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The Impact of Age and Social Class on the Strength of Derbyshire Accent

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Cílem práce je popsat rozdíly mezi přízvukem v hrabství Derbyshire a britským standardem (RP, received pronunciation). V teoretické části diplomandka vymezí základní specifika derbyshireského akcentu vůči RP a definuje principy sociofonetického výzkumu.
Praktická část směřuje k testování hypotézy, že čím je mluvčí starší a čím nižší je jeho společenské postavení, tím výraznější je jeho akcent. Výzkum je založen na fonetické analýze nahrávek, které diplomandka pořídila mezi rodilými mluvčími v oblasti Derbyshire. Akustická a auditivní charakteristika jazykového materiálu je empiricky stanovena pomocí specializovaného softwaru (Praat). Získaná data pak diplomandka interpretuje vzhledem ke dvěma sociofonetickým proměnným - věku a společenskému statusu mluvčího.

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ANNOTATION

The aim of this work is to describe the differences between Derbyshire accent and Received Pronunciation. In the theoretical part, the most significant contrasts between Derbyshire accent and General British are scrutinized and the current sociophonetic research is summarised. The practical part aims to either confirm or disprove the following assumption: the older the person is and the lower their social class, the more prominent their accent is going to be. The research is based on phonetic analysis of recordings that were taken from participants who are originally from, or from nearby, the county of Derbyshire. Acoustic and auditory analysis is done by using specialised software *Praat*. The data has then been interpreted in relation to two sociophonetic variables: age and social class of the speaker.

KEYWORDS

accent, Derbyshire, RP English, sociophonetics, social class, age group, accent variations

NÁZEV

Analýza akcentu Derbyshire s ohledem na věk a sociální status uživatelů

ANOTACE

Cílem práce je popsat rozdíly mezi přízvukem v hrabství Derbyshire a britským standardem (RP, received pronunciation). V teoretické části diplomandka vymezí základní specifika derbyshireského akcentu vůči RP a definuje principy sociofonetického výzkumu. Praktická část směřuje k testování hypotézy, že čím je mluvčí starší a čím nižší je jeho společenské postavení, tím výraznější je jeho akcent. Výzkum je založen na fonetické analýze nahrávek, které diplomandka pořídila mezi rodilými mluvčími, kteří se narodili v oblasti, nebo blízko oblasti hrabství Derbyshire. Akustická a auditivní charakteristika jazykového materiálu je empiricky stanovena pomocí specializovaného softwaru (Praat). Získaná data pak diplomandka interpretuje vzhledem ke dvěma sociofonetickým proměnným – věku a společenskému statusu mluvčího.

KLÍČOVÁ SLOVA

přízvuk, hrabství Derbyshire, britský standard (RP), sociofonetika, společenský status, věk, variance přízvuků

Contents

Introduction

The main aim of this thesis is to describe the major differences in the speech of speakers from the county Derbyshire and comparing these speakers to the standardised non-regional British accent often known as Received Pronunciation (commonly used in abbreviated form RP). This paper consists of two major parts, those being theoretical and practical. The theoretical part consists of four main sections and several subsections. The fifth section of the thesis is the practical part, where recordings of Derbyshire speakers are analysed both acoustically and auditorily. The analysis of the recordings is done based on the information described in the theoretical part.

In the first section, the term accent is described and compared with the term dialect. The essential ways of differentiating accents are introduced. These methods are, for example phonetic and phonological differences. This section also tries to find an answer to the question of how many accents there are in the United Kingdom and how are these different accents distinguished.

The second section introduces the standardised British accent called Received Pronunciation (RP). A brief origin of this accent is mentioned and also it is stated, that this accent is non-regional. The problem that is discussed in this section is the name given to this accent. It is implied that some native speakers have negative connotations concerning the name RP. Different names for this accent are suggested in this section. Lastly, key features of Received Pronunciation are introduced.

The third section introduces the topic of accent variations. Firstly, the terms sociophonetics and sociolinguistics are introduced and also some other disciplines studying accent variations are briefly mentioned. The main purpose of the third section is to introduce factors that can affect speakers' pronunciation. The three most significant, according to the author of this thesis, variables are introduced and studied both from the sociophonetic and sociolinguistic point of view. These three variables are speaker's age, social class and sex.

The last theoretical section focuses on the county of Derbyshire. The geography is briefly introduced, including the location. information about the population and also the main industries that can be found in this part of England. Secondly, the post prominent Derbyshire variations in relation to accent are introduces. The accent of General Northern

English (GNE) is used when comparing Derbyshire accent to RP English. It is also indicated that not all the features of GNE can be found in Derbyshire accent.

The fifth section represents the recording analysis of the Derbyshire variations described in the previous section. Two programmes are used for the speech analysis. The first programme used is called *Audacity*. Its main purpose is to obtain the recordings and adjust background noises. The second programme that is called *Praat* is used for the acoustic analysis and the results of those data are presented in this section and commented on. Altogether, the recordings of 24 Derbyshire speakers from various social classes and of diverse age groups are analysed.

Following the conclusion, in the Appendices the text that the speakers were given to read for the analysis and also tables including division of speakers in relation to social class and age can be found. Furthermore, the Appendices also include the overall results of the prominence of speakers' Derbyshire accent.

Within the thesis a CD is also included, carrying all the recordings taken for this thesis.

1 Accents

As the thesis focuses on accent and its variations, it is crucial to define the term. Oxford online dictionary characterizes accent as "a distinctive way of pronouncing a language, especially one associated with a particular country, area, or social class" (Oxford dictionaries, 2018), Cambridge online dictionary's definition is: "the way in which people in a particular area, country, or social group pronounce words" (Cambridge dictionary. 2018). Wells characterizes accent as: "A pattern of pronunciation used by a speaker of whom English is the native language or […] by the community or social grouping to which he or she belongs." (1998, 1). All of these definitions are adequately similar. For purposes of this thesis, the main focus will be on the speaker's social group. What is more, Wells also implies that accent also takes into consideration speaker's sex, age and level of education (1998, 1). Due to this definition, the speaker's age group will also be taken into account in this work. There is usually a strong correlation between social class and the level of education. This issue will be discussed later.

Some definitions of accent can differ from those stated above, for example: "A distinctive pitch movement in English and similar languages in which certain syllables

are marked as distinctive or important by higher tone." (Roach 2010, 107). However, this is not the subject of this thesis.

1.1 Accent and dialect

The terms accent and dialect may be and are often confused. Both of these words focus on a particular area. However, dialect refers to "a variety of language which is different from others not just in pronunciation but also in such matters as vocabulary, grammar and word order." (Roach 2009, 3). Dialect focuses not only on pronunciation, but also on other features of the given language. This is in contrast to accent, which predominantly refers to pronunciation relating to the speaker's background.

1.1.1 Accents differentiation

Due to the fact that English is spoken by over 335 million native speakers worldwide and over 58 million native speakers in United Kingdom (Wolfram, 2019) there are many different accents of English. As Roach claims, there are two main sorts of differences between English accents. Those are phonetic and phonological. (2009, 161) Wells also adds lexical-incidential differences, which he took from Trubetzoy's etymological difference. (1998, 73) This difference will not be discussed.

Phonetic difference means the fact that in both accents, while the same phonemes can be found, the realisation might be different. Furthermore, there can also be found differences in stress or intonation. (Roach 2009, 161). Wells shows a different phonetic variation on words such as: *coat, nose, snow* and the vowel pronunciation. He points out that this diphthong is pronounced differently in various accents as it could be /əʊ/, /əw/ or /ʌʊ/ (1998, 73).

An example of a phonological difference, also taken from Roach, is "where one accent has a different number of phonemes (and hence of phonemic contrasts) from another." (2009, 161). In this situation, Wells gives an example of the words *foot* and *boot*. In standard British English, the word foot is pronounced /fʊt/ and the word boot is pronounced /bu:t/. However, Scottish accents do not distinguish these two different phonemes and only have the phoneme /ʊ/, so the word boot is pronounced /bʊt/. Scottish accents do not have the phoneme /u:/. (1998, 77)

Giegerich says that the main differentiation in English accents is in the vowel system and also the phonetic realisation of vowel phonemes. (2006, 43). Wells agrees with the fact that the vowel system has the most prominent effect on accent variability. However, he claims that there are also some differences in consonant production. As one of the examples, he mentions the duration of aspiration (1998, 75).

1.2 Accents in the UK

As mentioned before, English accents differ mainly in their vowel systems and their phonetic realisation. This vowel system may be fairly different across the whole United Kingdom according to regions.

Giegerich highlights three different vowel systems that he calls "standard" and are those of (Southern) England, Scotland and the United States. (2006, 43). That being said, in the UK he states that there are only two standard accents. However, he declares that those two are not the only two accents spoken in the United Kingdom. Those speakers, who do not speak Standard English, speak different varieties of this English.

Giegerich also says that apart from the Standard British which is spoken by the majority of Southern British speakers, there are also "some amount of variations among the accents of this linguistic area" (2006, 51) He picks three types of variations that are attainable across accents. Those types are: realisational variation, phonemic variation and lexical variation.

Realisational variation is a type "where the number and systematic relationship of the phonemes are the same and only their phonetic realisations differ from one accent to another." (Giegerich 2006, 52).

Phonemic variation is similar to Roach's and Well's phonological difference of accent. Giegerich gives an example of the variability of the phoneme /ʌ/ and the fact that northern British accents (namely North Midlands and Northern English accents) do not have any distinction between the phoneme /ʌ/ and /ʊ/. So, for example the word luck is in Standard English pronounced as /lʌk/. However, in northern English accents, this word rhymes with the word book, therefore its pronunciation is /lʊk/. Therefore, there is no contrast between the phoneme /ʌ/ and /ʊ/. This phenomenon is also known as *shibboleths*. (Giegerich 2006, 52).

The last difference, according to Giegerich, is lexical variation. His explanation of this aspect is: "Two accents may share the same system of phonemes, and even their

principal realisations, but they may use different phonemes in different words." (2006, 52) He points out that from the phonological point of view, this variation is not as crucial, due to the fact that this aspect concerns dialectologist more.

Regarding the question of how many accents there are in the UK, it is very difficult to answer with a specific number. Some basic sources try to represent the variety of accents in the UK on a map. For example, the website *Anglotopia* provides its readers with this type of map:

Figure 1

However, that is just a very approximate estimation of accents in the UK. In all of the sources, that the author of this thesis read through, there were no concise number of accents in the United Kingdom given.

Those sources (Huckvale 2004; Foulkes and Docherty 2007; Ferragne and Pellegrino 2010; D'Arcy, Russell, Browning and Tomlinson 2004) all agree that there is not a clear boundary within an accent. All of the authors also insist on the fact, that a speaker's accent is influenced by more factors than only a place where he or she comes from. There is also a great variety of accents within one place. This is affected by the fact that people come from different social classes or also from various ethnical backgrounds. The other important aspect that one should take into consideration is the fact, whether the speaker has moved throughout their life, or if they have lived in the same place. Foulkes and Docherty name five dimensions that influence speaker's accent. They are: class, sex, age, ethnicity and style. (2007, 53)

When talking about regional accents it is crucial to define what the author of the text means by that given accent. In this thesis, two accents will be defined and compared. Those are RP English and Derbyshire accent.

2 RP English

The first accent this thesis works with is Received Pronunciation, also known as RP. This accent is the standard British accent without any regional definitions even though it historically originated in South-East England. It is also, as Giegerich says, the most common model of English pronunciation which is taught to learners who are learning English as a foreign language (2006, 44).

Cruttenden 2014 and Crystal 2002 state that this accent has been present throughout centuries. It first appeared in the late Middle Ages, around the 16th century, mainly in London. This accent was a prestigious accent that the people of the court and upper classes spoke with. Even though RP English is not a regional accent and it can be heard in all parts of the United Kingdom, in the 16th century, when people wanted to adapt this highly regarded accent, they tended to move to London, where it was spoken at its highest occurrence. In the nineteenth century, RP English started to be used by teachers at public schools such as Eton or Winchester and it was an indicator of a high level of education. With the beginning of radio broadcasting in the 1920s, all of the BBC newsreaders were using RP English. From this time, it has been the standard accent that has been used, with slight adjustments, up until modern times. (Cruttenden 2014, 75; Crystal 2002, 64)

However, this accent is defined in social terms. Even though the name for the standard British accent is mainly called RP, this label is not supported by all authors and for some of them it may even be a little bit controversial. Because of this fact, RP has been given many other names.

2.1 The name

The name Received Pronunciation first appeared in the works of Daniel Jones in the first part of the twentieth century. He became an editor of the journal *Le Maître Phonétique* which is now called the *Journal of the International Phonetic Association*

and he became one of the most the prominent phoneticians in England. He created the expression 'Received Pronunciation' so that, according to Jones, it represents the standard spoken English on the British Isles. What's more, even when he defined RP English as the standard norm, at the same time he highlighted that there are also other accents in the UK that are of equal importance. (Cruttenden 2014, 77)

As Heniz J. Giegerich states, Received Pronunciation is mainly spoken by people of upper-middle and upper middle class and also newsreaders of the broadcasting network BBC throughout the whole England (2006, 44). Because of the fact that this non-regional accent is spoken by most newsreaders of network BBC it is, in some works, marked as BBC pronunciation. However, this name can be misleading as some readers might think that BBC has its own official accent, as Roach implies. Although many BBC newsreaders speak RP English, there are also many of those who do not. Roach suggests that every broadcaster has their own specific features and he also suggests the fact that there are plenty of broadcasters from Scotland, Wales, or Ireland that have their own specific accent (Roach 2016, 4). Crystal agrees with Roach stating the fact that it is true that in the beginnings of BBC broadcasting, the majority of the broadcasters were speaking RP English and that RP English and BBC English were interchangeable. However, he says that nowadays there are more broadcasters speaking their regional accents than using RP English. (2002, 64-65)

Another term that can be used for RP English is General British (GB). The first time the term General British was used was in Lewis' book: *A Concise Pronouncing Dictionary of British and American English,* where he suggests that the term RP English is fairly archaic and therefore, he suggests a better term that is 'General British' (Lewis 1972, 14). Cruttenden agrees with Lewis, saying that General British is in a good parallel with the standard American accent called 'General American'. He suggests that one of the reasons for using the term General British is the fact that it is spoken by more speakers than RP. He states that GB is mainly spoken in south-east England, but, to some extent, it is also spoken in the south-west and north of England, Scotland and Wales. (2014, 80-81) On the other hand, Hughes, Trudgill and Watt says that RP English is only spoken by 3-5 percent of the whole English population. (2012, 4)

Cruttenden also introduces the terms CGB (Conspicuous General British) and RGB (Regional General British). The first accent is mainly associated with upper-class speakers and those who attended public schools. However, not many people speak this type of accent anymore and it is mainly connected with older speakers. RGB is a mixture of GB and regional accent. There is a clear distinction between a regional accent and RGB, the main one being that RGB has to include a great deal more GB features. (2014, 81-82)

There are many other names that this standard British accent has been given. A few examples are: Standard Southern British English (Hughes, Trudgill and Watt 2012, 3), the Queen's English, or Public School Pronunciation (Agha 2003, 236). Irrespective of what the name is, all these accents are generally the same. Even though the non-regional accent can carry various names, it carries the same notion that it is the standard British accent, which is being taught to non-native learners and is commonly used in by newsreaders on the BBC.

The author of this thesis has decided to use in this work the term RP English. She believes that although "this accent carries as much prestige as it attracts social prejudice" (Giegerich 2006, 44) she, as a non-native speaker does not feel that the name is pejorative. She also believes that it is still the most common term used for this accent, at least in the Czech Republic.

2.2 Key features of RP English

Due to the fact that there are many resources concerning RP English and the standard British accent, it is crucial to define all the phonemes that represent RP English. For this, the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) will be used. IPA is a "set of symbols and conventions adopted by the International Phonetic Association as a universal system for the transcription of speech sounds" (Roach 2010, 110). This alphabet was firstly published in 1888 and it has been revised many times, most recently in 2015. (Britannica 2018) The revised International Phonetic Alphabet Kiel is included in Appendix 1.

Received Pronunciation has 44 phonemes. Those can be divided into 20 vowels and diphthongs and 22 consonants. In this thesis, triphthongs are not perceived as one phoneme, but as a combination of five closing diphthongs /eɪ, aɪ, ɔɪ, əʊ, aʊ/ and a schwa /ə/, as Roach suggests. (2009, 19)

As stated previously in section 1.2, the main difference between two accents is in their vowel system. Due to this fact, RP English will be observed as followed: all the vowels appearing in RP English will be described and presented with words where they occur. However, not all the consonants will be mentioned, but only those, that differ throughout the accents.

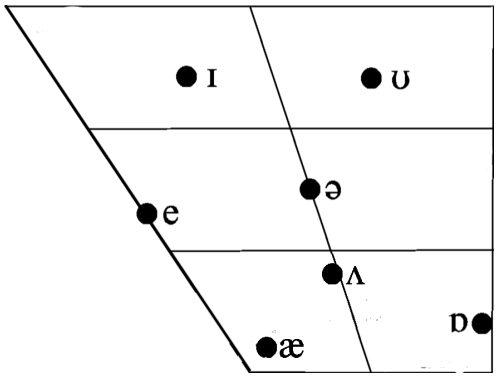
2.2.1 Vowels

There are 20 vowels in RP according to Roach (2010, 48). However, in some other literature, sometimes only 19 vowels can be found, with the phoneme /ə/ omitted due to the fact that it is weak. (Wells 1998, 119) On the other hand, some literature implies that there is a greater number of vowels than the standard 20. (Cruttenden and Gimson 2014, 96). For purposes of this thesis it will be sufficient enough to define these twenty vowels, including the phoneme /ə/. Those twenty vowels are divided into three categories and those are: short vowels, long vowels and diphthongs (Roach 2010, 48).

When describing vowels, the classification according to the position of the tongue is necessary. As Roach suggests, there are two variables that are studying the tongue. One is the position of the tongue in relation to the roof of the mouth. The second one is whether the front or the back part of the tongue is raised. (2009, 11 – 12). These vowels, where the tongue is close to the roof of the mouth are referred to as *close* vowels, on the other hand, when the width between the tongue and the roof of the mouth is bigger, those vowels are referred to as *open* vowels. (Roach 2009, 11) The second variable that is being studied in relation to the position of the tongue can be either *front* or *back*. *Front* vowels are those, where the front part of the tongue is raised, when the back part of the tongue is raised, these vowels are called *back*. (Roach 2009, 12)

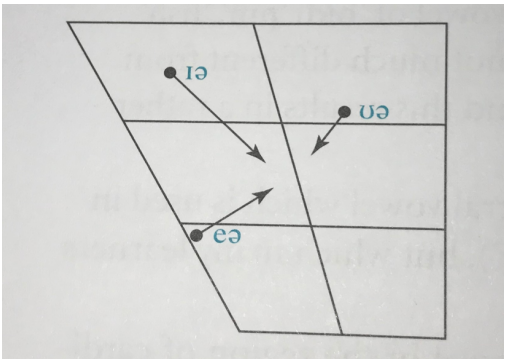
With the description of the position of vowels a diagram including *primary cardinal vowels* shall be taken into consideration. Altogether there are eight cardinal vowels (see Figure 8; Roach 2009, 12), each of them representing different tongue positions. Cruttenden and Gimson suggest that the cardinal vowels 1 – 5 are pronounced with either spread or open lips, on the other hand, cardinal vowels 6 – 8 are pronounced with rounded lips. (2014, 36)

Figure 2



There are seven short vowels, five long vowels and eight diphthongs. Short vowels are /ɪ/, /e/, /ʌ/, /æ/, /ɒ/, /ʊ/ and /ə/. These vowels can be described according to tongue placement. (see Fig 3; Chris_m_language. 2016, adjusted by Karolína Rathauská)

Figure 3



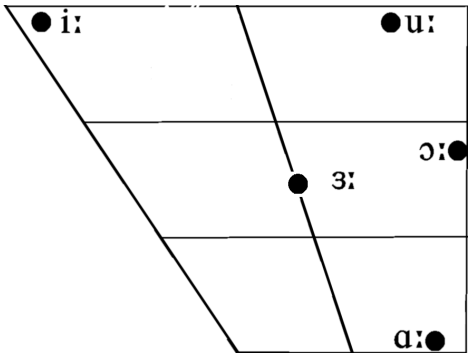
Even though these vowels are considered short, the length of the vowel depends on its position within a text. For example, the length of the vowel /æ/ can be as long as the length of long vowels. (Gimson and Cruttenden 2014, 98; Roach 2009, 13) As it was previously mentioned, the phoneme /ə/ is not always considered to be a vowel. The reason why some phoneticians do not consider this phoneme, also known as *schwa*, as a short vowel is the fact that it only occurs in unstressed syllables and as a weak form.

The five long vowels are /iː/, /ɜː/, /ɑː/, /ɔː/ and /uː/. The phonemic transcription of long vowels always consists of one vowel plus a symbol of two dots that are placed above each other and that most likely resembles colon – /ː/. This symbol is also called a length mark. (Roach 2009, 16). However, as it is suggested in Volín, some resources do not use the length mark when transcribing long vowels. This is due to the reason, he suggests,

that the length does not depend on the phoneme, but on what type of consonants it is followed by, whether the syllable is stressed or unstressed, also if the word the vowel occurs in is monosyllabic or polysyllabic and also whether the long vowel is or is not placed in the final stress of the sentence. (Volín 2002, 14) Cruttenden and Gimson agree with Volín and they describe certain phenomena where the long vowels are shortened. (2014, 100 – 101) For example, they describe the fact that when long vowels /iː/, /ɔː/ and /uː/ are followed by voiceless consonant, their length is two times shorter than if these vowels were followed by voiced consonants. (Cruttenden and Gimson 2014, 100).

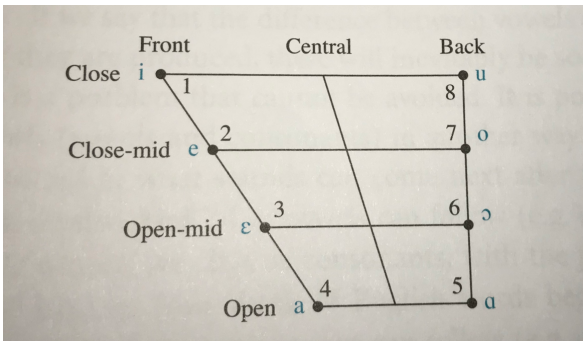
The position of the tongue in long vowels can be described by Fig 4. (Chris_m_language. 2016, adjusted by Karolína Rathauská)

Figure 4



The last type of vowels that are in RP English are diphthongs. They are acombination of two short vowels that glide together. Lengthwise, they are closer to long vowels (Roach 2009, 17) There are eight diphthongs that can be subdivided into two categories according to where in the vowel diagram they aim. The first category are known as *centring* diphthongs that always end in /ə/, which is where they glide to. As shown in Fig 3, schwa appears in the centre of the diagram, hence the name ‘centring’. There are three centring diphthongs and those are /ɪə/, /eə/ and /ʊə/. / As Roach suggest, the diphthong /ʊə/ is fairly rare and it is often being replaced by the long vowel /ɔː/ (2009, 17-18). Those diphthongs are presented in Fig 5 (Roach 2009, 18)

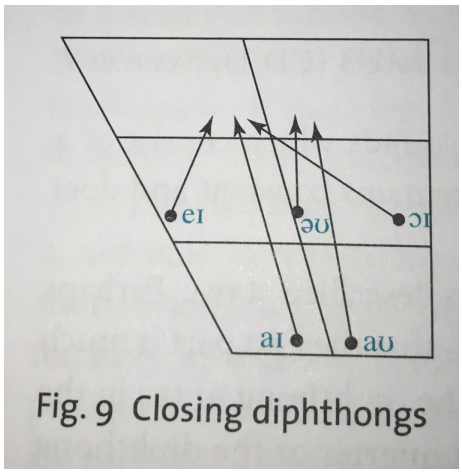
Figure 5



The second category of diphthong is called *closing*, and those diphthongs end either in /ɪ/, or /ʊ/. Those two short vowels are in the close/close-mid part of the vowel diagram. There are five closing diphthongs. (Roach 2009, 17) Diphthongs ending in /ɪ/ are /eɪ/, /aɪ/ and /ɔɪ/. There are two diphthongs that glide towards /ʊ/ and they are /əʊ/ and /aʊ/.

Closing diphthongs are presented in Fig 6. (Roach 2009, 18)

Figure 6



2.2.2 Consonants

Considering the fact, that there are not that many differences in consonants throughout the various accent in the United Kingdom, only a few will be mentioned. Those, that are mentioned do vary in different accents. According to Wells, there are four consonants that alter. They are voiceless and voiced dental fricatives /θ/ and /ð/. Another consonant that, according to Wells, can differ in various accent is a nasal /ŋ/. This nasal consonant

never occurs in initial position. The last consonant that Wells mentions, and which can occur in accent variations is the glottal fricative /h/. (1998, 178)

3 Accent variation

The study of accent variation is fairly broad, and many different disciplines have been studying it in recent times. The two main ones are sociophonetics and sociolinguistics. Apart from these two areas, accent variation can also be studied by psycholinguistics, clinical linguistics, or theoretical phonology (Foulkes, Scobbie and Watt 2010, 704) and it can also be studied by sociophonology, urban dialectology, or variationist sociolinguistics (Foulkes, Docherty 2014, 4). For the purposes of this thesis, it will be sufficient to take into consideration and to study into more depth only the first two disciplines and those are sociophonetics and sociolinguistics.

Sociolinguistic, that has started growing since the late 1960s, can be defined as: "the study of language in relation to society" (Hudson 2011, 1) That means that not only is English (or any other language) as a means of communication studied, but also the speakers who use the language. These two factors are studied on the same level. Labov also mentions that from the beginning of sociolinguistics, acoustic analysis was used and so a subcategory of sociolinguistics was created thereafter known as sociophonetics. (2006, 501)

The term sociophonetics has been used since the year 1979, where it was introduced at the International Congress of Phonetic Sciences (Foulkes, Scobbie and Watt 2010, 703). Sociophonetics studies phonetics variations in speech from the socially conditioned point of view. (Hay and Drager 2007, 90) Therefore it relies on the terms and research that are discussed in sociolinguistics and uses them in phonetics. Foulkes and Docherty state that even though sociophonetics has a long history, its definition is rather vague. What is more, they mention the fact that this term is not even mentioned in many dictionaries and that it first appeared in David Crystal's Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics in 2003. (2006, 410) Considering the fact that this term was first started to be used in 1979, sociophonetics has not been a well-established field for a long time. Foulkes and Docherty also mention the fact that in some works sociophonetics and sociolinguistics have been used as near-synonyms. (Foulkes, Docherty 2006, 410)

Foulkes and Docherty (2014, 5-6) declare that for studying accent variations, sociolinguistics is a broad term that includes various different categories that do not affect speakers' pronunciation. They also suggest that there is a great number of fields studying accent variations, however, there is not one clear discipline which would include all the important factors that one needs for studying accent variation. Because of the fact, they established the term *accent studies* which merges all the disciplines needed for studying accent variations. (Foulkes and Docherty 2014, 5-6)

In this part of the thesis, the main factors of social variations in connection to pronunciation will be discussed. That means that those variables will be looked at from both the sociolinguistics and sociophonetics point of view at the same time.

Firstly, the question arises as to what social varieties, which are important to *accent studies*, should be considered. Foulkes and Docherty believe that the main factors that influence speakers' pronunciation are class, sex, age and ethnicity. (Foulkes and Docherty 2007, 53). Wells suggests that speakers' accent differ in relation to geographical region and social class, then sex, age group and level of education. (1998, 1). Carr and Honeybone introduce influencing accent diversity age, sex and social class of the speaker as the main factors (2007, 143).

The author of this thesis has decided to focus mainly on age and social class. However, the level of education will also be taken into consideration. Speaker's sex will also be briefly mentioned, but it is important to note that it is not the most significant concern of this work.

3.1 Age

There are two factors that should be considered concerning age. The first one is biological age and the second one is life stages. (Britain 2007, 56)

Wells discusses biological age, which relates to physiological changes in a way where a boy or a girl grows into a man or a woman and then they eventually grow into an elderly man or an elderly woman. He says that this bodily change affects the way a person speaks, however it does not affect one's accent. (1998, 23)

Life stages can be divided into three main categories: childhood, adolescence and adulthood. (Foulkes, Scobbie, and Watt 2010, 710). Hudson adds one more life stage that is babyhood. (2011, 14)

3.1.1 Babyhood

The main linguistic models for babies are their parents and other carers such as nannies, au-pairs etc. At this stage the speaker, that is the baby, does not use any coherent language, only 'baby-talk' such as 'dada' or 'mama'. The linguistic model (parents or a childminder) also mimic this baby-talk when addressing the baby. (Hudson 2011, 14)

3.1.2 Childhood

The predominant linguistic models are children of the speaker's age, or older children. If those models speak differently than parents of the speaker, it is possible that the child has started using linguistic variations from other children. (Hudson 2011, 14). Hudson also mentions that at this stage, so-called "age-grading pattern" appears. This phenomenon is a pattern where the speaker (in this case a child) uses diverse archaic forms of the language, mainly because of various nursery-rhymes that the speaker is exposed to. Hudson says, that the pattern of age-grading disappears with the following life stage. (2011, 15)

3.1.3 Adolescence

Foulkes and Docherty see this category as the most important. (2007, 56) At this stage, the speaker shifts away from the family linguistic model and the main influence is of the social role of their peer group. (Foulkes, Scobbie, and Watt 2010, 710) Hudson agrees with this statement and he also emphasises the fact that at this stage it is impossible for the speaker to learn a new dialect perfectly. (2011, 15) Wells states that once the speaker has gone through puberty, he or she does not alter their accent. (1998, 23)

3.1.4 Adulthood

Even thought at this stage there still is some scope for change (Hudson 2011, 16), the key factor is that the speaker changes their language varieties according to their career choices and their market value. (Foulkes, Scobbie, and Watt 2010, 711; Hudson 2011, 16). Hudson adds that at this life stage, the most important factor for the speaker is: region, age, sex and social class. (2011, 16)

Foulkes, Scobbie, and Watt also mention that except for life stages, the speaker can also show marked linguistic differences in relation to various important historical or social events. They mention the study by Al Shareef who analysed people's dialect, who migrated to Gaza and he divided them into two age groups according to whether they

were adults during the migration, or not. If the people reached adulthood before migration, they did not change their local dialects. (2010, 710)

Wells sees age-grading patterns differently than Hudson. He states that if at a certain time a certain pronunciation pattern changes, we can divide people into three groups according to age and to the fact if they start using and accept the new phenomenon. He says that all people under 45 years will accept the change and start using the new pronunciation, for people between 45-55 only some of them will start using the new change and nobody above the age 55 will use the current pronunciation. (1998, 24)

3.2 Social class

It is very difficult to identify social classes. This it is mainly due to the fact that social classes have not been properly discussed and defined in relation to linguistic studies. (Ash 2013, 350). Even though Karl Marx or Max Weber identified and defined social classes (Ash 2013, 351), those facts cannot be used in the society of 21st century. This is because there is no clear identification of social classes that the majority of authors would agree on. As a result, some various researches and publications will be presented and summarised.

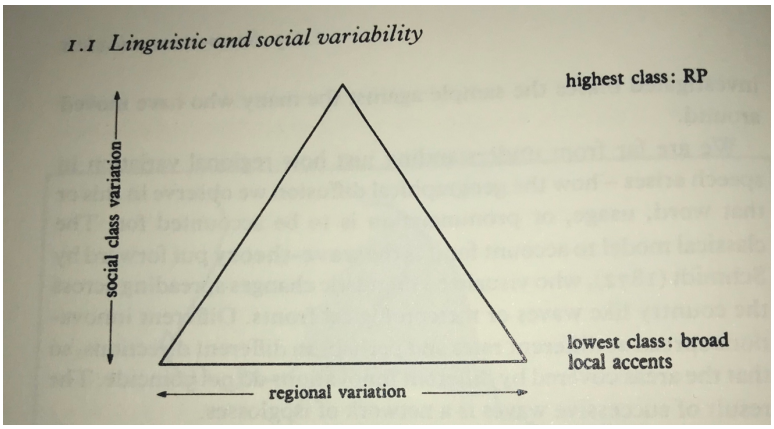
3.2.1 David Crystal

David Crystal suggests, that there is a hierarchical social grouping that organises people according to similarities in their social and economic characteristics. Those characteristics are: “family lineage, occupation, education and material possessions”. (2007, 309). He also states that a crucial indicator of a social class is accent and dialect. He says that people have a general idea about what they regard as educated and a high-level accent and dialect and what they regard as a low and uneducated one. (Crystal 2007, 309) However, he does not present any definition about how this can be distinguished.

3.2.2 J. C. Wells

J.C. Wells agrees with Crystal on the fact that social class is described in relation between social accent and regional accent. He uses a triangle diagram (Figure 7) where it is shown that the lower the class is, the more prominent the speaker’s local accent is. This means that working-class has the most notable local accent and upper and upper-middle classes have no local accent. Having no local accent means that the speaker uses RP English, which is a non-regional accent. (Wells 1998, 14)

Figure 7



Wells also shows the importance of accent in relation to social class on a survey that was held in 1972 by National Opinion Poll (quoted in Wells 1998, 15), where they ask respondents across the United Kingdom to name factors that, according to them, are the most important when identifying one's social class. The most common answer was the speaker's accent, followed by the person's occupation, education and income. (1998, 15) Another piece of research is mentioned in Wells (1998, 16), and that is the research methodology by William Labov in 1966 (quoted in Wells 1998, 16).

This work was carried out in New York and it states that the social system is divided into three classes: middle class, working class and lower class. Wells says that Labov determined the division according to monetary income, education and job status. The higher these three criterions are, the higher the social class of the person is in, with the highest being middle class. Wells mentions that Labov did not include upper class in his research and he attributes this to the fact that Labov's research was done in the Lower East Side of New York and that it is possible that there were either none, or only a small amount of people from that class. (Wells 1998, 16)

3.2.3 Sharon Ash

Ash states that the most important feature of social class is the person's occupation. She divides people into two groups according to their type of work. She says that those who work non-manually, are rated as a higher social class than the people who work manually.

On the other hand, she notes that it can be common for manual workers to earn more than lower-level non-manual workers. Nevertheless, Ash states that the division of people into social classes according to their occupation is a fairly accepted method in

social science research. (Ash 2013, 351). Ash also gives an example of a social study done by the social anthropologist W. Lloyd Warner who studied people form Yankee City in New England, U.S.A. She mentions the fact that Warner realised that he needed to learn more about the citizens than their occupation.

As a result of this, he also studied their education, family, speech and many more variables that were important for that society. Due to this fact, Ash points out that every research of this kind has to be adapted specifically to the particular place and people who are being studied. (Ash 2013, 351).

Ash (2013, 361) also identifies three factors which need to be considered when ascertaining the relationship between variable language use and social class. They are:

3.1.1. Stable variation – how an accent feature changes naturally with age.

3.1.2. Change from above – how an individual alters a feature of their consciously.

3.1.3. Change from below – how an individual alters a feature of their accent sub-consciously.

Linguistic variables that can occur in 'change from above' or 'stable variation' can be both stigmatized or prestige forms (the features seen as the least and most desired in an accent). However, with change from below – sub-conscious changes – there are no important links between stigmatized and prestige forms (Ash 2013, 361). In other words, changes in accent that give it more or less prestige do not occur sub-consciously, but rather consciously, possibly to fit in with the social class around the individual, or naturally as a result of age.

3.2.4 Ann-Marie Bathmaker et al.

Ann-Marie Bathmaker et al.'s book focuses primarily on this subject of how many students going to study at universities (in this case UWE Bristol and the University of Bristol) come from a working-class environment in comparison to a middle-class environment. They were looking for the best way to detect the students' social class.

At first, the authors mention the Great British Class Survey that was held in 2011. (2016, 22) This survey's goal was to create a new model of social class in the UK. This survey implies that social class is not only about financial resources and occupation, but it is also about the way people see themselves and connections they have with others.

Bathmaker et al. agrees that social class cannot be identified strictly on "economic capital" and that it is important to encounter other variables. Unfortunately, there are considerable problems in the ability to measure these other variables. (2016, 22)

For this reason, that the above-mentioned model is almost impossible to determine, the official definition for social class is done using the National Statistics Socio-Economic Classification, also known as NS-SEC. This was used by Bathmaker et al. to classify social class of the students' parents. They used NS-SEC that is made of eight categories. Those categories are:

> 1 - Higher managerial, administrative and professional occupations, 2 – Lower managerial, administrative and professional occupations, 3 – Intermediate occupations, 4 – Small employers and own account workers, 5 – Lower supervisory and technical occupations, 6 – Semi-routine occupations, 7 – Routine occupations, 8 – Never worked and long-term unemployed. (The Office for National Statistics 2010, 13)

(The table is included in Appendix 2)

Bathmaker at al. divided those eight categories into two social classes. They classified occupations from categories 1-3 as middle-class and categories 4-8 as working-class. They mentioned that some problems may occur when using only these categories, so they have also decided to take into consideration the parents' education of the student, the type of school the student attended previously (they mainly took into account whether they had attended private or state school) and also their own interpretation of social class. (Bathmaker et al. 2016, 26)

Taking all those authors into consideration, it can be said that overall there are three factors which are the most important in detecting people's social class. Those three factors are: education, occupation and prominence of local accent. For the purpose of this thesis, when detecting people's social class those factors will be taken into consideration. When defining people's occupation, the NS-SEC will be used the same way Bathmaker et al. detected it.

3.3 Sex

When it comes to sex and gender, the main concern is from the linguistics point of view. They focus on the usage of gender-unequal words and the usage of male pronouns even when it is unknown whether the person is a male or female. The same concerns various

occupations, for example terms as: chairman, salesman etc. that are strongly viewed as sexists by some females. (Crystal 2007, 309-310)

Another aspect of sex difference that concerns phoneticians is also the physical proportions that are distinct in males and females. That is, for example, the anatomical difference of vocal chords and therefore different production of certain phonemes. (Foulkes, Scobbie and Watt 2010, 712)

Foulkes and Docherty state, that many studies demonstrated that some phonological resources have been exploited differently by males and females. They say that various studies have shown that males tend to express more vernacular forms than women because women are more affected by the standard language. (2007, 56)

4 Derbyshire and Derbyshire accent

This section of the thesis focuses on the county of Derbyshire, where the recordings examined in Section 5 were taken. Firstly, the location and geography of the county of Derbyshire will be discussed, then the most prominent accent variations in the area will be introduced.

4.1 Geography

The county Derbyshire is a part of the East-Midlands region. It is located in north-central England (Oxford University Press 2005, 121) and its population is around 1.037 million people with an area 2550km^2. The council headquarters are located in the town of Matlock. (Wolfram, 2019)

When talking about East-Midlands regions, it is difficult to define whether it is in the northern part of the UK or in the south. This distinction is also important due to the accent of its citizens and also whether it inclines more towards southern styles of pronunciation or northern. This issue will be discussed in 4.2.

The issue about whether the East Midlands and therefore Derbyshire belong to the north or to the south was researched by Natalie Braber, who questioned 327 17-18 year-old students from various parts of the East-Midlands, including Derbyshire, and asked them whether they see themselves as *Northerners* (people from the north of England) or *Southerners* (People from the south of England). In Derbyshire, 7% of the pupils answered that they consider themselves as Northerners, 7% as Southerners and 14%

added one more answer that was *Midlanders*. The rest of the students left this question unanswered. (Braber 2014, 7). This shows some ambiguity within its own people as to where the county belongs.

Derby is the biggest and the only city in Derbyshire. Its population is around 248 700 people (Wolfram, 2019). It is mainly an industrial city, historically producing silk and pottery and nowadays is home to a Rolls-Royce factory. (Foulkes and Docherty, 48) Rolls-Royce located in Derby manufactures airplane engines and they employ around 14,000 people from the county. (Rolls-Royce, 2019)

4.2 Accent

As it was mentioned above, even though some people do not consider Derbyshire as a northern part of England, this region carries some of the typical features of norther accent. Cruttenden and Gimson define these specific aspects by having standardised northern pronunciation as General Northern English. (2014, 91). They define the differences that occurs in more northern England in comparison with RP English. General Northern English (GNE) only takes into consideration the northern part of England, therefore this does not include Scotland as it has its own standardized accent.

4.2.1 RP /ʌ/ vs GNE /ʊ/

The first distinction between RP and GNE, that is introduced by Cruttenden and Gimson, is the fact, that in GNE there is no distinction between the phonemes /ʊ/ and /ʌ/, those two are most commonly pronounced in GNE as /ʊ/. (2014, 91). Examples of that phenomenon might be words such as: *bus* (RP: /bʌs/, GNE: /bʊs/), *duck* (RP: /dʌk/, GNE: /dʊk/), or *love* (RP: /lʌv/, GNE: /lʊv/). However, there are some exceptions, where the phoneme /ʊ/ does not occur and this fact appears in words as *mother* and *come*. (Scollins and Titford 2000, 20) It is implied in Wells that there are not strictly only those two vowel qualities, but this phoneme can also be pronounced as /ə/, or also a mid-back [ʊ̟]. (2000, 352)

Both Wells and Cruttenden and Gimson agree on the fact, that sometimes hypercorrection can occur in GNE, the speakers are trying to avoid pronouncing /ʊ/ and they exchange it for the phoneme /ʌ/. This aspect is created in the event when a speaker from the north of England is attempting to incline towards RP English. This phenomenon occurs in words such as *cushion* (RP: /ˈkʊʃən/, GNE trying to incline to RP: /ˈkʌʃən/) or

sugar (RP: /ˈʃʊgə/; GNE avoiding their accent: /ˈʃʌgə/) (Wells 2000, 353; Cruttenden and Gimson 2014, 92)

4.2.2 RP /ʊ/ vs GNE /uː/

It is implied by Cruttenden and Gimson that in some words in GNE, the phoneme /ʊ/ can be replaced by the phoneme /uː/. This can appear in words *book* (GNE: /buːk/) or *cook* (GNE: /kuːk/). (2014, 92)

4.2.3 RP /ɑː/ vs GNE /a/

Another common feature of GNE that is recognised in Derbyshire accent is the disappearance of the phoneme /ɑː/ after either a voiceless fricative or a nasal. This phoneme is replaced mainly by /a/. Examples of this phenomenon are words such as: glass (RP: /glɑːs/, GNE: /glas/), or path (RP: /pɑːθ/, GNE: /paθ/). (Cruttenden and Gimson 2014, 92; Wells 2000, 353) However, Foulkes and Docherty mention the fact that Derbyshire accent does not use /a/ in some lexical items such as *aunt*, *father* or *calf* (in those words, the phoneme /ɑː/ is used). (2014, 49)

4.2.4 weak and strong prefixes

Northern accents tend to maintain a strong vowel in prefixes, where, in RP English the phoneme /ə/ is pronounced. The strong vowels occur in closed syllables, usually with prefixes from Latin origin, for example: *ad-* , *con-* , *ex-* (e.g. computer, RP: /kəmˈpjuːtə/, GNE: /kɒmˈpjuːtə/). However, the word stress does not shift and stays on the second syllable. (Cruttenden and Gimson 2014, 92; Wells 2000, 363). Nonetheless, it is not clear as to whether this lexical incidence is also apparent in Derbyshire accent. Therefore, this will be researched in Section 5.

4.2.5 RP /ɜː/

The last monophthong that differs in GNE and RP is /ɜː/. Traditionally, this vowel was pronounced with the phoneme /ɒ/, however this pronunciation nowadays occurs only in rural parts of Derbyshire and with older speakers. A more common variety is the phoneme [əː], raised [ɨː], or the phoneme /eə/. (Foulkes and Docherty 2014, 49; Wells 2000, 361; Scollins and Titford 2000, 23) This pronunciation occurs for example in the word *learn* (RP: /lɜːn/, GNE: /lɒn/, [ləːn], [lɨːn], or /leən/).

4.2.6 RP /eɪ/

The diphthong /eɪ/ can be replaced by monophthongs [eː] or /e/. (Cruttenden and Gimson 2014, 92) This substitution only occurs in a limited set of words such as: *shake* (RP: /ʃeɪk/, GNE: /ʃeːk/, or /ʃek/), *great* (RP: /greɪt/, GNE: /greːt/, or /gret/), *make* (RP: /meɪk/, GNE: /meːk/, or /mek/), or *take* (RP: /teɪk/, GNE: /teːk/, or /tek/) and can be noticed in the speech of older speakers. (Foulkes and Docherty 2014, 49; Scollins and Titford 2000, 21)

4.2.7 RP /aɪ/

The second, closing diphthong /aɪ/ can have many varieties in GNE. In Derbyshire, it is pronounced the same as in RP for middle-class speakers, however there are variations for working-class speakers which, as it is stated in Foulkes and Docherty, differ for males and females. They state that for a working-class male, the variety is [ɒɪ], whereas the diphthong /aɪ/ is used by females, however, the first part is prolonged, and the second part of the diphthong is weakened [aːːᵎ]. Foulkes and Docherty also explain that in older working-class speakers the diphthong can be replaced by the phoneme /iː/, typically in words such as *night* (RP: /naɪt/, working-class GNE: males [nɒɪt]; females [naːːᵎt]; older working-class: /niːt/), or *right* (RP: /raɪt/, working-class GNE: males [rɒɪt]; females [raːːᵎt]; older working-class: /riːt/). (2014, 50)

4.2.8 RP /ŋ/ vs GNE /ŋg/

Concerning consonants, there is one specific feature in GNE, this involves the velar nasal /ŋ/. Whenever this phoneme occurs in Derbyshire accent, it is followed by the phoneme /g/, for example: *sing* (RP: /sɪŋ/; GNE: /sɪŋg/), or *wrong* (RP: /rɒŋ/; GNE: /rɒŋg/). This happens in almost all cases and also throughout all social classes. (Roach 2009, 53; Wells 2000, 366)

All the variations concerning the difference between RP and GNE accent can be seen in Figure 8. (Karolína Rathauská)

Figure 8

Accent	
RP	**Derbyshire**
/ʌ/	/ʊ/
/ʊ/	/uː/

/ɑː/	/a/
weak vowel in prefixes	strong vowel in prefixes
/ɜː/	/ɒ/, [əː], [ɨː], /eə/
/eɪ/	[eː], /e/
/aɪ/	[ɒɪ], /aɪ/, [aːːɪ], /iː/
/ŋ/	/ŋg/

There are further variations, concerning Derbyshire accent, that can be found. However, these features are becoming less common due to the fact that rural areas, where the local accent is the most prominent, are becoming less inhabited, or the contrast between rural and city population is less dominant. (Foulkes and Docherty 2014, 48)

5 Recordings analysis

This section examines the recordings of 24 speakers living near the city of Derby in the county of Derbyshire. The recordings were made in July 2016 and all the speakers agreed on being recorded for the purposes of this thesis and all allowed their first names to be used as well. The selection of the speakers was done so the range of ages and social classes was as diverse as possible. All the speakers spent their childhood and adolescence in Derbyshire. Most of the speakers are still living in Derbyshire, some of them moved out and live in other parts of the UK, one speaker lives in the Czech Republic.

When the speakers were being recorded, they were firstly familiarized with the procedure and were told for what purposes are being recorded, even though the details were not mention in order for the speakers to stay unbiased and do not alter their accent. After this introduction an unscripted part took place. The speakers were asked to talk about themselves. Firstly, they were asked about their name and year of their birth. Then questions concerning the place of their upbringing were asked. These were: *How long have you lived in Derbyshire? Were your parents born in Derbyshire?* These two questions were asked in order to detect whether the speaker comes from Derbyshire and for how many generations they have lived there. They were also asked what they liked the most about living in this area of the United Kingdom. The two following questions asked concerned the speakers' education and occupation. They were asked to talk about their school days and then about their career. These two questions were crucial for

analysing the speakers' social class. Another purpose of the first part of the recording of an unscripted text was the fact, that the author of the thesis met these speakers for the first time and vice versa. It was important to get aquatinted and then the speakers were more confident and therefore the recording of the scripted text was more understandable. All the speakers were willing to share all pieces of information they were asked.

In the second part of the recording, the speakers were given a text that they were asked to read. The text consists of 5 short paragraphs which is included in Appendix 3. In the text the speakers were reading, there were words intentionally included which should contain specific features of Derbyshire accent. This fact was not told to the speakers in order to avoid the speakers trying to either emphasise or suppress their strength of the accent. The features that the text contained were the differences between the vowel sounds: /ɑː/ and /a/, /ʌ/ and /ʊ/, /ʊ/ and /uː/, strong and weak vowels in prefixes and /ŋ/ and /ŋg/.

The aim of the analysis of these recording is to confirm or deny the fact that the older the speaker is and the lower their social class, the more prominent their regional accent is.

5.1 Division of the speakers

Concerning the age, the speakers were divided into three categories. These categories are: 30 years old and under, 31 – 56 years old and 57+. The first group will be referred to as *young adult*, the second one as *adult*, and those speakers that are 57 and older will be referred to in this thesis as *elderly*. Nine speakers are in the *young adult* group, eight are in the *adult* group and seven in *elderly* section.

When placing the speakers into social class, the simplified NS-SEC table was used, and every speaker was numbered according to their occupation. As it was mentioned in 3.2.4., all speakers with occupation rating from 1 to 3 are placed into *middle class* and whoever's occupation is 4-8, they are concerned as *working class*. However, occupation is not the only important factor when determining a person's social class. For this reason, education was taken into consideration. Due to this fact, Katherine and Alex L., who were placed in *working class* with number 4 were moved to *middle class* due to the fact that they have completed their university education, and each have a bachelor's degree. After this adjustment had been made, 13 speakers were placed into *middle class* and 11 speakers were placed into *working class*.

Tables showing all the Derbyshire speakers and their division according to age and social class can be found in Appendix 4.

5.2 Speech Analysis

For the recording analysis, the programmes *Praat* and *Audacity* were used. The programme *Audacity* was firstly used for obtaining the analysed recording. Then, with *Audacity*, the sound was adjusted so there are no background noises. What is more, the recording was also cut with this programme. However, because of the fact that the recordings were made at various places and locations when somewhere the background noise was more prominent then elsewhere, unfortunately not all the recordings are of the same quality. This fact could sometimes hinder the analysis and it will be mentioned when that occurred. The programme *Praat* was used for obtaining detailed information about certain words and phonemes. This free programme was mainly used for obtaining formants.

Formants, which are measured in Hertz, are used for characterising vowels. Four formants (F1, F2, F3, F4) can be found in Praat, however, only two formants (F1, F2) are sufficient enough for measuring vowels. Formants express the position of a tongue when pronouncing certain vowels. The first formant (F1) is always lower than the second formant (F2). Cruttenden and Gimson states, that if the tongue placement in the mouth is high, F1 is low and vice versa. (2014, 21). F2 represents the rise of the tongue. When the F2 is around 2200 – 20700 Hz, the tongue is in the front, when the tongue is at the back the F2 can be measured at around 1200 – 1400 Hz. (Cruttenden and Gimson 2014, 21). A table concerning vowel's F1 and F2 for both males and females is included in Appendix 5.

5.3 /ɑː/ and /a/ differences

As it was described in 4.2.3. GNE accent replaces the long vowel /ɑː/ with a short one /a/. This phenomenon occurs when /ɑː/ is followed by either a voiceless fricative or a nasal plus a second consonant. (Cruttenden and Gimson 2014, 125) The pattern is: */aː/ + voiceless fricative + C*, or */aː/ + nasal + C*

Words that were chosen for this phenomenon were: *after, grass, glass, ask, path* and *master*.

All these words, except for *after* and *master*, are monosyllabic with a primary stress on the studied vowel. Those chosen words are followed by a voiceless fricative. However, only the words *after*, *master* and *ask* are then followed by another consonant. In the sentences:

- … on the *grass* until it turned up.
- Straight *after* I got on, …
- … along the *path* behind me.
- … the world and *mastering* many skills.
- … my finger and the *glass* screen …
- … I *ask* my son …

As it can be seen, even though not all of the words follow the pattern */aː/ + voiceless fricative + C*, or */aː/ + nasal + C* on their own, in the sentences they are followed by a consonant. Therefore, in a sentence they create the pattern that Cruttenden and Gimson mentioned.

There is one exception and that is in the first sentence, where the fricative is followed by the word 'until', which can be transcribed as /ənˈtɪl/, this means that there is a schwa between the /s/ and /n/. In the second sentence, the word after is followed by the diphthong /aɪ/. However, the word after is followed by an intrusive 'r'.

These words will be studied as followed: the length of the pronunciation of the whole word, including the phoneme /ɑː/, will be measured, followed by the measurement of the length of the vowel /ɑː/ subsequently. From these lengths, the percentage of the usage of the phoneme /ɑː/ will be calculated.

The formula is: $percentage\ of\ the\ phoneme\ /ɑː/ = \frac{100 \times lenght\ of\ the\ phoneme\ /ɑː/}{length\ of\ the\ whole\ word}$

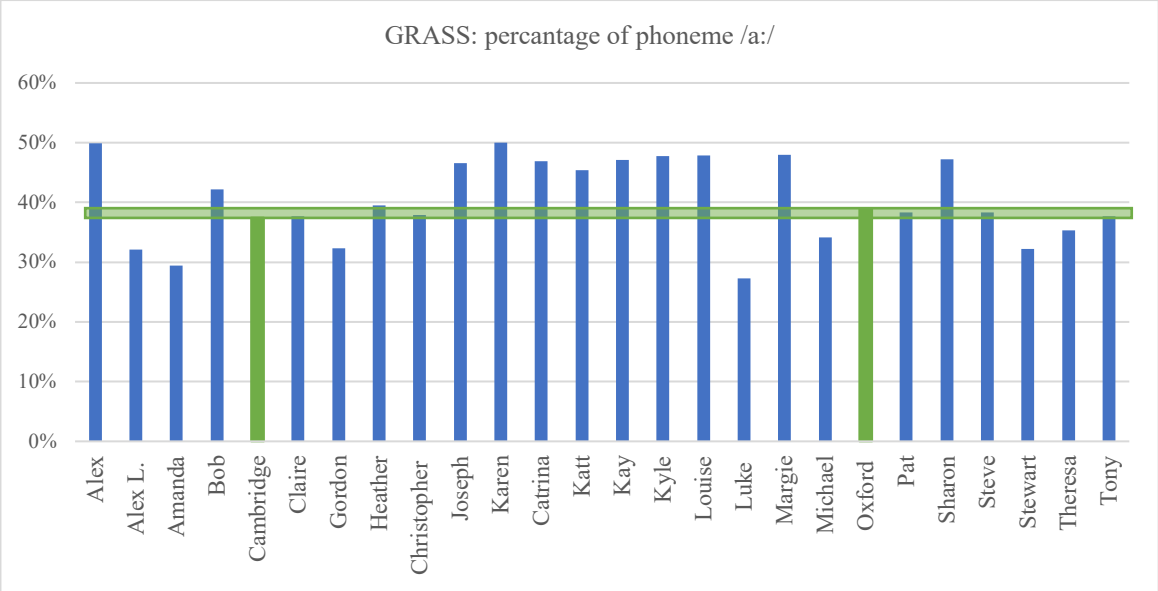
This percentage will be compared with the pronunciation of the given word as it is recorded in the online Oxford and Cambridge dictionary, which will be used as two examples of RP English.

The percentage, which is lower than in the Cambridge and Oxford dictionary will be regarded as the regional (Derbyshire) pronunciation. Any percentage which is the same or higher than Cambridge and Oxford dictionary is taken as RP English.

5.3.1 Grass

In the Oxford dictionary, the percentage of the phoneme /ɑː/ is 39.06%, while in the Cambridge dictionary it is 37.45%. Therefore, all the percentages that are lower than 37.45% will be considered as part of the Derbyshire accent.

Figure 9



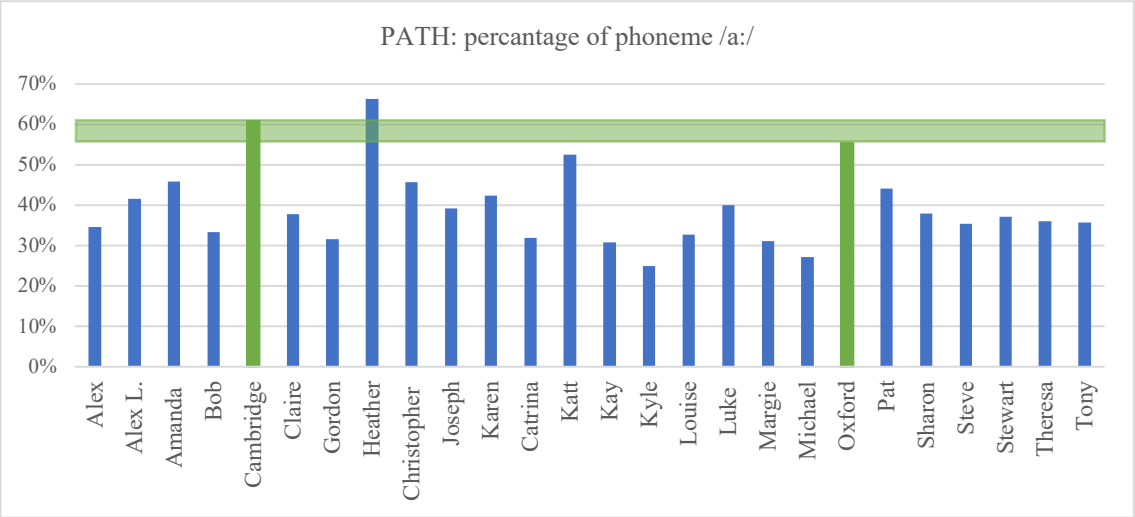
According to this table, the people with a strong, regional accent are: Alex L., Amanda, Gordon, Luke, Michael, Stewart and Theresa.

Altogether, there are only 7 out of 24 people that showed a strong Derbyshire accent out of which four are considered as *middle class* and three as *working class*. 3 people are placed in the *elderly* age group, 2 in the *adult* group and 2 in *young adult*. This rare occurrence might also be due to the fact which was mentioned in 5.3.

5.3.2 Path

Cambridge dictionary's percentage of the phoneme /ɑː/ is 60.86 %, for Oxford dictionary the percentage is 55.39%. Every speaker, whose phoneme /ɑː/ percentage is lower than 55.39%, will be considered to use the form in the Derbyshire accent.

Figure 10

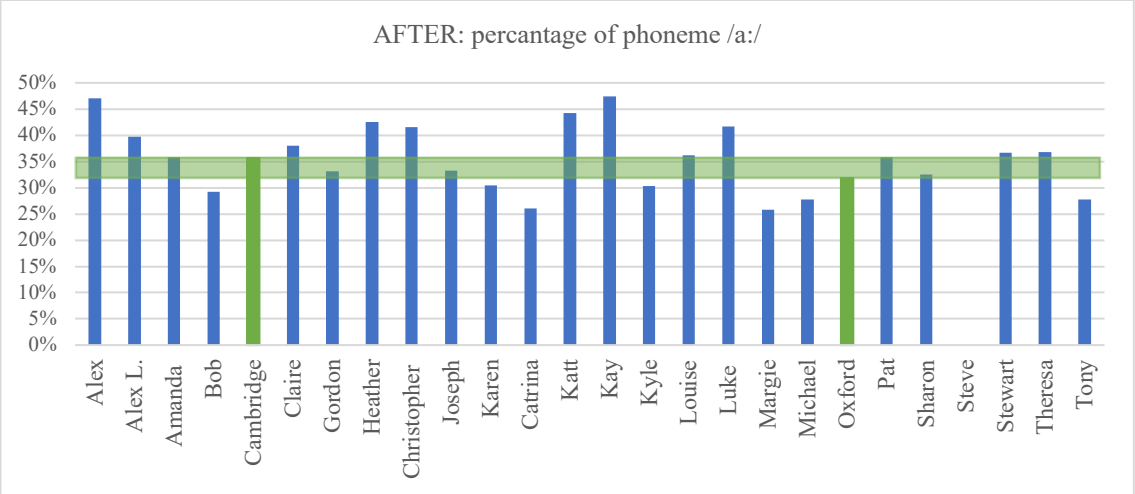


Surprisingly, there is only one person whose accent can be counted as RP and that is Heather who is placed in the *middle class* and *adult* age group. It should also be noted that a few speakers did not pronounce the word path as /pɑːθ/, but as /pas/.

5.3.3 After

In Oxford dictionary, the percentage of the phoneme /ɑː/ is 31.84% in Cambridge dictionary it is 35.67 %. Derbyshire accent is considered that speaker whose percentage of the phoneme /ɑː/ is lower than 31.48%.

Figure 11



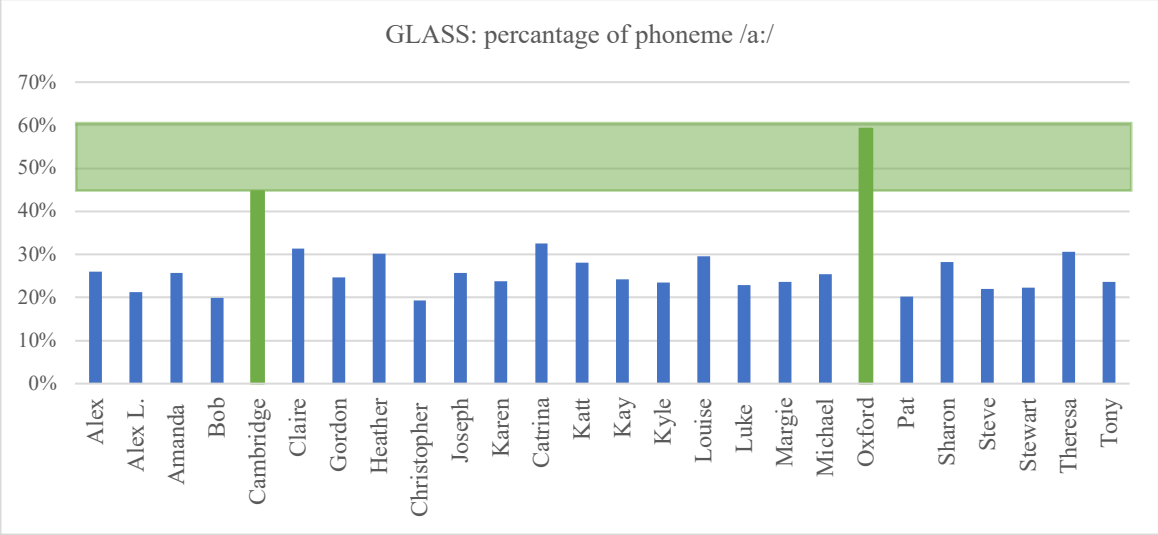
Steve did not read the word *after* therefore he cannot be taken into consideration when reflecting on this specific word.

The speakers who pronounced the word *after* in Derbyshire accent are: Bob, Karen, Catrina, Kyle, Margie, Michael and Tony. Two of them are *middle class* speakers, 5 of them *working class.* Two of the speakers are in the *young adult* age group, 2 in the *adult* age group and 3 in the *elderly* age group.

5.3.4 Glass

With the Cambridge dictionary having the percentage of the phoneme /ɑː/ at 44.66% and the Oxford dictionary at 59.19%, all the speakers that have the phoneme percentage below 44.66% are considered having Derbyshire accent.

Figure 12

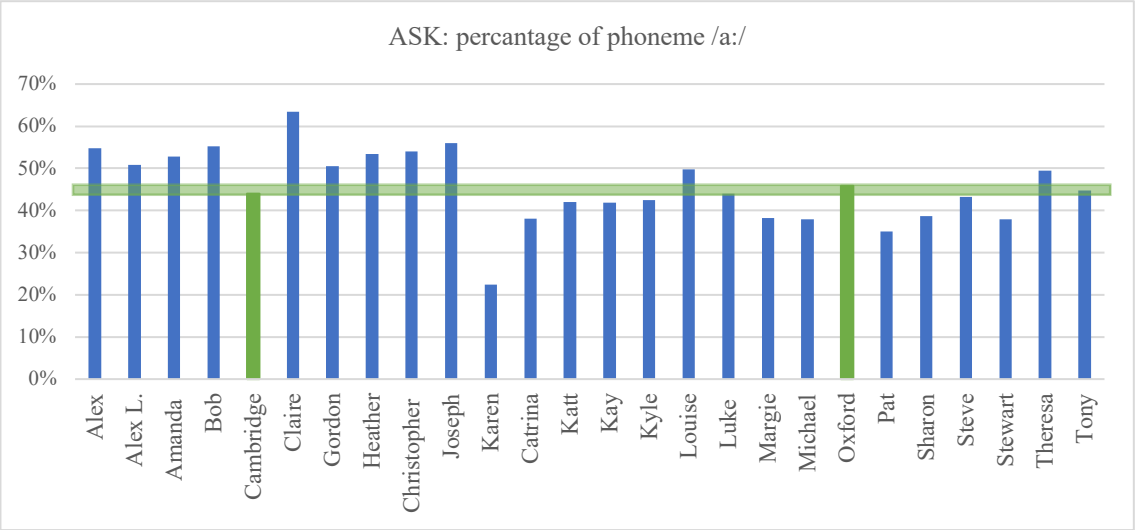


Even though the range between Oxford and Cambridge dictionary is the widest so far, none of the speakers' pronunciation appeared even close to the RP accent. This is caused primarily due to the text; the word *glass* is followed by *screen*. As Cruttenden and Gimson describe, this phenomenon is called *juncture*. They explain that if there is a word boundary between final the /s/ and initial /s/ (or other plosives or fricatives), the preceding vowel is reduced. (2014, 318) In the case of this recordings, the length of the phoneme /ɑː/ was shortened even more.

5.3.5 Ask

All the speakers whose percentage of the phoneme /ɑː/ is lower than 44.01% are considered as Derbyshire speakers, because the percentage of /ɑː/ in the Cambridge dictionary was 44.01% and in the Oxford dictionary 45.87%.

Figure 13

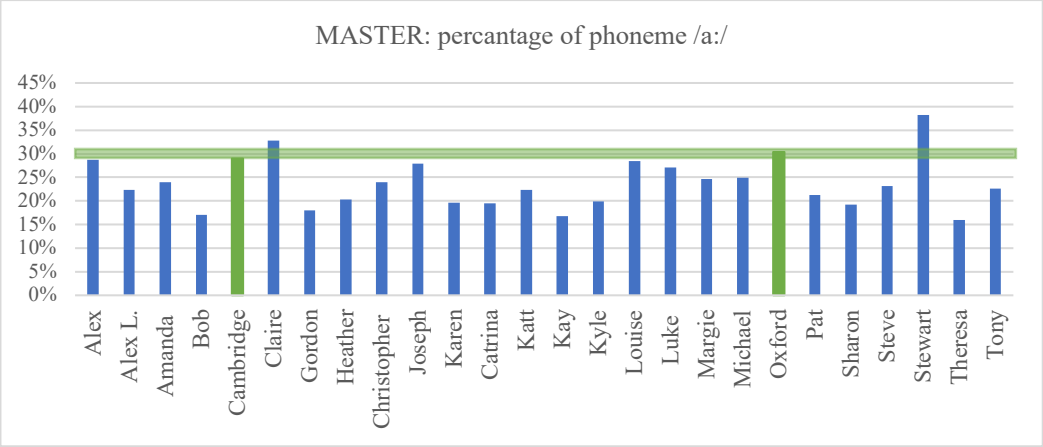


The word asked was pronounced with a Derbyshire accent by Karen, Catrina, Katt, Kay, Kyle, Margie, Michael, Sharon and Stewart. Six of these speakers are *middle class* and the remaining three *working class*. Three speakers belong to the *young adult* age group, four to the *adult* group and two in the *elderly* age group.

5.3.6 Master

The last word concerning the length of the vowel /ɑ:/ is 'master'. If the percentage of the phoneme /ɑ:/ is lower than 28.99% (Cambridge dictionary), those speakers are considered to be using the Derbyshire accent. The percentage of the vowel /ɑ:/ in the Oxford dictionary is 30.37%.

Figure 14



Only two speakers pronounced the word using RP pronunciation and two others' (Alex's and Louise') was fairly close to non-regional accent. Both two speakers whose

accent was RP are *middle class* ang one is in *young adult* age group and the other in *elderly.*

Overall, there was only one speaker who pronounced /a/ in all occurrences and that is Michael who is *middle class* and in *adult* age group. Four speakers pronounced the phoneme /a/ five times and those are: Catrina (*young adult, middle class*), Karen (*adult, working class*), Kyle (*young adult, working class*) and Margie (*elderly, working class*).

From the findings, it is clearly shown that age was not a key factor regarding the prominence of regional accent with this particular phoneme. On the other hand, only two out of five speakers with the most prominent Derbyshire accent were *middle class*. However, this is still probably not enough to separate any distinction between middle and working classes.

5.4 /ʌ/ and /ʊ/ differences

As mentioned in 4.2.1., with some exceptions, the words that have a phoneme /ʌ/ in RP English, in the north, speakers tend to pronounce this phoneme as /ʊ/. This incidence was measured by F1 and F2 and compared to the formant frequencies of connected speech. (Cruttenden and Gimson 2014, 105) Due to the fact that the words are incorporated into a text and the speakers were not aware of what the recording was focused on, not all the words are pronounced with full vowel quality. Therefore, the phoneme /ə/ is also included in the phonemes that might occur. Even though there are no formant frequencies for /ə/, Cruttenden and Gimson suggest using the formants for /ɜː/. (2014, 105). Formant frequencies also differ with sex, so males and females will be examined and evaluated separately.

Formant frequencies for the phoneme /ʌ/ are for males F1: 644, F2: 1259 and for females F1: 914, F2: 1459. For the phoneme /ʊ/, male formant frequencies are F1: 379, F2: 1173, for females F1: 410, F2: 1340. Lastly, the phoneme /ə/ has for males F1: 478, F2: 1436 and females F1: 606, F2: 1695.

Words use for the analysis are: *bus*, *sun*, *custom* and *love*. Those words are used in the phrases:

- … to take the *bus*.
- … when the *sun* is up.
- … many *customs* in the army …

- I *love* my first born …

Firstly, two graphs including the studied word will be presented and then it will be commented on the outcome.

5.4.1 Bus

Figure 15

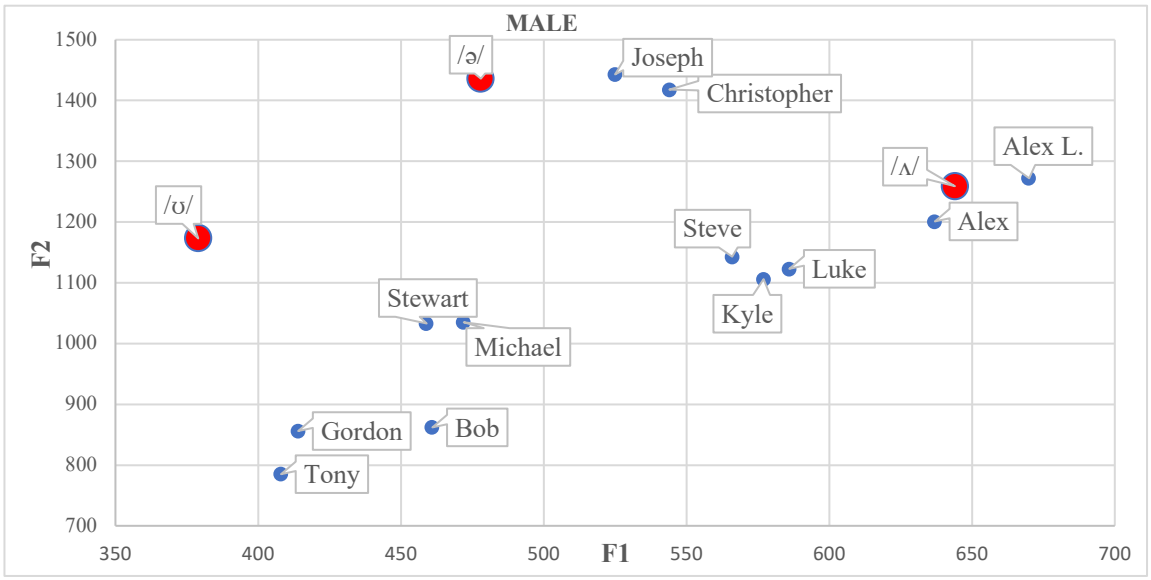
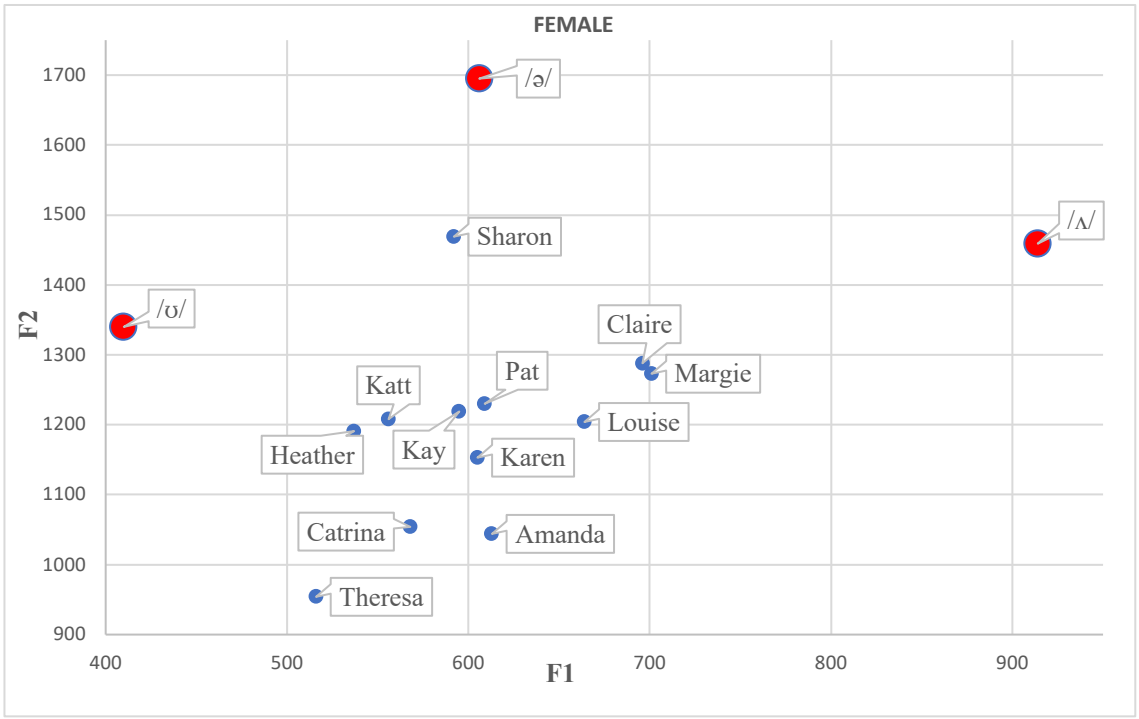


Figure 16



It is clearly evident from the results that there is bigger accent variety in the male speakers than in the females. What is more, there are no females that have inclined

towards the RP English. This factor is surprising as it was explained in 3.3 that, according to Foulkes and Docherty (2007, 56), males incline more towards the vernacular forms of accent, on the other hand, women tend to use the standardised English more. However, in Derbyshire, this standardised form could be more closely related to GNE, defined in Cruttenden and Gimson (2014, 91).

For males, the most prominent Derbyshire accent can be defined by Stewart, Gordon, Michael and Tony. Gordon and Tony are both classified as *working class* and they belong to the *elderly* age group. On the other hand, Stewart and Michael are considered *middle class* with Michael belonging to adult age group and Stewart to *elderly*. On the other hand, the most RP accents can be found in the pronunciation of Alex and Alex L. It is difficult to define who, from the women, has the strongest regional accent, closest to the pronunciation of /ʊ/ is Katt, Heather, Kay and Catrina. All four women belong to *middle class*, Katt and Catrina to *young adult* age group and Kay and Heather to *adult* group.

5.4.2 Sun

Figure 17

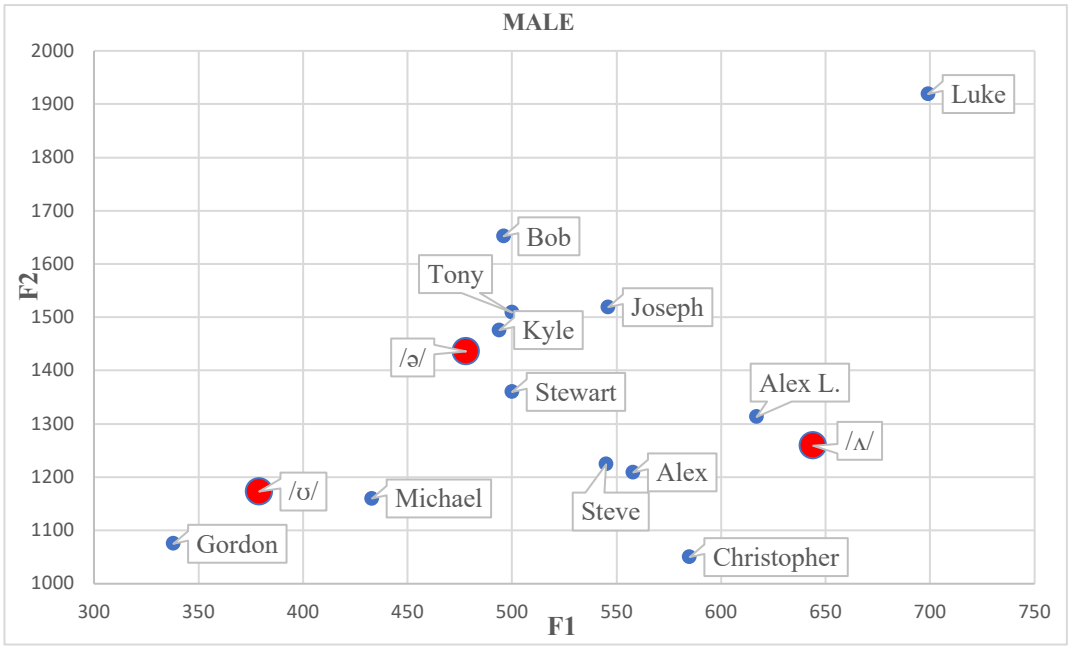
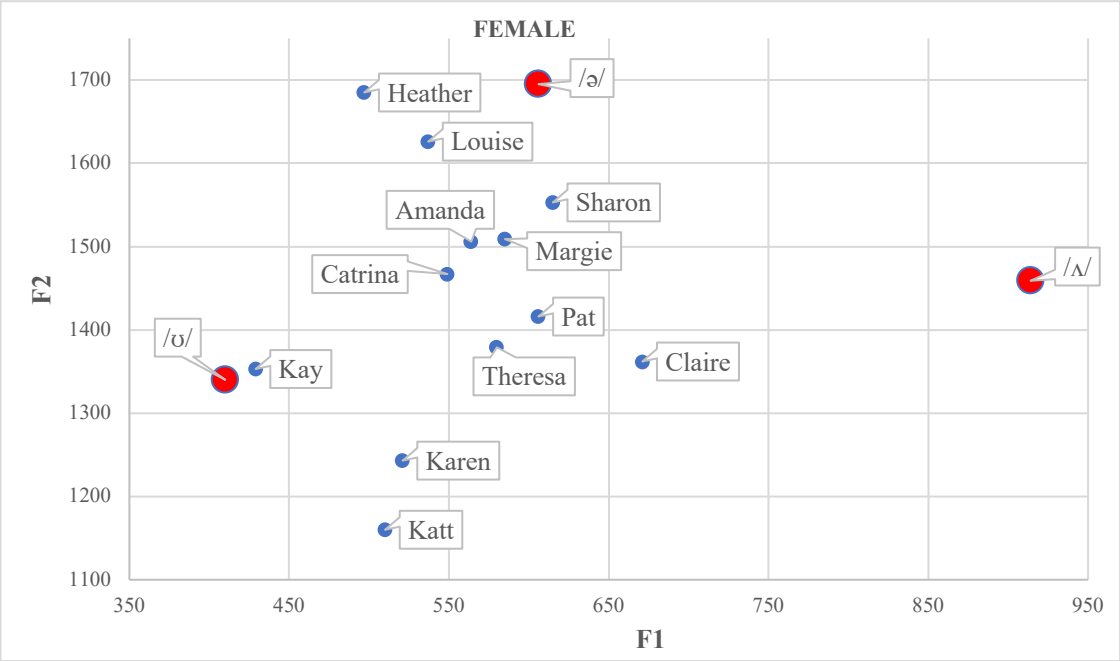


Figure 18



From the males, the strongest Derbyshire accent is produced by Gordon and Michael. As well as Kay; Catrina, Theresa and Karen can also be regarded as using the Derbyshire accent here. Again, it can be seen that males have a broader range of accent variety, whereas women are located between the strong, Derbyshire /ʊ/ and /ə/.

5.4.3 Custom

Figure 19

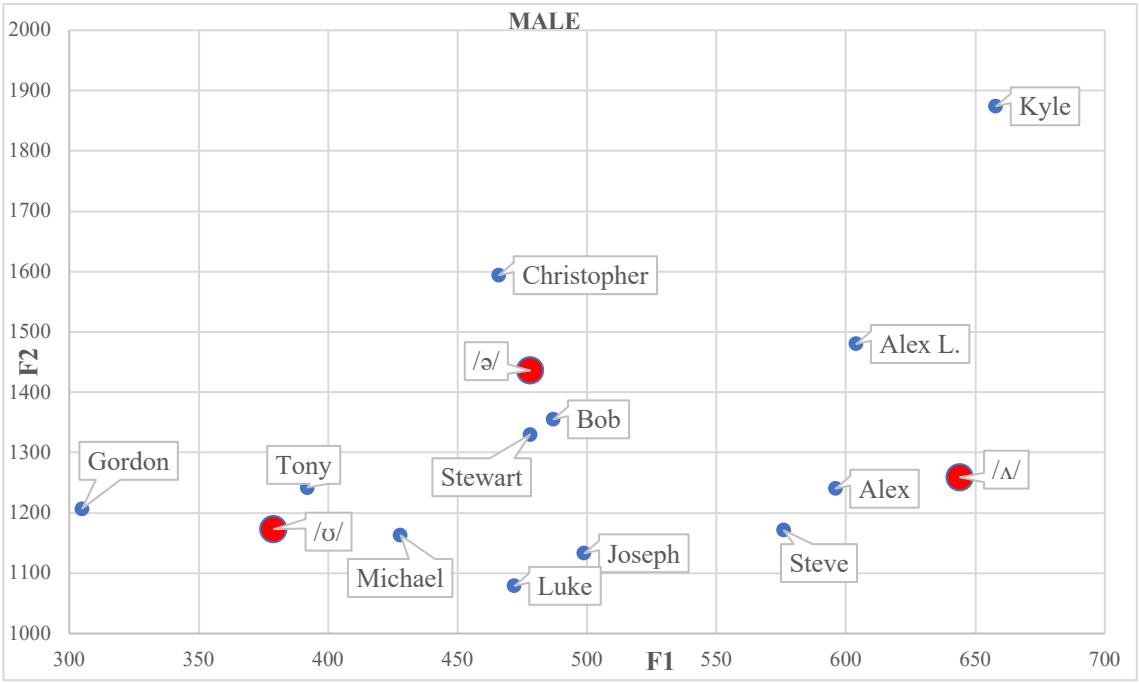
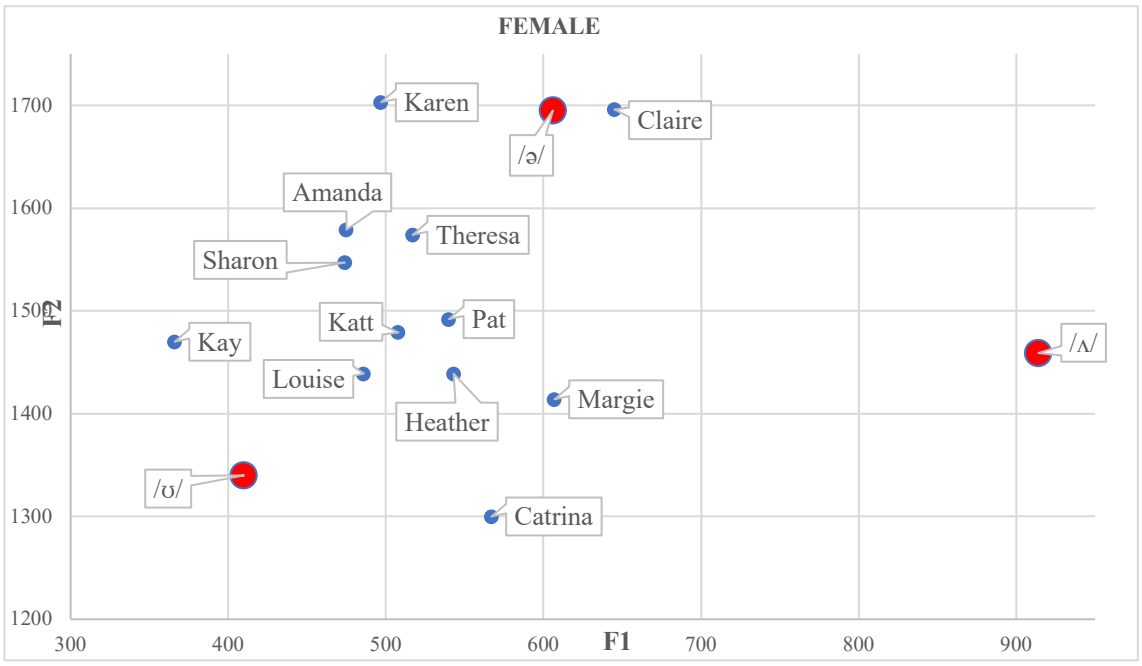


Figure 20



Gordon, Tony and Michael are the male speakers whose pronunciation is the closes to the phoneme /ʊ/, for females the closest are Kay and Louise. Nobody from the females is close to RP accent. From the males Alex L., Alex and Steve are the nearest to the RP pronunciation of /ʌ/.

5.4.4 Love

Figure 21

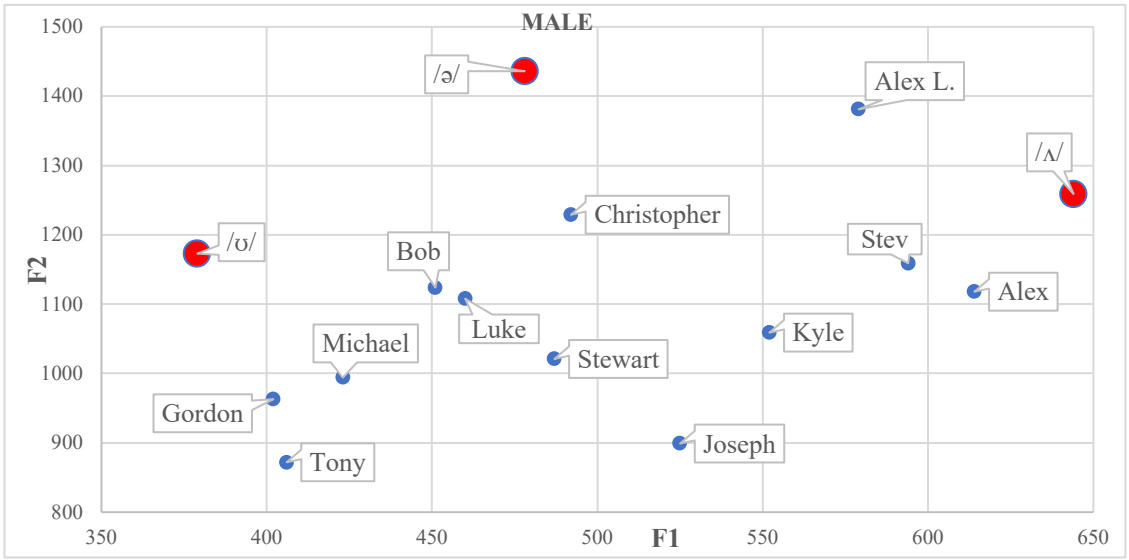
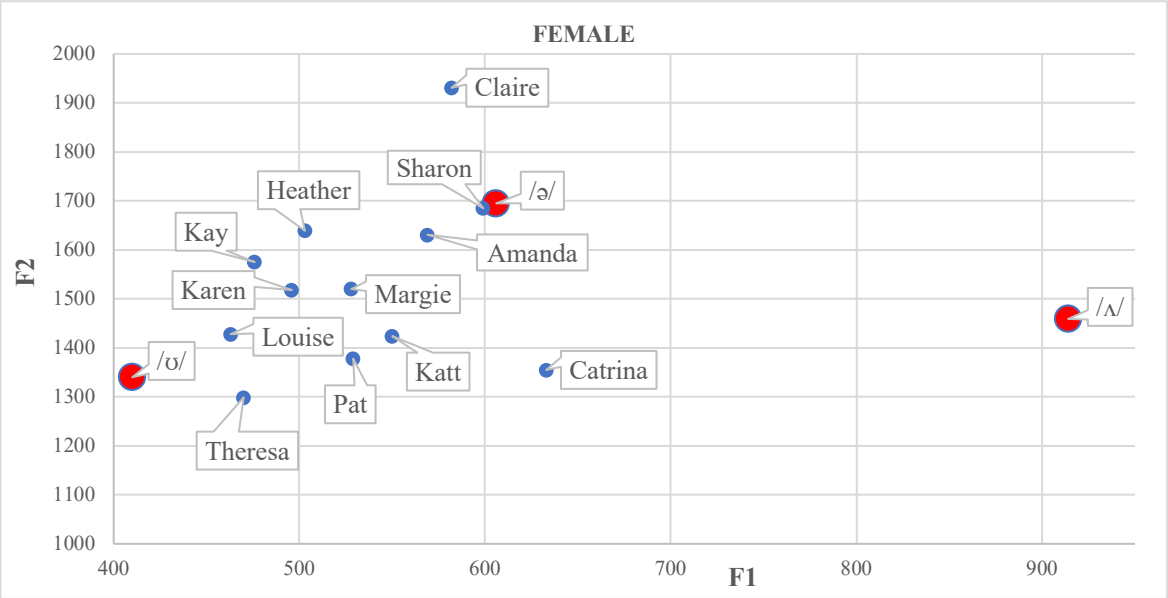


Figure 22



For the last word ‘love’, the most prominent Derbyshire accents can be allocated to Bob, Luke, Michael and Gordon from the males and from the females it was Louise, Karen, Pat and Theresa.

Overall, there are 3 people who have the most prominent Derbyshire accent concerning the pronunciation of /ʊ/, compared to the RP English pronunciation /ʌ/. Those were Michael, Gordon and Kay. Both Gordon and Michael had an occurrence of the phoneme /ʊ/ in all cases, Kay had the occurrence in three cases.

Both Kay and Michael are identified as *middle class* of the *adult* age group, Gordon is described as *working class* in the *elderly* age group.

5.5 /ʊ/ and /u:/ differences

Even though Cruttenden and Gimson state that there can be differences in Derbyshire accent concerning the phoneme /ʊ/, which is pronounced in RP English, in GNE accent it can be pronounced as /u:/. (2014, 92) Scollins and Titford suggest that this occurrence is not that common anymore. (2000, 23). However, this variety can be heard in a limited number of words such as *book* or *cook*.

In the recordings these two words were included in sentences:

- … to read my book …
- … as mum’s cooking.

Due to the fact that the formant difference between the phonemes /ʊ/ and /u:/ is not remarkably distinct (see Appendix 5), the acoustic analysis did not reveal any crucial information. Concerning auditory analysis, the author of the thesis heard Pat and Tony pronouncing in the word *book* the phoneme /u:/, showing that it is still used sometimes by the older generation.

5.6 Weak and strong prefixes differences

As it was mentioned in 4.2.4., GNE inclines to keeping a strong vowel in unstressed prefixes, most commonly in prefixes from Latin origin. However, it is not evident whether Derbyshire accent also inclines to this tendency. Section 5.6 will try to identify this uncertainty.

Words selected for this analysis are: *continue, consider, object* (as a verb) and *advance*. In sentences:

- … should have continued on
- … don't even consider it.
- He never objects …
- … these advanced computers.

In the first three cases the phoneme /ə/ is compared with the phoneme /ɒ/, concerning the word *advance* the phoneme /ə/ is compared with /ʌ/ and for males also with the weaker from that is /a/. As it was done previously in 5.4., the graphs will be introduced and then comments will be made.

5.6.1 Continue

Figure 23

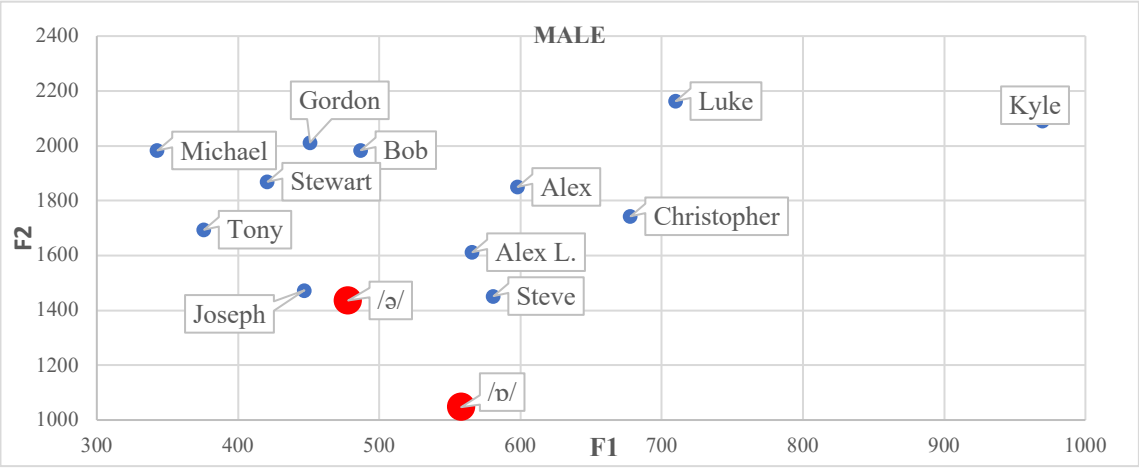
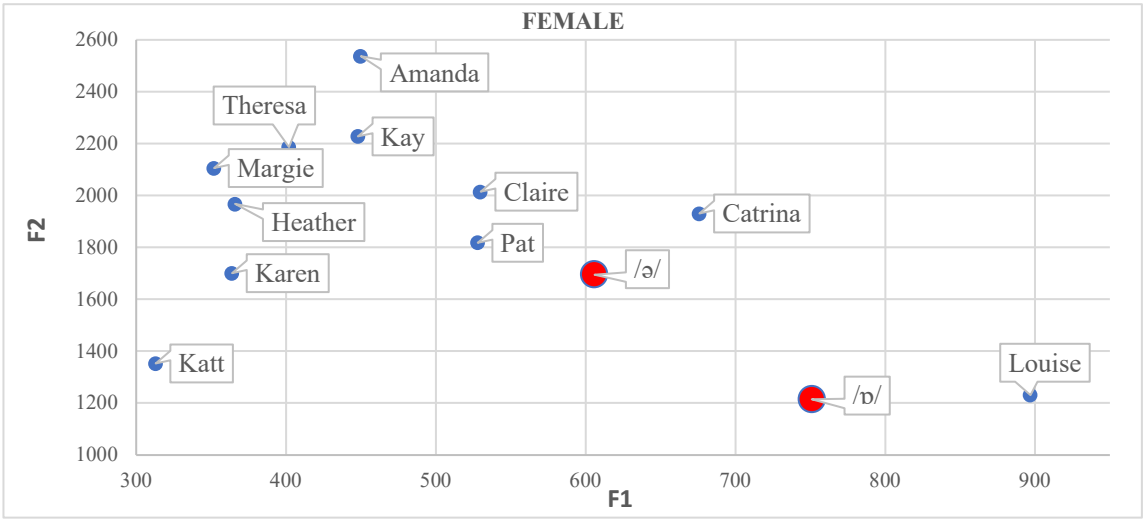


Figure 24



Sharon was not included in the analysis of this word due to the fact that in the recording a very strong background noise was heard even after being reduced. Some of the speakers were heard pronouncing the word continue /kəˈtɪnjuː/ without the phoneme /n/. The only speaker that can be analysed using Derbyshire pronunciation is Louise.

5.6.2 Consider

Figure 25

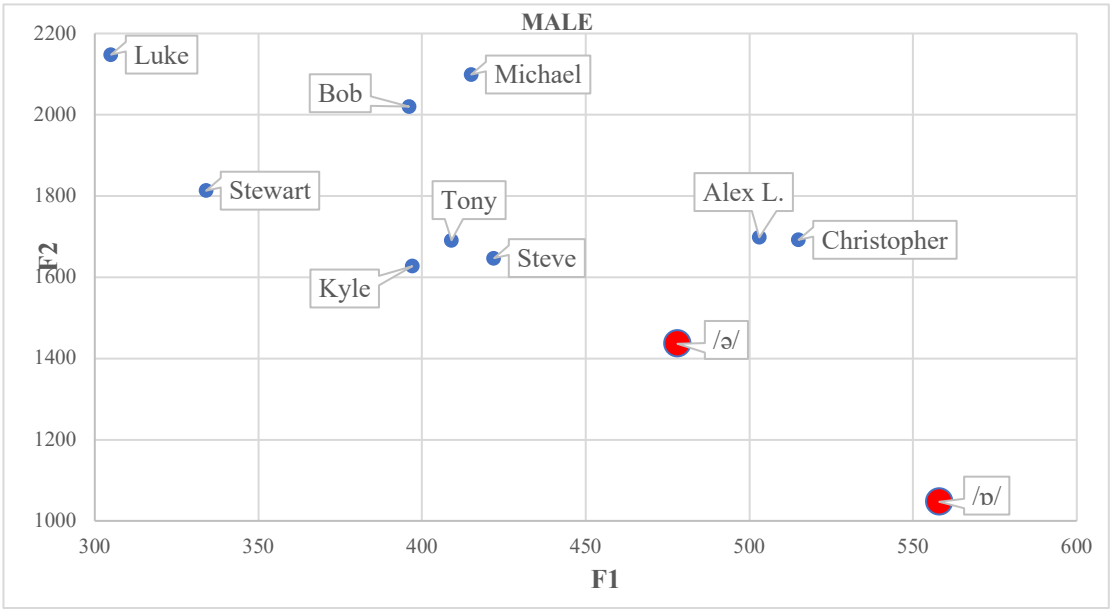
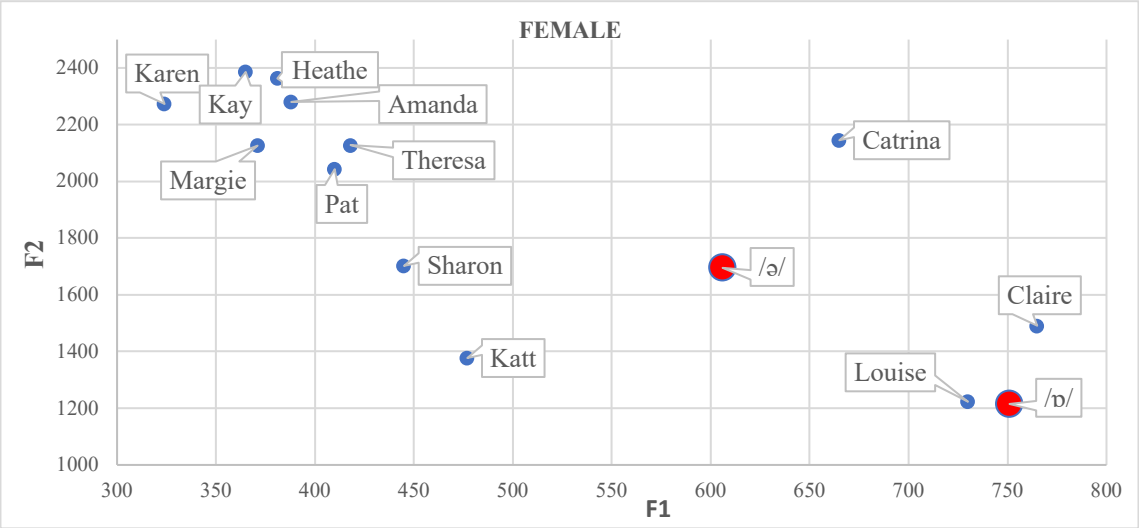


Figure 26



Alex, Gordon and Joseph were not included in the analysis of the word consider, because it was impossible to detect the phoneme /ə/. A trend similar to the one from 5.5.1 can be noticed in this case as well and that is omitting the phoneme /n/ and also the phoneme /ə/ therefore the pronunciation is /kˈsɪdə/.

Louise and Claire were the only speakers pronouncing the unstressed prefix with a strong vowel. Both of those females are *middle class* in the *young adult* age group.

5.6.3 Object

Figure 27

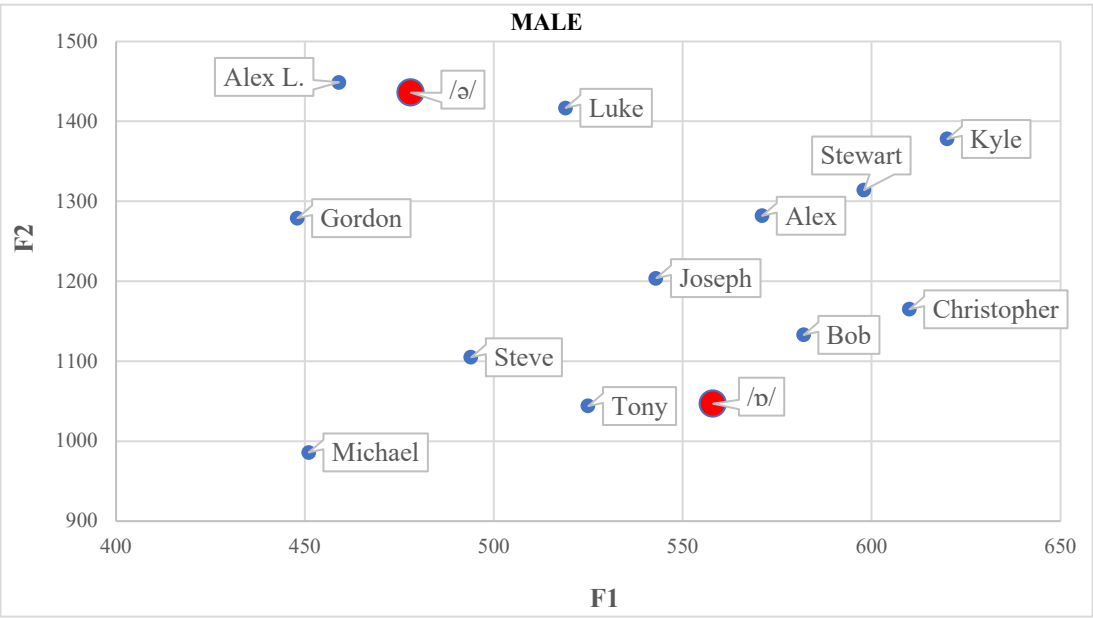
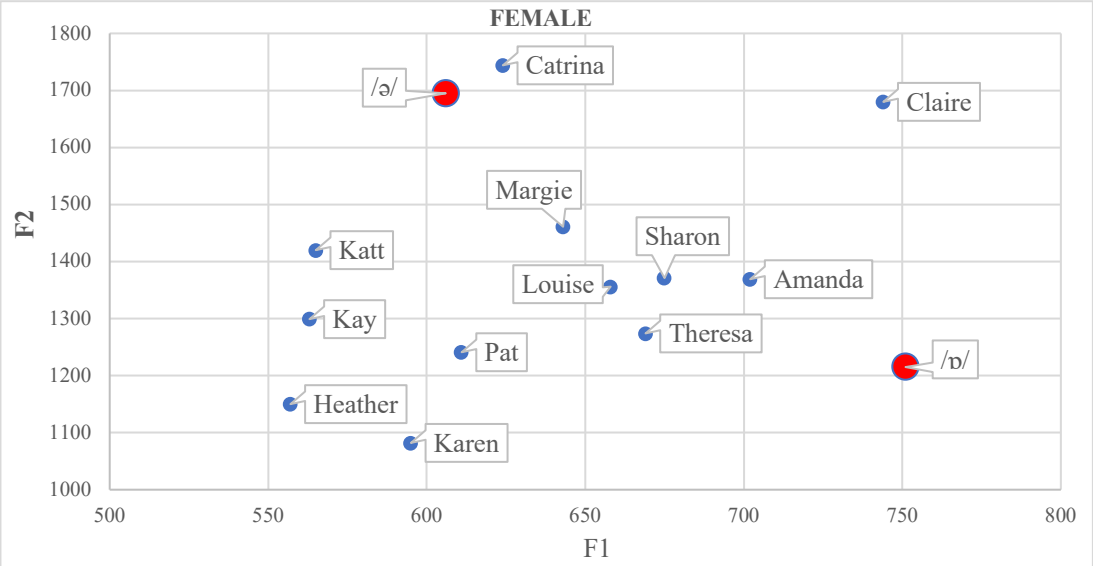


Figure 28



The word *object* clearly shows a more prominent Derbyshire accent with more speakers. Strong vowels in the first, unstressed syllables can be heard by Joseph, Bob, Tony, Louise, Sharon, Theresa and Amanda. Only three out of seven of those speakers are *middle class* and all three being females. Only one speaker belongs to *young adult* age group, three in *adult* and three in *elderly age* group.

5.6.4 Advance

Figure 29

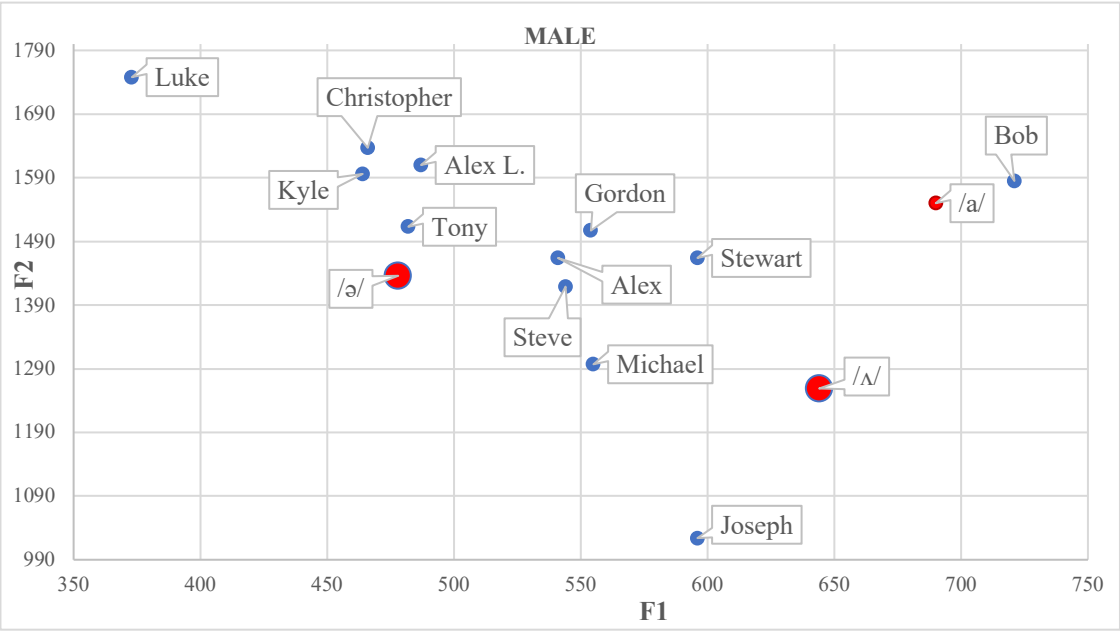
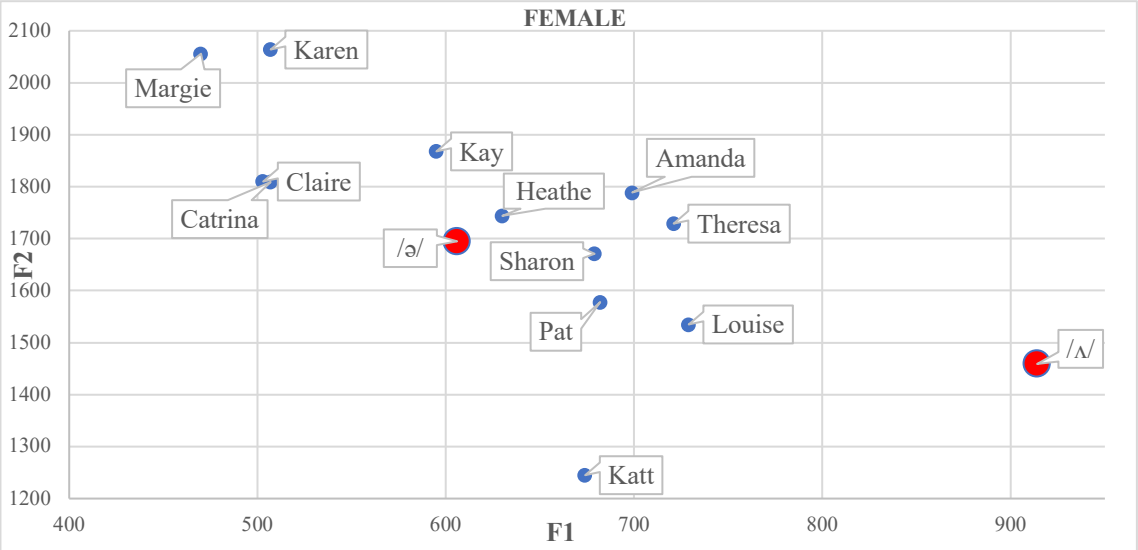


Figure 30



As mentioned before, for the word 'advanced', for males also the weak form of /ʌ/, /a/, was added. This phoneme is considered as a stronger form of the phoneme /ə/, therefore when the speaker pronounces the phoneme /a/, for the purposes of this thesis, it will be acknowledged as part of the Derbyshire accent.

One quarter of all the recorded speakers pronounced the word advance with a strong prefix. These speakers were: Bob, Stewart, Michael, Joseph, Theresa and Louise. Four of these speakers are *middle class* and only two *working class*. One speaker belongs to *young adult* age group, three in *adult* and two in *elderly* age group.

Although it was suggested that it is unclear whether the strong vowels in unstressed prefixes can be encountered in Derbyshire accent, it can be confirmed that to some extend this phenomenon occurs in this regional variety as well. The Latin prefix con- does not seem to have strong regional pronunciation and it tends to incline to RP pronunciation. What is more, the prefix is sometimes shortened even more and the nasal /n/ can be noticed being omitted. The two other words, *object* and *advance,* can be seen having both regional and RP pronunciation. Both *working* and *middle class* can be heard pronouncing these prefixes with strong vowels.

5.7 /ŋ/ and /ŋg/ differences

The pronunciation of the *ng* spelling is different in GNE compared to RP English, where, in GNE, not even the nasal /ŋ/ is pronounced but it is followed by the phoneme /ŋg/. Due to the fact that this phenomenon is not easily measurable, this variation will be analysed

auditorily. There are not many possibilities of how to measure consonants, especially /ŋ/ and /g/, though it has been suggested to read these phonemes from spectrogram. However, this is not applicable in this thesis because, as the recordings were not taken in identical surroundings and background noise can sometimes be heard, the spectrogram does not show all the phonemes accurately.

The words that were selected for the analysis of the /ŋg/, /ŋg/ pronunciation are: *wrong, hang, having* and *singing* (in this case the first *ng* from the word 'sing'). Those words are presented in sentences:

- … the wrong way, …
- Hang on, …
- … to not having the usual …
- … I am singing or …

As mentioned above, the analysis was done auditorily, so the author of the thesis was listening to the recordings and noted down whether the speaker pronounced the phoneme /g/ in the word, or not.

The most common pronunciation of the phoneme /ŋg/ occurred in the word *hang*, namely 21 times. Following, the word *singing* was pronounced /ŋg/ nineteen times. It is interesting to mention that the word *singing* was pronounced /sɪŋgɪŋ/ therefore the second occurrence of the phoneme /ŋ/ was not followed by /g/. The word *wrong* was pronounced with Derbysire accent only seven times and the word *having* only once.

There was not any speaker who would pronounce all the words as /ŋg/. However, three times the phoneme was pronounced by Claire, Joseph, Karen, Katt, Kay, Louise and Margie. Interestingly enough, only one of those speakers is from the elderly age group and only three of the speakers belong to *working class*.

5.8 Summary of the results

To summarize this analysis, none of the speakers showed in all of the accent varieties a strong, prominent Derbyshire accent. There was nobody who would pronounce all the words and phenomenon with only regional accent. It can also be noted that those pronouncing certain occurrences in Derbyshire accent were across all the age groups and both social classes.

One of the most interesting features was when comparing the pronunciation of /ʌ/ and /ʊ/. In all four cases, the pronunciation of females was never close to the RP phoneme /ʊ/. On the other hand, pronunciation of males in this specific variety was moving both to the regional accent and to the RP accent.

Concerning the pronunciation of prefixes, it can be noted that the Latin prefix *con-* was mostly, with some exceptions, pronounced by RP English and therefore with weak vowel /ə/. The most differentiated was the verb *object*, followed by *advance.*

The length of the vowel /ɑː/ is crucially dependent on the surrounding words. Not only the pattern */a:/ + voiceless fricative + C*, or */a:/ + nasal + C* should be taken into consideration, but also different allophonic variations that can occur.

The consonants /ŋg/ are mostly prominent in medial position of words. Even though the word *hang* has the consonants in the final position, it was followed by the preposition *on* that is pronounced as one word. The suffix *-ing* is rarely pronounced with /g/ and therefore it keeps the RP pronunciation.

Having put all the varieties studied in the Section 5 a table was created. This table is included in Appendix 6 and it shows percentagewise the prominence of the Derbyshire accent. It can be said that those speakers with the prominence 50% and higher have Derbyshire accent.

Those people are Tony, Catrina, Kay, Karen, Gordon, Theresa, Louise and Michael. The highest prominence of Derbyshire accent was found in Michael and Louise's speech where both have 66.67% of regional accent occurrence.

Only three people with a prominent Derbyshire accent are in the *working class* group, the other five are in the *middle class* group. Two people belong to *young adult* age group, four to *adult* and two to *elderly* age group. Both *young adults* belong to *middle class*, on the other hands both *elderly* speakers belong to *working class*. From the *adult* age group, only one can be placed in *working class*, the rest belong to *middle class*. What is more, five of the speakers with prominent Derbyshire accent are females and only two males were found to have a regional accent prominent more than 50%.

On the other hand, there were five people with regional accent lower than 30%. These were Pat, Alex, Christopher, Steve and Heather who can be said to speak RP English. Only one speaker can be placed in the *elderly* age group and *working class*. Another *working class* participant is Alex who belongs to the *young adult* age group.

Christopher, Steve and Heather belong to *middle class*, Christopher in the *young adult* age group and Steve and Heather in the *adult* group.

6. Conclusion

With all the results being taken into consideration, the allegation 'The older the speaker and the lower their social class, the stronger their regional accent' cannot be confirmed.

Even though the majority of the speakers of a prominent Derbyshire accent are older than 30 years, with most of them being placed in the *adult* age group, not all of the speakers belong to *working class*. There are only three speakers with prominent Derbyshire accent that can be placed in *working class*.

Although, when the recordings of the speakers' pronunciation were analysed auditorily, there were more speakers that could be detected using stronger Derbyshire accent than it was acoustically analysed. A few factors could be taken into a consideration when detecting what may have contributed to this aspect.

The first factor is the surroundings in which the recordings were taken. Even though some of the speakers were recorded in quite environments, others were recorder with loud background noise that could have altered said recordings. The location of the places where the speakers were recorded were, for example: speaker's home, a car, or a home fitness centre from where a loud music could be heard. Unfortunately, it was not possible for the recordings to take place in a quieter location. However, majority of the speakers were recorded at their homes, therefore in fairly quiet environment.

Another aspect that could have modified the recordings was the fact the speakers had to read the text and did not speak freely. It was necessary for the text to be written in order to verify the speaker saying the words that were necessary for the analysis. Those words included where studied in relation to different pronunciation when compared to Received Pronunciation. Some speakers were having difficulties reading the text as they were not given time to read it for themselves first. The reason they were not allowed to read the text first was so they would not adjust their pronunciation consciously. However, some parts of the recording were not fluent, and the rhythm and intonation of the whole recording was not as natural as it would be with unscripted text.

Even though the first part of the recordings consisted of unscripted text, this specific one would not be sufficient for analysis. As it was mentioned before, the sole

purpose of the unscripted part of the recording was to acquire important information about the individual speakers. This information was then used to identifying three main facts. The first one being whether the recorded speaker can be considered as a speaker of Derbyshire accent. Following factors that were extracted from the questions asked were detecting the speakers age and social class.

The last problematic part that could have affected the results of the analysis is distinguishing the speakers' social classes. Even though education and occupation were taken into consideration when placing the speakers into social classes, there are other factors that also affect one's social class. Not only should the person's occupation be taken into consideration, but also their parents and partners backgrounds for example. The surroundings and upbringing of a person can also modify people's social class.

Further research would be needed to confirm the hypothesis, possibly by analysing unscripted speech of Derbyshire speakers. For the following research it would be recommended for recording all the speakers under the same circumstances and in the identical environment. Comparing auditory and acoustic analysis would also be interesting to see how different computerised and personalised analysis can be.

7 Resumé

Cílem této práce je potvrdit nebo vyvrátit tezi, že čím starší je mluvčí a čím nižší je jeho sociální status, tím výraznější je jeho akcent. Práce se zabývá mluvenou formou jazyka na základě pořízených nahrávek rodilých mluvčí a porovnáváním akcentu mluvčích z hrabství Derbyshire s britským standardem.

Práce je rozdělena na teoretickou a analytickou část. První část se zabývá vysvětlením pojmu přízvuk. Nejprve je jasně vymezen rozdíl mezi přízvukem a dialektem – přízvuk je pouze subkategorií dialektu. Je nutné si uvědomit, že ve Spojeném Království je mnoho rozdílných variant přízvuku. Tyto rozdíly mohou být dvojího typu, a to fonetické a fonologické. Největší rozdíl v různých variantách přízvuku je nejlépe pozorovatelný u samohlásek. Dále jsou v první kapitole popsány přízvuky ve Spojeném Království a jejich rozdíly.

Druhá kapitola se věnuje britskému standardu, takzvané *RP English* neboli *Received Pronunciation*. Nejprve je poukázáno na fakt, že tento britský standard nese mnoho jmen (například *BBC English*, nebo *General British)* a ne všechny jsou

společností přijímány dobře. I když název *RP English* může být některými mluvčími vnímán negativně, je toto jméno v práci používáno. Hlavním důvodem pro rozhodnutí název používat byl fakt, že autorka práce, jakožto obyvatelka České republiky, necítí z pojmu *RP English* žádnou negativní konotaci. Druhá kapitola je zakončena popisem fonémů, a hlavně pak samohlásek, které se vyskytují v tomto britském standardu.

Následující kapitola se zaobírá variací přízvuků a proměnnými, které mohou tyto variace ovlivnit. Nejprve jsou definovány pojmy sociolingvistika a sociofonetika, které se zabývají studiem variant přízvuků. Autorka vybrala tři faktory ovlivňující přízvuk mluvčího, na které se v této třetí kapitole zaměřila detailněji. Tyto tři faktory jsou: věk, společenské postavení a pohlaví. Každý faktor je popsán z různých pohledů od rozdílných autorů.

Čtvrtá kapitola popisuje hrabství Derbyshire a jeho přízvuk. Geografie hrabství je zmíněna pouze stručně, s hlavním poukazem na lokaci v celém Spojeném Království. I když se už hrabství Derbyshire spíše řadí do severní části Anglie, někteří obyvatelé inklinují spíše k označení střední Anglie. Podkapitola 4.2 se zaobírá specifickými znaky přízvuku hrabství Derbyshire a porovnává je s *Received Pronunciation*. Standardní severský anglický přízvuk (*GNE – General Northern English*) je používán při porovnávání specifických znaků přízvuku hrabství Derbyshire. Jak je v podkapitole zmíněno, tyto znaky se nemusí ve velké míře objevovat v hrabství Derbyshire. Důvodem, proč je použit tento přízvuk, je fakt, že není mnoho zdrojů, které by detailně popisovaly derbyhsireský přízvuk. Hlavní rozdíly se objevují v samohláskách, zde je popsán i jeden rozdíl, který se vyskytuje u souhlásek.

Pátá kapitola, představující praktickou část práce, obsahuje analyzované nahrávky pořízené v červenci 2016. Nahrávky byly získány od 24 rodilých mluvčí, kteří se rozdělili do dvou kategorií na základě věku a společenského postavení. Na základě věku byly stanoveny tři kategorie. První kategorií byli mluvčí mladší 30 let (včetně), kteří byli nazváni mladí dospělí (*young adults*), ve druhé kategorii byli mluvčí ve věku 31–56 let a tato kategorie je nazvána dospělí (*adults*). Poslední kategorií byli mluvčí starší 56 let a tato kategorie se nazvala senioři (*elderly*). Na základě společenského postavení byli mluvčí rozděleni do dvou kategorií, a to střední třída (*middle class*) a dělnická třída (*working class*).

Při provádění rozboru řeči byly použity dva programy, kterými jsou Audacity a Praat. Program Audacity byl použit při nahrávání mluvčích a poté pro odstranění šumu a stříhání zvuku, program Praat pro akustickou analýzu samohlásek. Důvodem pro užití programu Praat je fakt, že tento program dokáže zobrazit formantové frekvence, které se používají při detekci jednotlivých hlásek.

Podkapitoly 5.3–5.7 se zaobírají akustickou analýzou hlásek, které jsou prominentní pro přízvuk hrabství Derbyshire. Nejprve je představen rozdíl mezi fonémy /ɑː/ a /a/, kde čím delší je hláska, tím více se přízvuk blíží britskému standardu. Tyto fonémy byly porovnávány s online slovníky, jmenovitě Cambridge a Oxford slovník, kde byla nahrána zkoumaná slova a ta byla pokládána za *RP English*. Při analýze délky fonému se nejdříve změřila výslovnost celého slova a poté pouze hlásky /ɑː/. Poté se, podle vzorce, vypočítalo procentuální zastoupení hlásky /ɑː/ v daném slově. Tento výsledek byl porovnán s výsledkem pořízeným z Cambridgeského a Oxfordského slovníku. Hlásky probírané v podkapitolách 5.4.-5.6. byly měřeny na základě formantových frekvencí. Zajímavostí je, že i když auditivně byl slyšet silný regionální přízvuk, akusticky tento faktor změřen nebyl. Tato skutečnost může být zapříčiněna několika faktory. Hlavním z nich je fakt, že nahrávky nebyly pořízeny za stejných podmínek. Některé byly pořízeny ve skoro naprostém klidu, jiné, i po odstranění, pořád měly v pozadí šum.

Podkapitola 5.7 analyzuje jedinou souhlásku, které byla zkoumána. Jelikož se souhlásky nedají zkoumat na základě formantových frekvencí, další možností je vyčíst data ze spektrogramu. Vzhledem k tomu, že byl pořád slyšet šum v pozadí a také proto, že nahrávky nebyly pořízeny za stejných podmínek, byla analýza této souhlásky prováděna auditivně.

Poslední část kapitoly 5 je věnována shrnutí analýzy hlásek mluvčích s přízvukem hrabství Derbyshire. Tato analýza nepřinesla jasné potvrzení teze, že čím starší je mluvčí a čím nižší je jeho sociální status, tím výraznější je jeho akcent. Celkově bylo zjištěno 8 lidí, jejichž derbyshireský přízvuk přesahoval nebo se rovnal 50 %. Z toho pouze tři mluvčí pocházeli z dělnické třídy, ostatní mluvčí byli ze třídy střední. Největší podíl věkového zastoupení měli dospělí, kteří byli 4, mladí dospělí a senioři byli zastoupeni po dvou mluvčích.

Poslední závěrečná kapitola řeší důvody, proč se teze nedokázala potvrdit. Na začátku kapitoly je zmíněn fakt, že auditivně se zdálo, že v nahrávkách se vyskytuje více mluvčích s výrazným regionálním přízvukem. Nicméně při akustické analýze se tato skutečnost nepotvrdila. Dalším faktorem může být i nedostačující rozdělení mluvčích do společenských tříd. I když se vzalo v potaz několik proměnných (hlavními dvěma bylo dosažené vzdělání a povolání) je možné, že tyto aspekty nestačí ke správnému rozdělení společenských tříd. Do zkoumaných charakteristik je možná potřeba zahrnout i povolání rodičů, partnera či finanční zabezpečení.

Další faktor, který mohl ovlivnit analýzu nahrávek, byl fakt, že mluvčí museli číst předem napsaný text, který si nemohli dopředu přečíst. Některým mluvčím přečtení textu dělalo problémy, a tak proslov nebyl plynulý a rytmus a intonace neodpovídali plynulé, předem nepřipravené mluvě.

Na konci práce je zmíněno, že je potřeba provést detailnější analýzu tohoto regionálního přízvuku, aby se dala definitivně vyvrátit nebo potvrdit tato teze.

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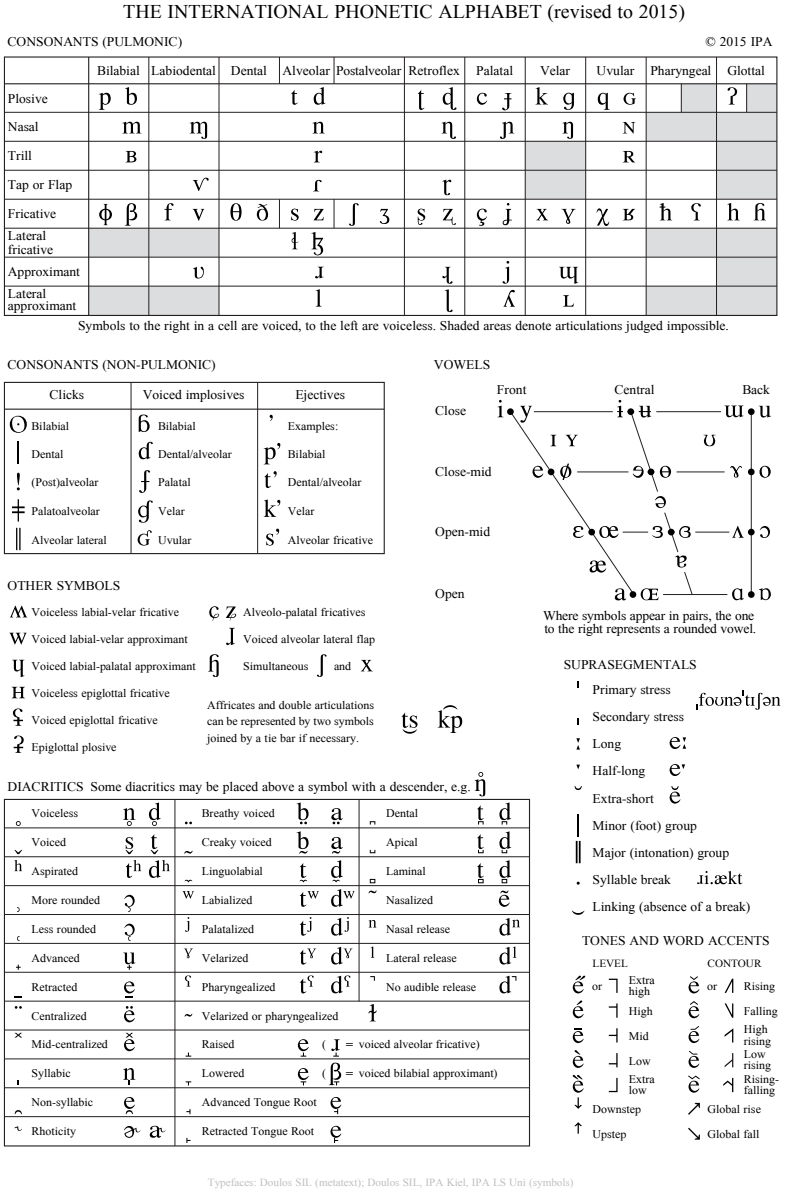
9 Appendix

9.1 Appendix 1

The International Phonetic Alphabet (International Phonetic Association, 2019)



THE INTERNATIONAL PHONETIC ALPHABET (revised to 2015)

CONSONANTS (PULMONIC) © 2015 IPA

	Bilabial	Labiodental	Dental	Alveolar	Postalveolar	Retroflex	Palatal	Velar	Uvular	Pharyngeal	Glottal
Plosive	p b			t d		ʈ ɖ	c ɟ	k ɡ	q ɢ		ʔ
Nasal	m	ɱ		n		ɳ	ɲ	ŋ	ɴ		
Trill	ʙ			r					ʀ		
Tap or Flap		ⱱ		ɾ		ɽ					
Fricative	ɸ β	f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ	ʂ ʐ	ç ʝ	x ɣ	χ ʁ	ħ ʕ	h ɦ
Lateral fricative				ɬ ɮ							
Approximant		ʋ		ɹ		ɻ	j	ɰ			
Lateral approximant				l		ɭ	ʎ	ʟ			

Symbols to the right in a cell are voiced, to the left are voiceless. Shaded areas denote articulations judged impossible.

CONSONANTS (NON-PULMONIC)

Clicks	Voiced implosives	Ejectives
ʘ Bilabial	ɓ Bilabial	’ Examples:
ǀ Dental	ɗ Dental/alveolar	pʼ Bilabial
ǃ (Post)alveolar	ʄ Palatal	tʼ Dental/alveolar
ǂ Palatoalveolar	ɠ Velar	kʼ Velar
ǁ Alveolar lateral	ʛ Uvular	sʼ Alveolar fricative

OTHER SYMBOLS

ʍ Voiceless labial-velar fricative
ɕ ʑ Alveolo-palatal fricatives
w Voiced labial-velar approximant
ɺ Voiced alveolar lateral flap
ɥ Voiced labial-palatal approximant
ʜ Simultaneous ʃ and x
ʜ Voiceless epiglottal fricative
ʢ Voiced epiglottal fricative
ʡ Epiglottal plosive

Affricates and double articulations can be represented by two symbols joined by a tie bar if necessary.

t͡s k͡p

VOWELS

Where symbols appear in pairs, the one to the right represents a rounded vowel.

SUPRASEGMENTALS

ˈ Primary stress ˌfoʊnəˈtɪʃən
ˌ Secondary stress
ː Long eː
ˑ Half-long eˑ
˘ Extra-short ĕ
| Minor (foot) group
‖ Major (intonation) group
. Syllable break ɹi.ækt
‿ Linking (absence of a break)

TONES AND WORD ACCENTS

LEVEL		CONTOUR	
e̋ or ˥	Extra high	ě or ˧˥	Rising
é ˦	High	ê ˥˩	Falling
ē ˧	Mid	e᷄ ˦˥	High rising
è ˨	Low	e᷅ ˩˧	Low rising
ȅ ˩	Extra low	e᷈ ˩˥˩	Rising-falling
↓	Downstep	↗	Global rise
↑	Upstep	↘	Global fall

DIACRITICS Some diacritics may be placed above a symbol with a descender, e.g. ŋ̊

◌̥ Voiceless	n̥ d̥	◌̤ Breathy voiced	b̤ a̤	◌̪ Dental	t̪ d̪
◌̬ Voiced	s̬ t̬	◌̰ Creaky voiced	b̰ a̰	◌̺ Apical	t̺ d̺
◌ʰ Aspirated	tʰ dʰ	◌̼ Linguolabial	t̼ d̼	◌̻ Laminal	t̻ d̻
◌̹ More rounded	ɔ̹	◌ʷ Labialized	tʷ dʷ	◌̃ Nasalized	ẽ
◌̜ Less rounded	ɔ̜	◌ʲ Palatalized	tʲ dʲ	◌ⁿ Nasal release	dⁿ
◌̟ Advanced	u̟	◌ˠ Velarized	tˠ dˠ	◌ˡ Lateral release	dˡ
◌̠ Retracted	e̠	◌ˤ Pharyngealized	tˤ dˤ	◌̚ No audible release	d̚
◌̈ Centralized	ë	~ Velarized or pharyngealized	ɫ		
◌̽ Mid-centralized	e̽	◌̝ Raised	e̝ (ɪ̝ = voiced alveolar fricative)		
◌̩ Syllabic	n̩	◌̞ Lowered	e̞ (β̞ = voiced bilabial approximant)		
◌̯ Non-syllabic	e̯	◌˕ Advanced Tongue Root	ɘ˖		
◌˞ Rhoticity	ə˞ a˞	◌˔ Retracted Tongue Root	e˔		

Typefaces: Doulos SIL (metatext); Doulos SIL, IPA Kiel, IPA LS Uni (symbols)

9.2 Appendix 2

Table of social class division (The Office for National Statistics 2010, 13)

Eight-, five- and three- class versions

eight classes	five classes	three classes
1. Higher managerial, administrative and professional occupations 1.1 Large employers and higher managerial and administrative occupations 1.2 Higher professional occupations 2. Lower managerial, administrative and professional occupations	1. Higher managerial, administrative and professional occupations	1. Higher managerial, administrative and professional occupations
3. Intermediate occupations	2. Intermediate occupations	2. Intermediate occupations
4. Small employers and own account workers	3. Small employers and own account workers	
5. Lower supervisory and technical occupations	4. Lower supervisory and technical occupations	3. Routine and manual occupations
6. Semi-routine occupations	5. Semi-routine and routine occupations	
7. Routine occupations		
8. Never worked and long-term unemployed	*Never worked and long-term unemployed	*Never worked and long-term unemployed

*Presentation of 'Never worked and long-term unemployed' altered on Table 3 in the five- and three-class versions. This corresponds more closely to the cautionary notes in 7.2. Revised 14.01.04.

9.2 Appendix 3

Text Derbyshire speakers were reading while being recorded.

1. Yesterday I decided to take the bus. Normally, I want to go in the car, but I wanted to read my book, so it was better to go by bus. So, I waited on the grass until it turned up. When it arrived it was old, heavy and the windows were dirty. Straight after I got on, it turned the wrong way, it turned right when it should have continued on.

2. 'I am not going into the water' I said shaking my head. 'It's nearly night, let's just go for a walk on the causeway; we can get up early tomorrow when the sun is up.'
'Hang on, I never said anything' he said as he walked along the path behind me.
I turned and said 'Yes, but I can see it in your eyes, don't even consider it'.

3. To become a great soldier you should expect to learn how to follow orders and behave in a respectful way. There are many customs in the army and new recruits must get used to not having the usual creature comforts they would expect back home such as mum's cooking. Yet, there are many good experiences such as travelling the world and mastering many skills.

4. As soon as I rest my head on the pillow, I heard him crying. I love my first-born son but every night he cries. I rest him on my shoulder while I am singing or sometimes make him sit on my knee. He never objects but when I put him back down, he starts again.

5. I can't use these advanced computers. I asked my son to explain it to me, but I forgot it. I press a button with my finger and the glass screen starts flashing. Sometimes I want to drop it from a height or smash it with a hammer! So, whenever there's a problem I ask my son to examine it. Usually he says, 'is that all?' and presses something and it starts working again.

9.4 Appendix 4

Division of recorded speakers in relation to age and social class.

Age	**Name**		**Age**	**Name**		**Age**
22	Alex	young adult	43	Heather	adult	63
22	Kyle		43	Sharon		66
23	Katt		52	Steve		73
26	Christopher		52	Karen		78
27	Alex L.		53	Theresa		79
27	Catrina		53	Michael		81
29	Luke		55	Kay		81
29	Claire		56	Joseph		
30	Louise					

Name	Education	Occupation	NS-SEC	
Christopher	Bachelor's degree	English teacher	**2**	**middle class**
Claire	unfinished Bachelor's education	maternity leave, previous. Eng teacher	**2**	
Louise	Bachelor's degree	English teacher	**2**	
Heather	Bachelor's degree	University of Leicester (managing conferences)	**2**	
Sharon	Bachelor's degree	primary school teacher	**2**	
Steve	left school at the age of 18	software company	**2**	
Theresa	left school at the age of 18	manager	**2**	
Michael	left school at the age of 16 (17)	planning engineer	**2**	
Kay	Teacher's degree	English teacher	**2**	
Catrina	left school at the age of 16	business administration	**3**	
Stewart	left school at the age of 16	police officer	**3**	
Katt	Bachelor's degree	Sales Advisor	**4**	
Alex L.	Bachelor's degree	film Editor	**4**	
Alex	left school after college at 19	car mechanic	**5**	**working class**
Luke	left school at the age of 16	Rails - technician	**5**	
Joseph	left school at the age of 16	Rolls Royce - aero engine focus	**5**	
Gordon	left school at the age of 15	mechanic - car repair	**5**	
Tony	left school at the age of 15	Rolls Royce factory - fitter, inspection	**5**	
Kyle	left school at the age of 18	hospital - porter's desk	**6**	
Karen	left school at the age of 16	shop assistant	**6**	
Bob	left school at the age of 14	military; driller: aeroplane engines - Rolls Royce	**6**	
Amanda	left school at the age of 15	childminder	**7**	
Margie	left school at the age of 15	for Rolls Royce, then butcher's shop	**7**	
Pat	left school at the age of 15	bread-girl, then home with children	**8**	

9.5 Appendix 5

Formant frequencies of vowels. (Cruttenden and Gimson 2014, 105)

Table 5 Formant frequencies for GB diphthongs (in citation form).

	First component				Second component			
	F1		F2		F1		F2	
Diphthongs	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
/eɪ/	587	581	1,945	2,241	413	416	2,130	2,204
/aɪ/	734	822	1,117	1,275	439	359	2,058	2,591
/ɔɪ/	477	428	824	879	443	334	1,924	2,520
/əʊ/	537	545	1,266	1,573	379	380	1,024	1,267
/aʊ/	780	901	1,368	1,538	372	403	1,074	1,088
/ɪə/	382	399	2,096	2,514	578	417	1,643	1,846
/ʊə/	426	420	1,028	1,157	587	485	1,250	1,258

Table 6 Formant frequencies for some GB (relatively) pure vowels in connected speech.

	F1		F2	
Pure vowels	Male	Female	Male	Female
/iː/	280	303	2,249	2,654
/ɪ/	367	384	1,757	2,174
/e/	494	719	1,650	2,063
/a/	690	1,018	1,550	1,799
/ʌ/	644	914	1,259	1,459
/ɑː/	646	910	1,155	1,316
/ɒ/	558	751	1,047	1,215
/ɔː/	415	389	828	888
/ʊ/	379	410	1,173	1,340
/uː/	316	328	1,191	1,437
/ɜː/	478	606	1,436	1,695

9.6 Appendix 6

Overall percentage of the strength of speakers' Derbyshire accent.

Name	Derbyshire /a/	Derbyshire /ʊ/	Strong prefixes	/ŋg/	Derbyshire accent?	%
Michael	6	4	1	1	**12**	**66,67%**
Louise	3	2	4	3	**12**	**66,67%**
Theresa	4	2	3	2	**11**	**61,11%**
Gordon	4	4	-----	2	**10**	**55,56%**
Karen	5	2	-----	3	**10**	**55,56%**
Kay	4	3	-----	3	**10**	**55,56%**
Catrina	5	2	-----	2	**9**	**50,00%**
Tony	4	2	1	2	**9**	**50,00%**

Stewart	4	1	1	2	**8**	**44,44%**
Margie	5	0	-----	3	**8**	**44,44%**
Katt	4	1	-----	3	**8**	**44,44%**
Joseph	3	0	2	3	**8**	**44,44%**
Bob	4	1	1	1	**7**	**38,89%**
Kyle	5	0	-----	2	**7**	**38,89%**
Luke	4	1	-----	2	**7**	**38,89%**
Amanda	4	0	1	2	**7**	**38,89%**
Sharon	4	0	1	2	**7**	**38,89%**
Claire	2	0	1	3	**6**	**33,33%**
Alex L.	4	0	-----	1	**5**	**27,78%**
Pat	3	1	-----	1	**5**	**27,78%**
Alex	3	0	-----	2	**5**	**27,78%**
Christopher	3	0	-----	2	**5**	**27,78%**
Steve	3	0	-----	2	**5**	**27,78%**
Heather	2	1	-----	0	**3**	**16,67%**