

Perceptual Analysis of the Welsh Accent

Aneta Kašpírová

Bachelor's Thesis
2025



Tomas Bata University in Zlín
Faculty of Humanities

Univerzita Tomáše Bati ve Zlíně

Fakulta humanitních studií

Ústav moderních jazyků a literatur

Akademický rok: 2024/2025

ZADÁNÍ BAKALÁŘSKÉ PRÁCE

(projektu, uměleckého díla, uměleckého výkonu)

Jméno a příjmení: Aneta Kašpírová
Osobní číslo: H22524
Studijní program: B0231P090005 Anglický jazyk pro manažerskou praxi
Forma studia: Prezenční
Téma práce: Percepční analýza velšského přízvuku

Zásady pro vypracování

Shromáždění materiálů k tématu
Studium odborné literatury
Teoretické zpracování tématu
Percepční analýza shromážděného materiálu
Vyvození a formulace závěrů

Forma zpracování bakalářské práce: **tištěná/elektronická**
Jazyk zpracování: **Angličtina**

Seznam doporučené literatury:

Bauer, Laurie. 2002. *An Introduction to International Varieties of English*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.
Bergs, Alexander, and Laurel J. Brinton, eds. 2017. *The History of English: Varieties of English*. Berlin: De Gruyter Mouton.
French, Peter, and David Langford. 1993. *Varieties of English: An Introduction to the Study of Language*. Edited by Dennis Freeborn. 2nd ed. Basingstoke: Macmillan.
Hughes, Arthur, Peter Trudgill, and Dominic Watt. 2013. *English Accents & Dialects*. 5th ed. London: Routledge.
Rautonaho, Paula, Hanna Parviainen, Mark Kaunisto, and Arja Nurmi, eds. 2023. *Social and Regional Variation in World Englishes: Local and Global Perspectives*. New York: Routledge.

Vedoucí bakalářské práce: **prof. PaedDr. Zdena Králová, PhD.**
Ústav moderních jazyků a literatur

Datum zadání bakalářské práce: **2. ledna 2025**
Termín odevzdání bakalářské práce: **6. května 2025**

L.S.

Mgr. Libor Marek, Ph.D.
děkan

doc. Mgr. Roman Trušník, Ph.D.
ředitel ústavu

Ve Zlíně dne 24. února 2025

PROHLÁŠENÍ AUTORA BAKALÁŘSKÉ PRÁCE

Beru na vědomí, že

- odevzdáním bakalářské práce souhlasím se zveřejněním své práce podle zákona č. 111/1998 Sb., v platném znění bez ohledu na výsledek obhajoby;
- bakalářská práce bude uložena v elektronické podobě v univerzitním informačním systému a bude dostupná k nahlédnutí;
- jedno vyhotovení bakalářské práce v listinné podobě bude ponecháno Univerzitě Tomáše Bati ve Zlíně k uložení;
- na moji bakalářskou práci se plně vztahuje zákon č. 121/2000 Sb. o právu autorském, o právech souvisejících s právem autorským a o změně některých zákonů (autorský zákon) ve znění pozdějších právních předpisů, zejm. § 35 odst. 3;
- podle § 60 odst. 1 autorského zákona má Univerzita Tomáše Bati ve Zlíně právo na uzavření licenční smlouvy o užití školního díla v rozsahu § 12 odst. 4 autorského zákona;
- podle § 60 odst. 2 a 3 mohu užít své dílo – bakalářskou práci – nebo poskytnout licenci k jejímu využití jen s předchozím písemným souhlasem Univerzity Tomáše Bati ve Zlíně, která je oprávněna v takovém případě ode mne požadovat přiměřený příspěvek na úhradu nákladů, které byly Univerzitou Tomáše Bati ve Zlíně na vytvoření díla vynaloženy (až do jejich skutečné výše);
- pokud bylo k vypracování bakalářské práce využito softwaru poskytnutého Univerzitou Tomáše Bati ve Zlíně nebo jinými subjekty pouze ke studijním a výzkumným účelům (tj. k nekomerčnímu využití), nelze výsledky bakalářské práce využít ke komerčním účelům;
- pokud je výstupem bakalářské práce jakýkoliv softwarový produkt, považují se za součást práce rovněž i zdrojové kódy, popř. soubory, ze kterých se projekt skládá; neodevzdání této součásti může být důvodem k neobhájení práce.

Prohlašuji, že

- jsem na bakalářské práci pracoval(a) samostatně a použitou literaturu jsem řádně citoval(a); v případě publikace výsledků budu uveden(a) jako spoluautor;
- odevzdaná verze bakalářské práce a verze elektronická nahraná do IS/STAG jsou obsahově totožné.

Ve Zlíně, dne

.....

podpis autora

ABSTRAKT

Tato bakalářská práce se zabývá velšským přízvukem. Je rozdělena na dvě části. Teoretická část obsahuje informace o historii a vývoji velšského jazyka. Také popisuje variety britské angličtiny s hlavním zaměřením na velšskou výslovnost. Praktická část začíná metodikou, pokračuje percepční analýzou výslovnosti pěti různých mluvčích a končí s výsledky analýzy. Analýza zahrnuje grafy pro lepší vizualizaci fonetických rysů pozorovaných v nahrávkách.

Klíčová slova: velšský přízvuk, výslovnost, percepční analýza.

ABSTRACT

This bachelor's thesis deals with the Welsh accent. It is divided into two parts. The theoretical part contains information about the history and development of the Welsh language. It also describes British English varieties with the main focus on Welsh pronunciation. The practical part begins with methodology, continues with the perceptual analysis of the pronunciation of five different speakers, and ends with the results of the analysis. The analysis includes graphs for better visualization of the phonetic features observed in the recordings.

Keywords: the Welsh accent, pronunciation, perceptual analysis.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my supervisor, prof. PaedDr. Zdena Král'ová, Ph.D., for her guidance throughout the process of writing my bachelor's thesis, for the time that she devoted to supervising my thesis, and for her valuable recommendations.

I am also thankful to my family and friends for supporting me during my studies and the writing of my bachelor's thesis.

CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION	11
I THEORY.....	12
1 HISTORY OF THE WELSH LANGUAGE.....	13
1.1 THE ORIGIN OF CELTIC	13
1.2 THE BRITTONIC LANGUAGE.....	13
1.2.1 Successor languages of Brittonic	14
1.2.2 The transition from Brittonic to Welsh	15
2 CHANGES IN THE WELSH LANGUAGE OVER TIME	16
2.1 OLD WELSH (850–1150).....	16
2.2 MIDDLE WELSH (12 TH –14 TH C.).....	16
2.3 MODERN WELSH (FROM 1500).....	17
2.4 17 TH CENTURY WELSH.....	17
2.5 18 TH CENTURY WELSH.....	18
2.6 19 TH CENTURY WELSH.....	18
2.7 20 TH CENTURY WELSH.....	19
2.8 21 ST CENTURY WELSH	21
3 VARIETIES OF BRITISH ENGLISH.....	22
3.1 WELSH	22
3.1.1 Welsh pronunciation	22
3.2 RECEIVED PRONUNCIATION	31
II ANALYSIS.....	33
4 METHODOLOGY.....	34
4.1 OBJECTIVES.....	34
4.2 METHOD.....	34
4.3 PROCEDURE.....	35
4.4 MATERIAL.....	35
4.5 SAMPLE.....	35
4.5.1 Speaker 1	36
4.5.2 Speaker 2	36
4.5.3 Speaker 3	36
4.5.4 Speaker 4	36
4.5.5 Speaker 5	36
5 RESULTS.....	37
5.1 EXTRA LENGTHENING OF VOWELS.....	38
5.2 A TAPPED R.....	39

5.3	STRONG ASPIRATION OF /P, T, K/	40
5.4	/N/-ENDING ON “ING” VERB ENDINGS	42
5.5	GLOTTAL STOPS.....	43
5.6	/E:/ IN MADE.....	44
5.7	/O:/ IN GOAT.....	45
5.8	/JU:/ IN DUKE AND TUNE	46
5.9	INTERESTING FEATURES	47
5.9.1	Speaker 1	48
5.9.2	Speaker 2	48
5.9.3	Speaker 3	48
5.9.4	Speaker 4	48
5.9.5	Speaker 5	49
5.10	OTHER PERCEIVED FEATURES	49
5.11	UNPERCEIVED FEATURES.....	49
CONCLUSION.....		52
BIBLIOGRAPHY		53
LIST OF FIGURES		55
LIST OF TABLES		56
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS		57
APPENDICES		58

INTRODUCTION

Accent is “something you hear” (Bauer 2002, 2). The term relates to the way in which words are pronounced (French and Langford 1993, 59). Thus, it is “the sound you make when you talk” (Bauer 2002, 2). Everyone who uses pronunciation has an accent (Bauer 2002, 2–3). There are many different accents in the world. For example, British accent, American accent, Australian accent, Canadian accent, etc. On the other hand, dialect includes variations in vocabulary and grammar as well (French and Langford 1993, 59). Standard British English is a dialect. It differs from other dialects in terms of grammar and vocabulary (Hughes, Trudgill, and Watt 2013, 3).

British English is the language used in the British Isles. It has a number of varieties that can differ in terms of pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar. For example, Received Pronunciation, Estuary English, Cockney, Yorkshire, Geordie, and Brummie in England; Edinburgh and Glaswegian varieties in Scotland; Cardiff and Pontypridd in Wales, and Belfast variety in Northern Ireland. (Bergs and Brinton 2017)

I chose the Welsh accent because I wanted to explore its rich history and unique phonetic features, influenced by Celtic roots, and compare them to the English ones. I was curious about how the language is used differently by various generations of speakers of different genders and how the language itself developed over time.

I THEORY

1 HISTORY OF THE WELSH LANGUAGE

The Welsh language has evolved from Indo-European (Davies 2014, 1). Same as German, Dutch, Swedish, Danish, Norwegian, Spanish, Italian, French, Polish, Croatian, Irish, Hindi, Bengali, Urdu, Albanian, Armenian, and other languages mostly of Europe and also Asia (Davies 2014, 1). “Indo-European was spoken at least 6,000 years ago (4,000 BC) by a semi-nomadic people [...]” (Davies 2014, 1). Speakers of these languages moved eastwards and westwards (Davies 2014, 1). By 3,500 BC reached the Danube valley, and by 2,000 BC India (Davies 2014, 1–4). Because of the migration, the dialects of Indo-European became significantly distinct from each other and developed into different languages (Davies 2014, 4). Nowadays, Indo-European languages are spoken in the area from Bengal to Portugal and in countries like New Zealand and Canada as well (Davies 2014, 4). Languages like Welsh, Breton, Cornish, Irish, Scots Gaelic, and Manx evolved from the Celtic branch (Davies 2014, 4). Although they were not accepted as members of the Indo-European family until 1853 (Davies 2014, 4).

1.1 The origin of Celtic

There are a couple of different views about the origin of Celtic. It is said that the Celts were “the first Indo-European people to spread across Europe” and that their culture originated in the eastern Alps in the eighth century BC (Davies 2014, 4). Others believe that Celtic origins can be traced back to the Atlantic coast, spreading throughout Europe following the economy of the late Bronze Age (Davies 2014, 4). By the Iron Age, Celtic speakers came to parts of Anatolia, Spain, Britain, Ireland, Gaul, Germany, Italy, and the Danube Basin (Davies 2014, 5). That is why some of the European rivers, like the Rhine or Dauge, and cities like London or Paris hold Celtic names (Davies 2014, 5).

1.2 The Brittonic language

There are a couple of forms of Celtic. Gallo-Brittonic is the name of the Celtic speech of Gaul and Britain (Davies 2014, 6). The arrival of Celtic speakers to Britain and Ireland dates back to 600 BC (Davies 2014, 6). Another form of Celtic is called the Galatian, and it was spoken in Anatolia (Davies 2014, 5–6). Galatian had been replaced in the Christian era mostly by Greek, as well as another form of Celtic, the Lepontic of northern Italy, was being taken over by Latin (Davies 2014, 6). The Gaulish had been quite resistant until 550 AD,

when it experienced an elimination due to the influence of German-speaking people and was replaced by Latin (Davies 2014, 6).

When the Romans invaded Britain from 43 AD to 70 AD, “Latin became the language of law and administration” (Davies 2014, 7). Brittonic was still spoken, particularly in the western parts of the island, but Latin words were used more and more (Davies 2014, 7). Then, in 410 AD, Roman power in Britain collapsed (Davies 2014, 7).

Settlers from Ireland established many colonies in north-west Wales and influenced the naming of some places there (Davies 2014, 8). For instance, the name of the county Dyfed (Davies 2014, 8). Around thirty memorial stones with inscriptions in “ogam”, which is a script created in southwest Ireland, were found as well (Davies 2014, 8). Later, after the fall of the Roman Empire, many people in Wales spoke Irish (Davies 2014, 8). Some Irish words are used in Wales to this day. To give an example, the word “cnwc”, meaning hill (Davies 2014, 8).

Then, after the migration of people from southern Scotland, the number of Brittonic speakers increased again (Davies 2014, 8). Some names of places in England that have Brittonic origins have survived (Davies 2014, 9). As an illustration, the river Avon from the Welsh “afon”, meaning river.

After the empire collapsed, it also led to migration to the island by people from present-day Germany and the Netherlands (Davies 2014, 9). That made the Anglo-Saxon or Old English dominant (Davies 2014, 9).

1.2.1 Successor languages of Brittonic

According to Davies (2014, 10), there are four varieties of Brittonic: Cumbric, Welsh, Cornish, and Breton. Cumbric was spoken in southern Scotland and north-west England, Welsh in Wales, Cornish in south-west Britain, and Breton in Brittany (Davies 2014, 10). The Welsh and Cumbric speakers are called Cymry, and their language is called Cymraeg (Davies 2014, 12). The name of the county, Cumbria, is in Cymraeg, as well as the name of the town called Penrith (Davies 2014, 12). The kingdom of Strathclyde continued to speak Cumbric until its downfall around 1018. Devon was conquered by the English around 710, and the kingdom of Cornwall around 878 (Davies 2014, 12). The Cornish language persisted in Devon until about 950 and continued to be spoken in Cornwall until the eighteenth century (Davies 2014, 12).

1.2.2 The transition from Brittonic to Welsh

Welsh is a successor of Brittonic that is still spoken to this day (Davies 2014, 12). In contrast with, for example, Gaelic, whose history reaches just about 1500 years back, Welsh roots go back 2500 to 4000 years (Davies 2014, 12).

It is very hard to say when exactly the transition happened because there is no evidence of written materials in Brittonic (Davies 2014, 13). According to Davies (2014, 13), it must have been around the years 400 and 700. However, it may have occurred earlier in the spoken language (Davies 2014, 13).

Brittonic was a “synthetic language” (Davies 2014, 13). That means that the meaning was expressed through alterations in the endings of words (Davies 2014, 13). Latin has the same system (Davies 2014, 13). To illustrate, “servus” (the slave), “servi” (of the slave), and “servo” (to/for the slave) all differ in the suffix. Those endings stopped being used in Brittonic, and the connections between words started to be expressed through prepositions or by the position of the word in a sentence (Davies 2014, 13). The replacement of Brittonic became clear when nouns lost the syllables at the end of the words (Davies 2014, 13). By way of illustration, “cat” in Brittonic was “cattus” and “cath” in Welsh. *Lingua Britannica* is another way of referring to Welsh (Davies 2014, 13).

2 CHANGES IN THE WELSH LANGUAGE OVER TIME

This section will be focused on the eight stages in Welsh language development. It starts with Old Welsh, continues with Middle Welsh and Modern Welsh, 17th, 18th, 19th, and 20th centuries follow, until today.

2.1 Old Welsh (850–1150)

This era started roughly in the year 850 (Davies 2014, 15). A significant portion of Old Welsh consists of individual words and phrases that provide explanations for Latin texts or appear as notes in the margins of a text (Britain 2007, 190). The oldest example of Old Welsh can be found in the book *Lichfield Gospels (Surrexit memorandum)* (Britain 2007, 190; Davies 2014, 16). There are also some poems written in *the Juvenius manuscript* that can be found in the Cambridge University Library nowadays (Davies 2014, 16). Other than that, Old Welsh is very sparsely documented. The later stages will provide much more information and evidence about the Welsh language.

“Aneirin and Taliesin are the first of the Cynfeirdd (the Early Poets) [...]” (Davies 2014, 17). They are viewed as the originators of the Welsh poetic tradition (Davies 2014, 17). Although they were not from Wales, but from Yr Hen Ogledd (The Old North) (Davies 2014, 17).

2.2 Middle Welsh (12th–14th c.)

Middle Welsh (1250 onwards) is described as the era of the victory of William of Normandy (Davies 2014, 23). “French became the language of the English court, of the homes of the nobility and of high culture” (Davies 2014, 23). French words were incorporated into Welsh, and the literature was also influenced by French forms (Davies 2014, 25). Some places in Wales were named in French, such as Beaupre and Beaumaris, as well as human names like Robert and William became popular among the Welsh (Davies 2014, 25). Significant English settlement occurred in Gower, the Vale of Glamorgan, and certain regions of Gwent and the northeastern areas, too (Davies 2014, 25). Even with the arrival of French and English speakers, Wales continued to be predominantly Welsh-speaking in the Middle Ages (Davies 2014, 26). A variety of dialects in spoken Welsh had appeared in this period, namely distinctions between north and south (Britain 2007, 190).

Welsh continues to be used in religious texts, as mentioned above, and in legal and medical texts as well (Davies 2014, 27). Poetry was also a big part of the Middle Ages. Y

Gogynfeirdd and the Poets of the Princes were professional poets who sang to the Welsh princes in the Middle Welsh era (Davies 2014, 27). *The Mabinogion*, a literary collection of prose stories, is a symbol of twelfth-century literature ('The Welsh Language', n.d.).

2.3 Modern Welsh (from 1500)

In 1536, Henry VIII's Act of Union was passed (Davies 2014, 33). This Act integrated Wales into England and established that Wales was exclusively governed by English law (Davies 2014, 33). Welsh lost the status of an administrative language ('The Welsh Language', n.d.). In the border countries of Wales, the inhabitants were mostly monoglot English because the border countries offered entry points for English (Davies 2014, 34). However, the local language of non-border countries was Welsh (Davies 2014, 34). The act also presumed the formation of a Welsh ruling class that could communicate in English (Davies 2014, 35). Because Welsh was seen as a burden, it led the nobility to begin the long process of abandoning Welsh (Davies 2014, 35). That did not completely happen, thanks to the Protestant Reformation (Davies 2014, 37). In 1563, the bishop of Hereford, with four Welsh bishops, was tasked with producing the Welsh translation of *the Bible* to help the local population understand the religious texts (Davies 2014, 33–34). In the same year, the parliament passed an Act that said that in four years, people should be able to access the Welsh translation of *the Bible* and *the Prayer Book* and that the divine service should be conducted in the Welsh tongue (Davies 2014, 39).

William Salesbury translated the New Testament and *the Prayer Book* and published them by 1567 (Davies 2014, 39). The translation of *the Bible* was done by William Morgan in 1588 (Davies 2014, 39). Sir John Price wanted for the people who only spoke Welsh to understand the new religion as well, so he published the first book printed in Welsh called *Yn y lhyvyr hwnn* (Davies 2014, 39). In 1620, John Davies of Mallwyd revised *the Bible* and published Welsh grammar in Latin and a Latin–Welsh dictionary (Davies 2014, 41).

2.4 17th century Welsh

Welsh had ceased to be recognized as “a language of high culture” by this time (Davies 2014, 42). In this period, it was generally believed that the Welsh language would disappear. Even though most of the population spoke only Welsh.

The most significant writer in this period was Morgan Llwyd (Davies 2014, 43). He wrote *The Book of the Three Birds* (*Llyfr y Tri Aderyn*) (Davies 2014, 43). Many religious

translations were produced as well (Thomson et al., n.d.). An important characteristic of this era was also the rise of poets from modest backgrounds (Davies 2014, 43). It was no longer just for the wealthy. Among the most famous poets of this time are Huw Morus and Lewis Morris (Thomson et al., n.d.). Almanacs were also one of those popular works. For example, Thomas Jones's almanacs (Davies 2014, 44). Ellis Wynne of Lasynys represents prose of the 17th-century Welsh (Thomson et al., n.d.). Some of his most famous works are *Rheol Buchedd Sanctaidd* and *Gweledigaethu y Bardd Cwsc* (Thomson et al., n.d.). *Can O Senn Iw Hen Feistr Tobacco* was the first book produced using a permanent printing press in Wales in 1718 ('Literacy in 17th Century Wales', n.d.).

2.5 18th century Welsh

Druidism became popular in the early 18th century (Davies 2014, 46). Due to this fact, Welsh poets were seen as the heirs of the druids (Davies 2014, 46). The Methodist Revival in Wales was a little different than the one in England. The Welsh Calvinistic Methodists separated from the Church of England in 1811, and the Church of England became a minority in Wales (Davies 2014, 49).

In 1727, William Gambold published the first English book to be printed in Wales, called *A Grammar of the Welsh Language* (Davies 2014, 47). In London (1751), the Honourable Society of Cymmrodorion was established (Thomson et al., n.d.). Typical of the 18th century Welsh were also hymn writers. William Williams of Pant-y-celyn and Ann Griffiths were some of the most prominent hymn writers of this period who were inspired by free meter (Thomson et al., n.d.).

2.6 19th century Welsh

Strict meter poetry was not so popular anymore in the 19th century (Thomson et al., n.d.). Welsh prose was written by people with little formal education (Thomson et al., n.d.). Thus, the quality was not as good either. In 1891, a census was carried out to find out how many people (over the age of two) in Wales claimed to speak Welsh, English, or both. It showed that 54.4%, which equals 910,289 speakers, spoke Welsh (Davies 2014, 81). While 56 per cent of them (508,036) were monoglots (Davies 2014, 81). The number of those who spoke only Welsh declined between the years 1891 and 1901 (Davies 2014, 81).

William Owen Pughe tried to make the literary standards better. He published a Welsh dictionary in 1803 and put together two grammars of the Welsh language (Davies 2014, 58–

59). He invented a new Welsh orthography, too (Davies 2014, 59). Samuel Roberts and Gwilym Hiraethog were two of many political writers of the 19th century (Thomson et al., n.d.).

Because of the fact that by the 19th century, there were no Welsh upper-class families, the press was produced by lower-middle and working-class members for those of the same class (Davies 2014, 64). The first Welsh weekly newspaper was *Seren Gomer* (1814) (Davies 2014, 62). In 1895, the University of Wales was founded (Davies 2014, 71).

2.7 20th century Welsh

By the 20th century, the number of Welsh speakers was decreasing at a pace that indicated that the language could disappear within a relatively short time frame. In the first half of the 20th century, another two censuses were conducted (Davies 2014, 87). They differed from the 1891 census in the age category (children over 3 years old rather than 2 as in the earlier census) and in the arrangement of the tables (arranged by country, not by registration district) (Davies 2014, 87). According to Davies (2014, 87), the number of Welsh speakers rose to 929,824 in 1901 and 977,366 in 1911. However, there was a decline in the percentage of the Welsh population reporting speaking Welsh (from 54.4% in 1891 to 49.9% in 1901 and 43.5% in 1911) and an increase in the number of those who spoke English (84.9% in 1901 and 91.5% in 1911) (Davies 2014, 87). During this period, Industrialization had a negative impact on the Welsh language as the arrival of English speakers contributed to the anglicization of Welsh communities (Davies 2014, 88). Another census took place in 1921, and it revealed that the percentage of the Welsh-speaking population in Wales had fallen to 37.1% (922,092), mainly due to the First World War and its consequences (Davies 2014, 91).

The London daily newspaper became popular, and sales of Welsh periodicals fell off (Davies 2014, 93). Only non-Welsh films were played in cinemas, and the British Broadcasting Corporation service was mainly in English until the Welsh Region of the BBC (the British Broadcasting Corporation) was established in 1937 (Davies 2014, 93, 97). There were also some attempts to encourage young people to take an interest in the Welsh language. Such as creating the Urdd Gobaith Cymru in 1922 by Ifan ab Owen Edwards or the Plaid Genedlaethol Cymru in 1925 (Davies 2014, 94).

In 1942, the Welsh Courts Act was passed (Davies 2014, 98). It started with a petition insisting that Welsh receives equal status to English (Davies 2014, 98). The outcome was

not as positive as Welsh had hoped for. The Act permitted limited use of the Welsh language in courts (same as Greek or Arabic languages), but it was not even close to being equal to English (Davies 2014, 99).

In 1951, only 28.9% (714,686) of residents from Wales claimed that they could speak Welsh (Davies 2014, 102). This census also showed that there were no longer communities that only spoke Welsh (Davies 2014, 103). But the disappearance of the last adult Welsh monoglot did not happen until the 1960s (Davies 2014, 106). The portion of Welsh inhabitants speaking Welsh declined to 26% (656,002) in 1961, 20.9% (542,425) in 1971 (probably because of the inclusion of the question about not only speaking Welsh but being able to write and read in Welsh as well) and 18.7% (503,520) in 1981 (Davies 2014, 104). Places with a higher percentage of Welsh speakers (at the end of the 20th century) included, for example, central Anglesey, Denbighshire, and Montgomeryshire (Davies 2014, 108).

In 1962, the Welsh Language Society (Cymdeithas yr Iaith Gymraeg) was established (Davies 2014, 120). The formation of the society was inspired by a BBC Welsh-language lecture of Saunders Lewis (Davies 2014, 120). The society, for instance, organized a campaign against monolingual road signs in the 1960s (Davies 2014, 121).

In 1967, one of the two Welsh Language Acts was signed (Davies 2014, 120). It allowed people to use Welsh in legal proceedings in Wales (Carradice, n.d.). However, in the 1970s and 1980s, there was a need for another Welsh Language Act to add to the first one (Davies 2014, 122). It was set in 1993, and it created the Welsh Language Board and enshrined the principle of equal treatment for the Welsh and English languages in public business ('Welsh Language Act 1993 | Law Wales', n.d.).

The 20th-century literature became more significant in the 1920s and 1930s (Davies 2014, 95). "A more naturalistic style of poetry" was used in this era (Davies 2014, 95). Some of the prominent figures of this century were a poet and essayist, Sir Thomas Parry-Williams; a poet and essayist, W.J. Gruffydd; a poet, dramatist, and politician, Saunders Lewis; an essayist and historian, R.T. Jenkins; and a short-story writer, Kate Roberts (Thomson et al., n.d.). In the final 20 years of the 20th century, the literary movement Postmodernism emerged (Thomson et al., n.d.). The first Welsh drama was written in the 20th century (Thomson et al., n.d.). Novelists like William Owen Roberts or Mihangel Morgan and playwrights like Saunders Lewis and Gwenlyn Parry gained recognition (Thomson et al., n.d.).

2.8 21st century Welsh

To compare the censuses of 1991, 2001, and 2011, in the 1991 census, it was discovered that 508,100 of the inhabitants of Wales over the age of three were capable of speaking Welsh (Davies 2014, 159). The change was seen mainly in the category of 3 to 15-year-olds stating they can speak Welsh (4 % increase from 1981) (Davies 2014, 159). However, in the anglicized districts, the number of Welsh speakers was around 10% of the whole population and around 27% of the 3–14 category (Davies 2014, 160). The numbers show that the percentage of children speaking Welsh was bigger than the percentage of the whole Welsh population speaking Welsh, which indicates that more and more children were learning Welsh in schools (Davies 2014, 160). In comparison, the census of 2001 included a question about the ability to understand Welsh (Davies 2014, 160). It reported that 797,866 of the Welsh had some understanding of the Welsh language (Davies 2014, 160). The 2011 census presented a 1.8% decrease in the number of people speaking Welsh, and the number of young Welsh speakers growing at a much slower pace than before (Davies 2014, 166). It also provided the information that there were no longer any Welsh-speaking majorities in the counties of Ceredigion and Carmarthenshire (Davies 2014, 166). But in Gwynedd, 65.4% of Welsh speakers stated to be fluent (Davies 2014, 166).

The financial crisis at the beginning of the 21st century caused harm to the Welsh language and its development (Davies 2014, 163). The ongoing financial pressure led to some cuts in Welsh language promotion and education. In 2012, the government announced the end of funding Sianel Pedwar Cymru (the Welsh fourth channel) (Davies 2014, 163). National Savings (government organization) stopped providing service in Welsh (Davies 2014, 163). Many young people move to England too because of the unstable economy in Wales (Davies 2014, 167).

In the early 21st century, a significant proportion of books published in Welsh were children's books or books for educational purposes (Davies 2014, 139). Autobiographies aimed at adult audiences were common as well (Davies 2014, 139). At this time, new young poets started to appear and win prizes in the National Eisteddfod, such as Mererid Hopwood and Gwyneth Lewis (Davies 2014, 39–40). As for prose, short stories and essays declined in popularity (Davies 2014, 140). Robin Llywelyn and Mihangel Morgan are two of the greatest novelists of this era (Davies 2014, 140).

3 VARIETIES OF BRITISH ENGLISH

According to Bauer (2002, 69), “accents of English are described in terms of deviations from one of the two best-described accents, RP (Received Pronunciation) and General American.” This section describes different varieties of British English, like Welsh English and RP.

3.1 Welsh

“Welsh is a Celtic language, belonging to the Brythonic group [...]” (Britain 2007, 237). It is a British dialect, just like Scottish or Irish (Rautionaho et al. 2023, 99).

3.1.1 Welsh pronunciation

Unlike English, Welsh is very phonetic (Davies 2014, 179). The words are pronounced the same way as they are written. To illustrate, words like “through”, “though”, and “thorough” can be a little confusing in English (Davies 2014, 179). Every single one of them ends with “-ough”, but the pronunciation is different. In English, some letters can be silent (Davies 2014, 179). For instance, the first letter “k” in the word “knock” is silent. It is the same as in the words “know”, “knee”, and “knight”. The letter “g” in the word “gnarly” is not pronounced either. As well as “h” in words like “hour”, “honour”, and “honest”. But in Welsh, every letter is pronounced (Davies 2014, 179).

As Figure 1 below demonstrates, the Welsh alphabet has twenty simple letters and eight digraphs (Davies 2014, 180). Digraphs are “two letters combining to produce a different sound” (Davies 2014, 180). An example of a digraph is the letter “ch” that we use in the Czech language. Welsh does not have the letters “j”, “k”, “q”, “v”, “x”, or “z” (Davies 2014, 180). The letter “c” is always pronounced as the English letter “k”, “f” is pronounced as “v”, and “s” as “ss” (Davies 2014, 180). The /ɪə/ and /ʊə/ sounds are absent as well (Wells 1982, 2:380).

The Welsh alphabet (*Yr Wyddor Gymraeg*)

A a	B b	C c	Ch ch	D d	Dd dd	E e	F f	Ff ff	G g
a	bi	èc	èch	di	èdd	e	èf	èff	eg
Ng ng	H h	I i	L l	Ll ll	M m	N n	O o	P p	Ph ph
èng	aitsh	i-dot	èl	èll	èm	èn	o	pi	ffi
R r	Rh rh	S s	T t	Th th	U u	W w	Y y		
èr	rhi	ès	ti	èth	i-bedol	w	y		

Figure 1 The Welsh alphabet

(*Welsh Alphabet - Welsh Vowels - Yr Wyddor Gymraeg*, n.d.)

Welsh is considered to be a “syllable-timed” language, the same as French (Britain 2007, 70). That means syllable durations are generally more consistent (Britain 2007, 70).

<i>short</i>	<i>long</i>
i	i:
u	u:
ə	e:
ε	ɜ:
ɔ	o:
a	ɔ:
	a:

Figure 2 Welsh monophthongs

(Wells 1982, 2:382)

As stated in Figure 2, Welsh has short and long vowels (Wells 1982, 2:382). According to Hannahs (2013, 25), in unstressed syllables, vowels are always short. In stressed syllables, the vowel is long when it precedes a voiced stop, or /f, θ, χ, v, ð, s/, and short when it precedes a voiceless stop, /m, ŋ/ or a consonant cluster (Ball and Muller 2010, 361). A vowel that is preceding /h/ can be short (north) or long (south) (Ball and Muller 2010, 361). Vowel can be short in the south when it is followed by a cluster of a fricative and a stop, e.g. /'gwaht/ (Ball and Muller 2010, 361). Completely long are only those vowels in monosyllables (Ball and Muller 2010, 362). The /ə/ occurs only if a consonant follows and in non-final syllables (it is not typically found in monosyllables) (Ball and Muller 2010, 363; Russell 2016, 151).

Northern diphthongs

- | | | | |
|----------|---|--------------------|------------------------------|
| (a) [aɪ] | [t ^h aɪ] <i>tai</i> ‘houses’ | (b) [aʊ] | [l̪aʊ] <i>llaw</i> ‘hand’ |
| [ɔɪ] | [t ^h ɔɪ] <i>troi</i> ‘turn’ | [ɛʊ] | [l̪ɛʊ] <i>llew</i> ‘lion’ |
| [əɪ] | [t ^h əɪ] <i>tei</i> ‘tie’ | [əʊ] | [ˈbəʊɪd] <i>bywyd</i> ‘life’ |
| | | [ɪʊ] ¹³ | [l̪ɪʊ] <i>lliw</i> ‘colour’ |
| | | [iʊ] | [iʊ] <i>yw</i> ‘is’ |
-
- | | |
|----------|---|
| (c) [aɪ] | [k ^h aɪ] <i>cau</i> ‘close’ |
| [aɪ] | [k ^h aɪ] <i>cae</i> ‘field’ |
| [ɔɪ] | [k ^h ɔɪd] <i>coed</i> ‘wood’ |
| [ʊɪ] | [mʊɪ] <i>mwy</i> ‘more’ |
| [əɪ] | [nəɪ] <i>neu</i> ‘or’ |

Figure 3 Northern Welsh diphthongs

(Hannahs 2013, 25)

Northern Welsh diphthongs can be divided into three categories (Figure 3). Diphthongs that close by moving to a high front vowel such as [aɪ, əɪ, ɔɪ] while the first element is short, to a high back vowel including [aʊ, ɛʊ, əʊ, ɪʊ, iʊ] while the first element is short in [əʊ, ɪʊ, iʊ] and long in [aʊ, ɛʊ] when in monosyllable without a consonant after, or to a high central position like [ai, ai/a:i, ɔi/o:i, ɔi/u:i, əi] with [ai, əi] with short first element and [a:i], [u:i] and [o:i] with long first element in monosyllables (Hannahs 2013, 25; Ball and Muller 2010, 363). The south system does not have simple high central vowels (Ball and Muller 2010, 365). Thus, it does not have /iʊ/ or diphthongs that are closing towards a high central vowel (Ball and Muller 2010, 365). Diphthongs closing towards a high front vowel or a high back vowel have a short first element (Ball and Muller 2010, 365). In south and north Wales, /ai, ai, a:i/ diphthongs do not occur in non-final syllables (Ball and Muller 2010, 365). On the other hand, /əʊ/ diphthong appears only in non-final syllables (Ball and Muller 2010, 365). In careful speech, diphthongs present in the unstressed final syllable tend to be substituted with vowels, e.g., /o:i/ or /ɔi/ can be replaced by /ɔ/ (Ball and Muller 2010, 365).

As presented in Figure 3 above, Northern Welsh contains “barred-I” in the vowel system, while the southern system does not (Hannahs 2013, 24). The /i/ sound is present in 6 diphthongs in the northern system and also works as a short /i/ and a long /i:/ monophthong.

The [i] and [u] monophthongs, as well as [aɪ], [ai], [aʊ], and [iʊ] diphthongs, can be influenced by “vowel mutation” when being in a non-final position (Hannahs 2013, 55). They switch with [ə], [ə], [əɪ], [əi], [ɔ], and [i] vowels. To give an example, “taith” [aɪ] (journey) becomes “teithio” [əɪ] (to journey) (Hannahs 2013, 56). Another vowel alternation is called “vowel affection” (Hannahs 2013, 78). It is characterized by the replacement of vowels in a stem by other vowels due to the presence of /i/ or /i/ in a suffix (Hannahs 2013, 78). As an illustration, the [a] sound alternates with the [ɛ] sound in the plural of “nant” [nant] (book), e.g., “nentydd” [ˈnentið] (books) (Hannahs 2013, 78).

The Survey of Anglo-Welsh Dialects was initiated by David Parry of Swansea University in 1968 (‘The Archive of Welsh English - Swansea University’, n.d.). He provides extensive and complex data of Welsh English collected from rural areas of Wales (Kortmann and Upton 2008, 107). In his work “A Grammar and Glossary of the Conservative Anglo-Welsh Dialects of Rural Wales”, Parry tries to present a phonemicization for Welsh English (Kortmann and Upton 2008, 107). To categorize

different vowel sounds based on specific words, the lexical sets given by Wells (Wells 1982) are used (Britain 2007, 154).

The first lexical set is the KIT set (Wells 1982, 2:127). In the Welsh language, the pronunciation of KIT words is realized as short [ɪ] (Kortmann and Upton 2008, 109). It also appears in words like “ship”, “chip”, or “mister”. In the DRESS set, [ɛ] is pronounced, e.g., words “test”, “bread”, “bed” contain this vowel (Kortmann and Upton 2008, 109). Welsh does not have the [ʌ] sound (Britain 2007, 155). In the STRUT set, the vowel is centralised and raised and often pronounced as [ə] or sometimes [ʊ] (Britain 2007, 155). According to Wells (1982, 2:380), this is called the STRUT-Schwa Merger.

In Wales (mostly north and west), the word “none” belonging to the ONE set is pronounced with /ɒ/ instead of /ʌ/ as it is pronounced in RP (Britain 2007, 155–56). In eastern mid-Wales and the southwest corner, [ʌ] is pronounced in the word “foot” (FOOT group), while in the northwest, [ʊ] is used (Britain 2007, 156). In most parts of Wales, [ʊ] is uttered in the word “tooth” (Britain 2007, 158). Despite the fact that in the north, most of the GOOSE words, like the previously mentioned “tooth” or the word “root”, are pronounced with [u:] (Britain 2007, 158).

The TRAP group is usually pronounced with [a], but in mid-Wales, [æ], [ɛ], and [a:] are also possible (Kortmann and Upton 2008, 109). The START group carries [a:] sound; nevertheless, [ɑ:] is also put into use in some areas in southwest (Kortmann and Upton 2008, 115). BATH words are either pronounced with short [a/æ] or with long [a:/æ:/ɑ:] forms (Britain 2007, 156). The form [a] is used the most and in all regions (Britain 2007, 156). It is the same for PALM words (Britain 2007, 157). For instance, in south-western Wales, short [a] is used, but in Cardiff, [a:] is more common (Britain 2007, 157).

LOT contains [ɔ] most of the time (Kortmann and Upton 2008, 110). However, [ɒ] can appear as well, typically in the north (Kortmann and Upton 2008, 110). Similarly to the LOT group, CLOTH is pronounced with [ɔ] or [ɒ] in most regions (Kortmann and Upton 2008, 112). Yet [ɔ:] is common too, especially in mid-Wales (Kortmann and Upton 2008, 112). The [ɔ:] vowel is also present in the THOUGHT set (Kortmann and Upton 2008, 114).

The southern region of Wales is also associated with “the long, rounded, centralised-front, half-open [œ:]” in NURSE (instead of /ɜ:/) (Britain 2007, 156). It is something between the Welsh /ə/ + /ɪ/ and the RP /ɜ:/ sounds (Britain 2007, 157). Though /ə/ in *nurse* is used throughout Wales too, it is not present in the Rhondda Valleys (south) (Britain 2007,

157). The Rhondda Valleys are also characterized by a special feature of lengthening of “the vowel in the final unstressed syllables” (in lettER group) (Britain 2007, 159–60). Thus, it is never “reduced to schwa” (Britain 2007, 160). The word “letter” is pronounced with [ʌ] (Britain 2007, 160).

In Welsh, there is also a distinction between “the FACE/STAY group” and “the GOAT/SNOW group” (Britain 2007, 157). In words like “great” or “take”, [e:] is pronounced in Welsh, while [eɪ] is pronounced in Received Pronunciation (Britain 2007, 157). In “road” or “load”, [o:] is pronounced in Welsh while /oo/ is pronounced in RP (Britain 2007, 157). That is because Welsh does not have /eɪ/ and /oo/ diphthongs (Britain 2007, 157). However, in anglicized places like Cardiff, the [eɪ] and [oo] diphthongs are used, as it is a more modern way of speaking (Wells 1982, 2:382). For STAY and SNOW groups, monophthongs are less likely in Welsh (Britain 2007, 157). Words that contain spelling “ai, ay, ei, ey, eigh” such as “day” or “hay” have [eɪ] pronunciation and words with “ou, ow, ol” spelling such as “low” or “shadow” have [ou] pronunciation (Britain 2007, 157; ‘Welsh English’, n.d.).

Welsh language uses /əi, əu/ diphthongs in PRICE and MOUTH word groups instead of /ai, au/ diphthongs (in the south primarily) (Wells 1982, 2:383). To illustrate, “nice” is pronounced as [nəis] rather than [nais] (also FIRE group), and “round” as [rəund] rather than [raund] (also POWER group) (Wells 1982, 2:384; Britain 2007, 159). The words belonging to the FLEECE set contain [i:] vowel (Kortmann and Upton 2008, 112). However, [iə] can be perceived in the speech of mid-Wales inhabitants (Kortmann and Upton 2008, 112).

In NEAR/EAR words, [jœ:] occurs (Britain 2007, 159). This sound, consisting of initial /j/ followed by [œ:] or [ə:], is mainly used in south Wales in words like “beer” or “fear” (Britain 2007, 159; Wells 1982, 2:381). The TUESDAY group is a special group because it contains a phoneme that does not exist in RP (Britain 2007, 159). The phoneme /ɪu/ can be heard throughout the whole of Wales and contrasts with the /u:/ sound that is used in RP (Britain 2007, 159). It can be found in the CURE group as well (Britain 2007, 159). In the CURE group, the last syllable is pronounced like [ʌ] and not like [ə] (Britain 2007, 159). This also applies to the FIRE and POWER groups (Britain 2007, 159). In CURE and POWER, /w/ is separating the syllables, and in FIRE, /j/ is separating the syllables (Britain 2007, 159).

In Figure 4, Welsh consonants are presented. The Welsh system consists of 3 voiceless stops, 3 voiced stops, 7 voiceless fricatives, 3 voiced fricatives, 1 voiceless and 1 voiced affricate, 3 nasals, 2 liquids, and 2 glides (Ball and Muller 2010, 367).

	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Dental	Alveolar	Palato-alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Uvular	Glottal
Voiceless stop	p			t			k		
Voiced stop	b			d			g		
Voiceless fricative		f	θ	s, t̪	ʃ			χ	h
Voiced fricative		v	ð	z					
Voiceless affricate					tʃ				
Voiced affricate					dʒ				
Nasal	m			n			ŋ		
Liquid				l, r					
Glide	w					j			

Figure 4 Welsh consonants

(Ball and Muller 2010, 367)

Welsh is not a single accent that is exactly the same in all parts of Wales. There are regional variations. Some differences can be heard in the South and North regions of Wales. In particular, in the South, “clear [l]” is used more, and in the North, “dark (pharyngealised) [ɫ]” is favoured (Britain 2007, 162). What is meant by pharyngealisation is a specific “throatiness” that is significant for northern Welsh (Britain 2007, 160).

The fricatives [t̪] and [x] do not exist in RP, but they do in the Welsh language sound system (Britain 2007, 162). They appear in words like *rhingyll* and *loch* (‘Welsh English’, n.d.).

What is notable for the northern Welsh language is the strong aspiration of the voiceless plosives /p t k/ in the onset position (Britain 2007, 160). To give an example, in the word “car”, the initial /k/ can be highly aspirated. In the final position /p, t, k/ is voiceless and unaspirated as /t/ in “cat” (Hannahs 2013, 14). The /p, t, k/ also geminate after a stressed vowel (Hannahs 2013, 21). That means that they are pronounced for an extended duration (Hannahs 2013, 21).

Voiced stops /b, d, g/ are not strongly aspirated and are fully voiced only between vowels (Hannahs 2013, 15). In initial or final position and after /s/, /b, d, g/ are voiced only to a limited extent (Hannahs 2013, 15).

Palatalization of [t]/[d] preceding [i] caused the creation of [tʃ] and [dʒ] in the Welsh alphabet (Hannahs 2013, 15). To illustrate, *chip* /tʃɪp/ or *gym* /dʒɪm/.

The fricatives [f, θ, s, ʃ, x, ɬ] can appear in every position (as well as the nasals [m, n, ŋ] and liquids [l] and [r]) (Hannahs 2013, 17–19). The voiced fricatives [v, ð] are not pronounced word-finally (mainly in the south-west) (Ball and Muller 2010, 367). For example, [tre:] instead of /trev/ meaning “town”, or [fɔr] instead of /forð/ meaning “road” (Hannahs 2013, 18).

Welsh is (historically) rhotic, “r” sound in “nurse, square, start, north, force, and boar” is pronounced (Britain 2007, 156, 158). “The Welsh language has two ‘r phonemes’ [...]” (Britain 2007, 162). One of them is “a voiced alveolar rolled /r/”, which can be pronounced as “a flap [ɾ]”, as “a uvular rolled [ʀ]” (in the Bala area), or as “a uvular fricative [ʁ]” (Britain 2007, 162). It can appear in medial or final position ([ˈmo:r] meaning “sea”) or in initial position when considering English borrowings like the word “rice” (Ball and Muller 2010, 368). The other one is “a voiceless alveolar rolled /ɾ̥/” that is pronounced in the initial position only ([ˈɾan] meaning “part”) (Britain 2007, 162; Ball and Muller 2010, 368). The /ɾ̥/ is now taken over by the voiced /r/ in south-east (Ball and Muller 2010, 369).

According to Hannahs (2013, 102–3), the letter [h] occurs in some forms and does not in others. It can be found at the beginning of a word (or in the beginning of a stressed syllable), but in the south they tend to omit the /h/ sound (Hannahs 2013, 17; Ball and Muller 2010, 367). It can occur medially too, depending on stress (Ball and Muller 2010, 368). For instance, the word “brenhines” (queen) contains [h] while the word “breninesau” (queens) does not (Hannahs 2013, 102).

The glides [j] and [w] are present at the beginning of syllables and never appear word-finally (Ball and Muller 2010, 368). In rural south-western areas, the initial /w/ sound is often dropped, e.g., in (w)ood (Bergs and Brinton 2017, 276). Neither /j/ nor /w/ are voiced in “an onset cluster” that comes after “a voiceless obstruent” (Hannahs 2013, 20).

The letter /z/ is missing in the Welsh alphabet (Britain 2007, 161). Thus, when RP /z/ occurs in the middle or end of a word (“crazy”), it is pronounced as /s/ (Britain 2007, 161). Initial /z/ can appear only in English loan words, e.g., “zoo” (Ball and Muller 2010, 369). In casual speech, the /s/ consonant can be substituted by the /ʃ/ consonant when it precedes or follows a high front vowel, particularly in south Wales (Ball and Muller 2010, 369). The sound /d/ is also unvoiced and replaced by /t/ as in “gold” (*golt*) (Britain 2007, 161). In

Welsh, the initial sound in words like “fool” or “fifty” is pronounced as a voiced fricative /v/, while in RP and many other dialects, the initial letter is pronounced as a voiceless fricative /f/ (Britain 2007, 161). The pronunciation of -ing can be more like /ɪn/ than /ɪŋ/, too (‘Welsh English’, n.d.).

In some three-syllable words, the first syllable can be omitted (Hannahs 2013, 115). This is called “the antepenultimate deletion” (Hannahs 2013, 115). As an illustration, “aderyn” (*bird*) becomes “deryn” (Hannahs 2013, 115). Even though it is usually favoured to use the shorter version, it does not happen in every trisyllabic word form (Hannahs 2013, 115).

When a liquid follows a stop (/p, t, k, b, d, g/) or a fricative (only /f, s, ʃ, v, z/) in an initial position, “a consonantal cluster” can be created (Ball and Muller 2010, 369). A stop and a nasal can also form a cluster, e.g., /kn/ (Ball and Muller 2010, 369). A cluster consisting of three consonants is possible as well (Ball and Muller 2010, 369). As an illustration, /s/ + a stop + a liquid (*scream*) (Ball and Muller 2010, 369). In careful speech /χw/ cluster is used (Ball and Muller 2010, 370). The /χ/ is replaced by /h/ in the south and completely omitted in the south-east, leaving only /w/ (Ball and Muller 2010, 370). Another kind of cluster is /gw/, where /n/ or a liquid can be added (Ball and Muller 2010, 370). Occasionally, in casual speech, /dw/ in the initial position can appear (Ball and Muller 2010, 370). Stops and fricatives, stops or fricatives with a nasal or a liquid, nasals and liquids, and any consonant with a glide can establish clusters medially, too (Ball and Muller 2010, 370). The /h/ forms a consonantal cluster only if it is surrounded by a nasal before and a stressed vowel after (Ball and Muller 2010, 370). For a three-consonant cluster in the medial positions, /s/ + a stop + a liquid cluster, or a nasal + a stop + a liquid/glide cluster are possible (Ball and Muller 2010, 371). A fricative/a nasal/a liquid + a stop, a liquid + a fricative/a nasal are some of the variants that can appear in the final position (Ball and Muller 2010, 371). A feature called “a reduction of consonant clusters” is also common in the Welsh language. As an illustration, *don’ ey* instead of *don’t they* (Bergs and Brinton 2017, 275).

Some Welsh words undergo “initial consonant mutation” (Hannahs 2013, 19). ICM (initial consonant mutation) is also called “soft mutation” in Welsh (see Figure 5). The voiceless stops [p, t, k] mutated to [b, d, g], those changed to [β, ð, γ], and [γ] disappeared from the system (Hannahs 2013, 121–22). The consonant [m] became [ṽ], [β] turned to [v], and then the [ṽ] to [v] (Hannahs 2013, 121–22).

There are two types of ICM (Hannahs 2013, 123). Nasal mutation and aspirate mutation (Hannahs 2013, 123). The nasal mutation happens when the nasal appears word finally and the next word begins with a stop (Hannahs 2013, 123). The stop then transforms into a nasal (Hannahs 2013, 123). To give an instance, yn Bangor (pronounced as y**m** Bangor) is replaced by y**m** Mangor (Hannahs 2013, 123). Even words without a final nasal can induce nasal mutation (fy +gorau > fy **n**gorau) (Hannahs 2013, 123). In the aspirate mutation, [k] in the initial position of a word will appear as [χ], e.g. [i χi:] (*her dog*) instead of [ki:] (*dog*) (Hannahs 2013, 117).

Radical	p <p>	t <t>	k <c>	b 	d <d>	g <g>	m <m>	l <ll>	r <rh>
Soft	b 	d <d>	g <g>	v <f>	ð <dd>	∅ zero	v <f>	l <l>	r <r>
Nasal	m̥ <mh>	n̥ <nh>	ŋ̥ <ngh>	m <m>	n <n>	ŋ <ng>			
Aspirate	f <ph>	θ <th>	χ <ch>						

Figure 5 Mutations

(Hannahs 2013, 126)

Figure 5 shows, that word beginning with letter [t] in its radical form (the basic consonant given in a dictionary) will change to initial [d] in soft mutation, to [ŋ] in nasal mutation, and to [θ] in aspirate mutation context (Hannahs 2013, 126). A word with the letter [b] in an initial position in radical form will transform to [v] in the context of soft mutation, to [m] in the context of nasal mutation and to [b] in the context of an aspirate mutation (in Figure 5, there is no square for aspirate mutation in the /b/ column) (Hannahs 2013, 126). A word-initial [ŋ] only exists as “a nasal mutation reflex of [g]” (Hannahs 2013, 19). The voiceless stops [p, t, k] are subjected to soft, nasal, and aspirate mutation (Hannahs 2013, 137). While the voiced stops to soft and nasal mutation, and the [m, l, r] group to soft mutation only (Hannahs 2013, 137).

Southern Welsh is typical for “calediad” (provection), which means “hardening” (Hannahs 2013, 151). It indicates the process of shifting of the voiced stops /b, d, g/ to the voiceless stops /p, t, k/ when they follow a stressed vowel, e.g., cadair /'kater/ (*chair*) (Hannahs 2013, 151). The /d/ consonant is between 2 vowels, and it turns into voiceless /t/.

In Welsh, forms with multiple syllables have word stress on the penultimate syllable (Ball and Muller 2010, 372). Words consisting of only one syllable have word stress (Ball and Muller 2010, 372). However, definite articles never contain stress (Ball and Muller 2010, 372). In some compounds or loans, stress may be present on the last syllable of a word (Ball and Muller 2010, 372). Words have secondary stress when there are two or more syllables before the primary stress (Ball and Muller 2010, 373). The secondary stress is on the second syllable, when counting backward from the primary stress (Ball and Muller 2010, 373).

According to Ball and Muller (2010, 373), research on Welsh intonation is limited, making it difficult to hear and analyse common patterns. It has been proposed that Welsh features various types of nuclear tones on prominent syllables, including: rise-fall, high fall, full rise, low level, and others (Ball and Muller 2010, 373). A pattern called the “saw-toothed” pattern is a notable aspect of Welsh intonation (Ball and Muller 2010, 373). It implies that in Welsh, unstressed syllables rise in pitch, while in English, the opposite is true (Ball and Muller 2010, 373). Welsh intonation is said to be “sing-song” like (Britain 2007, 163).

3.2 Received Pronunciation

Received Pronunciation is an accent associated with a certain social group rather than a geographic region (‘RP and BBC English’, n.d.). RP, also called BBC English, is used by the upper class in (Southern) England (Bauer 2002, 69). Hence, by those with a higher level of education and higher income. It is considered the most prestigious and ideal version of the British accent. Due to the use of this accent in radio and television by news reporters, the royal family, and other celebrities, it has become likely the most understood and accepted of all (Hughes, Trudgill, and Watt 2013, 4). It may be used broadly in schools for teaching foreigners English. However, it is not used as much by the English population (Payne 2025).

The abbreviation RP has taken on quite outdated and negative connotation lately, and as a result, many linguists prefer to use the term SSBE (Standard Southern British English) instead (Hughes, Trudgill, and Watt 2013, 3). Although the term “standard” raises concerns too (Lippi-Green 2011, 55). Some people believe that speaking RP means speaking without an accent, but that is false (‘RP and BBC English’, n.d.). Everyone uses pronunciation, and so, has an accent. RP, like every accent, has developed over time and also varies by age, profession, or lifestyle of its speakers (Payne 2025).

RP, opposed to Welsh, is “non-rhotic” (Britain 2007, 47). The “r” sound is pronounced only if it is followed by a vowel (Payne 2025). For instance, in words like “fairy” or “carrot”. In words like “car, war, jar, or bar,” the “r sound” is dropped. The long “u” is pronounced as /ju:/ (*tulip*, /tju:lip/) in RP (Payne 2025). RP speakers also vocalize the “h” sound at the beginning of words, as in the word “hat” (Payne 2025). “Trap-bath split” is another characteristic of RP (Payne 2025). It refers to the /a/ vowel lengthening (Payne 2025). To illustrate, “bath, chance, father, or glass” contain /ɑ:/, while “trap, hand, plan”, or “cat”, as displayed in Figure 6, contain /æ/ sound (Payne 2025).

SIMPLE VOWELS		/ɜ:/ =long sound		
/ɪ/ sleep	/ɑ:/ father	/ə/ China	/ɔr/ door	
/ɪ/ slip	/ɑr/ part	/ər/ letter	/ʊ/ pull	
/ɛ/ send	/ɑ/ stop, coffee	/ɜr/ learn	/u:/ pool	
/æ/ cat,path	/ɪr/ near	/ɒ:/ thought	/ʊr/ cure	
/ʌ/ cut	/ɛr/ where	/ɔr/ order, oranges		
DIPHTHONGS				
/eɪ/ bay	/aɪ/ buy	/ɔɪ/ boy	/aʊ/ now	/oʊ/ home
CONSONANTS				
/p/ pay	/g/ go	/s/ soon	/dʒ/ judge	/w/ wine
/b/ bay	/f/ fine	/z/ zoo	/h/ high	/m/ my
/t/ two	/v/ vine	/ʃ/ ship	/j/ year	/n/ next
/d/ do	/θ/ three	/ʒ/ measure	/l/ load	/ŋ/ sing
/k/ coat	/ð/ this	/tʃ/ chair	/r/ road	

Figure 6 Received Pronunciation sounds

(‘Received Pronunciation’ 2014)

II ANALYSIS

4 METHODOLOGY

The aim of this methodological part is to provide information about the objectives of the thesis, the method used for the analysis, and the source from which the data was collected. The procedure and the participants of the research will be described in this section as well.

4.1 Objectives

The primary objective of this research is to analyse the Welsh accent of five different speakers and to answer the following research questions.

1. Which phonetic features characteristic of the Welsh accent can be identified in the speech of the selected speakers?
2. How frequently do these Welsh accent features occur in the recordings of each speaker's speech?
3. To what extent does speaker variation (e.g., gender, age, education, etc.) influence pronunciation, speed, intonation, tone, and pitch?

The pronunciation of specific word groups was compared in Welsh and RP. Other phonetic features like vowel lengthening, strong aspiration of specific consonants, rhoticity, and glottal stops were observed. Different habits, such as using pitch for emphasis, can be noticed in the recordings as well.

The pronunciation of four out of the five speakers was influenced by living and some of them studying outside of Wales for a longer period of time. Thus, many of the specific features of Welsh pronunciation were not present in their speech anymore. None of the five speakers speaks the same. None of them pronounces words exactly the same way, uses pitch the same way, speaks at the same speed, or has the same tone. Everybody has an accent that is their own.

4.2 Method

Perceptual analysis was the method used for analysing the Welsh accents of different speakers. It was done through recordings (*Wales 3 2012*; *Wales 4 2012*; *Wales 5 2012*; *Wales 6 2012*; *Wales 7 2012*). Perceptual analysis is a cognitive process through which the individual (his brain) interprets and makes sense of information collected from his surroundings ('Perceptual-Analysis.Pdf', n.d.). It influences how we perceive our environment and how we adapt to it ('Perceptual-Analysis.Pdf', n.d.). In the context of

linguistic (phonetic) methods of analysis, perceptual analysis refers to the process of interpreting features of speech sounds. In fact, how other people (listeners) perceived them.

4.3 Procedure

The first step was to make a list of the Welsh accent's features that can possibly be perceived in the recordings. Then, getting to know the participants. Learning where they are from, how old they are, what their level of education is, what their profession is, and if and possibly how their speech was influenced throughout their lives. The next step was reading the text of the scripted speech used in the recordings and looking for words that could be important for the analysis. When listening to the recordings, I focused on the pronunciation of these words and other phonetic features like intonation or pitch, and made notes on what I heard. I did that a couple of times for each speaker to make sure I did not miss anything. For each round of listening, I focused on one feature for the entire time of hearing the whole text. Finally, I counted how many times I heard each feature from each speaker.

4.4 Material

As mentioned above, the materials used for this analysis are audio recordings (*Wales 3* 2012; *Wales 4* 2012; *Wales 5* 2012; *Wales 6* 2012; *Wales 7* 2012). The recordings showcase people from Wales speaking in their native dialect. These recordings are collected from a web page called The International Dialects of English Archive.

IDEA (The International Dialects of English Archive) was founded in 1998 by Paul Meier. It is the first online collection of “primary-source recordings” featuring English accents and dialects. It is the largest archive (of this type), containing around 1,700 samples. First, it was created to help actors get to know different accents and dialects and study them for their roles. Now, it is used in international business as well. (‘IDEA – International Dialects of English Archive’ 2011)

4.5 Sample

The analysed participants are individuals of different ages, genders, occupations, and levels of education born in different parts of Wales. All of them read the same text called *Comma Gets A Cure* and then added information about themselves and their life (unscripted speech) (‘Comma Gets A Cure’ 2011). The recordings were done between the years of 2007 and 2012, thus, the speakers’ ages and their dates of birth do not match the year 2025.

4.5.1 Speaker 1

Speaker 1 is a 91-year-old woman (at the time) born in 1916 in Treharris (Merthyr Tydfil-South Wales). Her ethnicity is Caucasian. Her level of education is secondary school, and she is a retired housewife. She left Wales when she was 14 years old and has lived in England ever since. She spent a long time in London and has also been to Reading and Clacton. She lived in Hitchin (Hertfordshire-England) for several years too. ('Accents and Dialects of Wales' 2011)

4.5.2 Speaker 2

Speaker 2 is a 20-year-old male born in 1987, also in Treharris (Merthyr Tydfil-South Wales). Like Speaker 1, he is also Caucasian. He went to school in Afon Taf in Troed-y-rhiw. Later, when the recordings were conducted, he was studying at the Central School of Speech and Drama in London. ('Accents and Dialects of Wales' 2011)

4.5.3 Speaker 3

Speaker 3 is a man born in East Glamorgan (South Wales). He was born in 1989 and was 20 years old when recorded. He is Caucasian as well. He grew up in Rhondda Cynon Taf and studied theatre production design at Trinity College in Wales. At the time of recording, he was studying in Orange County in California, for one semester as an exchange student. Although he is from South Wales and has never lived anywhere else, except for that one semester in the US, he does not speak Welsh. ('Accents and Dialects of Wales' 2011)

4.5.4 Speaker 4

Speaker 4 is a woman born in 1989 in Aberdare. She is a Caucasian/Welsh college undergraduate who grew up in Hirwaun and lived in Carmarthen as well. She was 20 years old and living in Llanelli at the time of recording. ('Accents and Dialects of Wales' 2011)

4.5.5 Speaker 5

Speaker 5 is a Caucasian 36-year-old female born in 1976 in Barry (South Wales). She has an A-level education and is a professional vocalist. Speaker 5 has lived all over the world. For example, on the Isle of Wight (for 3 years), in Manchester (for 10 years), in Toronto (for approximately 6 years, when recorded), and also in Essex-London (for 2 years). ('Accents and Dialects of Wales' 2011)

5 RESULTS

The aim of the following and final chapter is to present and comment on the results of the analysis of collected data. The accent of five Welsh speakers was observed through recordings provided on the website IDEA (‘IDEA – International Dialects of English Archive’ 2011). In Table 1 below, the frequency of each feature pronounced by each speaker is showcased.

Table 1 Features perceived in the recordings

	Speaker 1	Speaker 2	Speaker 3	Speaker 4	Speaker 5
Extra lengthening of vowels	10×	1×	7×	13×	1×
a tapped R	21×	0×	0×	0×	0×
Strong aspiration of /p, t, k/	33×	25×	23×	31×	28×
/n/-ending on “ing” verb endings	11×	11×	11×	11×	11×
Glottal stops	0×	3×	12×	1×	0×
/e:/ in face group	0×	0×	1×	0×	0×
/o:/ in goat group	0×	0×	0×	5×	0×
/ju:/ in Duke or tune	1×	0×	1×	2×	2×

Note: This table and all of the figures in the practical part of this thesis were created by the author.

Table 1 shows that the most frequent feature was the strong aspiration of /p, t, k/. It appeared thirty-three times in the reading of speaker 1, twenty-five times in the reading of speaker 2, twenty-three times in the reading of speaker 3, thirty-one times in the reading of

speaker 4, and twenty-eight times in the reading of speaker 5. Altogether, the strong aspiration of /p, t, k,/ could be heard 140 times.

The long monophthong /e:/ in the word “made” was uttered just once. It was produced only by speaker 3. Thus, this feature was the least frequent among the participants.

5.1 Extra lengthening of vowels

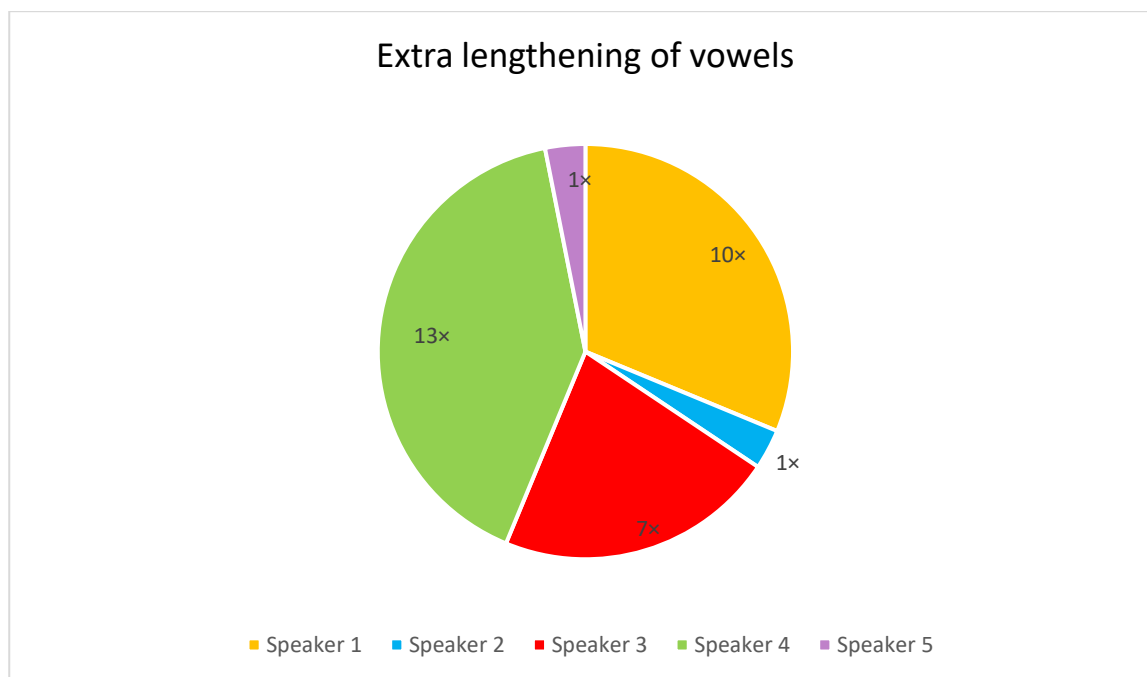


Figure 7 Extra lengthening of vowels

In Figure 7, it can be seen that the extra lengthening of vowels occurred thirty-two times in total. It was found that speaker 1 used the extra lengthening of vowels ten times. It occurred in words: *here*, *for*, *happy*, *her*, *hurry*, *Mary*, *Harrison* (twice), *gently*, and *her*. In RP, they are pronounced as /hɪə/, /fɔ:/, /'hæp.i/, /hə/, /'hʌr.i/, /'meə.ri/, /'hæ.rɪ.sən/, /'dʒent.li/ and, /hə/. Speaker 1 pronounced them as */hi:/, */fɔ:/, */'hæp.i:/, */hɜ:/, */'hʌr.i:/, */'mɜ:.ri/, */'hɑ:r.i.sən/, */'dʒent.li:/ and, */hɜ:/.

Speaker 2 gave extra length to just one word. That word was *happy*, in RP pronounced as /'hæp.i/. He pronounced it as */'hɑ:p.i/. The same is true for speaker 3. Speaker 3 also pronounced *her* as */hɜ:/ instead of /hə/ as it would be pronounced in RP, *sorry* as */'sɔ:r.i/ instead of /'sɒr.i/, *made* as /me:d/ instead of /meɪd/, *Mary Harrison* as */'mɜ:.ri/ /'hɑ:r.i.sən/, instead of /'meə.ri/ /'hæ.rɪ.sən/, and *stroking* as */'strɔ:kɪŋ/ instead of /'strəʊkɪŋ/.

Speaker 4 pronounced words with extra-long vowels the most. In fact, thirteen times. He pronounced *happy* as */'hɑ:p.i/ instead of /'hæp.i/, *job* as */dʒɑ:b/ instead of /dʒɒb/, *for*

as */fɔ:/ instead of /fər/, *so* as /sɔ:/ instead of /səʊ/, *porridge* as */'pɔ:r.ɪdʒ/ instead of /'pɒr.ɪdʒ/, *jacket* as */'dʒa:k.ɪt/ instead of /'dʒæk.ɪt/, *sorry* as */'sɔ:r.i/ instead of /'sɒr.i/, *stroking* as */'strɔ:kɪŋ/ instead of /'strʊkɪŋ/, *diagnosis* as /daɪ.əg'nɔ:.sɪs/ instead of /,daɪ.əg'nəʊ.sɪs/, *measure* as */'me:ʒ.ər/ instead of /'meʒ.ər/, *medicine* as /'me:d.ɪ.sən/ instead of /'med.ɪ.sən/, *imagine* as */ɪ'ma:dʒ.ɪn/ instead of /ɪ'mædʒ.ɪn/, and *Harrison* as */'hɑ:r.ɪ.sən/ instead of /'hær.ɪ.sən/.

The only extra lengthening of vowels heard from speaker 5 was a long schwa in the word *her* */hɜ:r/. Both can be used, but /hɜːr/ or even /eːr/ is more typical for RP.

5.2 A tapped R

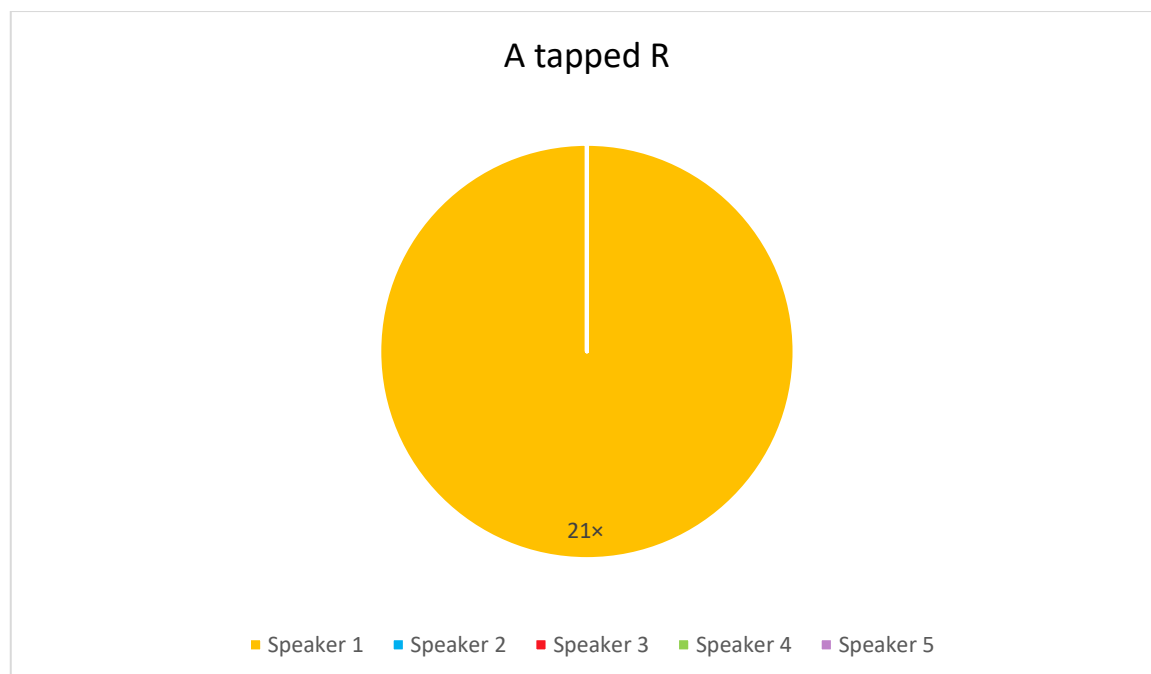


Figure 8 A tapped R

Figure 8 shows that a tapped R is used only by speaker 1. She produced tapped R twenty-one times, in words: *Sarah* (nine times), *territory* (both Rs), *area*, *letter*, *sorry*, *Mary*, *Harrison* (two times), *for* (two times), and *her* (two times). In RP, the transcription looks like this: /'seərə/, /'ter.ɪ.t̪r.i/, /'eə.ri.ə/, /'let.əː/, /'sɒr.i/, /'mæɪr.i/, /'hær.ɪ.sən/, /fəː/ and /hɜː/, while speaker 1 pronounced it as /'seərə/, /'ter.ɪ.t̪r.i/, /'eə.ri.ə/, /'let.ər/, /'sɒr.i/, /'mæɪr.i/, /'hær.ɪ.sən/, /fər/ and /hər/.

Sometimes, she pronounced it as an approximant R. For example, in the words: *porridge* /'pɒrɪdʒ/, *mirror* /'mɪrə(r)/, *hurry* /'hʌrɪ/, *unsanitary* /ʌn'sæənətɪrɪ/, *relaxing* /rɪ'læksɪŋ/, *right* /raɪt/, or *price* /praɪs/.

This pronunciation feature being used only by speaker 1 suggests that she is influenced a lot by Welsh pronunciation in her speech. She is the oldest participant and spent most of her childhood in Wales. Childhood is the time you learn the most. It can be difficult to relearn how to pronounce certain words or to adapt to a different pronunciation of certain words after a particular age. It is also observed that the younger generation is less likely to use tapped R.

5.3 Strong aspiration of /p, t, k/

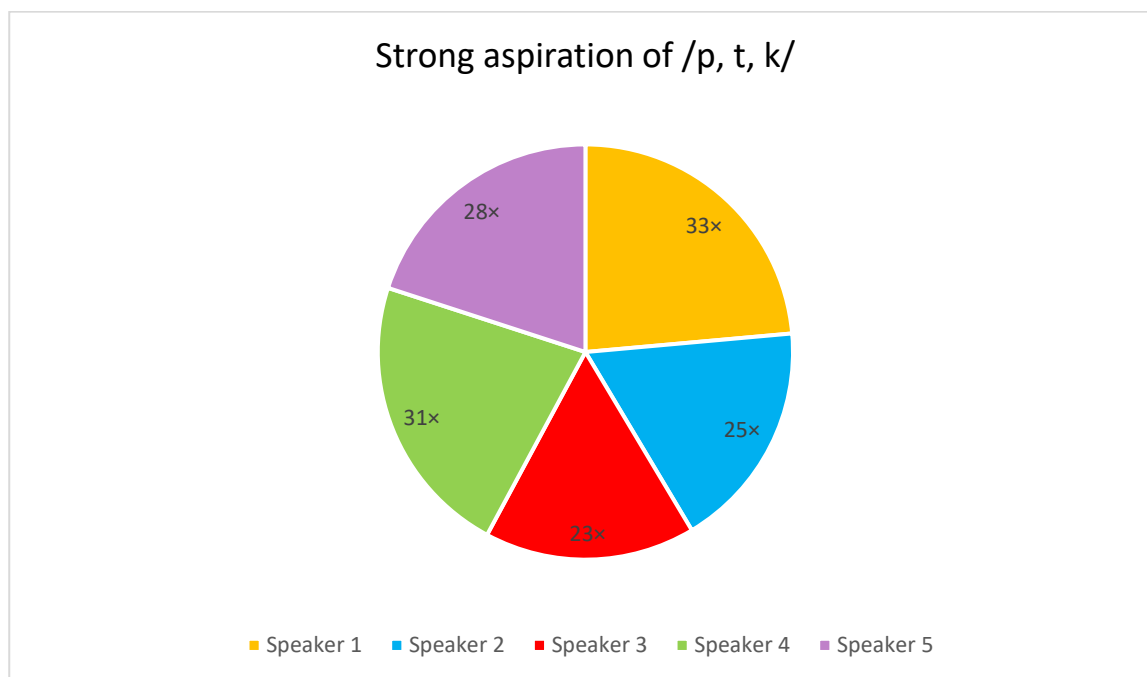


Figure 9 Strong aspiration of /p, t, k/

Figure 9 illustrates that every speaker who participated in the recordings had a strong aspiration of initial /p, t, k/. The difference in the frequency is not as big as in the previous two figures.

It was observed in words like: *Perry* /'p^herɪ/, *territory* /'t^herətri/, *private* /'p^hraɪvət/, *practise* /'p^hræktɪs/, *Tower* /'t^hauə(r)/, *porridge* /'p^hɒrɪdʒ/, *put* /p^hʊt/, *plain* /p^hleɪn/, *picked* /p^hɪkt/, *kit* /k^hɪt/, *kept* /k^hept/, *calling* /'k^hɔ:lɪŋ/, *Comma* /'k^hɒmə/ (four times), *take* /t^heɪk/, *trap* /t^hræp/, *tried* /t^hraɪd/, *palm* /p^hɑ:m/, *tune* /t^hju:n/, *time* /t^haɪm/, *tire* /'t^haɪə(r)/, *cloth* /k^hlɒθ/, *treatment* /'t^hri:tment/ (two times), *course* /k^hɔ:s/, *times* /t^haɪmz/, *cost* /k^hɒst/, *penicillin* /,p^henɪ'sɪlɪn/, *paying* /'p^heɪ.ɪŋ/, *price* /p^hraɪs/ and *cure* /k^hʃʊə(r)/ in the speech of speaker 1.

Speaker 2 used strong aspiration of /p, t, k/ in the following words: *Perry* /'p^herɪ/, *territory* /'t^herətri/, *private* /'p^hraɪvət/, *practise* /'p^hræktɪs/, *Tower* /'t^hauə(r)/, *porridge* /'p^hɒrɪdʒ/, *picked* /p^hɪkt/, *kit* /k^hɪt/, *Comma* /'k^hɒmə/ (four times), *take* /t^heɪk/, *trap* /t^hræp/, *palm* /p^hɑ:m/, *time* /t^haɪm/, *tire* /'t^haɪə(r)/, *cloth* /k^hlɒθ/, *course* /k^hɔ:s/, *times* /t^haɪmz/, *cost* /k^hɒst/, *penicillin* /,p^heni'sɪlɪn/, *paying* /'p^heɪ.ɪŋ/, *price* /p^hraɪs/ and *cure* /k^hʒə(r)/. In the words *put*, *plain*, *kept*, *calling*, *tried*, *tune*, *treatment*, the aspiration was not as strong.

In the speech of the third Speaker, the aspiration of initial /p, t, k/ was a little less noticeable but still present in the words: *Perry* /'p^herɪ/, *territory* /'t^herətri/, *private* /'p^hraɪvət/, *practise* /'p^hræktɪs/, *Tower* /'t^hauə(r)/, *porridge* /'p^hɒrɪdʒ/, *picked* /p^hɪkt/, *kit* /k^hɪt/, *Comma* /'k^hɒmə/ (four times), *take* /t^heɪk/, *trap* /t^hræp/, *palm* /p^hɑ:m/, *time* /t^haɪm/, *tire* /'t^haɪə(r)/, *cloth* /k^hlɒθ/, *cost* /k^hɒst/, *penicillin* /,p^heni'sɪlɪn/, *paying* /'p^heɪ.ɪŋ/, *price* /p^hraɪs/ and *cure* /k^hʒə(r)/. He missed a part of the text due to reading too fast. Thus, he did not utter a few words that could have been said with a stronger aspiration of /p, t, k/. Because of that, a small part of the text was not analysed in the speech of speaker 3.

Speaker 4 pronounced /p, t, k/ with strength in the words: *Perry* /'p^herɪ/, *territory* /'t^herətri/, *private* /'p^hraɪvət/, *practise* /'p^hræktɪs/, *Tower* /'t^hauə(r)/, *porridge* /'p^hɒrɪdʒ/, *picked* /p^hɪkt/, *kit* /k^hɪt/, *kept* /k^hept/, *calling* /'k^hɔ:lɪŋ/, *Comma* /'k^hɒmə/ (four times), *take* /t^heɪk/, *trap* /t^hræp/, *tried* /t^hraɪd/, *palm* /p^hɑ:m/, *tune* /t^hju:n/, *time* /t^haɪm/, *tire* /'t^haɪə(r)/, *cloth* /k^hlɒθ/, *treatment* /'t^hri:tment/ (two times), *course* /k^hɔ:s/, *times* /t^haɪmz/, *cost* /k^hɒst/, *penicillin* /,p^heni'sɪlɪn/, *paying* /'p^heɪ.ɪŋ/, *price* /p^hraɪs/ and *cure* /k^hʒə(r)/.

The last speaker had a little weaker aspiration of /p, t, k/ in the words: *porridge*, *plain*, *tune*, *course* and, *cure*, but strong in: *Perry* /'p^herɪ/, *territory* /'t^herətri/, *private* /'p^hraɪvət/, *practise* /'p^hræktɪs/, *Tower* /'t^hauə(r)/, *put* /p^hʊt/, *picked* /p^hɪkt/, *kit* /k^hɪt/, *kept* /k^hept/, *calling* /'k^hɔ:lɪŋ/, *Comma* /'k^hɒmə/ (four times), *take* /t^heɪk/, *trap* /t^hræp/, *tried* /t^hraɪd/, *palm* /p^hɑ:m/, *time* /t^haɪm/, *tire* /'t^haɪə(r)/, *cloth* /k^hlɒθ/, *treatment* /'t^hri:tment/ (two times), *times* /t^haɪmz/, *cost* /k^hɒst/, *penicillin* /,p^heni'sɪlɪn/, *paying* /'p^heɪ.ɪŋ/, and *price* /p^hraɪs/.

This suggests that a strong aspiration of initial /p, t, k/ is a very common practice among Welsh speakers of all ages, from all different kinds of places and of all levels of education.

5.4 /n/-ending on “ing” verb endings

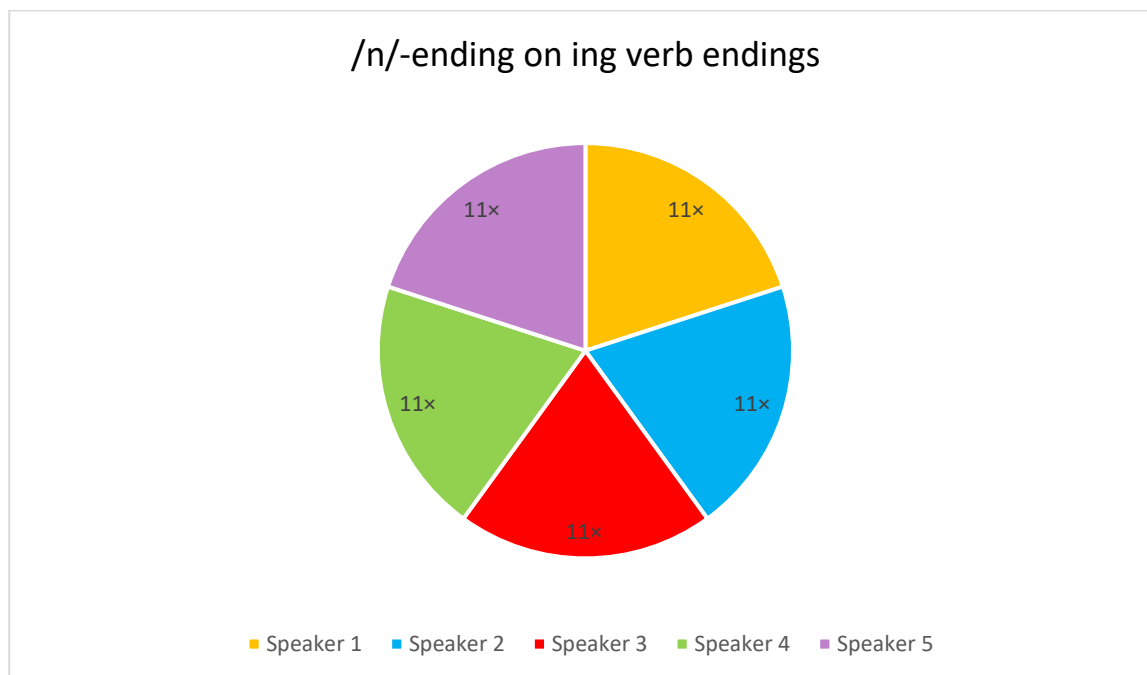


Figure 10 /n/-ending on *ing* verb endings

As portrayed in Figure 10, all five speakers pronounced “ing” verb endings with /n/ at the end—for instance, *waitin(g)* or *readin(g)*. In the recordings, it appeared eleven times for each speaker, in words (with RP transcription): *working* /'wɜ:kɪŋ/, *likin(g)* /'laɪkɪŋ/, *morning* /'mɔ:nɪŋ/, *waiting* /'weɪtɪŋ/, *suffering* /'sʌfərɪŋ/, *surprising* /sə'praɪzɪŋ/, *calling* /'kɔ:lɪŋ/, *stroking* /'strəʊkɪŋ/, *singing* /'sɪŋɪŋ/, *relaxing* /rɪ'læksɪŋ/, and *paying* /'peɪɪŋ/. In the recordings it sounded more like: *working* /'wɜ:kɪn/, *likin(g)* /'laɪkɪn/, *morning* /'mɔ:nɪn/, *waiting* /'weɪtɪn/, *suffering* /'sʌfərɪn/, *surprising* /sə'praɪzɪn/, *calling* /'kɔ:lɪn/, *stroking* /'strəʊkɪn/, *singing* /'sɪŋɪn/, *relaxing* /rɪ'læksɪn/, and *paying* /'peɪɪn/ but it was never pronounced with /g/. Thus, /n/ on “ing” endings was uttered 55x altogether.

In the unscripted speech, all of them pronounced “ing” in the same way in every word ending with “ing”. So, with the /n/ sound.

The fact that this feature was pronounced every time in every word (containing the “ing”) by every speaker makes it the most consistent feature. This suggests that this way of pronouncing these words is the most common among Welsh speakers.

5.5 Glottal stops

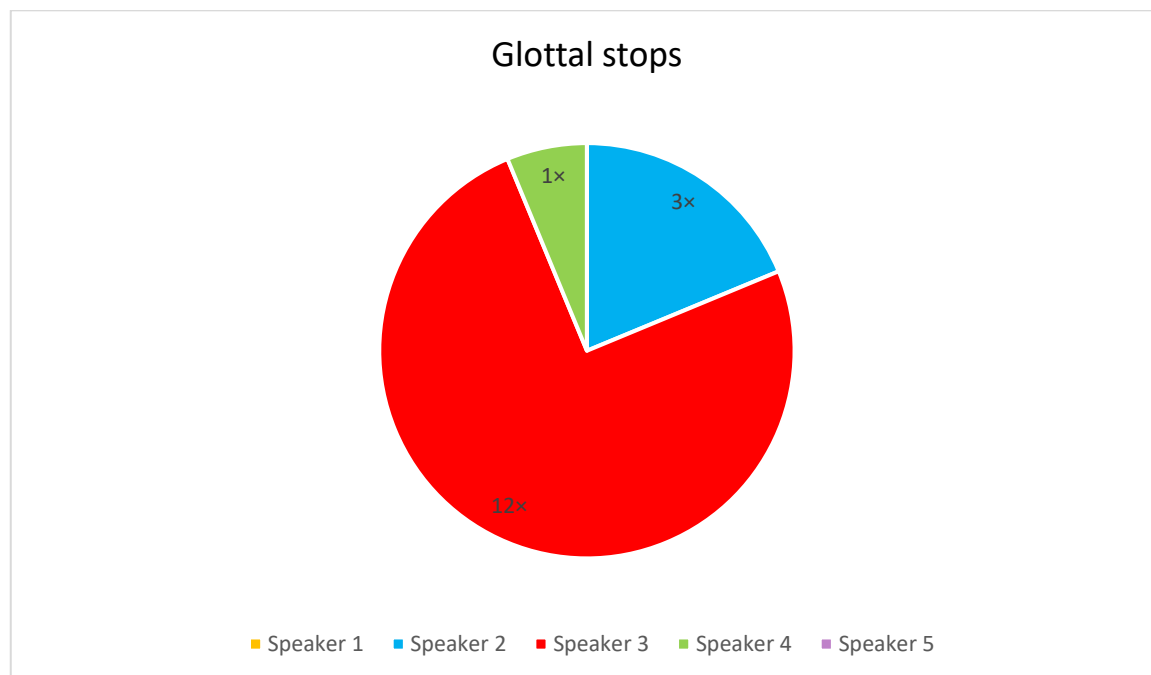


Figure 11 Glottal stops

Figure 11 illustrates that the first speaker did not use glottal stops. However, in some words (*first*), she did not pronounce the /t/ sound at all. The 2nd speaker used glottal stops three times in the word *that* /ðæt/, */ðæʔ/.

This feature was used the most by speaker 3. He uttered the glottal stop twelve times in the words: *veterinary*, *that* (3×), *ate*, *vet*, *foot*, *it* (2×), *goat*, *beautiful*, *lot*. The transcription of these words in RP looks like: /'verənəri/, /ðæt/, /eɪt/, /vet/, /fʊt/, /ɪt/, /gəʊt/, /'bjʊ:tɪfl/ and /lɒt/, while speaker 3 pronounced them as */'veʔrənəri/, */ðæʔ/, */eɪʔ/, */veʔ/, */fʊʔ/, */ɪʔ/, */gəʊʔ/, */'bjʊ:ʔɪfl/ and */lɒʔ/.

Speaker 4 voiced the glottal stop only in the word *jacket*. She pronounced it as */'dʒækɪʔ/ instead of /'dʒækɪt/. In the speech of the fifth and final speaker, no glottal stops were identified. In general, the /ʔ/ sound was pronounced 16×.

The fact that only speakers 2, 3, and 4 used glottal stops in their speech indicates that the younger generation is more likely to use glottal stops than the older one. While speakers 2, 3, and 4 were 20 years old when recorded, speaker 1 was 91 years old, and speaker 5 was 36 years old.

5.6 /e:/ in made

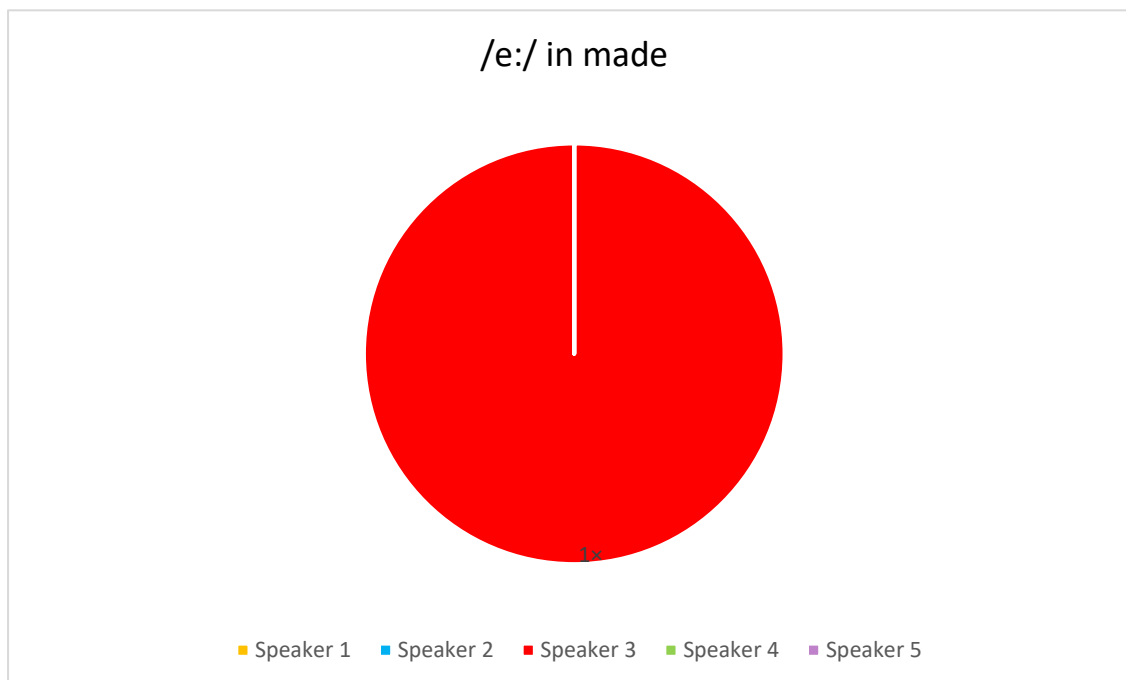


Figure 12 /e:/ in face group

Figure 12 demonstrates that only the third speaker pronounced /e:/ in the word *made*. RP suggests that the word *made* should be pronounced as /meɪd/. But speaker 3 pronounced it as */me:d/.

Interestingly, speaker 3 pronounced other words (than *made*) of the FACE/STAY category with the /eɪ/ diphthong. For example, the words: *daily* /'deɪli/, *ate* /eɪt/, *name* /neɪm/ and *laid* /leɪd/ rather than: *daily* */'de:li/, *ate* */e:t/, *name* */ne:m/ and *laid* */le:d/. The words *face* and *plain* were not uttered due to mumbling and even missing a part of the paragraph. So, they could not be analysed.

Speaker 1 chose a different variant. She did not say /eɪ/ or /e:/, she uttered a quite short /æ/ sound. Thus, like */mæd/. Everyone else used the RP way of pronouncing *made*, which is /meɪd/.

It is evident from the recordings that the long /e:/ sound in the FACE/STAY group of words is not as common as other features. It could be that way because speaker 3 was living and studying in Wales and was only in California for a short period of time. Thus, he may not have been that influenced in his speech.

5.7 /o:/ in goat

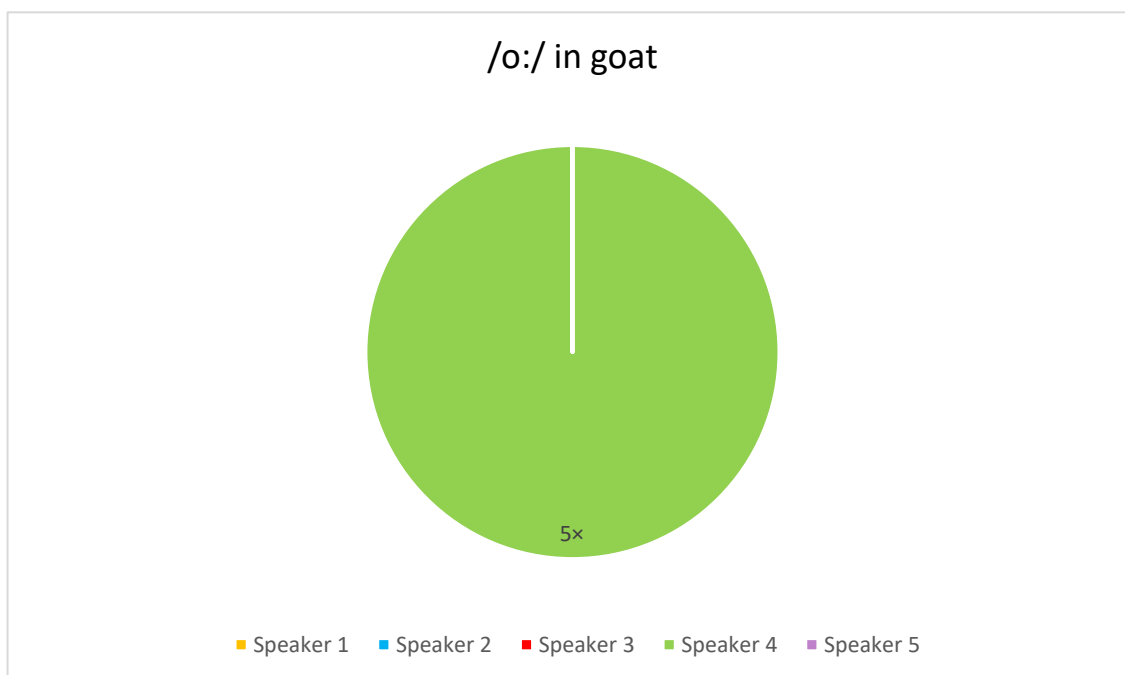


Figure 13 /o:/ in goat group

As shown in Figure 13, only the fourth speaker pronounced /o:/ in the word *goat*, instead of the /oʊ/ or /əʊ/ diphthongs that are typical for the pronunciation of the word *goat* in RP. Thus, the transcription of the word uttered by speaker 4 looks more like */gɔ:t/ instead of /gəʊt/.

This feature appeared in the words: *so* /səʊ/, *stroking* /'strəʊkɪŋ/, *no* /nəʊ/, and *diagnosis* /,daɪəg'nəʊsɪs/ as well. The transcription of these words in speaker 4's utterance looks like: */sɔ:/, */'strɔ:kɪŋ/, */nɔ:/, and */,daɪəg'nɔ:sɪs/. However, in the word *bowl* /bəʊl/, she said the RP /əʊ/ diphthong instead of the long /ɔ:/ used in the words above. Every other speaker pronounced the word *goat* as /gəʊt/, as it would be uttered in RP.

The fact that the long /ɔ:/ vowel was voiced only by one speaker could be because of the reality that speaker 4 had only lived in Wales throughout her entire life. Thus, she probably had not been influenced in her speech by other accents and dialects. Every other speaker had been to England, Canada, or the US and adopted the /əʊ/ diphthong in their speech.

5.8 /ju:/ in Duke and tune

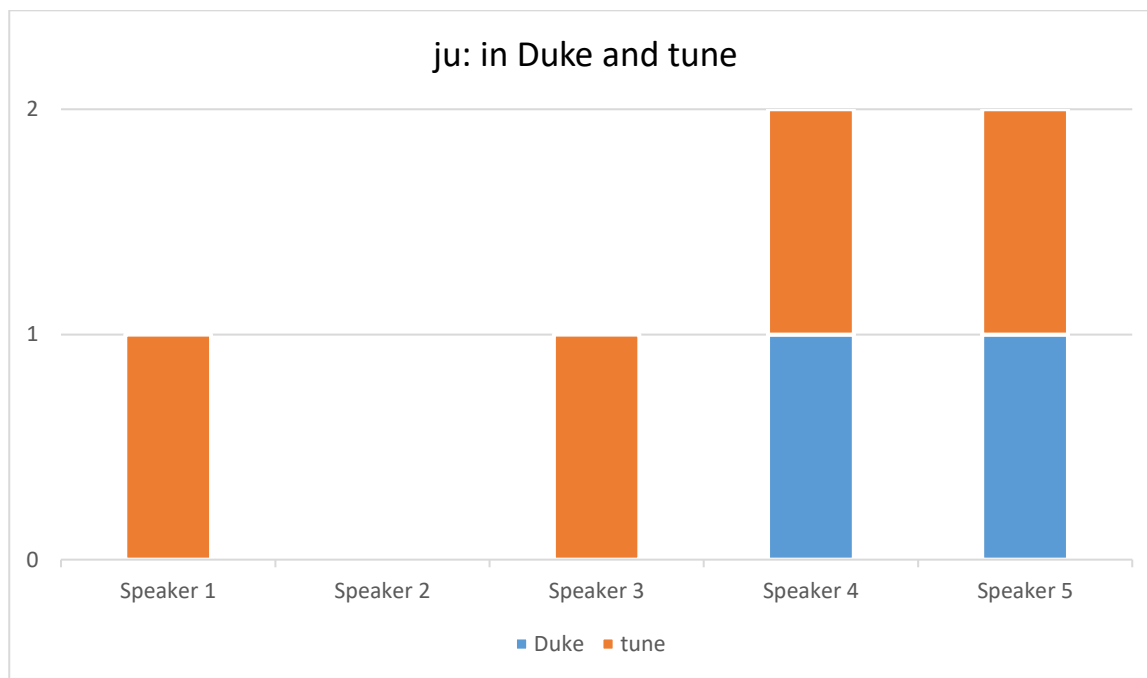


Figure 14 /ju:/ in Duke and tune

As portrayed in Figure 14, speaker 2 was the only speaker who did not pronounce /ju:/ in *Duke* or *tune*. He pronounced them as /du:k/ and /tu:n/, which is the American way of pronouncing these words.

Speakers 1 and 3 voiced /ju:/ only in the word *tune*. Thus, like /tju:n/ not /tu:n/. They pronounced *Duke* with the long /u:/, so /du:k/. On the other hand, speaker 4 and speaker 5 said /ju:/ in both *Duke*, /dju:k/ not /du:k/, and *tune*, /tju:n/ not /tu:n/.

The sound /ju:/ in the word *Duke* or *tune* was pronounced a total of six times by four out of five speakers.

Speaker 3 had been to America for some time; thus, the way he pronounces the word *Duke* could be the result of that. However, he does not pronounce the word *tune* the same way, so it may have been just a habit of his. Similarly, speaker 1 also pronounces one word one way and the other word the other way, which is interesting because these words belong to the same word group. Speakers 4 and 5 pronounce these words as someone from Great Britain would pronounce them, with the /ju:/ sound.

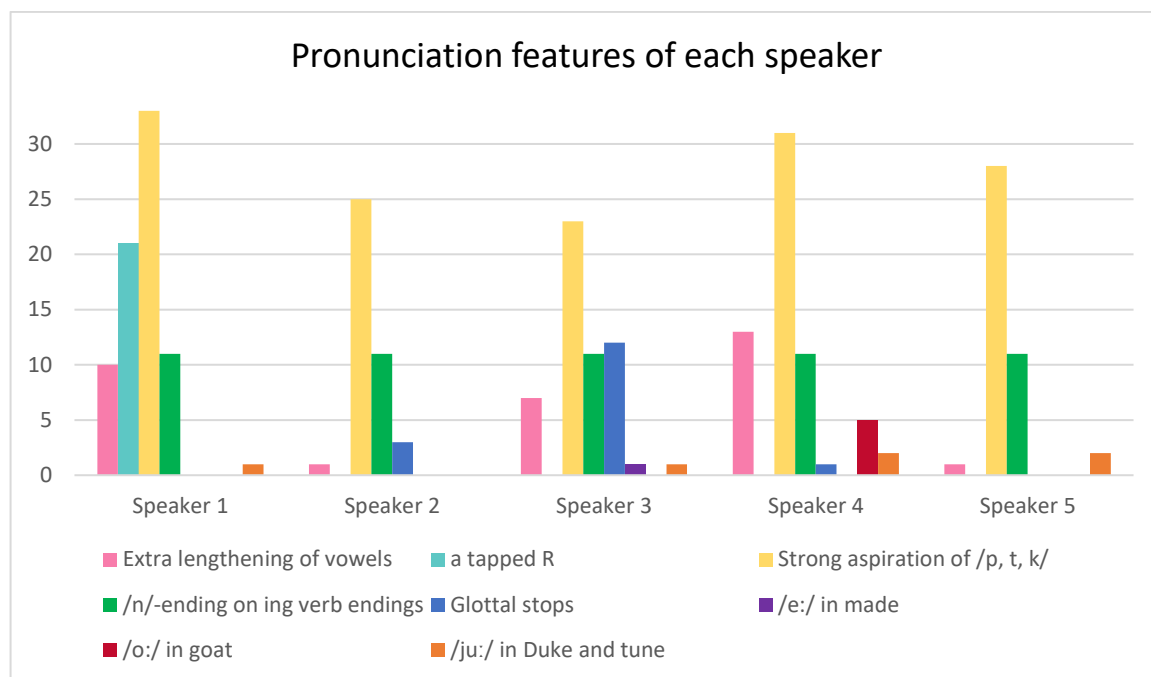


Figure 15 Pronunciation features of each speaker

As indicated in Figure 15, Speaker 1 voiced the features most frequently. In total, 76×. Speaker 2 uttered the features altogether 40 ×, speaker 3: 55×, speaker 4: 63×, and speaker 5: 42×. Thus, second place belongs to speaker 4, third to speaker 3, fourth to speaker 5, and last place to speaker 2.

5.9 Interesting features

This section of the thesis is focused on the different ways the speakers used to pronounce the words *ether* and *either*. In both cases, the result was a ratio of two to three. Other interesting features attributed to each speaker are listed in this part as well.

When pronouncing *ether*, speakers 2 and 3 agreed on the same pronunciation, and speakers 1, 4, and 5 agreed on the other way of pronouncing this word. In the second case, speakers 3 and 4 pronounced the word *either* the same way, and speakers 1, 2, and 5 pronounced it the other way. Both words appeared in the text just once. Thus, they were pronounced once by each speaker (5 times).

Two ways of pronouncing the word *ether* were uttered. Speakers 1, 4, and 5 chose to use the /i:/ sound. On the other hand, speakers 2 and 3 pronounced it with /e/. That means that /'i:θə(r)/ was pronounced 3× and */'eθə(r)/ 2×. The difference between the two ways of pronouncing the word *ether* could be a mistake made by speakers 2 and 3 because the only

“correct” way of pronouncing this word is with long /i:/ (both in American Standard English and British Standard English).

Likewise, two ways of pronouncing the word *either* were uttered in the recordings. Speakers 1, 2, and 5 used the /aɪ/ diphthong, while speakers 3 and 4 pronounced the long /i:/ monophthong. So /'aɪðə(r)/ was produced 3× and /'i:ðə(r)/ twice. Both ways are possible.

5.9.1 Speaker 1

Speaker 1 used light /l/ allophone before vowels and consonants. For example, in the words: *daily*, *plain*, or *millionaire*. She was also suspending the closure stage of the plosives in *vet*, *foot*, *mouth*, and *expect*. She articulated the word *territory* very clearly with no omission of sounds or syllables and without blending them. She pronounced /s/ in the word *stressed* as /ss/, which is typical for Welsh pronunciation. In the word *huge*, she did not pronounce the /j/ sound, thus, it sounded like */hu:dʒ/. She also pronounced the word *almost* with a schwa instead of the /əʊ/ diphthong.

5.9.2 Speaker 2

The second speaker was suspending the hold stage of the plosives as well. For instance, in the words *letter* or *sentimental*. Sometimes, he dropped some Ts, as in *can'(t)*, *stree(t)*, *kep(t)*, *treatmen(t)*, and *firs(t)*.

5.9.3 Speaker 3

The fact that speaker 3 used the long /o:/ vowel instead of the /ou/ diphthong, typical for RP, is apparent from the unscripted part of his speech. He pronounces words *ago*, *know*, and *going* like */ə'gɔ:/, */nɔ:/, and */'gɔ:ŋ/. The word *called* contains /ɒ/ instead of /ɔ:/ in his speech as well. Despite living in the Rhondda Valleys, he did not extend the vowel in the final unstressed syllables in the word *letter*, as it is typical for this area.

5.9.4 Speaker 4

Speaker 4, similarly to speaker 3, uses the long /o/ vowel instead of the /ou/ diphthong in words like *so* */sɔ:/, *phone* */fɔ:n/, *home* */hɔ:m/, and *no* */nɔ:/ uttered in the unscripted speech. She extends vowels in *letter* */'le:tə(r)/, *Sarah* */'se:rə/, *vet* */ve:t/, *medicine* */'me:ɪsn/, *measure* */'me:ʒə(r)/, and *day* */de:/. She drops the /h/ sound in initial position in words like *here* */ɪə(r)/ or *how* */aʊ/ and the /t/ sound in final position, for example, in *it* and *got*. The word *man* was pronounced with the vowel /a/.

Speaker 4 also pronounced Llanelli, which is a place in Wales where she was living at one point, as /lə'neɪli/. The fricative /ɹ/, which does not exist in Received Pronunciation, is present in the name of this town.

5.9.5 Speaker 5

Speaker 5 tends to drop the /h/ sound in the initial position as well. For instance, in the word *had*. *Had* has a couple of ways it can be pronounced. To illustrate, /həd/, /hæd/, and even /əd/, which is how speaker 5 pronounced it.

5.10 Other perceived features

As previously noted, most speakers analysed in this thesis were influenced in their speech by living abroad. Thus, some of the features of the Welsh accent are substituted by RP or American English features.

Speaker 1 pronounced *nurse* as /nɜ:s/ and *strut* as /strʌt/, which is not typical for Welsh pronunciation. In the word *near*, /ɪə/ was uttered. *Face* and *goat* were produced as /feɪs/ and /gəʊt/, and *foot* and *mouth* as /fʊt/ and /maʊθ/. The word *trap* was said with the /æ/ sound, typical for RP. *Palm* contained the /ɑ:/ vowel, same as *bath*. *Cloth* and *lot* were uttered with the /ɒ/ vowel. The word *price* contained the /aɪ/ diphthong, and the word *cure* was pronounced with schwa at the end.

Speakers 2, 3, 4, and 5 pronounced the words mentioned in the section above in the same way as speaker 1. Only the word *cure* was pronounced a bit differently by speakers 4 and 5. Speaker 4 said it with /ʌ/ at the end (Welsh), and speaker 5 pronounced it as /kjɔr/. Similarly, with the words *tower* and *tire*. Only speaker 4 said the Welsh /ʌ/. Every other speaker pronounced the schwa as in RP.

All of the speakers voiced approximant *r* in words: *start*, *North*, *Square*, and *force*. They also pronounced the [ɪ] vowel in the word *kit*, the [ɛ] monophthong in the word *dress*, the long vowel [ɔ:] in the word *thought*, and the [i:] sound in the word *fleece*. Everybody included long /u:/ in the word *goose* as well. The word *zoo* was always pronounced with /z/ in the initial position because it is a loanword.

5.11 Unperceived features

The /œ:/ sound, usually present in the word *nurse* (in Welsh), never appeared in any of the recordings. In the word *near*, /jœ:/ never occurred.

Foot was never pronounced with /ʌ/, and the /əi, əu/ diphthongs were never uttered in *price, fire, mouth, or power* word groups. For example, the word *tire* was pronounced with /aɪ/ and the word *Tower* with /aʊ/ diphthongs by every speaker. The word *fleece* never contained /iə/. The word *strut* was always voiced as /strʌt/, so the monophthongs /ə/ or /ʊ/ were not heard in this word in the recordings. In the word *letter*, /ə/ was always pronounced instead of /ʌ/.

The *Trap* group has many possible ways of being pronounced. To illustrate, it can contain /a/, /æ/, /ɛ/, or /ɑ:/. In the recordings, only /æ/ emerged. The long /ɑ:/ appeared in the words *bath* and *palm* in all of the recordings. Thus, short [a/æ] or long [ɑ:/æ:] forms were absent.

The *cloth* group can contain /ɔ/, /ɒ/, or even /ɔ:/ sounds. However, only /ɒ/ could be heard from all the speakers. The *lot* group can be pronounced with /ɔ/ or /ɒ/. In the recordings, /ɔ/ was never uttered.

Not one word from the word group NONE appeared in the recordings. Thus, it could not be analysed if it contained /ʌ/ or /ɒ/. Same for the word *Tuesday*. It can not be said whether they pronounce the word with /ɪu/ or /u:/ because it was not in the scripted speech.

No participant pronounced /s/ instead of /z/ in the middle or final position of a word. The word *deserted* was always pronounced as /dɪ'zɜ:tɪd/ with /z/ in the middle of the word, as well as the word *surprising* /sə'praɪzɪŋ/. The /ʃ/ consonant never replaced /s/.

The consonant /d/ was not substituted by /t/ in words like *and* /ænd/ or *old* /əʊld/. The words *feel* /fi:l/, *face* /feɪs/, *for* /fɔ(r)/, *foot* /fʊt/, *first* /fɜ:st/, *five* /faɪv/, *finally* /'faɪnəli/, *futile* /'fju:təl/, *force* /fɔ:s/, and *fair* /feə(r)/ were not pronounced with /v/ (instead of /f/) in the initial position. Thus like */vi:l/, */veɪs/, */vɔ(r)/, */vʊt/, */vɜ:st/, */vaɪv/, */'vaɪnəli/, */'vju:təl/, */vɔ:s/, and */veə(r)/.

The Welsh fricative /x/ never appeared in the initial position instead of the /k/ sound in any of the recordings. The other fricative that does not exist in Received Pronunciation, /h/, occurred only in the unscripted speech of one of the speakers while pronouncing *Llanelli*.

Some clusters as “str” in *strut*, “pl” in *plain*, “st” in stressed, “fl” in *fleece*, and “nd” in *and*, appeared, but the /χw/ cluster was never uttered in the recordings.

Optional deletion in the first syllable of any three-syllable word was never perceived in the recordings (no Welsh words were uttered in the recordings, but *Llanelli*). *Calediad* or

vowel affection were not observed either (for the same reason). Initial consonant mutations (soft, nasal, aspirate) or vowel mutations were never the subject of the analysis (almost no Welsh words).

CONCLUSION

In summary, based on the analysis and the results provided, it was discovered that the statistics of the data collected were hugely different for each speaker. The extra lengthening of vowels was used 13 times by speaker 4 but only once by speaker 5. Glottal stops were uttered twelve times by speaker 3 but never by speakers 1 and 5. While the /n/-ending on “ing” verb endings and the strong aspiration of /p, t, k/ were very common in the speech of all five speakers, the tapped R, /e:/ in the face group, and /o:/ in the goat group were used only by one speaker. Some of the features of Welsh pronunciation, like the typical /æ:/ sound or the /əi, əu/ diphthongs in price and mouth, were not present at all. Instead, they used RP features.

That may be the cause of anglicization, and also the fact that most of the speakers lived in other parts of the world for some time and may have adapted their speech to the speech of people born there. Age is also significant for the way people speak. Speaker 1 was an elderly woman who left Wales at 14 years old and, since then, had been living in England. Even though she did not spend too much time in Wales, many Welsh features were retained in her speech. The pronunciation of the speakers could also be influenced by the level of education they have reached and their socioeconomic status. While speaker 1 had studied only at a secondary school and was a housewife, speaker 3 was a college student. Speaker 2 was studying speech and drama. Thus, the field of study can matter as well. Some differences in the speech of different genders can be spotted, too. Generally, women have a higher pitch than men. Men and women can also differ in the intonation, rhythm, and pace of their speech. For instance, speaker 3 (male) spoke at a much faster pace than speaker 1 (female). Although that could be due to speaker 1's advanced age and speaker 3's enthusiasm as well. Lastly, the geographical area can influence a person's speech. To illustrate, big differences are apparent in the south vs the north.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- ‘Accents and Dialects of Wales’. 2011. IDEA: International Dialects of English Archive. 16 July 2011. <https://www.dialectsarchive.com/wales>.
- Ball, Martin, and Nicole Muller, eds. 2010. *The Celtic Languages*. 2nd edition. New York, N.Y: Routledge.
- Bauer, Laurie. 2002. *An Introduction to International Varieties of English*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.
- Bergs, Alexander, and Laurel J. Brinton, eds. 2017. *The History of English, Varieties of English*. Berlin: De Gruyter Mouton.
- Britain, David, ed. 2007. *Language in the British Isles*. 2nd edition. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Carradice, Phil. n.d. ‘The Welsh Language Act of 1967’. BBC Wales History. Accessed 1 February 2025. https://www.bbc.co.uk/blogs/waleshistory/2012/07/welsh_language_act_1967.html.
- ‘Comma Gets A Cure’. 2011. IDEA: International Dialects of English Archive. 15 June 2011. <https://www.dialectsarchive.com/comma-gets-a-cure>.
- Davies, Janet. 2014. *The Welsh Language: A History*. Cardiff: University of Wales Press.
- French, Peter, and David Langford. 1993. *Varieties of English: An Introduction to the Study of Language*. Edited by Dennis Freeborn. 2nd ed. Basingstoke: Macmillan.
- Hannahs, S. J. 2013. *The Phonology of Welsh*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Hughes, Arthur, Peter Trudgill, and Dominic Watt. 2013. *English Accents & Dialects*. 5th ed. London: Routledge.
- ‘IDEA – International Dialects of English Archive’. 2011. 15 June 2011. <https://www.dialectsarchive.com>.
- Kortmann, Bernd, and Clive Upton, eds. 2008. *Varieties of English: Volume 1: The British Islands*. 1st edition. Berlin: Walter de Gruyter.
- Lippi-Green, Rosina. 2011. *English with an Accent*. 2nd edition. London ; New York: Routledge.
- ‘Literacy in 17th Century Wales’. n.d. BBC Wales History. Accessed 9 January 2025. https://www.bbc.co.uk/wales/history/sites/themes/society/language_literacy.shtml?fbclid=IwY2xjawHsqxJleHRuA2FlbQIxMAABHUUE7KAAtqqoVr7aqASng6oPHBZXNExJ0CacKtx2CExaHaqnE0EM1ILRxQ_aem_x4Pg3rYwDf2uViCJC7kB4w.
- Payne, Laura. 2025. ‘Received Pronunciation’. Encyclopedia Britannica. 17 January 2025. <https://www.britannica.com/topic/Received-Pronunciation>.
- ‘Perceptual-Analysis.Pdf’. n.d. Accessed 15 March 2025. <https://blogs.ubc.ca/researchmethods/files/2019/02/Perceptual-Analysis.pdf>.
- Rautioaho, Paula, Hanna Parviainen, Mark Kaunisto, and Arja Nurmi, eds. 2023. *Social and Regional Variation in World Englishes: Local and Global Perspectives*. New York: Routledge.
- ‘Received Pronunciation’. 2014. *The Voice Cafe* (blog). 13 October 2014. <https://www.thevoicecafe.net/the-accent-with-few-native-speakers-in-britain-rp/>.
- ‘RP and BBC English’. n.d. BBC. Accessed 13 February 2025. <https://www.bbc.co.uk/voices/yourvoice/rpandbbc.shtml>.
- Russell, Paul. 2016. *An Introduction to the Celtic Languages*. 1st edition. Routledge.
- ‘The Archive of Welsh English - Swansea University’. n.d. Accessed 16 April 2025. <https://www.swansea.ac.uk/culture-communication/research/crew/crew-resources/archives-bibliographies/the-archive-of-welsh-english/>.
- ‘The Welsh Language’. n.d. Historic UK. Accessed 30 December 2024. <https://www.historic-uk.com/HistoryUK/HistoryofWales/Welsh-Language/>.

- Thomson, D. S., Caerwyn Williams J.E., Thomas Jones, and David Greene. n.d. 'Celtic Literature'. Encyclopedia Britannica. Accessed 9 January 2025. <https://www.britannica.com/art/Celtic-literature/The-Reformation-and-the-Renaissance>.
- Wales* 3. 2012. IDEA. <https://www.dialectsarchive.com/wales-3>.
- Wales* 4. 2012. IDEA. <https://www.dialectsarchive.com/wales-4>.
- Wales* 5. 2012. IDEA. <https://www.dialectsarchive.com/wales-5>.
- Wales* 6. 2012. IDEA. <https://www.dialectsarchive.com/wales-6>.
- Wales* 7. 2012. IDEA. <https://www.dialectsarchive.com/wales-7>.
- Wells, John C. 1982. *Accents of English*. Vol. 2. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- 'Welsh Alphabet - Welsh Vowels - Yr Wyddor Gymraeg'. n.d. FelinFach. FelinFach. Accessed 10 March 2025. <https://www.felinfach.com/pages/welsh-alphabet-welsh-vowels>.
- 'Welsh English'. n.d. Oxford English Dictionary. Accessed 5 March 2025. <https://www.oed.com/information/understanding-entries/pronunciation/world-englishes/welsh-english/>.
- 'Welsh Language Act 1993 | Law Wales'. n.d. Law Wales. Accessed 1 February 2025. <https://law.gov.wales/culture/welsh-language/welsh-language-act-1993>.

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1 The Welsh alphabet.....	23
Figure 2 Welsh monophthongs	23
Figure 3 Northern Welsh diphthongs.....	23
Figure 4 Welsh consonants	27
Figure 5 Mutations.....	30
Figure 6 Received Pronunciation sounds.....	32
Figure 7 Extra lengthening of vowels.....	38
Figure 8 A tapped R.....	39
Figure 9 Strong aspiration of /p, t, k/	40
Figure 10 /n/-ending on <i>ing</i> verb endings.....	42
Figure 11 Glottal stops.....	43
Figure 12 /e:/ in face group.....	44
Figure 13 /o:/ in goat group	45
Figure 14 /ju:/ in Duke and tune	46
Figure 15 Pronunciation features of each speaker	47

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1 Features perceived in the recordings.....37

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

BBC	British Broadcasting Corporation
ICM	initial consonant mutation
IDEA	The International Dialects of English Archive
RP	Received Pronunciation
SAWD	The Survey of Anglo-Welsh Dialects
SSBE	Standard Southern British English

APPENDICES

Appendix P I: COMMA GETS A CURE

APPENDIX P I: COMMA GETS A CURE

Well, here's a story for you: Sarah Perry was a veterinary nurse who had been working daily at an old zoo in a deserted district of the territory, so she was very happy to start a new job at a superb private practice in North Square near the Duke Street Tower. That area was much nearer for her and more to her liking. Even so, on her first morning, she felt stressed. She ate a bowl of porridge, checked herself in the mirror and washed her face in a hurry. Then she put on a plain yellow dress and a fleece jacket, picked up her kit and headed for work.

When she got there, there was a woman with a goose waiting for her. The woman gave Sarah an official letter from the vet. The letter implied that the animal could be suffering from a rare form of foot and mouth disease, which was surprising, because normally you would only expect to see it in a dog or a goat. Sarah was sentimental, so this made her feel sorry for the beautiful bird.

Before long, that itchy goose began to strut around the office like a lunatic, which made an unsanitary mess. The goose's owner, Mary Harrison, kept calling, "Comma, Comma," which Sarah thought was an odd choice for a name. Comma was strong and huge, so it would take some force to trap her, but Sarah had a different idea. First she tried gently stroking the goose's lower back with her palm, then singing a tune to her. Finally, she administered ether. Her efforts were not futile. In no time, the goose began to tire, so Sarah was able to hold on to Comma and give her a relaxing bath.

Once Sarah had managed to bathe the goose, she wiped her off with a cloth and laid her on her right side. Then Sarah confirmed the vet's diagnosis. Almost immediately, she remembered an effective treatment that required her to measure out a lot of medicine. Sarah warned that this course of treatment might be expensive – either five or six times the cost of penicillin. I can't imagine paying so much, but Mrs. Harrison – a millionaire lawyer – thought it was a fair price for a cure. ('Comma Gets A Cure' 2011)