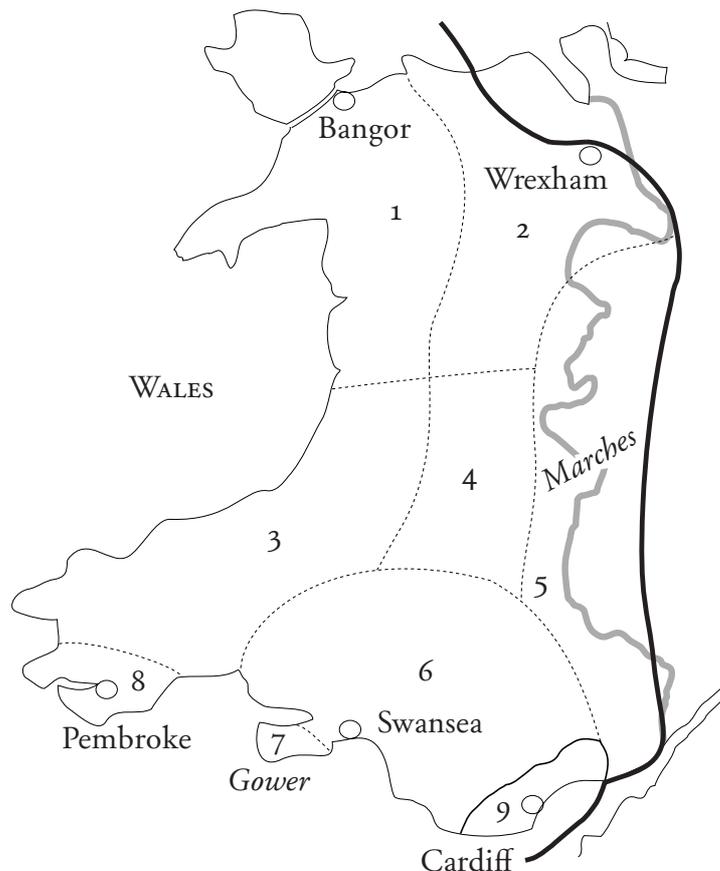
170. Wales

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170.1. The map of *fig 170.1* shows the linguistic area of the *Welsh* accent of English. In addition to the smaller area around Cardiff (and Newport – whose accent will be dealt with in *Ch 171*), we have indicated, by means of dotted lines, a few subareas, for which we will report some local peculiarities.

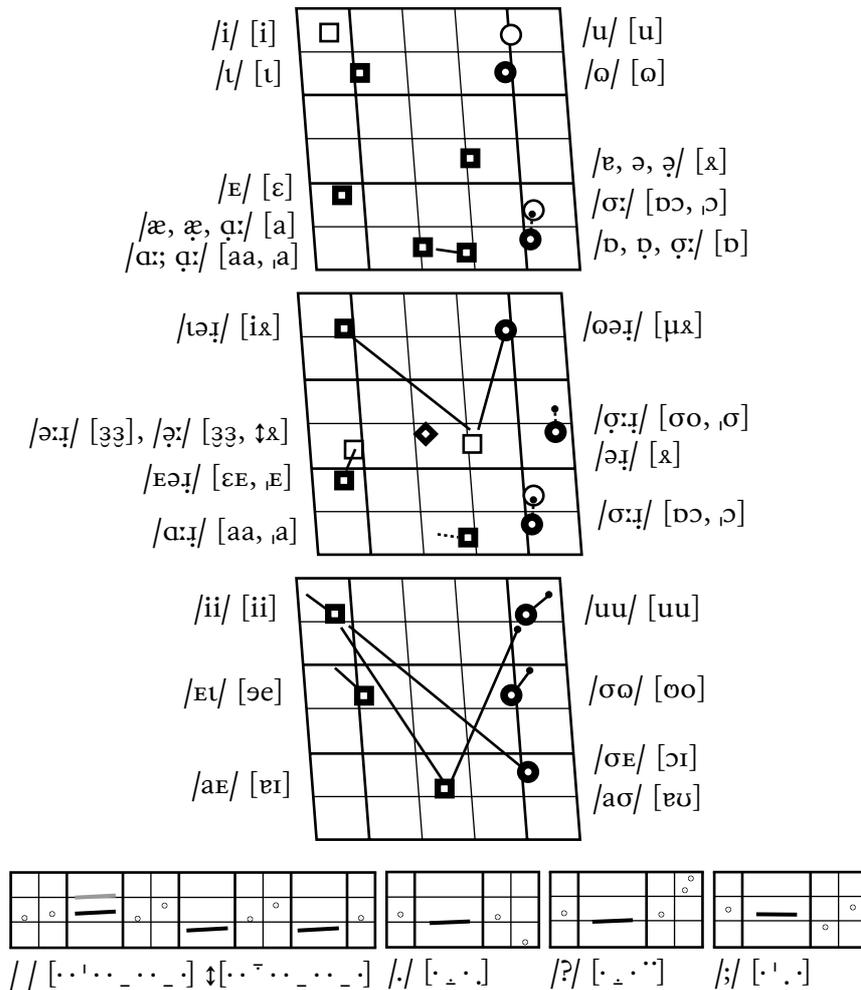
Thus, the typical Welsh accent is shown in *fig 170.2*, while *fig 170.3-4* will add the lighter or broader (and the broadest) variants we have found.

fig 170.1. Wales: nine sectors for two English accents and variants. Welsh and Cardiff accents.



170.2. Let us start by confuting the popular idea (unfortunately shared by too many authors on the subject) that Welsh English typically has ‘long monoph-

fig 170.2. Welsh English: vowels, diphthongs & intonation. Typical accent.



thongs’, even for English /ii, Eɪ, σɔ, uu/. The truth, on the contrary, is that this accent has many actual phonetic diphthongs (although narrow or monotimbric), as can easily be seen in our vocograms (and, of course, heard from native speakers).

In fact, we have: [ˈtʰi:ri] /ˈtʰii/ *tea*, [ˈdʒə:e] /ˈdʒEɪ/ *day*, [ˈgɔ:ɔ] /ˈgσɔ/ *go*, [ˈtʰu:ru] /ˈtʰuu/ *two*. In the Marches (sector 5), we have the diphthongal variants [ˈtʰEɪ, ˈtʰEɪ] /Eɪ/, [ˈtʰɔ:u, ˈtʰɔ:u, ˈtʰɔ:u] /σɔ/ – and practically no trace of [əe, ˈdʒEɪ, ˈdʒEɪ] /Eɪ/, [σɔ, ˈdʒEɪ, ˈdʒEɪ] /σɔ/. In the Gower (sector 7), we also have [ˈtʰEɪ] /Eɪ/, [ˈtʰɔ:u] /σɔ/, but in opposition with typical Welsh [əe, σɔ] /Eɪ, σɔ/ (sector 6, cf § 170.4).

Also the phonemic long monophthongs are monotimbric or narrow diphthongs: [ˈkʰa:ɑ] /ˈkɑ:ɪ/ *car*, [ˈfɜ:ɜ] /ˈfə:ɪ/ *far*, [ˈwɔ:ɔ] /ˈwɔ:ɪ/ *war*, [ˈsɔ:ɔ] /ˈsɔ:ɪ/ *saw*, [ˈmɔ:ɔ] /ˈmɔ:ɪ/ *more* (and [ˈkʰE:ɛ] /ˈkE:ɪ/ *care*).

170.3. Besides, we have: [ˈbʰi:ɛ] /ˈbʰi:ɪ/ *beer*, [ˈtʰɪ:ɪ] /ˈtʰɪ:ɪ/ *tour*, with close first elements, too often described even as ‘bisyllabic [i:jə, u:wə]’, which is not so. More rarely, and only for certain words with *-ear*, we can even find [ˈɹjɜ:ɜ, ˈɹjɜ:ɜ] /ɹjɜ:ɜ: [ˈɹnjɜ:ɜ, ˈɹnjɜ:ɜ] /ɹnjɜ:ɜ/ *near* (but can occur in many sectors: 3-8).

The false impression of ‘[i:jə, u:wə]’, is paralleled by the fact that the triphthongs do not undergo smoothing, but keep their central elements as high as in

the corresponding diphthongs: [fɛɪɪ] /fæɛɪ/ *fire*, [phɛʊɪ] /'paɔɛɪ/ *power*. However, we also find such cases as: [fɛɪrɪn] /fæɛɪrɪn/ *firing*, [d̥ɛʊrɪ] /'d̥aɔɛɪ/ *dowry*, [niɪki, ɪniɪki] /'niɪli/ *nearly*, [riɪki] /'riɪli, ɪriɪli/ *really*.

170.4. But let us see how some phonemic oppositions work in this accent. We have just seen that [mɔɔnɪn] /'mɔɔɪnɪn/ *morning* is different from [mɔɔnɪn] /'mɔɔɪnɪn/ *mourning*, ie /ɔɔɪ, ɔɔɪ/ ≠ /ɔɔɪ, ɔɔɪ/, although, in milder accents, they can merge into [ʌɔɔ, ɔɔɔ] (cf fig 170.3).

Actually, [ɔɔ] /ɔɔɪ/ differs from [ɔɔ] /ɔɔ/, and the difference is not so slight (as it is worth checking in our vocograms), although we happen to read –even in articles by native Welsh-English speakers– that they are ‘alike’! Even in their most similar forms (though sociophonically quite faraway, indeed, and likely not to occur in the speech of one and the same speaker), they are not exactly the same: [ʌɔɔɔɔ] /ɔɔɪ/ and [ɔɔɔɔɔɔɔ] /ɔɔ/, which, for native speakers (& hearers!), may be more than enough.

Thus, in sectors 6-7, we can have: [sɔɔ] & [ʌɔɔ, ʌɔɔɔ, ʌɔɔɔ] /sɔɔ/ *so*, [sɔɔ] & [ʌɔɔ, ʌɔɔɔ, ʌɔɔɔ] & [ʌɔɔɔ, ʌɔɔɔ] & [ʌɔɔɔ, ʌɔɔɔ] /sɔɔɪ/ *sore/soar*.

170.5. There is no clear opposition between /æ, æ, ɑ:/: [anʰ] /'ænʰ/ *ant*, [anʰ] /'ænʰ/ *aunt*, [phastʰ] /'pɑstʰ/ *pasta*. When the spelling of /æ/-words has *al, au, aff, aph, ath, ass* (even if followed by unstressed syllables, but not by other non-inflectional consonants), we can find oscillation: [a(a)nʰ] /'ænʰ/ *aunt*, [b̥a(a)θ] /'b̥æθ/ *bath*, [pha(a)s] /'pæs/ *pass*.

Instead, with *an(C), am(C), afC, asC*, the vowel tends to be short: [d̥ans] /'d̥æns/ *dance*, [ɪg'zæmpɪ] /ɪg'zæmpɪ/ *example*, [afʰ] /'æfʰ/ *after*, [phastʰ] /'pæstʰ/ *past/passed*. In the Marches, we generally have [ʌ] /æ, ɑ:/ (and for many /æ/, too): [ʌnθɪæks] /'ænθɪæks/ *anthrax*.

Generally, we have [aa] /ɑ:/: [faað] /'fað/ *father*, [spa'a] /'spa:/ *spa*, [pham] /'pɑ:m/ *palm*. Besides, we have [ɔ] /ɔ, ɔ, ɔ:/: [nɔʰ] /'nɔʰ/ *not*, [sɔɪ] /'sɔɪ/ *song*, [ɔʰʰ] /'ɔʰʰ/ *alter*. Due to spelling pronunciation, in words with *wa-, qua-*, we often have [wa] /wɔ, wɔ:/: [wanʰ] /'wanʰ/ *want*, [khwaraɪ] /'kwɔɪ/ *quarrel*, [khwaraɪhi, ɪ-wɔ-] /'kwɔɪhi/ *quality*. In sectors 2-5, we frequently find [ʌaa, ʌaa] /æ, ɑ:/.

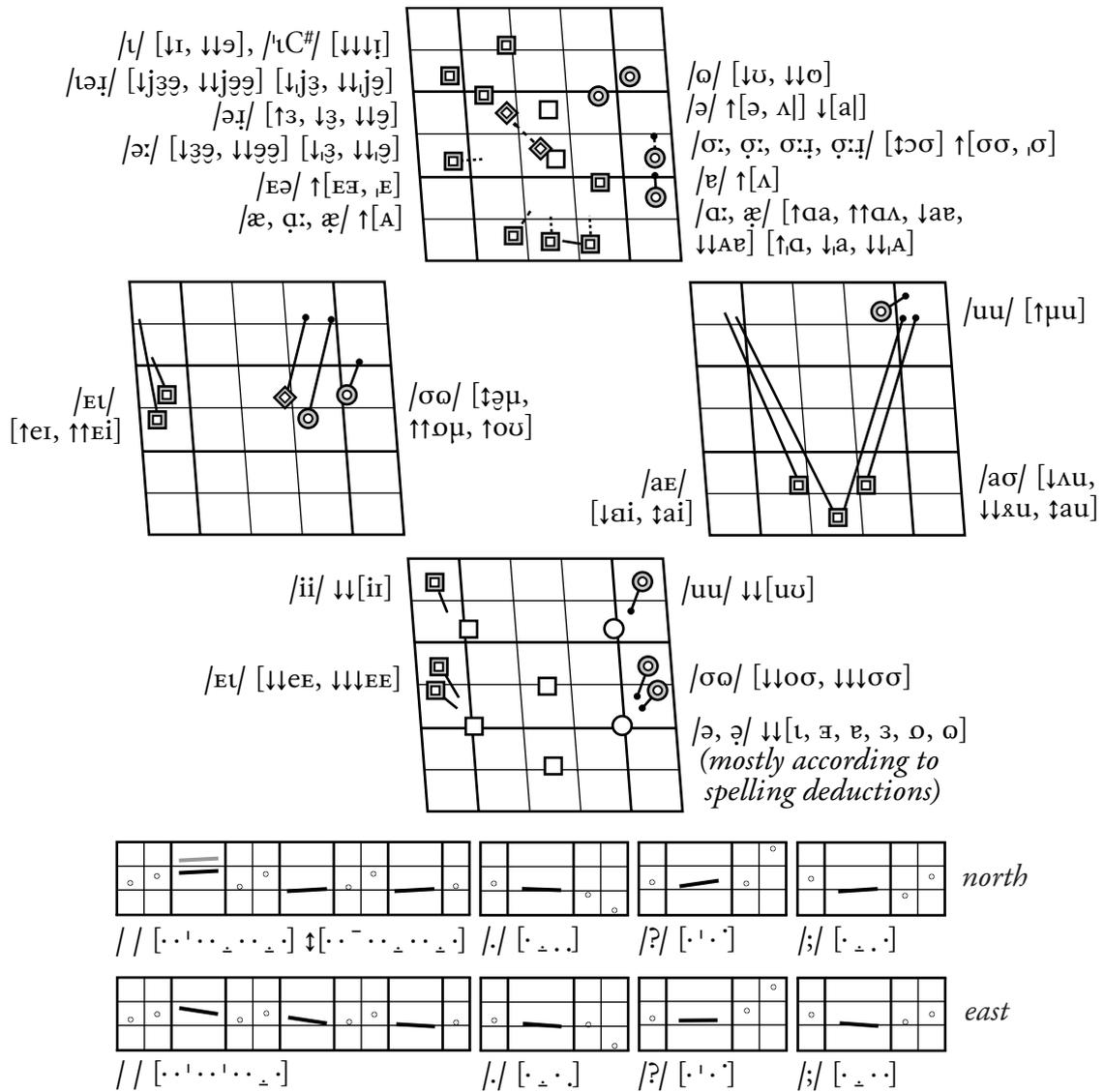
In rural accents of the northwest (sector 1), we can find [ɪ] /ɪC#, ie in stressed checked final syllables or in monosyllables: [phɪk] /'pɪk/ *pick*.

Later, we will consider some possible additional oppositions not found in current English (§ 170.10-11).

170.6. Most typical, indeed, is the real absence of opposition between /e, ə/, except if introduced on purpose (as can be seen in fig 170.3): [phlɛmmɪ] /'plɛmɪ/ *plumber*, [d̥ɛphrɛfɛssɛz] /'d̥ɛpɪɛfɛsɛz/ *the professors* (neutral International English [d̥ɛpɪɛfɛsɛz]); while the opposition *is* present (although with closer timbres than neutral) between /e/ and /ɔ/: [phɛʰ] /'pɛʰ/ *putt*, [phɔʰ] /'pɔʰ/ *put*.

In addition, we generally have [ɜ] /ɜ, ɜ:/, although we can also find [ɪɜ] /ɜ:/: [fɜɜri] /'fɜɜri/ *furry*, [wɜɜri, ɪwɜri] /'wɜɜri/ *worry*. There are also two broader variants [ɪɜ, ɪɜ] (often transcribed as [œ, ø:]!).

fig 170.3. Welsh English: broader and lighter variants.



170.7. When /ʌə, ə/ are followed by /ɪ/ (ie by /ɪV/, which is different from /ʌəɪ, əəɪ/), they are different, indeed. In fact, they are typically realized as /ii/ and /uu/ (or 'ɪu, u', cf § 170.11 & fig 170.4, left): [ˈfi:ɪn] /ˈfɪə.ɪn/ *fearing*, [ˈdʒi:ɪn] /ˈdʒɪə.ɪn/ *during*, [ˈtʃi:ɪn] /ˈtʃɪə.ɪn/ *touring*. Let us notice that the grammeme *-ing* is [ɪn], never reduced to [ɛn, ɜn, ən, ŋ]. For /ɛəɪV/ we have [ɛɛ] (and a mild variant, [ɛəɛ], and a broad one, [ɪəɛ, ɪəɛ]): [ˈmɛɛri] /ˈmɛə.ri/ *Mary*.

The other three diphthongs are: [ɪəɪ] /ɪə/ *lie*, [ɪnəʊ] /ɪnə/ *now*, [ɪbɔɪ] /ɪbɔ/ *boy*. Apart from the peculiar variants that we will see (§ 170.12 & fig 170.4, right), we can find two which differ from the neutral ones only for their very close second elements, [ai] /æɪ/ (mostly in the north), [au] /aɔ/ (mostly in the south), shown in fig 170.3.

170.8. Again in fig 170.3, we can see some peculiar variants, both lighter and broader (and some are very broad, indeed). Some of them are actually geo-phonetic, ie they can be assigned to given subareas, indicated in the map of fig 170.1.

But, let us consider, in particular, the third vocogram in fig 170.3. The stress-

able variants given are: [tʰiː] /tʰii/ *tea*, [d̥eː] /d̥ei/ *day*, [g̊oː] /g̊oo/ *go*, [tʰuː] /tʰuu/ *two*. Their peculiarity is quite evident and clear, indeed. They are all ‘↓↓’, while we can even have ↓↓[eː, oː], in northern Wales (fig 170.3, both northwestern and northeastern, sectors 1-2, in the map of fig 170.1).

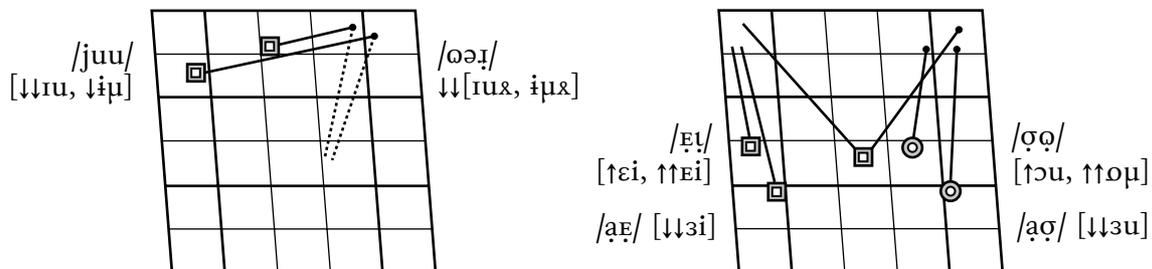
170.9. The six white (or empty) signals (again in fig 170.3) refer to unstressed syllables. Instead of ‘English’ /ə, ə/, they show typical broad realizations, which depend mostly on spelling pronunciation.

As a matter of fact, in the broad accents, unstressed (initial or final) syllables have centralized vocoids instead of central /ə, ə/, which, on the other hand, would be [ɜ] in current Welsh English, rather than a true schwa (and its possible current variants: [ə, ʊ, ɐ]).

170.10. Thus, in marked Welsh accents, we find, instead: ↓↓[ɪ, ɛ, ɐ, ɜ, ɔ, ʊ] (there is oscillation between [ɜ, ɐ] and ‘normal’ [ɜ], cf fig 170.2); although, generally, they are poorly rendered (within the official IPA notation) as ‘[i, ɛ, a, ə, ɔ, u]’. Here are some examples: [ˈpʰɛnsɪl] /ˈpɛnsɪ/ *pencil*, [ˈwɔntʰɛd] /ˈwɔntʰɛd/ *wanted*, [ˈwɪmmən] /ˈwɪmɪn/ *women*, [ˈsoʊfə] /ˈsoʊfə/ *sofa*, [ɐg̊oː] /əg̊oo/ *ago*, [səˈphoʊz] /səˈpsoʊz/ *suppose*, [oˈpɪnɪjən, -jɜn] /əˈpɪnɪjən/ *opinion*, [ˈɪʊsfəl, ɪʊs-] /ˈjuʊsfɪ/ *useful*.

It goes without saying that, in Welsh English, there is no reduction of pre-sonantal /ə/: [ˈnætʃ(ə)l fəˈnɛtɪks] /ˈnætʃ(ə)l fəˈnɛtɪks/ *Natural Phonetics*, [ˈɪʊʃli, ɪʊ-, ɪ-ʒ-, ɪ-ʒ-] /ˈjuʊʒ(ə)li/ *usually*.

fig 170.4. Welsh English: possible typical additional oppositions with ‘normal’ /uu, ʊəɪ, eɪ, ɔɔ, aɛ, aɔ/.



170.11. We will, now, pass to a few possible additional oppositions. The first one is very very typical and common, indeed (cf fig 170.4): [ɪɪu, ɪɪʊ] /juu/ instead of current [uu, ɪɪʊ] /uu/. It occurs in words with *e + u/w* in their spellings (or *u*, in foreign words): [ˈnɪu, ˈnɪʊ] /ˈnɪjuu/ *new*, [ˈbɪuɾoo, ˈbɪʊ-] /ˈbjooɾoo/ *bureau*; while those whose spelling presents *oo*, *o* have ‘normal’ [uu, ɪɪʊ] /uu/: [ˈdɪu, ˈdɪʊ] /ˈdɪuu/ *do*.

So, in the typical accents, there is a difference between [ˈθɪru, ˈθɪʊ] /ˈθɪruu/ (‘/θɪjuu/’) *threw*, [ˈθɪru, -ru] /ˈθɪruu/ *through*. Many speakers, arbitrarily, extend the opposition to (unhistorically) distinguish even between [ˈblɪru, ˈblɪʊ] /ˈblɪruu/ (‘/blɪjuu/’) *blew*, [ˈblɪru, -ru] /ˈblɪruu/ *blue*. We also have: [ɪru, ɪʊ] ɪ[ɪru, ɪʊ] /juu/ *you*, [ɪruθ, ɪʊθ] ɪ[ɪruθ, ɪʊθ] /juuθ/ *youth*. The same holds true of [ʃru, ʃʊ] ɪ[ʃru, ʃʊ] /ʃjuu/ *u-* (some speakers, in front of [ʃru, ʃʊ], can use the ‘prevocalic’ form of the articles, in such cases as): [əˈnɪruɪfɔrm, ɪru-, ɪʊ-] /əˈjuuɪfɔrm/ *a/the uniform*.

170.12. In the area around Swansea, in southern Wales (cf fig 170.1, sectors 6-7), other historical distinctions may be kept, which are not part of current English any longer. They regard the possible opposition between words with /ɛɪ, σɔ/ that have plain *a*, *o* (at most *oe*) in their spelling, [əɛ, σɔ] /ɛɪ, σɔ/ (typically Welsh), against others with *ai*, *ay*, *ei*, *ey* or *ou*, *ow*, as [ɛi, ↑ɛi] or [ɔu, ↑ɔu] /ɛɪ, σɔ/ (again, but that we indicate here as ‘/ɛɪ, σɔ/’): [ˈphəɛn] /ˈpɛɪn/ *pane*, [ˈphɛɪn, -ɛɪn] /ˈpɛɪn/ *pain*, [ˈthɔɔ] /ˈtʃɔɔ/ *toe*, [ˈthɔu, -ɔu] /ˈtʃɔɔ/ *tow*.

(Arguably, it might seem better to use ‘/ɛɪ, σɔ/’ for the typical narrower Welsh diphthongs, should we want to show the relation with the Middle English situation, as in Norwich, Ɔ 145. But, according to the diaphonemic principles, we explicitly indicate the differences from what is expected, in a given area, although outwardly in contradiction with the typical realizations. Thus, a ‘dotted’ –or ‘underdotted’– symbol just indicates an additional, or alternative form, which is not as necessary or widespread as the basic one, no matter how different it may be.)

In the same area, a further distinction is possible, though frankly rarer and rarer (and with a very restricted functional load), between ‘normal’ [ɛɪ, ɛu] /æ, aɔ/, mostly in their taxophonemic realizations [ai, au] (given in fig 170.3), and [zi, zu] /ʌɛ, ʌɔ/, as in: [ˈd̥ai] /ˈd̥æ/ *Dai*, [ˈd̥zi] /ˈd̥æ/ *die*, [ˈkʰɬu] /ˈkaɔ/ *cow*, [ˈzɪ] /ˈaɔ/ *ow!*

170.13. As for the *consonants*, the most typical characteristic is the lengthening of most single consonants (except /j, w, ɹ, h, χ, ʃ/) after short stressed vowels, within a word (even if the following syllable begins with a sonant), [ˈVCCV] /ˈVCV/ (or [ˈVCCV, ˈVC:V]): [ˈphɛpphɬ] /ˈpɛpɛpɬ/ *pepper*, [ˈg̊ɹaffuks] /ˈg̊ɹæfʊks/ *graphics*, [ˈmɛni] /ˈmɛni/ *money*. This occurs in the whole of Wales (including the Marches, sector 5, though less systematically), except in Cardiff.

In Swansea, instead of lengthening the consonants, we find a lengthening of the stressed short vowels: [ˈphɛːphɬ, ˈg̊ɹaːfʊks, ˈmɛːni] (same examples).

The second most peculiar characteristic concerns the phono-syllabification of final consonants followed by a vowel, [(C)C#V] /[(C)#CV/]: [ˈg̊ɛ ʃhɛːlɔŋ] /ˈgɛʃ ɛːlɔŋ/ *get along*, [ˈwɛʃ ˈʉŋg̊ɬɪ] /ˈwɛʃ ˈʉŋg̊ɬɪ/ *Welsh English*. Besides, the final sequences /nd̥, ndz/ tend to lose their stop element, in any case: [ˈfɛɪn] /ˈfaɛnd̥/ *find*, [ˈbɔnz̥] /ˈbændz̥/ *bands*.

170.14. The typical accents have [ph, ʃh, kh, t̥h] /p, ʃ, k, t̥/ and [p̥, ʃ̥, k̥, t̥h] (or [b̥, d̥, g̥, d̥h] in voiced contexts) /b, d, g, d̥/. While, in contact with any voiceless consonants, we have neutralization of both series, into [p, ʃ, k, t̥] (mostly in the north), or [p̥, ʃ̥, k̥, t̥h] (mostly in the south). In our examples, however, we will simply use [ph, b̥; ʃh, d̥; kh, g̥; t̥h, d̥h], in all contexts: [ˈafɬɬ] /ˈæfɬɬ/ *after*, [ˈphast] /ˈpæst/ *past*, [ˈdɔts] /ˈdɔts/ *dots*, [ˈbɛʃʃhɬ] /ˈbɛʃʃhɬ/ *better*, [ˈt̥hɛb̥ɬ] /ˈt̥ɛɪb̥ɬ/ *table*.

Besides, we can have dentalveolar [t̥h, t̥, t̥, d̥] /t̥, d̥/ (mostly in the north, sectors 1-2, where we may even find dental [th, t, d, d], & sector 4), and [t̥h, t̥, t̥, d̥] /t̥, d̥/ (mostly in less broad accents), while in the typical and broad accents of the north (sectors 1-2), we generally find [t̥h, d̥h] ↓[t̥h] /d̥z/ (and [s] /z/, as well).

In addition, we often find [t̥h, t̥, t̥, d̥z] (with a voiced alveolar approximant, [z] /ɹ/ – or even with alveolar slit stopstrictives, [t̥h, t̥z, t̥z, d̥z]) /t̥ɹ, d̥ɹ/: [ˈt̥hɛɛn] /ˈt̥ɛɪn/ *train*. In milder accents, we can find [t̥h, ʃ, d̥, d̥], as in current English, though unsystematically.

170.15. A typical Celtic feature is the lack of stop unexplosion (so typical of current English, instead) before heterorganic stops or stopstricatives, or in final position (indicated as [C*], vs [C']): [ˈæk*ɪ] /ækt/ *act*, [ˈrɒb*ɪ] /-p*ɪ/ /ˈrɒbd/ *robbed* (common English [ˈækɪ, ˈrɒbɪ]). In addition, in initial or final position, we find [ɟ̥, ʈ̥; ɟ̥, ʈ̥] /z/ (but [ʃ, ʒ, ʒ] /z/, in medial position): [ˈruuɟ̥] /ˈruuz/ *rouge*. Mostly in the north (ie sectors 1-3), the broad accents have ↓[s, ʃ] /s, z; ʃ, ʒ/: [ˈnɔsɔs] /ˈnɔwəz/ *noses*.

In Welsh personal and place names, we can find two more constrictives: voiceless uvular [χ] ⟨ch⟩, and voiceless alveolar lateral [ɬ] ⟨ll⟩, and the sequence [hr] ⟨rh⟩ (especially in the north, 1-2). Non-Welsh-speaking Welsh people, readily replace [χ, ɬ, hr] by [kh; l, ʎ, θl, khɬ; ɬ, ʒ], respectively (as generally English speakers do for the phones they actually have): [pʰənˈtʰurχ] ([pʰənˈtʰɜzɜkh]) *Pentyrch*, [ɬˈanɛɬi] ([khɬˈanɛkhɬi]) *Llanelli*, [ˈhɛɔnða] ([ɬɔnɟ̥ɬ]) *Rhondda*.

170.16. Readily, in the broad accents, the diphonic voiced consonants become voiceless, before voiceless consonants: [ˈfɛɪf ˈpʰɛɪvɔnz] /ˈfaɛv ˈpaɔndz/ *five pounds*, [ˈbɒp ˈkhɬaakh] /ˈbɒb ˈklɑːk/ *Bob Clark*.

A further peculiarity is [∅] for /j/ + /ii, ɪ/, or /w/ + /uu, u/: [ˈiisɪ] /ˈjiisɪ/ *yeast*, [ˈvɟ̥] /ˈjɪd/ *yid*, [ˈuundɟ̥ɟ̥] /ˈwuundɟ̥ɟ̥/ *wounded*, [ˈɔmmɔn] /ˈwɔmən/ *woman*.

In addition, as we know, we have [ɪu, ɪμ] /juu, juu/: [ˈfru, ˈfɪμ] /ˈfjuu/ *few*, [ˈnru, ˈnɪμ] /ˈnjuu/ *new*. In the broad accents, we find [C∅u, C∅ɔ] /Cju, Cjə/: [sɪtʰuəʃɔn, -ɔn, -ɔn] /sɪtʰuˈɛɪ(ə)n/ *stimulus*, [ˈstɪmmɔks, -ɔs] /ˈstɪmjələs/ *stimulus*, [ɑɪtʰɪkɬɔks-ɪtʰɔri] /ɑːtʰɪkɬəɪtʰɔri/ *articulatory*.

170.17. As for /ɪVɪ/, in sectors 2, 4, 6, we have [ɬV] (or [ʒV] which is also post-alveolar, but without the lateral contraction of British English [ɬV]): [ˈɪɛɪ] /ˈɪɛɪ/ *rare*, [ɪˈpʰɔɪtʰ] /ɪˈpʰɔɪtʰ/ *report*.

In addition, we typically find [ɪVɪ[#], ɪVɪC[#]], in the north and west (sectors 1-3): [ˈɪɛɪ] /ˈɪɛɪ/ *rare*, [ɪˈpʰɔɪtʰ] /ɪˈpʰɔɪtʰ/ *report*; and [ɪVɪ], in the Marches (sector 5, and beyond: in the western parts of the bordering English counties), and in the Pembroke (8) peninsulas: [ˈɪɛɪ] /ˈɪɛɪ/ *rare*, [ɪˈpʰɔɪtʰ] /ɪˈpʰɔɪtʰ/ *report*.

In the Gower (7), we have [ɪVɪ, ɪVɪ]: [ˈɪɛɪ, ˈɪɛɪ] /ˈɪɛɪ/ *rare*, [ɪˈpʰɔɪtʰ, -ɔɪtʰ] /ɪˈpʰɔɪtʰ/ *report*. Another possibility lies between these two, [ɬVɪ] (where [ɬ] stands for a laterally contracted [ɬ], as in a variant pronunciation of Mandarin Chinese [ˈkɔɪ] /ˈkɔu/ *gōur*); it is possible to hear it, in milder or mixed pronunciations, in the northwest (sector 1): [ˈɪɛɪ] /ˈɪɛɪ/ *rare*, [ɪˈpʰɔɪtʰ] /ɪˈpʰɔɪtʰ/ *report*.

In addition, in the northwest (sector 1), individual speakers may have [ɬ, ɬ] for both /ɪ, ɪ/.

170.18. Although with oscillations, we generally have [ɬVɪ, ɬ[#]j, ɪVɪ] /IVɪ/ in the south (sectors 3-4 & 6-8): [ˈɪɪ, ˈɪɪ] /ˈɪɪ/ *lill*, [ˈmɪɪjɔn, -ɔn, -ɔn] /ˈmɪɪjɔn/ *million*; and [ɬVɪ, ɬ[#]j, ɪVɪ] /IVɪ/ in the north (sectors 1-2): [ˈɪɪ, ˈɪɪ, ɪVɪ-], [ˈmɪɪjɔn, -ɔn, -ɔn]; and [IVɪ, ɪ[#]j] /IVɪ/ in the Marches (5): [ˈɪɪ], [ˈmɪɪjɔn, -ɔn].

As it currently happens in England, we can have [∅] /h/, also for /hj, w/ (/w/ ≡ /hw/), although we can have [h, hj] & [hw/hw], as well (fairly regularly so, in sec-

tors 1-3, including ↓↓[hr], for *rh*): [ˈhɒtʃ, ˈbɒtʃ] /ˈhɒt/ *hot*, [ˈwɛn:, ˈhw-] /ˈwɛn/ *when*, [ˈrɪðəm] /ˈrɪðm/ *rhythm*.

170.19. In typical Welsh English (and, of course, in Welsh itself), we can find long vowels only in stressed syllables. Thus, for the following nouns, we have: [ˈrɛkkhɒdʒ] /ˈrɛkɔːɪdʒ, -əɪdʒ/ *record* (n.), [ˈkɒnvɜːs] /ˈkɒnvəːɪs/ *converse*, [ˈɪmpɒtʃ] /ˈɪmpɔːɪtʃ/ *import*, [kɑːtʃuːn] /kɑːɪˈtʃuːn/ *cartoon* (instead of International English [ˈrɛkɔːɪdʒ, ˈkɒnvɜːɪs, ˈɪmpɔːɪtʃ, kɑːtʃuːn] – and similar adaptations in neutral British or American English).

The shortening of unstressed long vowels, together with the slight timbre reduction of unstressed vowels (cf § 170.9-10) and the lengthening of single consonants (cf § 170.13), of course, produces a particular rhythm in Welsh English.

170.20. The prosodic difference between Welsh English and neutral English is still augmented by the typical intonation patterns of Welsh, as can be seen in the tonograms of fig 170.2 (and fig 170.3, for the north, 1-2), with their peculiar tonal levels and movements, which English people readily associate with Indian accents, especially Hindi. In the preintoneme tonograms of both figures, we can see a higher variant of the first stressed (or first protonic) syllable: [ˉ, ˉ] (and ‘↑’).

The intertonic (or unstressed) syllables in the preintoneme, generally, have a rising movement and are higher than the preceding stressed ones (except for the very first one). Another –easily noticed– peculiarity is that in the south (generally in sectors 3-4 & 6) the first post-tonic syllable of the conclusive intoneme is slightly higher than the tonic one. This is sufficient to give the peculiar auditory effect, which can easily be noticed.

In the north (sectors 1-2), faucalization (⟨ʌ⟩ cf fig 161.3) is frequent, in broad accents. The second set of tonograms, in fig 170.3, refers to the Marches (sector 5).

172. A brief introduction to the Scottish accents (& map)

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172.1. Scotland is a serious problem, indeed, for the pronunciation of English. In fact, it does not have only peculiar phonetic realizations, and –sometimes– a few phonemes less, with typical mergers, but also more distinctions, than in the neutral accent(s). As a matter of fact, what messes up pronunciation (rather than Scottish Gaelic, which would give just a ‘normal’ local accent, being a Celtic language) is the widespread use of Scots, a Germanic language, closely related to English, but with very many differences. These differences appear lexically, grammatically and phonically.

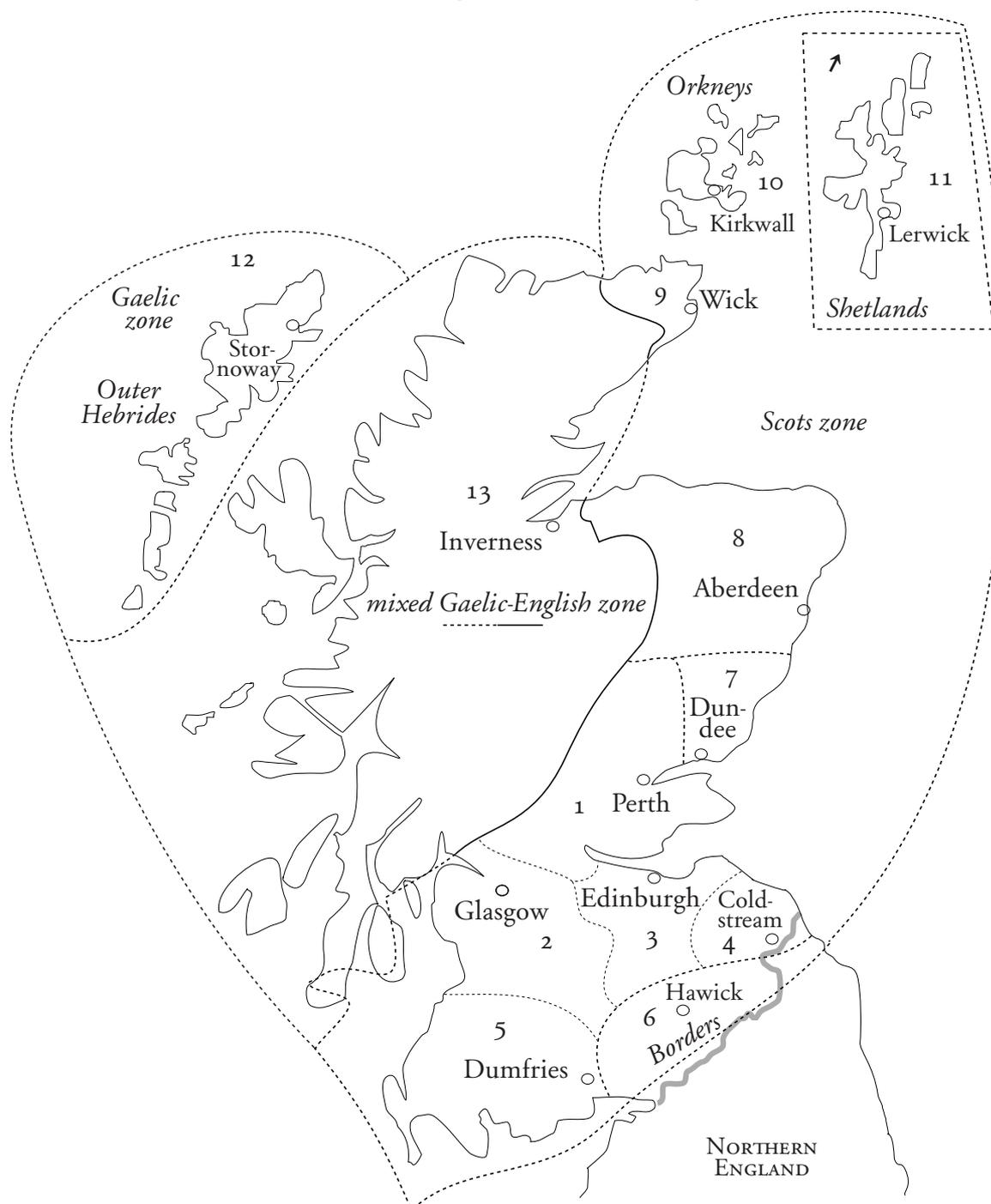
Also at the phonic level, they are very disappointing indeed, because –too often– we find such an intricated correspondence (or, rather, non-correspondence!) between the phonemes of English and those of Scots. Many English words with one and the same phoneme may have more than two different phonemes in Scots, often as many as five or six! Let us indicate at least: *home* with /eɪ/ (‘hame’), *mother* with /ɪ/ (‘mither’), *long* with /æ/ (‘lang’), *house* with /uu/ (‘hoose’).

The situation is even worse than in the North of England, where in everyday conversation people generally use a lot of dialectal words, which (when not completely different) may differ for one phoneme (or more than one). This considerably masks the relation between actual English words and local dialectal words. However, they are used in English sentences, as if they were real words belonging to the English language.

172.2. In Scotland, this situation is even more far-fetched than this. Thus, too many words are not English words at all. And people keep on speaking like that, without worrying about it. Of course, such ways of speaking do not possibly belong to what we call *English accents*. On the contrary, they fall within the *use* of the English language, with all its departures, such as local non-standard words, phrases, idioms and grammatical differences. Even (phonetic and phonemic) vowel length is completely different between English and Scots (and Scottish English, of course!).

Thus, we will treat only pronunciation features, by describing normalized accents (although with geographical and social differences), while completely excluding any occurrences of dialectal words, when they would exhibit actual dialectal sounds. Instead, as far as intonation is concerned, we will be glad to describe any important and widespread tonetic features, which are ready to pass into the Scottish accents of English.

fig 172. Scotland: thirteen sectors for the three accents and variants. Scots (1-11), Gaelic-Hebridian (12), and the mixed Gaelic-English zone (13: the Highlands).



172.3. It is a sadly well-known fact that the Scottish accents of English are the worst among bilingual speakers (even when they can actually use only English). Often, they can be worse than many foreign accents, indeed, because they are so unsystematically inconsistent. They are also worse than the Italian regional accents of Northern Italy, where any speakers realize as they want (or, rather, as they can!) a number of phonemes, especially /e, ε; o, ɔ/, which are not distinguished in the current official spelling. Speakers abuse these and other phonemes, in an utterly

‘uncivilized’ manner, depending both on the various substratum dialects (again, even when the speakers do not actually speak those dialects) and on a very strange jumble of peculiar and absurd personal oddities, and a more or less frequent use of local words. In fact, even twins can exhibit individual peculiar pronunciation features.

Of course, in spite of this complicating situation, we cannot avoid dealing with the Scottish accents, and with their manifold curious variations, as we will see in the following chapters, too.

172.4. The map in fig 172 shows three accent areas (with subdivisions for one of these areas). The first one is the *eastern* area, from southern Scotland (neighboring on northern England) to north-eastern Scotland and the Orkney and Shetland Islands. This is the Scots area, from no. 1 to no. 11.

Then, we have the *central* area, ie the Highlands, where Scottish Gaelic is no longer spoken. However, it is a mixed Gaelic-English area, happily less influenced by Scots, where English is considered to be spoken better than elsewhere in Scotland. And Inverness is generally thought as the place where the best Scottish English can be found.

The third –*western*– area, ie the Outer Hebrides, is where Gaelic is still widely spoken. But, in the Inner Hebrides, along the coasts of western Scotland, by now included in sector 13, there are very few Gaelic speakers.

172.5. The irritating irreverence we find in Scotland, towards the pronunciation of the English language (to say nothing about its grammar and lexicon), regards the *number* of phonemes, which are either merged or splitted, and the use of *length*, which follows completely different rules. Therefore, there are too many oscillations and inconsistencies, which –undeniably– deform the nature of the language itself. This makes the Scottish accents intolerably unbearable for most native speakers and foreigners, as well (unless they can amuse themselves by lingering over those ‘funny’ accents).

We illustrate the quite different use of *length* (between proper English and Scottish English) by means of the following sections. The problems derive from the fact that the different distribution of length in Scots (when compared with English) follows quite different rules. The vowels of Scots (and, unfortunately, of Scottish English) can be short [V], half-long [VV], or long [V̄V] (generally corresponding to [V, V̄, V̄:], respectively). The phonemic diphthongs can be half-long [VV], or long [V̄V]. However, foreigners may find these accents easier to understand, in certain cases.

172.6. Here, these vowels and diphthongs are shown with the diaphonemes of English (certainly not as the phonemes of Scots!), and with the phones of the most *typical Scottish accent*, cf fig 173 (not the broadest or lighter ones, cf C 174). Some of these vowels are *short*, [V]: /ʌ/ [ə], /ɛ/ [ɛ], /ɛ̄/ [ɛ̄], this is used mostly in the south, but not by all speakers, and only in few words, rarely coinciding in different areas and for different speakers; the most frequent ones are: *never, clever, seven, eleven, heaven, devil, shepherd, twenty, breath, next, earth, jerk*.

Some vowels can be *short* or *half-long* (depending on different kinds of accents), [V, VV]: /ɛ/ [ɛ], /æ, æ/ [a], /ɒ, ɒ/ [ɔ]; or else *half-long* or *short*, [VV, V]: /ɑ:, ɑ:/ [a], /σ:, σ:/ [ɔ]. One diphthong is *half-long*, [VV]: /æi/ [ei]; two others are either *half-long* [VV]: /aσ, σE/ [ʌɪ, ɔɪ] or *long* [VV], again, depending on different kinds of accents and speakers; sometimes, even [a, ɔ] can behave as those dealt with in the next section, § 172.7.

172.7. Lastly, we find a set of vowels and diphthongs whose *length* depends on their *phonic contexts*. Thus, /ii, uu/ can be *short* [V], or *long* [VV]: /ii/ [i, ri], /uu/ [ʊ, ʊɪ]. Then, /æi/ is either *half-long* [aɪ], or *long* [aɪ]; while /ɛi, σɔ/ are either *short* [e, o], or *half-long* [ee, oo]. To end with, we have /ɔ/, which is realized exactly as /uu/ (only few speakers have a distinction between /ɔ, uu/, especially in milder or refined accents – often, but wrongly, considered affected, and called ‘Morningside’ accent, in Edinburgh, and ‘Kelvinside’ accent, in Glasgow, cf Ⓞ 176).

The exact (and typical Scots) *length* for this last set of phonemes is as follows: they are *short* (or *half-long*, in the case of the diphthong actually realized as ditimbric /æi/ [aɪ]), *unless* they are absolutely *word-final* ([_#]), even if followed by the grammemes *-(e)d* and *-(e)s*, /d, z/, or *syllable-final* (although with many oscillations, due to the highly subjective way of actually feeling the ‘syllable-finalness’ by different speakers).

172.8. The typical examples to show this peculiar (Celtic) oddity are: [ˈni:ri] /ˈni:ri/ *knee* and [ˈni:ri] /ˈni:ri/ *kneed*, against [ˈni:ri] /ˈni:ri/ *need*; or [ˈbrɪu:ɪ] /ˈbrɪu:ɪ/ *brew* and [ˈbrɪu:ɪ] /ˈbrɪu:ɪ/ *brewed*, against [ˈbrɪu:ɪ] /ˈbrɪu:ɪ/ *brood*; or [ˈstɛi] /ˈstɛi/ *stay* and [ˈstɛi] /ˈstɛi/ *stayed*, against [ˈstɛi] /ˈstɛi/ *staid*; or [ˈtɒ] /ˈtɒ/ *tow/toe* and [ˈtɒ] /ˈtɒ/ *towed/toed*, against [ˈtɒ] /ˈtɒ/ *toad* – [C^h] = [↑Ch, C^h, ↓C].

Besides, we have: [ˈsaɪ] /ˈsaɪ/ *sigh* and [ˈsaɪ] /ˈsaɪ/ *sighed*, against [ˈsaɪ] /ˈsaɪ/ *side* (with a timbric distinction, as well). And, for those accents and speakers with this distinction: [ˈnɔ:] /ˈnɔ:/ *gnaw* and [ˈnɔ:] /ˈnɔ:/ *gnawed* (or [ˈnɔ:(d)]), against [ˈnɔ:] /ˈnɔ:/ *nod* (or [ˈnɔ:(d)]); or [ˈba:] /ˈba:/ *baa* and [ˈba:] /ˈba:/ *baaed* (or [ˈba:(d)]), against [ˈba:] /ˈba:/ *bad* (or [ˈba:(d)]).

172.9. The same lengthening occurs, when these phonemes are followed by [Σ[#]], i.e. the voiced constrictives /v, ð, z, ʒ/ (notice that /z/ may fall within the preceding grammemic criterion, as well), or followed by [ɪ[#]]. This Celtic ‘rule’ is similar to the phonetic lengthening rule typical of neutral French.

Thus, we have: [ˈmu:v] /ˈmu:v/ *move*, but [ˈhu:f] /ˈhu:f/ *hoof*, or [ˈfeɪz] /ˈfeɪz/ *faze*, but [ˈfes] /ˈfes/ *face*; and [ˈbi:ɪ] /ˈbi:ɪ/ *beer*, [ˈbu:ɪ] /ˈbu:ɪ/ *boor*, [ˈfeɪɪ] /ˈfeɪɪ/ *fair*, [ˈbu:ɪ] /ˈbu:ɪ/ *bore*, [ˈwɔ:ɪ] /ˈwɔ:ɪ/ *war*, [ˈba:ɪ] /ˈba:ɪ/ *bar*.

In word-internal free syllables, the different accents and idiolects have a great deal of variability. Let us show some examples, with /æi/ (and /æi/, to make the difference more clear). Generally, derived words or less common words can more frequently be said with /æi/: [ˈdraɪ] /ˈdraɪ/ *dryly*, [ˈʃaɪ] /ˈʃaɪ/ *shyness*, [ˈfaɪ] /ˈfaɪ/ *filig*, [ˈpraɪ] /ˈpraɪ/ *pylon*, [ˈspɪ] /ˈspɪ/ *spider*, [ˈkɪ] /ˈkɪ/ *crisis*, [ˈhaɪ] /ˈhaɪ/ *hydro*.

Also words as *bible*, *idol*, *vital*, *disciple* can belong to this group. Other words,

such as plural forms as the following ones, oscillate, as well: [ʎaːvz̥, ʎei-] /'laevz/ *lives*, [ʎaːvz̥, ʎei-] /'waevz/ *wives*.

172.10. But let us show *in detail* the typical lengthenings in Scottish English, starting from the monophthongs (both short and long, ie narrow monotimbric diphthongs), and show the most typical timbres (given and described in fig 173, while other timbres can be found in other vocograms or in other chapters). Of course, we indicate different degrees of acceptability, in comparison with International (and British & American) neutral pronunciations, also by means of our sociophonic arrows. Let us keep in mind that the symbol [Σ] indicates voiced constrictives, a subset of [C], with clearly different results, here. Besides, [N] indicates sonants, which here means the nasal and lateral consonants of English. We also show intermediate degrees of length, more similar to the neutral ones, which can occur in milder accents. Some examples will be given when we present the different accents of Scottish English. By now, it is important to inspect § 172.11-14 very carefully (and patiently).

172.11. For the *monophthongs*, we have:

/ɪ/ [ə]	(↓[əC [#]] ↑[ʔəC [#] , 'əN:C [#] , 'ə(N)C _Δ , 'ə\$])
/ɛ/ [ɛ]	(↓[ɛC [#]] ↓↓[ʔɛɛ(N)C _Δ , 'ɛɛ\$] ↑[ʔɛɛC [#] , 'ɛN:C [#] , 'ɛ(N)C _Δ , 'ɛ\$])
/ɛ̃/ [ɛ̃]	(↓↓[ɛ̃C [#]] ↓[ʔɛ̃C [#] , 'ɛ̃N:C [#] , 'ɛ̃(N)C _Δ , 'ɛ̃\$] ↑[ɛ̃] &c like /ɛ/)
/æ, ɑ:/ [a]	(↓[aC [#] , 'a(N)C _Δ] ↓↓[ʔaa(N)C _Δ , 'aa\$] ↑[ʔaa(N)C [#] , 'a(N)C _Δ , 'a\$])
/ɑ:, ɶ:/ [a]	(↓[ʔaaC [#] , 'a(N)C _Δ] ↓↓[ʔaC [#] , 'a(N)C _Δ , 'a\$] ↑[ʔaːa [#] , 'aːa(N)C [#] , 'aa(N)C _Δ , 'aa\$])
/ɐ/ [ʌ]	(↓[ʌC [#]] ↑[ʔʌC [#] , 'ʌN:C [#] , 'ʌ(N)C _Δ , 'ʌ\$])
/ɒ, ɔ:/ [ɔ]	(↓[ɔC [#] , 'ɔ(N)C _Δ] ↓↓[ʔɔɔ(N)C _Δ , 'ɔɔ\$] ↑[ʔɔɔ(N)C [#] , 'ɔ(N)C _Δ , 'ɔ\$])
/σ:, ɔ:/ [ɔ]	(↓[ɔC [#] , 'ɔ(N)C _Δ] ↓↓[ʔɔC [#] , 'ɔ(N)C _Δ , 'ɔ\$] ↑[ʔɔː [#] , 'ɔː(N)C [#] , 'ɔɔ(N)C _Δ , 'ɔɔ\$])
/o/ [ʊ, ↑ʊ]	(↓[ʊ(N)C [#] , 'ʊ(N)C _Δ , 'ʊ\$] ↓↓[ʔʊʊΣ [#]] ↑[ʔʊʊC [#] , 'ʊN:C [#] , 'ʊ(N)C _Δ , 'ʊʊ\$] ↑↑[ʔʊʊC [#] , 'ʊN:C [#] , 'ʊ(N)C _Δ , 'ʊʊ\$]).

172.12. For the *diphthongs*, we find:

/ii/ [i]	([ʔiː [#] , ʔiːΣ [#]] ↓[ʔii(N)C [#]] ↓↓[ʔi(N)C [#] , ʔi(N)C _Δ , ʔi\$] ↑[ʔiːi(N)C [#] , ʔii(N)C _Δ , ʔii\$])
/ɛɪ/ [e]	(↓[ʔee [#] , 'ee(N)C [#]] ↓↓[ʔe(N)C [#] , 'e(N)C _Δ , 'e\$] ↑[ʔeːe [#] , 'eːe(N)C [#] , 'ee(N)C _Δ , 'ee\$])
/aɛ/ [aɛ]	([ʔaːɛ [#] , 'aːɛΣ [#]] ↓[ʔai(N)C [#] , 'ai(N)C _Δ , 'ai\$] ↓↓[ʔai [#] , 'aiΣ [#]] ↑[ʔaːɛ(N)C [#] , 'aɛ(N)C _Δ , 'aɛ\$])
/aɛ̃/ [ɛ̃]	(↓[ʔaiC _Δ , 'aiC [#] , 'ai(N)C _Δ , 'ai\$] ↑[ʔaːɛ [#] , 'aːɛ(N)C [#] , 'aɛ(N)C _Δ , 'aɛ\$])
/aσ/ [ʌʊ]	(↓[ʔʌʊ [#] , 'ʌʊC [#]] ↓↓[ʔʌʊ(N)C _Δ , 'ʌʊ\$] ↑[ʔʌʊ [#] , 'ʌʊ(N)C [#] , 'ʌʊ(N)C _Δ , 'ʌʊ\$])
/σɛ/ [ɔɪ]	(↓[ʔɔɪ [#] , 'ɔɪC [#]] ↓↓[ʔɔɪ(N)C _Δ , 'ɔɪ\$] ↑[ʔɔɪ [#] , 'ɔɪ(N)C [#] , 'ɔɪ(N)C _Δ , 'ɔɪ\$])
/σo/ [o]	(↓[ʔoo [#] , 'oo(N)C [#]] ↓↓[ʔo(N)C [#] , 'o(N)C _Δ , 'o\$] ↑[ʔoːo [#] , 'oːo(N)C [#] , 'oo(N)C _Δ , 'oo\$])
/uu/ [ʊ]	([ʔʊʊ [#] , 'ʊʊΣ [#]] ↓[ʔʊʊ(N)C [#]] ↓↓[ʔʊ(N)C [#] , 'ʊ(N)C _Δ , 'ʊ\$] ↑[ʔʊʊ(N)C [#] , 'ʊʊ(N)C _Δ , 'ʊʊ\$]).

172.13. For vowels/diphthongs + /ɪ/ (ie /ɪ[#], ɪC/, with /ɪ/ = [ɪ] → [ɪ, ↓ɪ]), we have:

/ɪəɪ, iiəɪ/ [iɪ]	([ʔiː [#]] ↓[i_C] ↑[iː_C [#] , iː_C _Δ [#] , iː_C _Δ \$])
/ɛəɪ, ɛiəɪ/ [eə]	([eə [#]] ↓[e_C] ↑[eː_C [#] , eː_C _Δ [#] , eː_C _Δ \$])
/oəɪ, uuəɪ/ [ʊʊ]	([ʊʊ [#]] ↓[ʊ_C] ↑[ʊː_C [#] , ʊʊ_C _Δ [#] , ʊʊ_C _Δ \$])
/ɔːɪ, σoəɪ/ [oo]	([oo [#]] ↓[o_C] ↑[oː_C [#] , oo_C _Δ [#] , oo_C _Δ \$])

/σɪ/ [ɔɔ]	([ɔɔ_#] ↓[ɔ_C] ↑[ɔ̃_ɔ_(C̣)#, ɔɔ_(C̣)#, ɔɔ_#])
/αɪ/ [aæ]	([aæ_#] ↓[a_C] ↑[ã_æ_(C̣)#, aæ_(C̣)#, aæ_#])
/əɪ/ [ə] ⟨i, y, ea⟩	([əə_#] ↓[ə_C] ↑[ə̃_ə_(C̣)#, əə_(C̣)#, əə_#] ↑↑[ə] ↑↑↑[əə])
/ɛɪ/ [ɛ] ⟨e, ea⟩	([ɛɛ_#] ↓[ɛ_C] ↑[ɛ̃_ɛ_(C̣)#, ɛɛ_(C̣)#, ɛɛ_#] ↑↑[ə] ↑↑↑[əə])
/ɪɪ/ [ʌ] ⟨u, o⟩	([ʌʌ_#] ↓[ʌ_C] ↑[ʌ̃_ʌ_(C̣)#, ʌʌ_(C̣)#, ʌʌ_#] ↑↑[ə] ↑↑↑[əə])
/ɛɪ/ ↓[ɛ] ⟨e/ea⟩	([ɛɛ_#] ↓[ɛ_C] ↑[ɛ̃_ɛ_(C̣)#, ɛɛ_(C̣)#, ɛɛ_#] ↑↑[ə] ↑↑↑[əə])
/əɪ/ ↑↑[ə] ⟨i/y, u/o⟩	([əə_#] ↓[ə_C] ↑↑↑[ə̃_ə_(C̣)#, əə_(C̣)#, əə_#])
/ɛɪ/ ↑↑↑[ə] ⟨i/y, e/ea, u/o⟩	([əə_#] ↓[ə_C] ↑↑↑[ə̃_ə_(C̣)#, əə_(C̣)#, əə_#])

& /aɛ, aɛ̃, aσ, σɛ/+/əɪ/ [aɛ, vi, ʌɛ, ɔɪ]+[ɛ_] ([VV]).

172.14. And, for vowels/diphthongs + /ɪ/ (ie /ɪV/, with /ɪ/ = [ɪ] → [ɪ, ↓ɪ]), we find:

/ɪɪ/ [ə]	([ə_])
/ɪəɪ/ [i]	([i_] ↑[ə_])
/iiəɪ/ [i]	([i_] ↑[ii_])
/ɛəɪ/ [e]	([e_])
/ɛɪəɪ/ [e]	([e_] ↑[ee_])
/ɛɪ/ [ɛ]	([ɛ_])
/əɪ, əɪ/ [ʌ]	([ʌ_] ↑[ʌʌ_] ↑↑[əə_])
/æɪ/ [a]	([a_])
/αɪ/ [a]	([a_] ↑[aa_])
/ɔɪ, ɔəɪ/ [ɯ]	([ɯ_] ↑[ɯ_])
/uuəɪ/ [ɯ]	([ɯ_] ↑[ɯɯ_])
/ɔ̃ɪ, σɔ̃ɪ/ [o]	([o_] ↑[oo_])
/σɪ/ [ɔ]	([ɔ_] ↑[ɔɔ_])
/ɪ/ [ɔ]	([ɔ_])

& /aɛ, aɛ̃, aσ, σɛ/+/əɪ/ [aɛ, vi, ʌɛ, ɔɪ]+[ɪ_] ([VV]).

173. A typical Scottish-English accent

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173.1. We will, now, see the typical Scottish accent of English, in its normalized form. It is mostly used in sectors 1-6 of the map in fig 172. But, given its origin from Scots, it is not at all uniform. In fact, the same speakers can usually vary between what is shown in fig 173 and its lighter or broader variants (fig 174.1-2, some of which are classified in \mathcal{G} 175), or even with refined variants (\mathcal{G} 176).

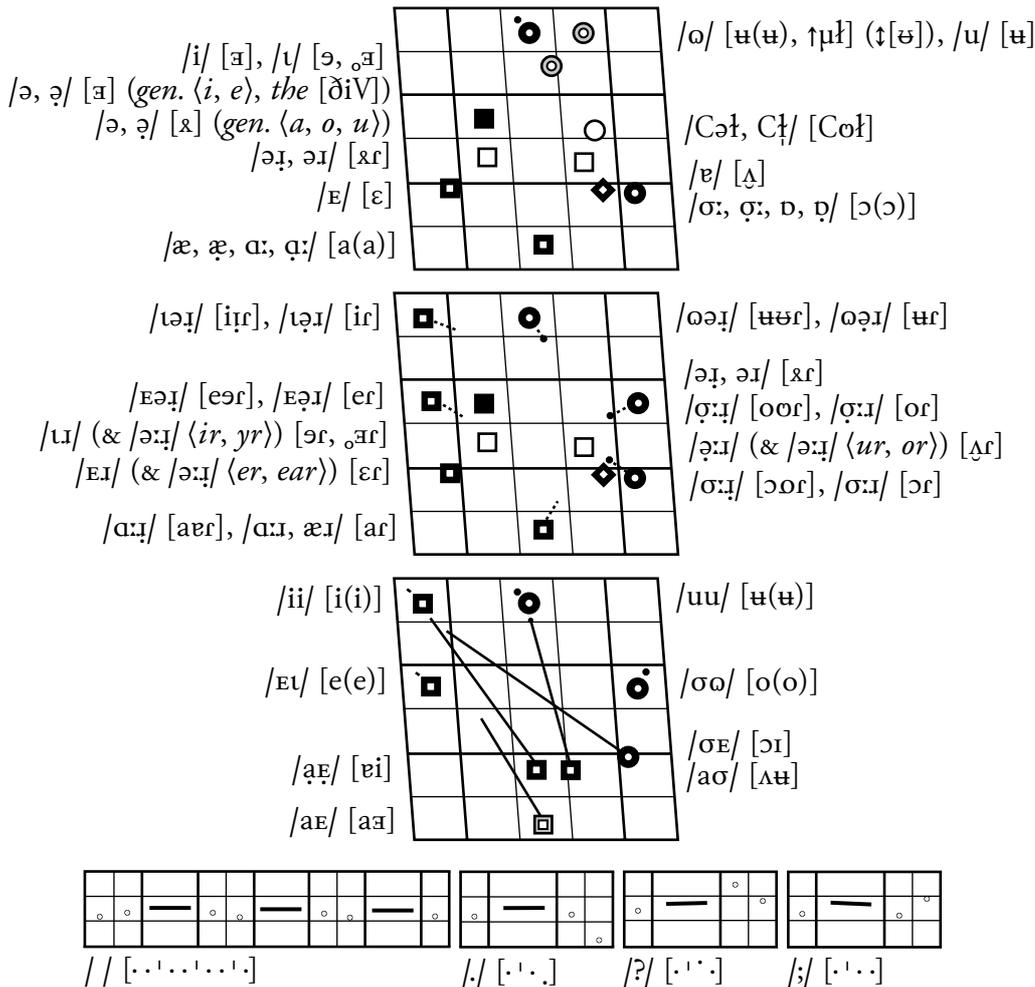
In \mathcal{G} 177, we will see some more clearly local variants for sectors 1-9, which, however, oscillate quite a bit, for the same or different speakers, including the use of Scots words and sounds. The accents of the Islands (and of the Highlands) will be given in \mathcal{G} 178-9.

173.2. Thus, in fig 173, we can see the typical timbres of /ʌ/ [ə, ɔ̃]: [həʃ] /hit/ *hit*, [hʌʒ, hʌʒz] /wɪz/ *whizz*, /ɛ/ [ɛ]: [jɛs, jɛs] /jes/ *yes*, [sɛɛz, sɛz] /sez/ *says*, /æ, æ, ɑ: ɑ:/ [a]: [hæt, haæt] /hæt/ *hat*, [fæst, faast] [fæst/ *fast*, [spaa, spa] /spɑ:/ *spa*, [pʰastɹ, -aa-] /pɑ:stə/ *pasta*, /ɐ/ [ʌ]: [hʌʃ] /hɛʃ/ *hut*, [ʌʌ, ʌʌ] /lev/ *love*, /ɒ, ɒ, ɔ:, ɔ:/ [ɔ]: [hɔʃ, hɔʃ] /hɔʃ/ *hot*, [lɔst, -ɔ-] /lɔst/ *lost*, [sɔɔ, sɔ] /sɔ:/ *saw*, [ɔʃtɹ, ɔʃt-] /ɔ:ʃtə/ *alter*, /ɒ/ [ʊ, ʊ]: [bʊk] /bʊk/ *book*, [gʊd, ʌgʊd] /gʊd/ *good* (which, typically, is identical with /uu/ [ʊ], together with the mergers of /æ, æ, ɑ:, ɑ:/ [a], /ɒ, ɒ, ɔ:, ɔ:/ [ɔ], just shown, above).

Also typical are the different timbres of /ə, ə/ [ɚ] (for ⟨i, e⟩, including /i[#], iV/, as well, and *the*, but *the*[#]V [ðiV]); along with /ə, ə/ [ɚ] (for ⟨a, o, u⟩, including /ə[#]/ and /əɪ, əɪ/ [ɚɪ]). This distribution of /ə, ə/ [ɚ, ɚ] occurs in reduced forms, as well; again, generally according to spelling. Besides, more often, we have /Cəʃ, Cɪ/ [Cɔʃ]: [ðə'mæn, -aan] /ðə'mæn/ *the man*, [ði'ʌnjən] /ði'ɛnjən/ *the onion*, [ɚ'mæn, -aan] /ə'mæn/ *a man*, [ɚk'sɛpt] /ək'sɛpt/ *accept*, [ɚk'sɛpt] /ək'sɛpt/ *except*, [səm'kʰʌps əv'tʰi:ri] /səm'keps əv'tʰi:/ *some cups of tea*, [frɚm'hɪrɪ frɚðeɪ] /frɚm'hɪɪ frɚðeɪ/ *from here to there*.

173.3. Always keeping in mind the peculiarities of length given in \mathcal{G} 172, the diphthongs are as shown in the third vocogram: /ii/ [i]: [sɪ:ri] /sɪi/ *sea*, [ʃɪ:ri] /lii/ *leave*, [bi:ʃ] /bi:ʃ/ *beat*, [bi:n] /bi:n/ *bean*, /ɛɪ/ [e]: [dɛ:ɪ] /dɛ:ɪ/ *day*, [ɚ'mɛ:z] /ə'mɛ:z/ *amaze*, [lɛ:ʃ] /lɛ:ʃ/ *late*, /æɪ/ [æ]: [hæ:ɪ] /hæ:ɪ/ *high*, [ræ:z] /ræ:z/ *rise*, and /əɪ/ [ɛi]: [fɛ:ɪn] /fæ:ɪn/ *fine*, [nɛ:ʃ] /næ:ʃ/ *night*, /aʊ/ [ʌʊ]: [nʌʊ] /nʌʊ/ *now*, [rʌʊz] /rʌʊz/ *rouse*, [mʌʊs] /mʌʊs/ *mouse*, /ɔɪ/ [ɔi]: [bɔi] /bɔ:ɪ/ *boy*, [tʃʰɔi] /tʃʰɔ:ɪ/ *choice*, /ɔʊ/ [o]: [gʊʊ] /gʊʊ/ *go*, [nʊʊz] /nʊʊz/ *nose*, [gʊʊ] /gʊʊ/ *goat*, /uu/ [ʊ]: [tʰʊʊ] /tʰʊʊ/ *two*, [nɪʊz] /nɪʊz/ *news*, [bʊʊ] /bʊʊ/ *boot*.

fig 173. The typical Scottish accent of English: vowels, diphthongs & intonation.



173.4. The second vocogram shows the realizations of the vocalic elements when followed by /ɪ, ɪ/. We typically find different and peculiar timbres in: [ˈbɛɪɪd] /bɛ:ɪd/ *bird*, [ˈwɔ:ɪd] /wɔ:ɪd/ *word*, [ˈhɛɪɪd] /hɛ:ɪd/ *heard*, [ˈkɔ:ɪd] /kɔ:ɪd/ *cord*, [ˈbɔ:ɪd] /bɔ:ɪd/ *board*, [ˈhɑ:ɪd] /hɑ:ɪd/ *hard*.

Other peculiarities are: [ˈhɪɪɪ] /hɪ:ɪ/ *here*, [ˈhɪɪɪ] /hɪ:ɪ/ *hearing*, [ˈspɪɪɪ] /spɪ:ɪ/ *spirit*, [ˈðɛɪɪ] /ðɛ:ɪ/ *there*, [ˈmɛɪɪ] /mɛ:ɪ/ *Mary*, [ˈmɛɪɪ] /mɛ:ɪ/ *merry*, [ˈmɑ:ɪ] /mɑ:ɪ/ *marry*, [ˈɛɪɪ] /ɛ:ɪ/ *err*, [ˈstɪɪɪ] /stɪ:ɪ/ *stirring*, [ˈfɔ:ɪ] /fɔ:ɪ/ *fur*, [ˈfɔ:ɪ] /fɔ:ɪ/ *furry*, [ˈhɔ:ɪ] /hɔ:ɪ/ *hurry*, [ˈfɑ:ɪ] /fɑ:ɪ/ *far*, [ˈsɔ:ɪ] /sɔ:ɪ/ *sorry*, [ˈwɔ:ɪ] /wɔ:ɪ/ *war*, [ˈwɔ:ɪ] /wɔ:ɪ/ *wore*, [ˈstɔ:ɪ] /stɔ:ɪ/ *story*, [ˈpɔ:ɪ] /pɔ:ɪ/ *poor*, [ˈkɪ:ɪ] /kɪ:ɪ/ *cure*, [ˈkɪ:ɪ] /kɪ:ɪ/ *curing*.

173.5. As for the *consonants*, let us observe that the ending *-ing* is [əŋ, ɪən, ɪɪŋ] /ɪŋ/: [ˈsɪŋəŋ, ɪ-ən, ɪɪ-ŋ] /sɪŋ/ *singing*. Most typical is the realization of /p, t, k; tʃ/ as [pʰ, tʰ, kʰ; tʃʰ], ie [ɪC, Cʰ, ↑Ch] (with no ‘aspiration’ at all; or very slight, indeed; or ‘normal’): [pʰən] /pɪn/ *pin*, [tʰɛk] /tɛk/ *take*, [kʰɑ:ɪ] /kɑ:ɪ/ *car*, [tʃʰɛs] /tʃɛs/ *chess*. Besides, the apical pair can be ↑[t, d] (alveolar), [t̪, d̪] (dentalveolar), ↓[t, d] (dental) (which we show only here, although the dental articulation is very common for /tɪ, dɪ/ [tɪ, dɪ]): [↑tʰɪɪn, t̪ʰɪɪn, ↓tʰɪɪn] /tɪɪn/ *train*.

Another very typical Celtic realization is the absence of ‘lateral or nasal explosion’: [ʲəɹɔɫ, ɹɫ] /ʲlɪʲtʲ/ *little*, [ʲkʰɔɹɔn, ɹɔn] /ʲkɔɹn/ *cotton*.

One further typical (but, of course, not exclusive) feature of Scottish English is the realization /t/ [ɹ] in /VtV, tC, tʃ, Ctʃ, Vtʃ/ (although [ɹC] is commonly accepted, by now, in neutral pronunciation, as well, provided speech is not slow or deliberate): [ʲsəɹɔ] /ʲsɪtʲ/ *city*, [ʲskɔɹɫɔnd] /ʲskɔɹlɔnd/ *Scotland*, [ʲdɛnɹɔɫ] /ʲdɛnɹɫ/ *dental*, [ʲwɔnɹ] /ʲwɔnɹtʲ/ *want*, [ʲfɔɹ] /ʲfæɹtʲ/ *fat*.

Especially between vowels, we can often find /t/ [ɹ], often sociophonically used as ‘ɹ’ to avoid [ɹ]: [ʲsəɹɔ], [ʲbɛɹɔɹ, ɹ-, ɹ-ɹɫ] /ʲbɛɹɔɹtʲ/ *better*.

173.6. For /p, k/, in the same contexts, we have [p, k] ↓[p̥, k̥] ↓↓[ɹp, ɹk]: [ʲstɔp, ɹp̥, ↓↓ɹp] /ʲstɔp/ *stop*, [ʲrɔk, ↓k̥, ↓↓ɹk] /ʲrɔk/ *rock*. In certain urban, mostly uneducated accents, we can find /θ/ [ð, h]: [ʲθɹɪɹɪ, ʲhɹ-] /ʲθɹɪɹɪ/ *three*, [ʲnʌðɹɪŋ, -h-] /ʲnʌθɹɪŋ/ *nothing*. For /tj, dj, nj/ we have [tʲ, dʲ] ↑[tʲj, dj] [nj]: [ʲdʲɹɪ, ʲdʲj-] /ʲdʲjuu/ *dew*.

As /h/ shows no tendency to be dropped in lexemes, we commonly find /w/ [h, hw], except in uneducated or, on the contrary, in refined accents (both with not rare oscillations): [ʲhɛn, ʲhw-] /ʲwɛn/ *when*.

In addition, in typical Scottish words and proper names, the phoneme /x/ [x] is used for the spelling <ch> (extended to classical and other foreign words and names), though it tends to become /k/, both in uneducated and refined accents: [ʲkɔx] /ʲlɔk, ɹ-x/ *loch*, [ʲtʰɔɫɔx] /ʲtʰɔɫɔk, ɹ-x/ *Tulloch*, [ʲtʰɛxɹɔkɔɫ] /ʲtʰɛkɹɔkɔɫ/ *technical*, [ʲiɹɔx, ʲɛ-, ɹ-x] /ʲiɹɔk, ʲɛ-, ɹ-x/ *epoch*, [ʲbax] /ʲbɔk, ɹ-x/ *Bach*, [ʲɹɔxɹɔ] /ʲɹɔkɹɔ/ *Arachne*.

The plural of *house* can keep the /s/ of the singular, thus eliminating a strange and useless difference: [ʲhɔsɔz, ɹ-z-] /ʲhɔsɔz/ *houses*.

173.7. Coming to /r, ɹ/, the Scottish accents are well-known for their realization as [r] ↑[ɹV, VɹV, ɹC, ɹʃ]: [ʲreɹ, ɹɹɔ] /ʲɹɔɹ/ *rare*, [ʲrɪdɹɔz, ɹɹɪdɹɔz] /ʲrɪdɹɔz/ *readers*, [ʲsɔɹɔ, ɹ-ɹɔ] /ʲsɔɹɪ/ *sorry*, [ʲpʰɔɹɔɹ, ɹ-ɹ-] /ʲpʰɔɹɹɪ/ *party*, [ʲfɔɹ, ɹ-ɹ] /ʲfɔɹɹ/ *far*. Both in uneducated and refined accents, however, more and more often, we find /ɹ/ [θ]: [ʲreɹ, ɹɹɔ; ʲrɪdɹɔz, ɹɹ-; (ɹ)ʲpʰɔɹɔɹ; (ɹ)ʲfɔɹ].

As to /l, ʲ/, we generally have (although with regional and personal peculiarities, as we will see in the next chapters) [ʲVʲ]: [ʲlɔʲ] (in broad urban speech [-ɹʲ]) /ʲlɪʲ/ *lill*, [ʲhæʲɔ, ʲhei-] /ʲhæʲli/ *highly*, [ʲnɪʲɔ] /ʲnɪʲli/ *nearly*.

173.8. The typical Scottish intonation patterns are shown in the tonograms of fig 173. Verbs in *-ate* and *-ize* are often stressed on their last syllable: [mɔnɔɹpɹɔʲɔɹɔ] /mɔnɔɹpɹɔʲɔɹɔ/ *manipulate*, [hɔɹnɔʲtʰɔɹɔz] /hɔɹnɔʲtʰɔɹɔz/ *hypnotize*. A Celtic characteristic makes a final consonant begin the syllable with an initial vowel of the following word: [ɹʲɔɹɔ ʲdʲɔɹɔɹɔns, -ɹɔns] /ʲɔɹɔɹɔz ʲɔɹɔɹɔns/ *a large audience*, [tʰɛ ʲkɔf] /tʰɛɪk ʲɔf/ *take off*, [pʰɛ ʲzɔɹɔz] /pʰɛɪz ʲɔɹɔz/ *pays out*, [fɔɹs ɹɔvɔɫ, ɹɔ-] /fɔɹɹɔz ɔvʲɔɹɔ/ *first of all*, [ɹʲnɔɹɔ ɹɔgɔɔ] /ɹʲnɔɹɔz ɔgɔɔ/ *an hour ago*, [fɔɹ ʲvɹɹɔz ʲzɔɹɔz] /fɔɹɔz ʲvɹɹɔz ʲzɔɹɔz/ *five years old*, [sɔk ʲswɔmɔ ʲnɔɹɔ ɹɔvɹɔnɔfɔɹm, ɹɔ-, ɹɔ-] /sɔks ʲwɔmɔn ɔɹɔvɹɔnɔfɔɹm/ *six women out of uniform*. Thus, in the typical accents, [ɹʲnɔm] may mean either /ʲɔnɔm/ *a name* or /ɹʲnɔm/ *an aim*.

In Scottish English, the reduced forms of grammemes are less frequently used

than in neutral English, and with less peripheral vocoids. Besides, they can be more numerous (ie *on* [ɔn, ɒ], *got* [gɔɾ], *I* [ɪ, ɔ]) and more varied (*to* [tʊ, tɔ, tɔ], *you* [ji, jɔ, jɔ, jʊ], *you'll* [jʊl], *for* [fɔɾ, fɔɾ, fɔɾ]).

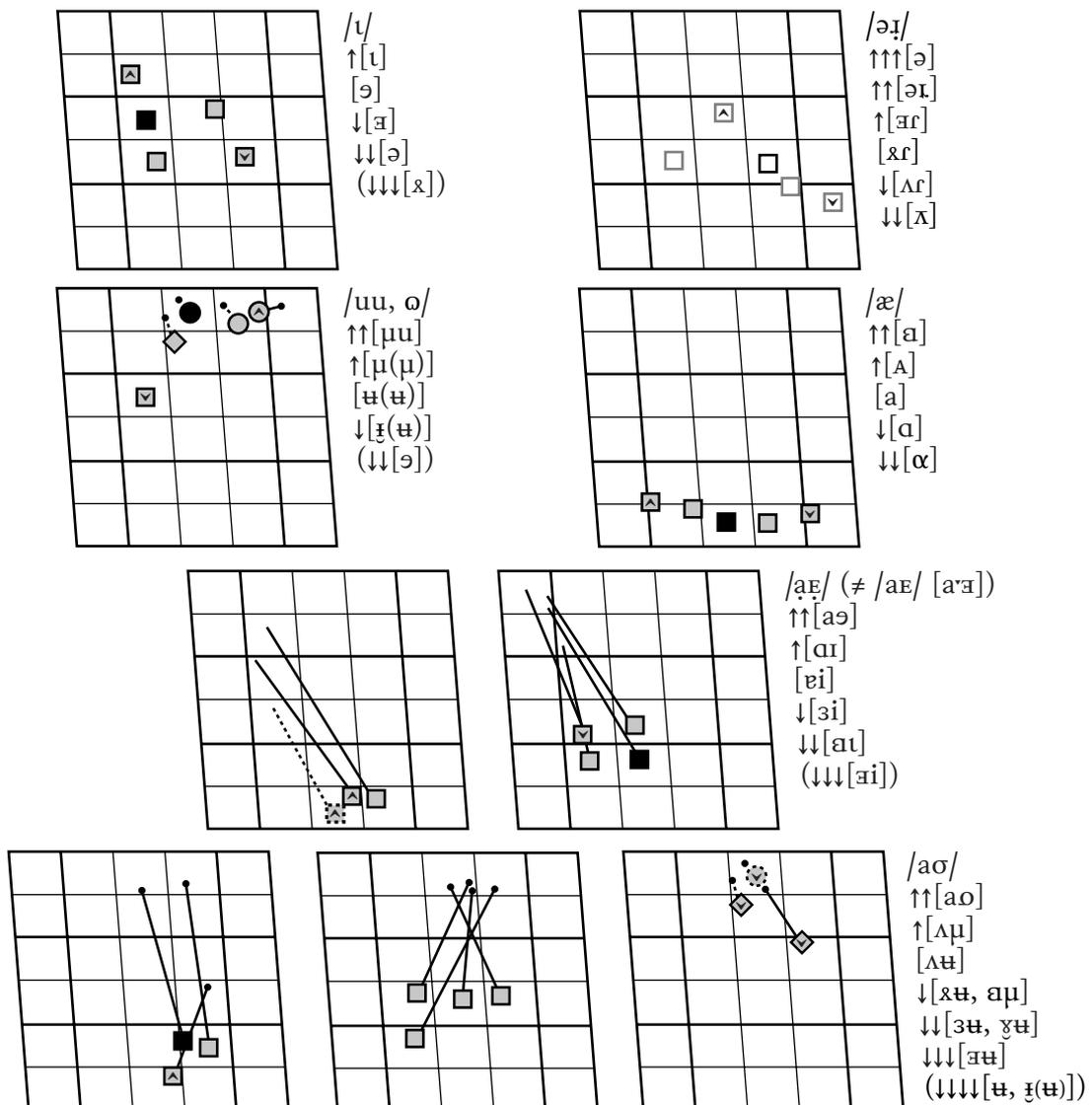
In the broad accent, between /r/ and a following /m, n; l, ɫ/, an [ɔ] is inserted: ['arɔnɾ] /'ɑ:ɾnɾ/ *aren't*. Scottish people typically hesitate with ⟨[ɔ]⟩, not ⟨[ɜ, ɞ]⟩.

175. Sociophonetic comparisons for Scotland

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175.1. We, now, draw particular attention to some sociophonetic characteristic peculiarities, with a number of different realizations, already seen. They are grouped in a way that allows to consider them from another point of view. Some of them might seem very strange, indeed, from an international or neutral point of view.

fig 175. Scotland: sociophonetic comparisons. To identify them more easily, the better variants are also indicated with [^] inside their markers; the worse ones, with [v].



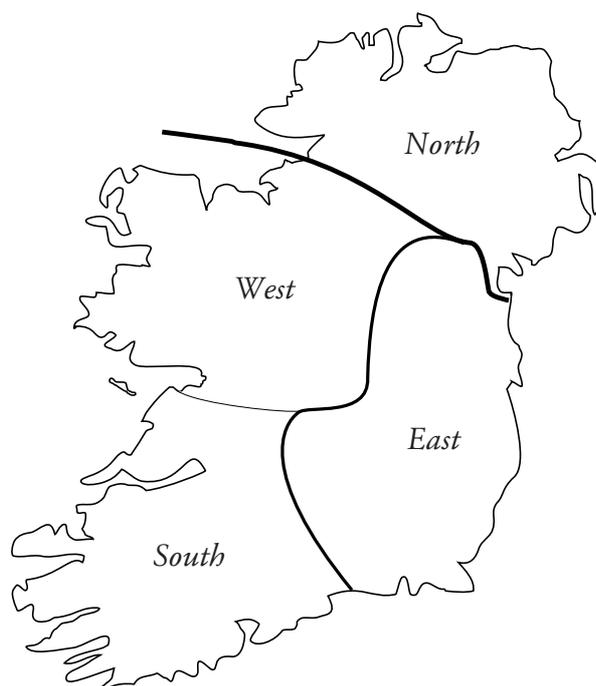
180. A brief introduction to the Irish accents (& maps)

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fig 180.1. Ireland: six accent areas. Four principal ones, in white, and two secondary ones, in grey (cf fig 180.2).



fig 180.2. Ireland: Simple division into four areas: North, East, South, West.



180.1. As the map in fig 180.1 shows, Ireland has four principal English accents, which do not exactly coincide with a division into *North*, *East*, *South*, and *West* (as shown in the map of fig 180.2, with boundary-lines of three different degrees of thickness). These four areas are useful to present some given peculiarities (with some integrations).

Two of these four accents belong to *Southern Ireland* (or *Eire* proper – /'ɛəɪə/, /'ɛɪɪə; 'æɪə; -i/); the other two belong to *Northern Ireland* (or *Ulster* /'ɛʃtəɪ/).

The *EAST*, or *Eastern Eire* (or *Leinster* /'lɛnsʃəɪ/ or *Eastern Ireland*) includes *Dublin* /'dʒɛblɪn/. The *SOUTH*, or *Southern Eire* (or *Munster* /'mʌnsʃəɪ/, or –but more ambiguously– '*Southern Ireland*') includes *Cork* /'kɔːɪk/. The *WEST*, or *Western Eire* (or *Connaught* /'kɒnɔːʃ/, or *Western Ireland*) includes *Sligo* /'slæɡɔɔ/ & *Galway* /'ɡɔːtʰwɛɪ/. The South and West share various features.

180.2. The *NORTH*, or *Northern Ireland* proper (or *Ulster*) includes *Belfast* /bɛʃt'fæst/ and *Derry* /'dɛɪi/ (or *Londonderry* /'lɒndɒndɛɪi, -dɪi/), and also *Donegal* /dʒɒnə'ɡɔːʃ, dʒɛ-/ westwards and parts of *Fermanagh* /fɛɪ'mænə/ and *Monaghan* /'mɒnəhən/ southwards. Thus, these last three counties politically belong to Eire, but linguistically are part of Northern Ireland. For historical reasons, very often languages do not exactly follow administrative boundaries.

There are three smaller areas in Ulster, where an *Ulster-Scots English* accent is to be found (cf fig 180.1), above Derry and Belfast (and southeast of the latter, as well). Of course, in spite of this geographical division in three, they form one linguistic area.

In our map of fig 180.1, a 'mixed zone' is present between the northern, eastern, and western areas. Arguably, in this zone, we do find mixed elements of the other more specific accents (combined in different ways, according to speakers and words) and some peculiar features, as well.

The number of speakers in the whole Island of Ireland is almost 6,000,000. Apart from about 2% composite speakers in the mixed zone, we have: Eire 65%, Ulster 33%. More precisely: Eastern Eire 40%, Southern Eire 17%, Western Eire 8%, Ulster proper 30%, Ulster-Scots 3%.

180.3. But, of course, as in the other Celtic countries in the British Isles, English is not a real mother tongue (although, by now, very many Irish people do not speak Gaelic at all, especially in eastern Eire and Northern Ireland). Thus, the Irish are a kind of second-language users of English. This causes many oscillations, between different kinds of realizations for many phonemes, for the same speakers and words, as well.

As a matter of fact, something like that (although, this time, entirely within the Germanic family) does happen even with English, American, Australian and New-Zealand people, who actually show more or less frequent oscillations between some kinds of neutral, mediatic, and broad accents, when they are not coherently systematic in their pronunciation of English.

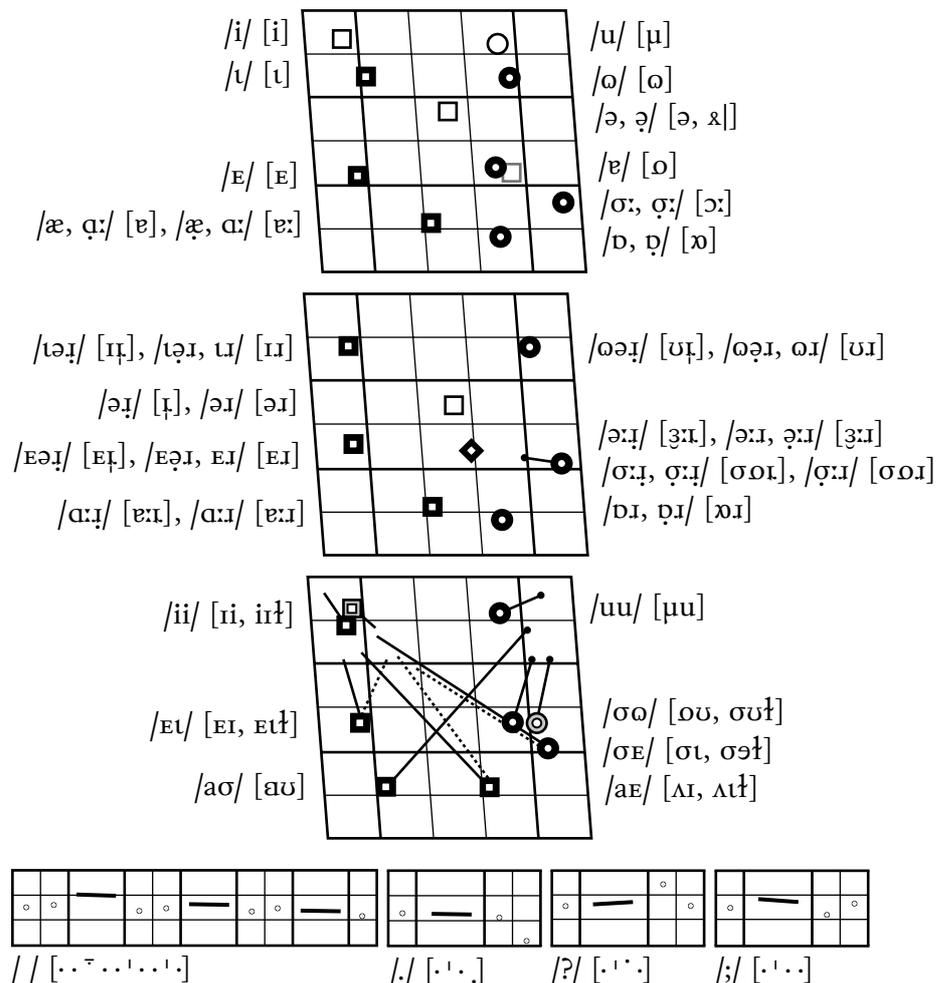
181. Eastern Eire (& Dublin)

[© Luciano Canepari, 2010, Venice University, Italy]

181.1. Of course, we start from Dublin, in eastern Eire. This is the most influential accent in Ireland, although Northern Ireland is a different accent area (mostly with historical influence from Scotland). Obviously, the Dublin accent inevitably affects even the more Gaelic and conservative accents, in western and southern Eire.

fig 181.1 shows the typical accent of Dublin and of the eastern area in the maps of fig 180.1-2. In fig 181.4-5, we will see its broader and lighter variants.

fig 181.1. Eastern Eire (Dublin): vowels, diphthongs & intonation.



Most peculiar are the realizations of /æ, ɑ:/ [ɛ], /ɑ, æ/ [ɛ:], which are differentiated just by length: [ˈmɛn:] /ˈmæn/ *man*, [ˈhɛz] /ˈhæz/ *hat*, [ˈlɛst] /ˈlæst/ *last*, [ˈfɛrdɪ] /ˈfɑ:ðəɪ/ *father*, [ˈkɛrɪ] /ˈkɑ:ɪ/ *car*. The second most peculiar phoneme is /ɛ/ [ɔ] (which, in the broadest accent, can gradually merge with /ɔ/, as we will see soon): [ˈhɔz] /ˈhɛz/ *hut*.

In Dublin, and in most urban eastern accents (directly influenced by the capital), we find the merger /σ:, ɔ:/ [σɔ] (while in rural eastern and in western accents they are still distinct, again, as we will see): [ˈwσɔɪ] both for /ˈwσ:ɪ/ *war* and /ˈwɔ:ɪ/ *wore*, [ˈstfσɔɪ] /ˈstfɔ:ɪ/ *story*, [ˈlσɔɪ] /ˈlσ:ɪ/ *Laura*; but [ˈsɔɪ] /ˈsɔ:ɪ/ *sorry*, [ˈhɔɪ] /ˈhɔ:ɪ/ *horror*.

There are possible oscillations between [ɔ:] & [ɔ] (and variants) for /ɔ/, as there are between [ɛ] & [ɛ:] (and variants, again) for /æ, æ, ɑ:/. In the East (except for Dublin), /æf, æθ, æs/ are generally short.

181.2. As can be seen from the examples just given, we have /ɪ/ [ɪ]; the other /V:ɪ/ sequences are: /ɑ:ɪ/ [ɛɪ], /ə:ɪ/ [ɜ:ɪ]; let us add: /ɑ:ɪ/ [ɛɪ], /ə:ɪ, ɜ:ɪ/ [ɜ:ɪ], as the following examples show: [ˈstfɛɪ] /ˈstfɑ:ɪ/ *starry*, [ˈfɜ:ɪ] /ˈfɛ:ɪ/ *furry*, [ˈhɜ:ɪ] /ˈhɛ:ɪ/ *hurry*.

For the /Vəɪ/ sequences, we have: /ɪəɪ/ [ɪɪ], /eəɪ/ [ɛɪ], /oəɪ/ [ʊɪ] (and /əɪ/ [ɪ]): [ˈhɪɪ] /ˈhɪəɪ/ *here*, [ˈdɛɪ] /ˈdɛəɪ/ *there*, [ˈpɪʊɪ] /ˈpɪ:ɪ/ *poor*, [ˈmɔdɪ] /ˈmɛðəɪ/ *mother*.

The diphthongs are as follows: /ii, eɪ, æɛ, σɛ, aσ, σɔ, uɪ/ [ɪi, iɪ; ɛi, ɛɪ; ʌi, ʌɪ; σɪ, σɪ; əʊ(ɪ); ɔʊ, σʊ; μɪ(ɪ)]: [ˈbɪi] /ˈbii/ *bee*, [ˈfiɪ] /ˈfii/ *feel*, [ˈhɛɪ] /ˈhɛɪ/ *hay*, [ˈsɛɪ] /ˈsɛɪ/ *sale*, [ˈflʌɪ] /ˈflæɪ/ *fly*, [ˈfʌɪ] /ˈfæɪ/ *file*, [ˈbɔɪ] /ˈbɔɪ/ *boy*, [ˈbɔɪ] /ˈbɔɪ/ *boil*, [ˈfɔʊ] /ˈfɑʊ/ *fowl*, [ˈgɔʊ] /ˈgɔʊ/ *go*, [ˈgɔʊ] /ˈgɔʊ/ *goal*, [ˈpɪuɪ] /ˈpɪuɪ/ *pool*.

181.3. fig 181.2 shows different degrees of broader and milder accents for most phonemes. Let us start from /ɛ/, which, instead of the typical and peculiar [ɔ], can be realized in many different ways, including the complete merger with /ɔ/: [ɔ, ɔ̃, ɔ̃̃], as in [ˈhɔz, ɔ̃hɔz, ɔ̃̃hɔz] /ˈhɛz/ *hut* (and [ɔ, ɔ̃], in fig 181.4), [ˈfɔz] /ˈfɔz/ *foot*.

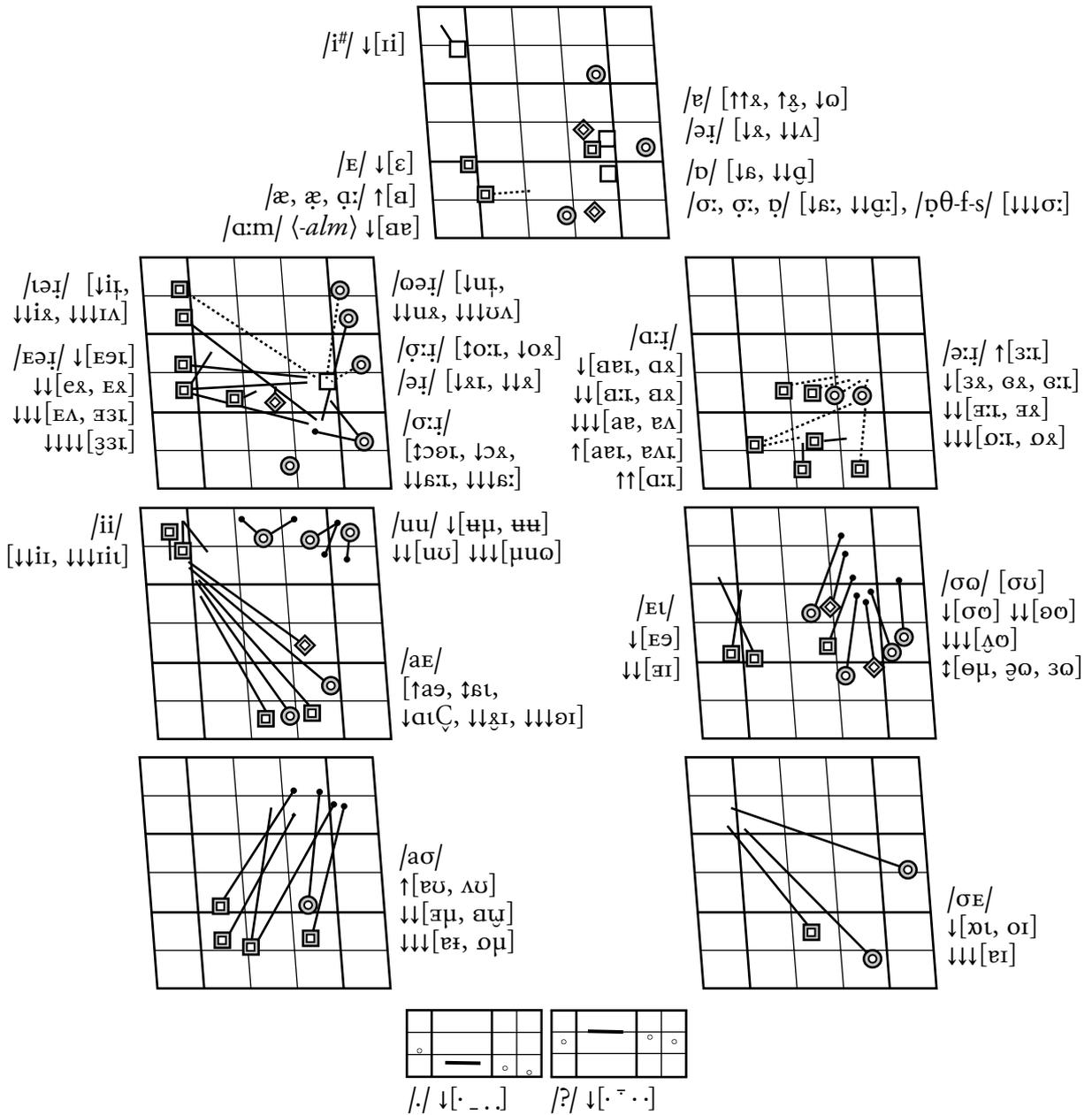
It is also interesting to notice that we can also have /ɔ/ [ɔ, ɔ̃]: [ˈhɔz, ɔ̃hɔz, ɔ̃̃hɔz] /ˈhɔz/ *hot*; and /ɔ/ [ɔ̃]: [ˈbɔs, ɔ̃bɔs, ɔ̃̃bɔs, ɔ̃̃̃bɔs] /ˈbɔs/ *boss*.

181.4. The second vocogram (of fig 181.2) illustrates the variants of sequences of vowels plus /ɪ/. Apart from the peculiarly high timbres for the first elements of /ɪəɪ, ɔəɪ/ ↓[i-, u-] and the opposition between /σ:ɪ/ [ɔ-] and /σ:ɪ/ [ɔ-], it is to be noticed that, in addition to [ɪ, ɪ], they can end with the very broad and uneducated vocalization, represented with [-ɪ]: [ˈpɪɪpɪ] /ˈpɪɪpɪ/ *pepper*.

This is typical of the broadest (and working-class) Dublin accent, and can be heard even in other urban accents, especially in eastern Eire.

181.5. The third vocogram concentrates on the various further possible realizations of /ɑ:ɪ/ ↓[əɪ, əɪ] ↓↓[əɪ, əɪ] ↑↑[əɪ] and /ə:ɪ/ ↑[ɜ:ɪ] ↓[ɜ:ɪ, ɜ:ɪ] ↓↓[ɜ:ɪ, ɜ:ɪ, ɜ:ɪ]: [ˈfɛɪ] ↓[ˈfɛəɪ, ˈfɛəɪ] ↓↓[ˈfɛəɪ, ˈfɛəɪ] ↑↑[ˈfɛəɪ] /ˈfɑ:ɪ/ *far*, ↑[ˈfɜ:ɪ] ↓[ˈfɜ:ɪ, ˈfɜ:ɪ] ↓↓[ˈfɜ:ɪ, ˈfɜ:ɪ, ˈfɜ:ɪ] /ˈfɜ:ɪ/ *fur*.

fig 181.2. Eastern Eire (Dublin): variants for vowels, diphthongs & intonation.



The last four vocograms of fig 181.2 are most interesting for the variants of /σɛ/ ↓[ɛɪ, ɔɪ], /aɛ/ [↑aə, ↓əɪ], /aσ/ ↑[ɛɔ, ɛɔ] ↓↓[ɛɪ], and /σɔ/ [σɔ] ↑[əɪ, əɔ, ɜɔ]: ↓[ˈbɔɪ, ˈbɔɪ] /ˈbɔɪ/ *boy*, [ˈhæə, ˈhæɪ] /ˈhæɪ/ *high*, ↑[ˈhæɪ, ˈhæɪ] ↓↓[ˈhæɪ] /ˈhæɪ/ *how*, [ˈlɔɪ] ↑[ˈlɔɪ, ˈlɔɪ, ˈlɔɪ] /ˈlɔɪ/ *low*.

181.6. As for the *consonants*, the most important features, for the whole of Eire, are: /θ, ð/ [t(h), d] (which regularly occur in the West, or in lighter accents elsewhere), ↓[t(h), d] (regularly in the East and South, except in lighter accents), ↑[tθ, dð] (especially in urban lighter accents), ↑↑[θ, ð] (especially as a conscious effort to avoid the typical Eire phones, or in the mixed zone): [ˈtʰɪŋk, ↓tʰ-, ↑tθ-, ↑tθ-] /ˈθɪŋk/ *think*, [wəˈdɪn:, ↓-d-, ↑-dð-, ↑↑-ð-] /wɪðɪn/ *within*. We can find such cases as: [ˈbɪɪdɛs, ˈbɪɪ-, ↑↑-d] /ˈbɪɪdɛd/ *breathed* (disyllabic just as [ˈsɪɪɛs, ˈsɪɪ-, ↑↑-dɛd] /ˈsɪɪdɛd/

seeded), [ˈbʲiɛt] /ˈbʲiɛdθ, ˈbʲiɛθ/ *breadth/breath*, [ˈwʲiɟ] /ˈwʲiɟθ, ˈwʲið/ *width/with*, [ˈeʲɪt, ˈeʲɪt] /ˈeʲɪtθ/ *eight*, like *eight* (both rhyming with *faith*).

181.7. The other, even more peculiar, consonantal feature, typical of the whole of Eire, is: /t, d/ [z, ɟ] (alveolar slit constrictives) in weak positions, ie between vowels or in final position (followed by a pause or a vowel; not in an initial stressed syllable or in contact with a consonant): [ˈbʲiɟ] /ˈbʲiɟ/ *bit*, [ˈbʲeɟɪ] /ˈbʲeɟəɪ/ *better*, [ˈphɔzɛz] /ˈpɔtʲɪ/ *put it*, [ˈbʲuɟ] /ˈbʲiɟ/ *bid*, [ˈliɟɪ, ˈlii-] /ˈliiɟəɪ/ *leader*, [ˈliɟɛz] /ˈliiɟɪ/ *lead it* (& *seeded*, just seen above).

Thus, there is no complete coincidence between /t/ [z] and /t̪/. In fact, the sequences /n̪t̪, t̪t̪, t̪t̪/ are not included among the contexts which use [z], being /Ct̪/.

181.8. The quite strange fact, from an international (or neutral American or British) point of view, is that these extremely peculiar realizations are not at all stigmatized, in Eire. On the contrary, they can be exhibited on purpose, as a clear sign of proud Irishness... But, of course, we regularly have: [ˈt̪hɛts] /ˈt̪æts/ *tats*, [ˈt̪hɛkt̪] /ˈt̪ɛkt̪/ *tract*, [ˈd̪ɛdz̪] /ˈd̪ædz̪/ *dads*.

However, to mitigate the strong impact of [z], there are three variants for /t̪/, at different levels of accents. In fact, to start with, we can have both /t̪/ [t̪ɪ] and /t̪/ [ɟ̪]: [ˈbʲeɟɪ, ˈbʲeɟɪ] /ˈbʲeɟəɪ/ *better*, [ˈphɔzɛz, ˈphɔzɛz] /ˈpɔtʲɪ/ *put it*, [ˈt̪hɛnɪi, ˈn̪ɪi] /ˈt̪wɛnɪi/ *twenty*, [ˈphɛɪɪi, ˈphɛɪɪi] /ˈpɑɪɪi/ *party*, [ˈwɔɪɪɪ, ˈɪɪɪ, ˈɪɪ, ˈwɔɪɪ] /ˈwɔɪɪt̪əɪ/ *Walter*. Also [ˈeʲɪt̪ɪn, -ɪ, -t̪h-, eə-, -ɪn] /ˈeʲɪt̪iɪn/ *eighteen* can be heard.

181.9. In addition, at least for some common words or phrases, we can also find, in the broadest accent: /t̪/ → [ɟ̪h], between vowels and even in final position: [ˈsɛɟ̪ɪ, ˈsɛɟ̪ɪ] /ˈsæɟ̪əɪd̪i, -eɪ/ *Saturday*, [ˈnɔz əzɔɪt̪, ˈnɔh, ˈɪɪ] /ˈnɔt̪ ət̪ɔɪ/ *not at all*. As a matter of fact, this is a well-known Gaelic peculiarity, with names such as: [ˈfɛ(ɪ)hi] /ˈfɛɪ, ˈfɑ:(h)i/ *Fahy*, [ˈɔflɛɟ̪ɪ] /əˈflæ(h)əɟ̪i, ɔɔ-/ *O'Flaherty*, [məˈgɪɟ̪h] /məˈgɪɟ̪θ, -h/ *McGrath*.

Besides, the typical accents also show /t, d/ → [t, d], in /t̪ɪ, d̪ɪ; t̪əɪ, d̪əɪ/: [ˈt̪hɛkt̪ɪ] /ˈt̪ɛkt̪əɪ/ *tractor*, [ˈd̪ɪɟ̪k] /ˈd̪ɪɟ̪k/ *drink*, [ˈlɛd̪ɪ] /ˈlæd̪əɪ/ *ladder*. Actually, in a broad Dublin accent (and in rural western accents, as well), we can find [t(h), d], both for /θ, ð/ and /t, d/; or [t̪(h), d̪] for both pairs, in rural (and even urban) southern accents.

Especially, in a broad Dublin accent, we can also have stopstricative realizations in final positions (or, for /t̪/, even in an initial stressed position): [ˈst̪ɔp, -ɔp] /ˈst̪ɔp/ *stop*, [ˈt̪hɔz, ˈt̪z(h)ɔz] /ˈt̪ɔt̪/ *tot*, [ˈɪɟ̪k, -kx] /ˈɪɟ̪k/ *rack*.

Normally, in Eire, we have /t̪j, d̪j/ = [t̪ʲ, d̪ʲ] / [t̪ʲ, d̪ʲ] (in broader accents [t̪ʲ, d̪ʲ], more or less with no lip protrusion – for [ʃ, ʒ] [ʃ, ʒ] ↓ [ʃ̪, ʒ̪], as well): [ˈt̪ʲhʊb̪] /ˈt̪ʲjuub/ *tube*, [ˈd̪ʲuuk] /ˈd̪ʲjuuk/ *duke*. For /nj/, we have three possibilities, [n̪, ɪn, ɪnj]: [ˈn̪ʊu, ˈɪn-, ˈɪnj-] /ˈn̪juu/ *new*. The various vocograms show several other different realizations for /uu/.

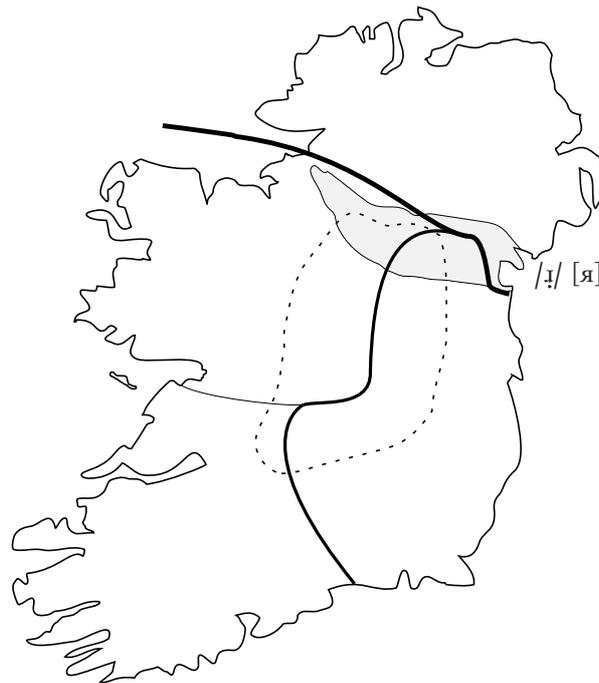
181.10. In rural accents, we can often hear palatal stops, [c, ɟ], for /k, g/ before low unrounded vowel phonemes, or in final position, after front vowel phonemes: [ˈchɛz] /ˈkæɟ̪/ *cat*, [ˈchɛɪ] /ˈkɑɪ/ *car*, [ˈwiic] /ˈwiik/ *weak*, [ˈflɛɟ̪] /ˈflæɟ̪/ *flag*. In part

of the mixed zone (cf fig 180.1), and to some extent in some of the bordering areas around it, also called the Midlands (cf fig 181.3), we can still hear [c, ɟ] (or the corresponding stopstrictives, [kç, gɟ]) both for /kj, gj/ and /tj, dj/, so that we can have such homophones as ['chʌːʌb, 'kçh-] /'kjuːb, 'tjuːb/ *cube/tube* (either in stressed or unstressed syllables, and with very fronted realizations of /uu/).

In rural accents, especially in the South and West, we can still have /v/ [β], /f/ [ɸ] (bilabial constrictives): [ˈβɛnː] /'væn/ *van*, [ˈlɔːβ] /'lɛv/ *love*, [ˈɸjuːu] /'fjuu/ *few*, [ˈliiɸ] /'liif/ *leaf*.

Again, in rural accents (especially in the West), we can find /sC, zC/ [ʃC, ʒC] (also with [ɹ, ɹ̥]): [ˈʃtɛːɹ] /'stɹɛːɹ/ *star*, [ˈwɛʃt] /'wɛst/ *west*, [ˈbɪʃkət] /'bɪskət/ *biscuit*, [ˈtʃɛʃ-] /'kæst/ *castle*, [ˈlɪʃn̩] /'lɪsn̩/ *listen*, [ˈwɪʒdəm] /'wɪzdəm/ *wisdom*, [ˈpʰɒʒl̩] /'pɒzɹ̩/ *puzzle*. And, still in rural accents, we can also have /ɹs/ [ɹs, ɹ̥s], /ɹz/ [ɹz, ɹ̥z] (cf § 181.11), as in: [ˈfɔːɹs, -ɹ̥s] /'fɔːɹs/ *force*, [ˈlɪkɹ̥z, -ɹ̥z] /'lɪkɹ̥z/ *liquors*. In rural accents of the South, we typically find: /ɹ, ɹ̥/ [ɹ].

fig 181.3. Two particular areas. The grey one indicates where it is possible to find /ɹ/ [ɹ̥]; in the white dotted one, palatal taxophones can be typical for /k, g/ [c, ɟ] and /kj, gj; tj, dj/ [c/kç, ɟ/gɟ].



181.11. In Eire, we have /w/ [ɸ, ↑w, ↓hw]: [ˈɸwɪtʃ, ↑w-, ↓hw-] /'wɪtʃ/ *which* (cf [ˈwɪtʃ] /'wɪtʃ/ *witch*); and /hj/ [h, ↑hj], including [↓j], for such words as [ˈhjuːmɹ̩, ↑hj-, ↓j-] /'hjuːmɹ̩/ *humor*. Besides, we have /l/ [l], /ɹ/ [ɹ, ↓l, ↑ɹ]: [ˈlɪl, ↓l-, ↑ɹ-] /'lɪl/ *lill*.

In addition, we find /ɹ/ [ɹ], /ɹ̥/ [ɹ̥] (prevelar laterally contracted approximant, slightly rounded: the most typical one), [↑ɹ] (prevelar laterally contracted *semi*-approximant, slightly rounded: most typical in Dublin), [↓ɹ̥] (prevelar laterally contracted semi-approximant, slightly rounded and uvularized: most typical in rural accents), [↓↓ɹ, ↓↓↓ɹ] (full vocalization: most typical of a broad Dublin accent): [ˈɹɛɹ̥, ↑ɹ̥-, ↓ɹ̥-, ↓↓ɹ, ↓↓↓ɹ] /'ɹɛɹ̥/ *rare*. More rarely, in Dublin, we can also have /ɹ/ [z]

(alveolar approximant, as a kind of compromise between rhotic and non-rhotic accents): [ʃʲɪɛːz] /ʲɪɛəɪ/ *rare*.

In a small area (shown in grey in the map of fig 181.3), we can still happen to hear a pharyngealized uvular approximant for /ɹ/ [ʀ] (which seems to have been more widespread, in the past, both in the whole East and in the mixed zone): [ʲɪɛʀ] /ʲɪɛəɪ/ *rare*.

181.12. Let us add some general observations to complete our treatment. Many Irish people still say, for instance, [ʲtʰeə, 'seə, 'eəz] for /ʲtʰii, 'sii, 'ii/ *tea, sea, eat*. However, we do not consider this fact as something belonging to the *pronunciation* of English, but as the *use* of dialectal words in English contexts. In fact, many other speakers just say [ʲtʰri, 'sri, 'iɪz], and carefully avoid using the other forms.

We do the same with the non-literal use of *old*, pronounced as [əʊl] (and all the other variants), for instance in such a phrase as *the owl fella* [di,əʊl'fɛlɔ]: thus *owld*.

On the contrary, we prefer to consider the following peculiarities as belonging to the pronunciation of Irish English: *many, any, any-* with /æ/ [ɛ] instead of normal /ɛ/ [ɛ]: [ʲvənəweə] /ʲɛniweɪ, -ə-/ *anyway*. The same for *either, neither* with /ɛɪ/ [eə] instead of normal /æɪ, ii/: [ʲ'eədɪ 'weə] /'æðəɪ 'weɪ, 'ii-/ *either way*.

181.13. As we may have already seen from some examples, we have /ə/ = /ə/, and /ə/ [ə, ɔ]: [ʲɔʊzəz] /ʲɔʊzəz/ *roses*, [ʲsoʊfɔ] /ʲsoʊfə/ *sofa*, [ʲtʰə'gɔ'ɔ] /ʲtʰə'gɔʊ/ *to go* (not [ʲtʰw'g-]).

Besides, we find /Vəɪ/ → /Vɪ/: [ʲhɪən] /ʲhɪəɪn/ *hearing*, [ʲphɪɪɪz] /ʲpɪəɪɪz/ *pirate*. Also /VVəɪ/ → /VVɪ/: [ʲphlɛəɪ] /ʲplɛɪɪ/ *player*, &c. Even before laterals and nasals, at least in a broad accent, we can have /Və/ → /V/: [ʲvəʊl] /ʲvaʊəɪ/ *vowel*, [ʲlɪ'n] /ʲlæə'n/ *lion*. We can even hear [ʲkhwɪɪz] /ʲkwæəɪz/ *quiet*, pronounced like [ʲkhwɪɪz] /ʲkwæəɪz/ *quite*.

On the other hand, we can typically have [Cɪ] → [Cəɪ] (or [Cɪ]), between a consonant and a sonant: [ʲvɪəm] /ʲvɪɪm/ *arm*, [ʲfɪləm] /ʲfɪɪm/ *film*, [ʲwɔɪən] /ʲwɔɪɪn/ *worn*; also [ʲdʊbələn] /ʲdʊbɪɪn/ *Dublin*. But we have oscillations, and other solutions, as well; consider, for instance: [ʲmɔdɪn, -dɪɪn, -dɪɪn, -dɪɪn, -dɪɪn] /ʲmɔdɪɪn/ *modern*.

In initial unstressed position, vowels tend to avoid using /ə/: [ʲofɪʲ] /ə'fɪʲ/ *official*, [ʲɛk'sɛpɪ] /ək'sɛpɪ/ *accept*, [ʲɛ'fɛkɪ, ɪ] /ə'fɛkɪ/ *effect*.

In rural accents, we often have /i#/ → /ə/: [ʲlɔkɔ] /ʲləki/ *lucky*; in rural and popular accents, /oʊ#/ → /ə/: [ʲwɪndɔ] /ʲwɪndəʊ/ *window*, while verbs have /oʊ#/ → /i/: [ʲfɔli] /ʲfɔləʊ/ *follow*, [ʲfɔliən] /ʲfɔləʊn/ *following*.

181.14. As for *reduced forms*, while *Saint* (*St*) has none, [sɛnɪ] /sɛɪnɪ, sənɪ/, other words do have reduced forms, contrary to common (especially British) usage: [ən, ɪ] /ɔn/ *on*, [ən, ɪ] /ɪn/ *in*, [ət, əz] /ɪt/ *it*, [əm, ɪ] /ɪm/ *him*, [v, ə] /æ/ *I*, [mi, mə] /mæ/ *my*, [bi, bə] /bæ/ *by*, [jə] /juu, jə/ *you*, [jɪ] /jɔəɪ, jɔɪ, jəɪ/ *your/you're*, [wɪ] /wɪəɪ/ *we're*, [hɪ] /wɛəɪ/ *where*, [hən] /wɛn/ *when*, [hət, -z] /wɔt/ *what*. The common greeting *How are you?* is generally [ʲhə'ɔɪjə, -juu/

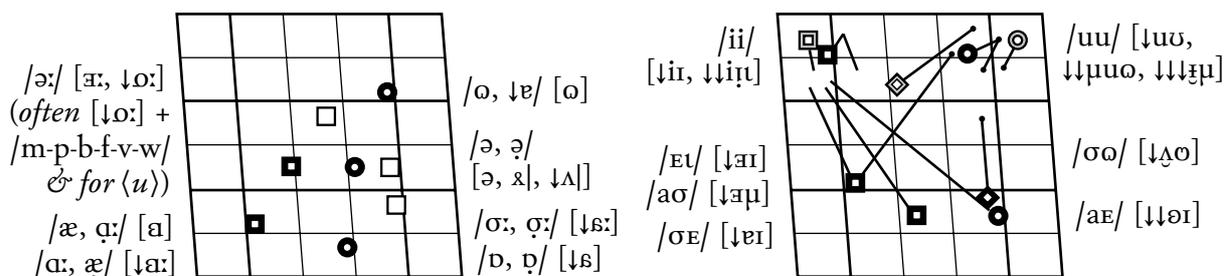
In broad and typical accents, verbs in *-ate, -y, -ize* have their stress on the last

syllable: [ɛktə'veəz] /'æktə'veɪt/ *activate*, [sɛzəs'fʌɪ] /'sætʃəsfaɪ/ *satisfy*, [ɔ:ɪgə'nʌɪz] /'ɔ:ɪgənæz/ *organize*; also: [ɪntə'ɪstɪd] /'ɪntə'ɪstɪd/ *interested*, [ɪntə'ɪstɪŋ] /'ɪntə'ɪstɪŋ/ *interesting*, [sɒb'sɪkwəntli] /'sɒbsəkʷəntli/ *subsequently*.

The intonation patterns are shown, with variants, in fig 181.1-2. For southern and western Eire, see G 182.

181.15. The *broadest Dublin accent* (as shown in fig 181.4) has /ɪ/ [ə, ɛ, ↓Δ] (which recalls what happens in New York City): [↓hɛpɛ, -ɪ] /'hɑ:ɪpɛɪ/ *harper*, and /ə:ɪ/ [ɛ, ↓ɔ:] (with the latter variant most often occurring after /m, p, b; f, v; w/, or for the spelling ⟨u⟩): [↓stɛɪ] /'stɛ:ɪ/ *stir*, [↓wɔ:ɪ] /'wɔ:ɪ/ *word*, [↓nɔ:s] /'nɔ:ɪs/ *nurse*. Equally peculiar are the diphthongs, as fig 181.4 clearly shows: [↓bɪɪn, ↓↓bɪɪn] /'biin/ *bean*, [↓dɛɪ] /'dɛɪ/ *day*, [↓↓tʰɔɪm] /'tʰæm/ *time*, [↓bɛɪ] /'bɔɛ/ *boy*, [↓tʰɛɪm] /'tʰæm/ *town*, [↓gɔ:ɔ] /'gɔ:ɔ/ *go*, [↓su:ɪn, ↓↓sɪuɪn, ↓↓sɪɪm] /'suun/ *soon*. As for the consonants, cf § 181.6-13.

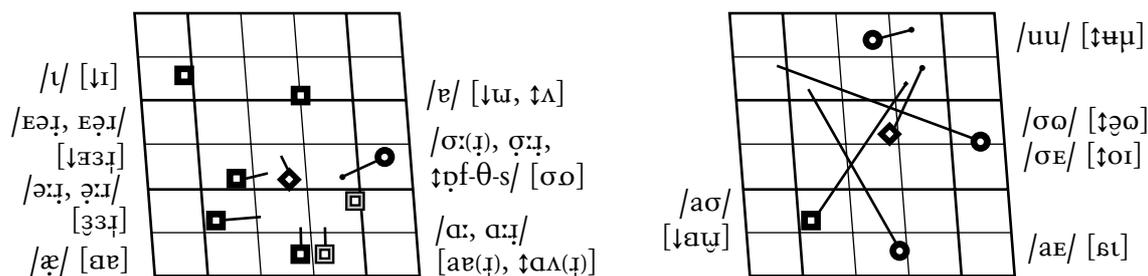
fig 181.4. Broad Dublin accent: typical taxophones.



181.16. There is also a kind of refined, partially newer, *Dublin accent* (as shown in fig 181.5), which derives from reactions both to the broadest local accent and to the so-called ‘Dublin 4’ accent. The latter was typical of one of the most affluent areas of Dublin (whose postal address is *Dublin 4*), where the national broadcasting company –RTE– and University College Dublin are located. That accent, during the 1980’s, aimed at avoiding features from the broad Dublin accent, moving away from them, even though the result was strongly disliked and ridiculed by most people.

The most typical new features, only partially connected with Dublin 4 ones, are shown in fig 181.5. In addition, we often have /t̪, 'd̪; t̪#, d̪#/ [t̪, d̪], /t̪/ [ɹ], /t̪#, t̪C/ [ʔ] (while /t̪, d̪/ [z, s] are avoided). Then, /ɪ/ [ɪ] (with partially different rhyth-

fig 181.5. Refined Dublin accent: typical taxophones.



mic results, due to [ʷV̥ɪ], instead of [ʷV̥ɪ̃]): [ˈkhaɐ̃ɪ] /ˈkɑːɪ/ *car*, [ˈfl̥σɔ̃ɪ] /ˈfl̥ɔːɪ/ *floor*, [ˈfr̥ɪ] /ˈfɪə̃ɪ/ *fear*, [ˈfɪ̃ɪ] /ˈfaɐ̃ɪ/ *fire*. Finally, we have /ɹ̥/ [ɹ̥, ↓ɹ̥]: [ˈwɛɹ̥ɪ] /ˈwɛɹ̥ɪ/ *well* (with [ɹ̥] felt to be ‘insufficient’).

181.17. A typically recognized Irish kind of voice, frequently, uses both whis-
pery voice ⟨∞⟩ and falsetto ⟨*⟩.

185. Sociophonic comparisons for Ulster English

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185.1. Here we group the different sociophonic variants, in order to draw special attention to them: fig 185.1-2 group the most significant sociophonic facts, in separate vocograms, to make them clearer (except the fourth vocogram – not every speaker uses /ɒ/).

Let us observe that a downward *arrow head* (inside a marker, or, in certain necessary cases, just outside of it) indicates the broadest variant (often almost over the limit of actual ‘language’, as for /ɪ/ [ɪ↓↓↓ɪ]); while, an upward arrow head suggests the best variants, at times even better than the typical normalized one, chosen as the most representative for the accent.

We first show the monophthongs (fig 185.1), then the diphthongs (fig 185.2).

fig 185.1. Ulster English: sociophonic comparisons for some monophthongs.

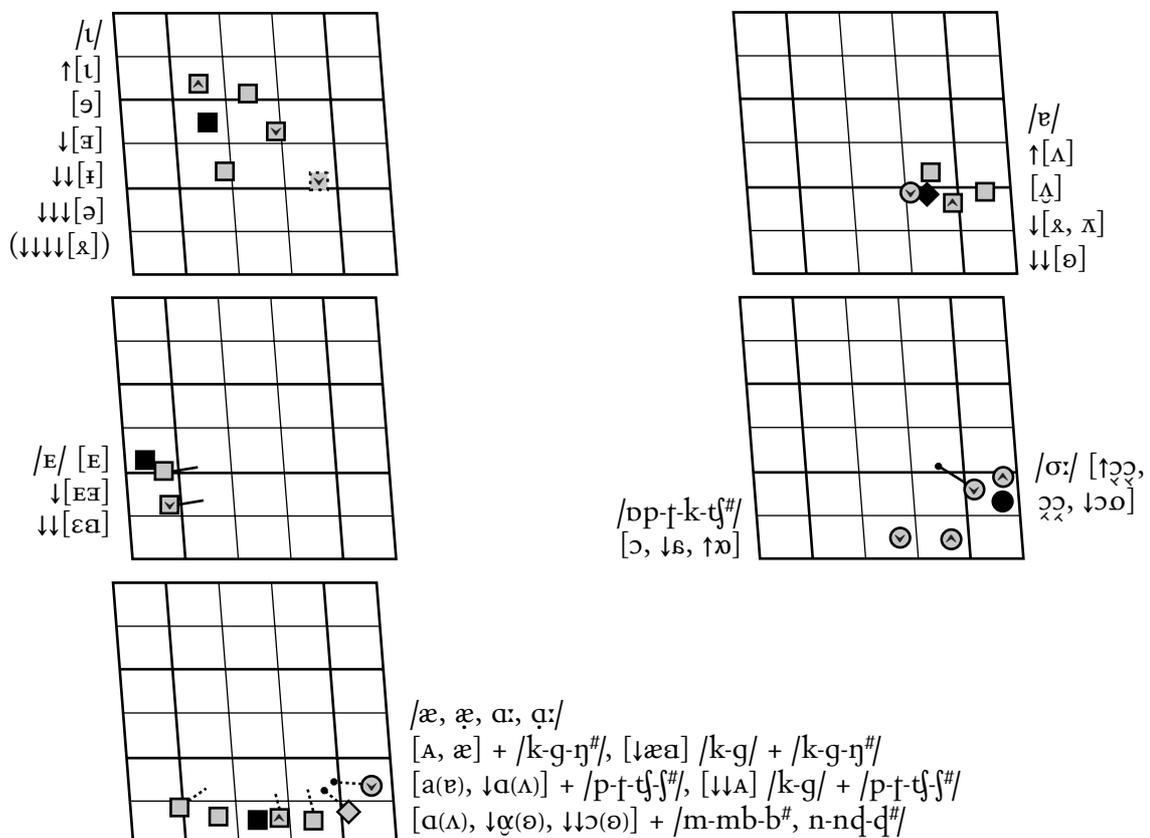
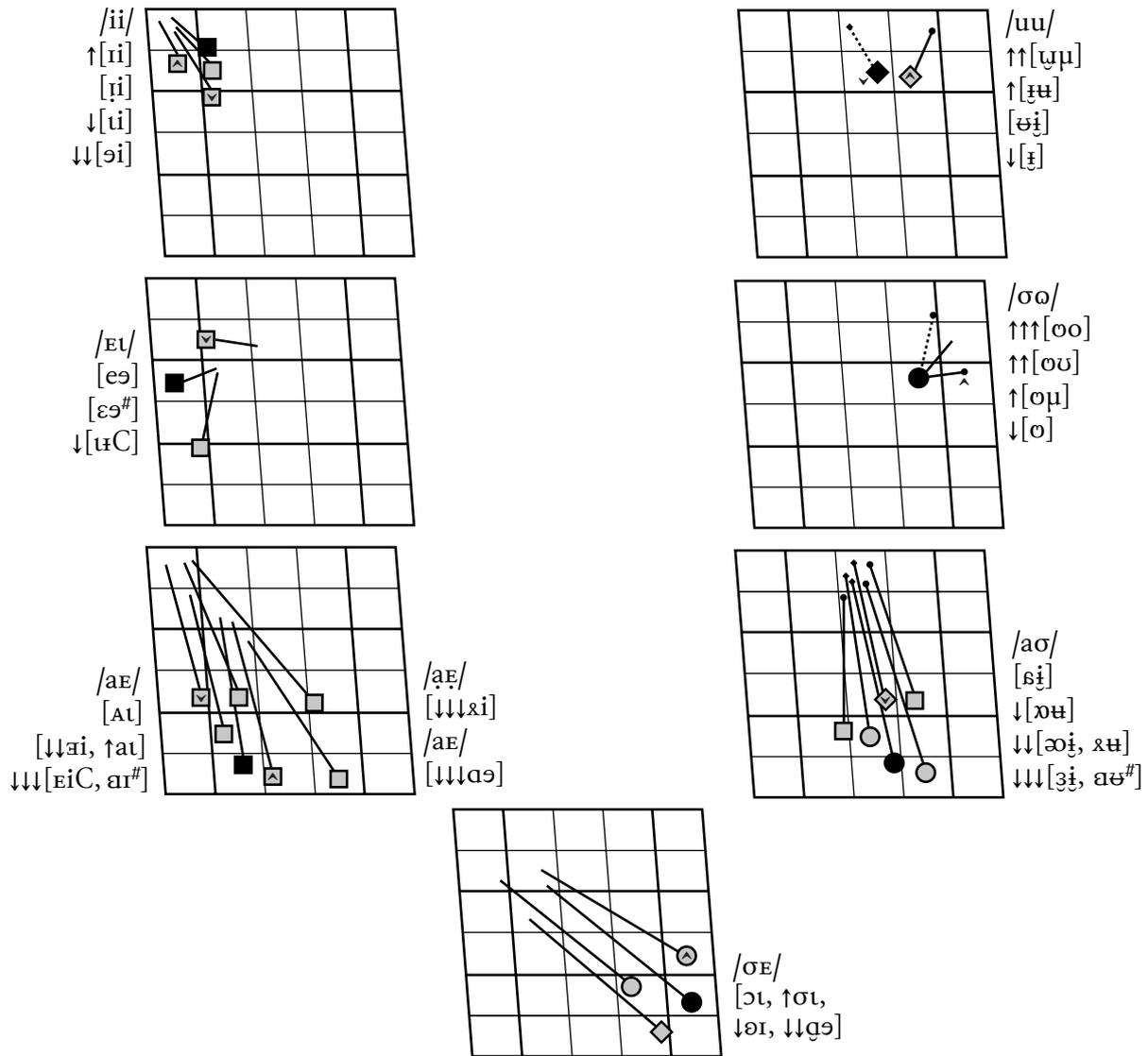


fig 185.2. Ulster English: sociophonetic comparisons for the diphthongs.



185.2. A number of words, such as *bull*, *put*, *push*, *full*, *wood*, *look*, in the broad accent, have /ɛ/, instead of /ə/.