

MINISTRY OF THE HIGHER AND SECONDARY SPECIAL
EDUCATION OF THE REPUBLIC OF UZBEKISTAN
SAMARKAND STATE INSTITUTE OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES

Report

SCOTTISH ENGLISH



Done by: Maxmudova Latofat 306-group

Checked by: Soliyeva Z.

Samarkand – 2016

CONTENTS

| | |
|--|----|
| Introduction | 3 |
| Languages spoken in Scotland | 5 |
| 1. Historical setting of Scottish English..... | 6 |
| 2. Rise of English languages..... | 9 |
| Phonology of Scottish English | 13 |
| 1. Vowel system of Scottish English | 15 |
| 2. Consonant system of Scottish English..... | 23 |
| 3. Intonation of Scottish English..... | 25 |
| Conclusion | 27 |
| Reference | 28 |

Introduction

Learning foreign languages in Uzbekistan has become very important since the first days of the Independence of our country which pays much attention to the rising of education level of people, their intellectual growth. As Mahatma Gandhi said “Live as if you were to die tomorrow. Learn as if you were to live forever. that’s why knowing foreign languages has become very important today. Under the notion “knowledge” we understand not only practical but theoretical basis too.

The variability of the pronunciation of Scottish English depends on an immense number of factors. Not only does the Scottish accent vary according to different regions but it also depends on the speaker and the type of discourse.

The given report encountered Scottish English in the summer 2010 for the first time, when she visited Scotland. However, the author was confronted with very critical opinions on the language used in Scotland even before she left for Scotland. During the visit, the author had many opportunities to talk to Scottish people and she realised the immense variability of the English used in Scotland. This work was a friendship with Robert Martin, who spoke about the language, history and culture of Scotland enthusiastically. The interest in the language used in Scotland grew even more during author’s travelling around the Scotland. Since the main means of transport was hitchhiking, the author of this thesis had many opportunities to meet people from different parts of Scotland and thus compare different accents of Scottish English.

After the return to Perth, the author started to collect material which would create the basis of this given work. After the return to Perth, the author started to collect material which would create the basis of this report.

Further focus of this work on formal and informal aspects of utterances resulted from a liaison with Mr. Ian Foster, who abandoned his Scottish accent during his military service so as to prevent teasing by his fellow-conscripts. It was his negative experience what draw author's attention to sociolinguistic and factors influencing accents.

Languages spoken in Scotland

Scotland is an area with a unique linguistic tradition. Today, there are three indigenous languages spoken in Scotland: Scottish Gaelic, Scots and (Scottish) English . “All are spoken throughout Scotland with the majority of Scots and Gaelic speakers also being bilingual with English” this can be illustrated by scheme which is given below.

Scotland's Languages

| | Scots English | |
|--------|---------------|---------------------------------|
| | Scots | Scottish Standard English |
| Gaelic | | |

To understand present linguistic situation, it is useful to draw the attention to the historical background of Scotland and political powers that were in control of this territory.

Providing a definition of Scottish English is an uneasy task because the terminology used by various sources is incoherent. Most authors concord that Scottish English is Standard English spoken with a Scottish Accent. McArthur (1979) defines Scottish English as a bipolar linguistic continuum, with broad Scots at one end and Scottish Standard English at the other.

Mc Arthur (1979) adds a definition of Standard Scottish English; he sees it as ‘a more or less homogeneous range of nationally acceptable norms of spelling, grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation, which is in turn one variety of World

Standard English' (p. 50) (while World Standard English is defined analogically as a more or less homogeneous range of internationally acceptable norms).

1. Historical settings of Scottish English

Scottish Gaelic originates in Old Irish, a Celtic language brought to Scotland by the Irish Scots. They most probably came to Scotland, at that time inhabited by the Picts, via the Isle of Man and by the fifth century they inhabited most of the Scotland. About two hundred years later, Anglo-Saxons were approaching from the northern England. They spoke Anglian, a dialect of the Old English, and though they were coming as mercenaries at first, the archaeological findings prove them to be also merchants and craftsmen. Apart from Scottish Gaelic and Anglian, Latin was also present in Scotland, though the use of Latin was restricted to religious rites of Christians.

The end of the eighth century onwards is marked by Viking invasion. In the last decade of the eighth century, the Orkneys, Western Islands and the northern tip of Scotland were raided by Norwegians, whereas the South-West and South-East of Scotland was shaped by the Anglo-Danes moving northwards. These encounters resulted in preservation of some Scandinavian elements in Scots, a linear descendant of Anglian. By the eleventh century, Scots succeeded to dominate the most fertile and densely populated parts of Scotland and thus replace Gaelic in Southern Scotland.

During the Anglo-Norman period, Scotland had not as much external connection as England had, and Norman-French was far less important in Scotland. During this period, monarchs were endowing Continental monastic orders. The administrators were recruited from the class of churchmen and thus Latin came to be fully employed in the administration. Moreover, the process of

feudalisation expanded, and burghs were being founded in almost every part of Scotland except for Highlands. They were centres of both external and internal trade and encouraged migration of the population. Old English, which could finally be called Scots in this period, spread in the Scottish Lowlands and became the dominant language of communication among the overlords, their vassals and the freemen in the burghs.

Although Gaelic remained the main language over a greater geographical area than Scots and was spoken by the majority of the population until Reformation, due to the Scottish wars of independence in thirteenth and early fourteenth century, it was possible to see a stereotypical image of the inhabitants of Lowlands and Highlands, originating of mutual antipathies of two belligerents. The population of Highlands was described as ‘wild’ whereas the Lowlanders were ‘peaceful’ and ‘civilised’. According to similar criteria, Gaelic was being considered ‘wild’ and ‘inferior’ whereas Scots was described as ‘domesticated’ but since the late fourteenth century.

Until the fifteenth century, there was certain ambiguity in naming the languages of Scotland. Term *Inglis* was used to refer to ‘the vernacular language of Lowland Scotland and of England’ (Dictionary of the Scots Language, n. d.), but the speakers were not English as it might suggest, but Scotsmen. However, by the time Scots became used as the official language of the Kingdom of Scotland, it was renamed to *Scottis*, and *Inglis* was used exclusively in connection to the English language. From the same time also come the first records of using the term *Irische*, a term similarly implying the Irish nationality, for the language of Scottish Highlands.

The English and the Scots existed side by side and until the sixteenth century, Scots was on the same hierarchical level as English. Scots was the language of poets like Douglas, Henryson, and Dunbar, the last being notable for his efforts to elaborate Scots. However, at the turn of the seventeenth century the language began to be strongly influenced by Southern English. However, this influence cannot be ascribed to one single reason.

The geographical closeness of England and Lowland Scotland constituted groundwork for migration and for the formation of the linguistic continuum of these two dialects. In combination with the fact that English and Scots were not perceived as two distinct languages, the changes were diffusing and spreading without many obstacles.

The Reformation played a key role in the process of Anglicisation. Not only did it bring the English translation Bible, it also introduced other southern religious works. The absence of Scottish version of the Scriptures meant a big deficit for the Scotsmen.

Another deficit of similar kind was the dominance of English in the print. Margaret Bald states that although both English and Scots was used after the Reformation, the English publications constituted three quarters of all texts printed in 1620s (cited in Knieszsa, 1997, p. 44). This was caused partly by the growing importance of England and London as a centre of English-speaking word and partly by the strengthening link between the English and Scottish Kingdoms by the Union of Crowns in 1603 when James VI was crowned the king of England as James I.

The increased contact of Scotsmen and Englishmen influenced strikingly the phonetic development of the language. Some contacts were involuntary, such

as in the case of forced exiles of many clergymen during the Reformation, while others were deliberate: intermarriages of the Scottish and English aristocracy, contact of soldiers, and trade.

In addition to these encounters, also the popularity of English helped to establish it more firmly in Scotland. Scottish higher classes were looking for inspiration in southern culture, politics and economy. Aitkin mentions that in the seventeenth century, Scottish nobility thought it fashionable to travel either to southern England or directly to London. Standard English was spreading around the gentry and educated Scotsmen, since ‘The ambitious have avoided the native dialect as a mark of lowly birth’, as Baugh and Cable put it.

However, there were also endeavours to maintain Scots as a literary language. Poets like Ramsay, Fergusson, and Robert Burns did succeed and in their poetry, it is possible to reveal the characteristic differences between Scots and English of those days.

2. Rise of English language

The process of adopting the English was even accelerated a hundred years later, when Scotland was formally united to England by the Act of Union in 1707. English came to be the official written language of the whole country and Scots became definitely downgraded to a domestic dialect. By the late eighteenth century, English was considered to be the most appropriate form of speaking on distinguished occasions. The Scottish English, which was mentioned among the three languages spoken in Scotland at the beginning of this chapter, arose as an amalgam of English and Scots as the two dialects co-existed together. As Wells

(1986) puts it, Scottish English is simply ‘Standard English spoken with Scottish accent’ and ‘retaining a few Scotticisms in vocabulary’ .

This fact can also be ascribed to the long coexistence of these two languages. Even though Scotsmen of higher social classes gave up Scots in favour of English, they still lived in the same environment as before and were in contact with more conservative middle- and lower-classes, which neither had much opportunity to travel that far nor paid so much attention to their speech; which might miss the Scripts in Scots and whose literacy relied upon books published predominantly in English, but their day-to-day chores did include much more spoken communication and thus talking in Scots. There were no proper means of reproduction of the pronunciation of English except for those speaking Standard English as their mother tongue or those who had been in English-speaking territories for time long enough to acquire its authentic pronunciation. The fact, that it is possible to ‘hear of Scottish Members of the British Parliament taking lessons in elocution so that the English might understand them better [9, 75] bespeaks the insufficient means of adopting the authentic pronunciation of English. The influence of Scots-speaking environment and the absence of native speakers of Standard English, which is mentioned by Mecafee (2007), were so strong that the acquisition of English underwent an influential period of ‘spelling pronunciation, interdialectal forms and hypercorrections. [6, 896]

As it was mentioned above, Gaelic was superseded by Scots in Scottish Lowlands by the eleventh century. From the sixteenth century onwards, Gaelic was receding under the pressure of English. During the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, Gaelic was being forced out of the settlements, focused on forestry and whiskey trading, along the Highland Line. In the Highlands of Scotland, this

process proceeded much faster due to the population clearances and emigration which followed the unsuccessful rebellion of 1745. Entire communities were relocated to other parts of Scotland or sent overseas to the colonies and for those who remained in Highlands and Western Islands, the education became compulsory and transmitted through English. Thus English was established as the medium of education and advancement. Subsequently, the number of Gaelic speakers declined sharply; data from census of 1891 and 1991 show that the number of Gaelic speakers dropped from 250,000 to 66,000.

Similar measures were employed in non-Gaelic speaking areas. English was promoted in schools and the use of Scots in classes was often even punishable. This policy understandably resulted into recession of Scots speaking population as well. Scots and Gaelic were subjects of pursuit of revival or at least preservation. In the nineteenth century, John Murdoch of Inverness began *The Highlander* newspaper, which were not only reviving the language but also added a political and nationalist flavour. Similarly, Scots literature was a medium of promoting the Scottish independence during the Scottish Literary Renaissance during 1920's and 1930's. For example, Naomi Mitchison, Eric Linklater and James Leslie Mitchell could be named among the most influential Scottish writers concerned about Scottish independence in that period. In addition, two major dictionaries recording Scottish speech started to be published in 1930's; *A Dictionary of the Older Scottish Tongue* in twelve volumes records the language before 1700, *The Scottish National Dictionary* in ten volumes contains data about Scottish words in use after this date (*Dictionary of the Scots Language*, n. d.). Today, Scots remains to be spoken in southern, central and north-eastern Scotland.

In the 1980's, more groups promoting Gaelic emerged and started to lobby for the use of Gaelic in education and in politics. It is possible to say that these efforts are successful since Professor Mackinnon in *Gaelic in 1994* speaks about the rising number of pre-school playgrounds and primary units (in Murdoch, 1996, p. 4) and Gaelic is also encouraged to be used in Scottish television programming. However promising these efforts may seem, the figures are still very low. The census of 2001 shows that 'around 92,400 (1.9 per cent) of the 4.9 million residents of Scotland had some Gaelic language ability in that they could speak, read, write or understand spoken Gaelic.

Phonology of Scottish English

Pronunciation of different parts of the country-dialects educated people try not to use dialects, they try to use literary English. Literary pronunciation is called orthopedic norm of pronunciation.

Received Pronunciation (RP) is the term which is used instead of literary pronunciation, because RP is received by everybody to be the correct pronunciation. Within RP also have several pronunciations due to development of the language.

3. Northern English pronunciation. It has the following differences

- a) [a] is used instead of [æ] [bad], [sad] for [bæd], [sæd]
- b) [ɑ:] instead of [a:] [fa:st] [fɑ:st] [glas] [glɑ:s]
- c) [ʊ] is used instead of [u] love-[luv] much-[mut]
- d) [ou] [o] [gou] [go] monophthongs become diphthongs [ei] [e]

4. Scottish English pronunciation:

- a) [r] is used in all position born – [born] car – [car]
- b) there is the sound [x] loch [lox]
- c) monophthongs are used instead of diphthongs before [r]
beard [bird] poor[pur]
- d) short vowels are used instead of long ones
spoon [spon] food [fod]

Some linguists say that it is a national variant. Others say that it is a dialect. English has been spoken in Scotland for as long as it has been spoken in England. In the Highlands and Islands of northern and western Scotland, however, Gaelic

is still the native language of thousands of speakers from these regions. A standardized form of this language, known as Scots, was used at the court and in literature until the Reformation. Then it was gradually replaced by English. Incidentally a number of writers and poets of the likes of R. Burns retained their native language.

Nowadays educated Scottish people speak a form of Scottish Standard English which grammatically and lexically is not different from English used elsewhere, although with an obvious Scottish accent. We must admit, however, that non-standard dialects of Scotland still resemble Scots and in many respects are radically different from most other varieties of English. It is very difficult to understand them for students who learn RP. At the moment there is currently a strong movement in Scotland for the revival of Scots. England occupied the USA in XVII century, and English language developed in the US in its own way, because it was geographically far from England. We can notice the following differences:

- a) [r] is used in all position [lord]
- b) [t] in intervocalic position is pronounced as [d] writer[raider] letter[leder]
- c) [u] is used instead of [ju:] students [students] [stju:dents]
- d) glottal stop [ʔ] is used before sonorant [m,n,l,r,j,w] (гортанная смычка)
- e) [wh] is pronounced like [hw]
- f) [ɒ] is used instead of [ɑ:] fast [fɒst] pass [pɒss]
- g) all vowels are long
- h) the number of diphthongs
isn't exact
in B.E – 8 diphthongs
in A.E – no exact number
- i) difference in intonation is used gradually from the highest to the lowest ranges

1. Vowel system of Scottish English

Both Wells (1982) and Abercrombie (1979) agree that the vowel systems vary over the English speaking world significantly, and that the Scottish one is the smallest of them. Wells (1982), who introduced four systems which can be divided further into four subsystems, presents the Scottish vowel system comprising of items shown in It is presented first for it comprises of 12 items.[11, 58]

a) Vowel System of Scottish Accent

Part-system a shows the traditional stressable short vowels present in the system. These vowels are phonotactically restricted to occurrence in checked syllables (syllables where the final consonant can be interpreted as checking the pulse of air for the syllable and its vowel). This part-system comprises of five elements: KIT – /ɪ/, DRESS – /ɛ/, or /ë/ if present, STRUT – /ʌ/, and LOT and CLOTH – /ɒ/. The part-system may be further reduced by the loss of LOT and CLOTH to part-system C through its merger with THOUGHT.

Vowel System of Scottish Accent

| | | | |
|-------------------|-------------|------------|-----------|
| ɪ | i | | u |
| ɛ (ë) ʌ | e (ʌi) | (ɜ) | o |
| | æ (ɒi) | a (ɑ) | ʌu ɔ |
| A | B | C | D |

Part-systems B, C, and D are normally permitted to occur in free syllables (the vowel occurs free of any checking consonant or before a checking consonant). The part-system B includes those of traditional long vowels and diphthongs which have a front mid to close quality or endpoint. This part-system may comprise five elements: FLEECE – /i/, FACE – /e/, PRICE – /ae/, or /ʌi/ for those who have it, and CHOICE – /ɒi/ which may or may not be present. Part-system C

comprises those of the traditional long vowels and diphthongs which have relatively open quality or endpoint. This part-system can include three members: THOUGHT and CLOTH merge – /ɔ/, PALM and START merge – /a/, and NURSE – /ɜ/ for those who have it. If /ɑ/ is present in the system (for those PALM words which have it) then /ɑ/ belongs in part-system A to TRAP words. Part-system D comprises those of the traditional long vowels and diphthongs which have a back mid to close quality or endpoint. It includes four members: FOOT and GOOSE merge – /u/, GOAT – /o/, LOT, THOUGHT and CLOTH merge – /ɔ/, and MOUTH – /ʌu/.

b) Basic Scottish Vowel System

Wells' (1982) system, however, comes from the system of Scottish Standard English created by David Abercrombie, which is shown in The Basic Scottish Vowel System, as Abercrombie names it, comprises of 13 items providing a basis for description of other accents. The Basic Scottish Vowel System compares two representative accents: Standard Scottish English as a representative of Scotland, and Received Pronunciation as the representative of England, which is the most commonly-used system for Standard English in England.

The modifications of the Basic Scottish Vowel System can be described as modifications towards the Anglo-English system. Although these modifications might seem random, they form a hierarchy. However, these modifications were not made by individuals to their own speech in imitation of Anglo-English speakers, but transmitted from parents to children or learnt by children from contemporaries at school and thus properly institutionalised.

According to Aitken (1979), 'Scots did not follow the London English in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries in splitting its /u/ phoneme and its /a/ phoneme into two' (p. 100), and it possessed only one round vowel to serve as /o/, thus The main differences originating from etymology are SSE lack of any opposition of the kind /ʊ/ vs. /u/ (*pull* vs. *pool*, FOOT vs. GOOSE),

opposition /a/ vs. /ɑ/ (*bad* vs. *balm*, TRAP vs. PALM) and /ɒ/ vs. /ɔ/ (*not* vs. *nought*, LOT vs. THOUGHT) [9, 112].

Basic Scottish Vowel System

| | Scotland (SSE) | England (RP) |
|---------|----------------|--------------|
| Bead | i | I |
| Bid | ɪ | ɪ |
| Bay | e | eɪ |
| Bed | ɛ | ɛ |
| (never) | (ĕ) | |
| Bad | a | ʌ |
| Balm | | ɑ |
| Not | ɔ | ɒ |
| Nought | | ɔ |
| No | o | oo |
| Pull | u | ʊ |
| Pool | | U |
| Bud | ʌ | ʌ |
| Side | ʌi | aɪ |
| Sighed | ae | |

| | | |
|-----|----|----|
| Now | ʌu | aʊ |
| Boy | ɔe | ɒɪ |

Syllables closed by /r/

| | Scotland (SSE) | England (RP) |
|--------|----------------|--------------|
| First | ɪ | ɜ |
| Word | ʌ | |
| Heard | ɛ | |
| (herd) | (ĕ) | |
| Here | i | ɪə |
| Fair | e | ɛə |
| Hard | a | ɑɔ |
| Forty | ɔ | ə |
| Four | o | |
| Poor | u | ʊə |

The **Scottish vowel length rule**, also known Aitken's Law after its discoverer, professor Aitken, is probably the most characteristic Scottish rule. This law, originating in the sixteenth century, governs the exact realisations in

different phonetic and morphemic environments of long or non-high short vowels.

The general rule is that ‘a vowel is phonetically short unless it is followed by #, a voiced fricative, or /r/, in which case it is long.

Thus there is a **short** vowel in *bead*, pronounced [bid], and the duration is similar to the vowel in *bid* [bid] and *bed* [bed]. Similarly, *mood* [mud] rhymes with *good*, both words having short but close [ʊ].

Vowels are **long** in morpheme-final position, or in the environment of following /v, ð, z, r/ (this applies to all vowels except /ɪ/ and /ʌ/ which are always short). Thus there are long vowels in *key* [ki:], *two* [tu:], *stay* [ste:], *know* [no:]; and in words such as *sleeve* [sli:v], *smooth* [smu:ð], *maze* [me:z], *pour* [po:r], *Kerr* [kɛ:r], *Oz* [ɔ:z].

This long duration is also retained if a morpheme-final vowel is followed by a suffixal /d/, as in *agreed* [ə'gri:d]. However, a vowel before a final /d/ belonging to the same morpheme is short, as *greed* [gri:d]. Hence there is a phonetic contrast between the two types of word with final /d/, those which are morphologically simple and those which contain a word-internal #. Few pairs which are bearing phonetic distinction are listed below:

| | |
|---------------------|------------------------|
| <i>need</i> [nid] | <i>knee#d</i> [ni:d] |
| <i>brood</i> [brud] | <i>brew#ed</i> [bru:d] |
| <i>staid</i> [tod] | <i>stay#ed</i> [to:d] |
| <i>bad</i> [bad] | <i>baa#d</i> [ba:d] |
| <i>toad</i> [nod] | <i>gnaw#ed</i> [no:d] |

Some other speakers also show signs of apparently autonomous length contrasts in other environments, for example *leek* [lik] vs. *leak* [li:k], *vane* [ven]

vs. *vain*[ve:n], *creek* [kre:k], *choke* vs. *joke*, *made* vs. *maid*, *badge* vs. *cadge*. [18, 554]

Since changes were described in historical context, the characteristic features of Standard Scottish English from a diagnostic point of view follow. The classification of Wells' (1982, pp. 400 onwards) analysis of SSE, enriched by examples from Abercrombie (1979) is used.

c) Monophthongs

u The absence of a phoneme /ʊ/ is the most important characteristic of the Scottish vowel system. The vowel of FOOT words merges GOOSE words; hence there are homophones such as *pull—pool*, *full—fool*, *look—Luke*, and rhymes such as *good—mood*, *foot—boot*, *puss—loose*, *wool—tool*, *woman—human*, *pudding—brooding*. This lack of phonetic opposition between /ʊ/ and /u/ is characteristic that seems virtually resistant to any alteration in the speech of anglicized Scots.

ɔ - o This phoneme is common to many ScE speakers. It is used for words of LOT, THOUGHT and CLOTH type and gives homophones of the type *cot—caught*, *knotty—naughty*, *don—dawn*, *not—nought*. Even though some speakers do distinguish /ɒ/ and /ɔ/, they still use in certain lot words, for instance *yacht*, *wash*, *watch*, *squad*, *squash*, and *lorry*.

a - ʌ As far as open vowels are concerned, SSE has just a single phoneme /a/ (which could be written /ʌ/ as well) to PALM, TRAP, BATH, and START words, e. g. *bad—balm*. Similarly to [ɔ] vs. [o], some speakers can also make the distinction between [a] and [ʌ], which is probably most readily found following nasal, for example, *Sam*[sam] distinct from *psalm* [sam]. In addition, back [ɑ] is

found in the environments __#, __r#, and __rC (*bra, car, farm*), and sometimes also before a fricative (*calf, path, mass, vast*).

Abercrombie (1979) claims that an implicational relationship holds between these three optional vowel oppositions /u-ʊ, ɔ-ɒ, a-ɑ/: contrastive /ʊ/ implies the presence of contrastive /ɒ/, and contrastive /ɒ/ implies the presence of contrastive /ɑ/, but not the reverse.

ɛ - ě This vowel is sometimes called ‘floating’ vowel because it is not an integral part of any Scottish vowel system, or sometimes ‘Aitken’s Vowel’ because it was him who discussed first its phonetic quality. This fairly centralised vowel is probably determined geographically, since it is commonly found in the west of Scotland, in the Borders, in Perthshire and sometimes in Edinburgh for example. This vowel has no equivalent in RP, it is not considered as forming part of the Basic system, and it appears to occur only in stressed syllables. Where present, /ɛ/ occurs in words such as *bury, devil, earth, clever, jerk, eleven, heave, next, shepherd, twenty*.

ɪ In KIT words, the quality of /ɪ/ is – in an educated Scottish accent – much the same as in RP. In more popular accents it may be considerably opener and/or more retracted. Its phonetic quality also varies geographically.

ə The analysis of unstressed vowels, as often, presents problems. In many places where RP has, it seems correct to regard Scottish English as having /ɪ/ or /ɪr/, for example *pilot* ['paelɪt], *letter* ['lɛtɪr]. It will be recalled that Scottish /ɪ/ is in any case often very [ə]-like. Yert many speakers make a consistent distinction between *except* and *accept*, etc., so that these must be phonemicized as /ɪk-, ʌk-/ respectively. In final position, an opener vowel is usual; this *commA* vowel may be analysed as /ʌ/, too. There is a consistent

distinction between *commA* and *lettER*: manner—manor /'manɪr/ vs. manna /'manʌ/.

e The final vowel in *happY* words is perhaps most typically /e/ in Scotland, so that lady is /'lede/, studded /'stʌdɪd/ differs from studied /'stʌded/.

d) Diphthongs

PRICE words Many speakers of ScE have two perceptibly distinct diphthongs in PRICE words. One, phonetically, is [a'e], the other [ʌi] (or in working-class speech, [ɛi]). There are several minimal pairs such as *tied* vs. *tide*, *sighed* vs. *side*, *spider* vs. *wider*, which are not identical in morphological structure: *tie#d*, *tide*; *sigh#ed*, *side*; in the third pair, there is also a difference of syllabication, *spid\$er*, *wid\$#er*. These examples are further instances of length variation in accordance with Aitken's Law. These two diphthongs are virtually in complementary distribution.

The first, [ae] is used in the environments finally and before a voiced fricative or /r/, thus *buy*, *high*, *alive*, *prize*, *fire*['faerfae.ɪr] (some people say [fair] for *fire* in the north-east). It is also used in morpheme-final position before an ending or suffix, as in *tri#ed*, *shy#ness*; and in syllable-final position in words such as *diet*['dae.ɪt], *iron*['ae.ɪn], *pilot*, *tiger*, *python*.

The other diphthong [ʌi] is used elsewhere, namely before tautosyllabic /v/ in inflected noun plurals, by analogy with the singular form where is regular before /f/: thus sometimes *wives* ['wʌɪvz], because of *wife* ['wʌɪf]; *five knives*['fʌevnʌɪvz].

From previous, it can be claimed a phoneme split has occurred in Scottish English.

MOUTH words The vowel of MOUTH has no tendency to split into two phonemes, but there is considerable sociolinguistic variability, with quality ranging from a high-status [aʊ] to [oʊ] to a popular [ʊ:]. This variation correlates in Glasgow clearly with social class. The investigations have shown that in those areas where Scots dialect is spoken alongside ScE, individual speakers usually have both possibilities of mouth words, [ʊ] for Scots and [ʌʊ] for English. This [ʊ] in MOUTH is a well-known Scotticism outside Scotland and is familiar in such stereotyped Scottish pronunciations as ‘hoose’ for *house*.

CHOICE words In the case of CHOICE words, the usual pronunciation involves the diphthong here written /ɔɪ/, which ranges phonetically over [ɔɪ ~ ɔɪ]. Where it occurs in the non-final position, some speakers use [ʌɪ] instead, thus merging pairs such as *vice*—*voice*. Another possibility is to have instead of a diphthong a disyllabic sequence of /o/ plus /ɪ/, thus *boy* ['bɔɪ.ɪ], *voice* ['voɪs] (with the same sequence as *lowest*). This phenomenon occurs in the informal utterance of Gerry Watson.

2. Consonant system of Scottish English

Accents of English do not differ much in their consonant systems. The Scottish system remained conservative by retaining the velar fricative, /x/, which is not possessed by any other accent of English. The use of /x/ is restricted to proper names (*Tulloch*/'tʌlʌx/, *Auchtermuchty*/'ɔxtɪr'mʌxte/, *Strachan*, *Buchan*), in loan-words from Gaelic (*loch*), and to some names of Greek or Hebrew origin spelled with *ch* (*technical*/'tech-/ , *patriarch*/-rx/, *epoch*). Another item retained is [ʌ], which is preserved only in few instances, like *weasel* in south-east Scotland.

e) Rhoticity, /r/

Standard English generally has poses restrictions on the combination of segments to combine with each other and it can be said that most of the combinations of sounds that do not comply, are normally found difficult to pronounce by native speakers. In this respect, SSE shares most of the structural constraints of RP. However, SSE contains a restriction that is unique to other accents of SE. This feature is called Rhoticity. All accents of SE can be divided into two classes depending on where the phoneme /r/ occurs in words (without reference to the way of phonetic realisation). If /r/ can occur only before a vowel, and not before a consonant or before a pause, this accent is called non-rhotic; the majority of RP speakers in Britain are non-rhotic. On the other hand, when an /r/ can occur just as well before a consonant or a pause as before a vowel and thus behaves as any other consonant, then this accent is called rhotic. Rhotic accents are – in addition to SSE – for example GenAm or most Canadian accents.

Furthermore, /r/, it is necessary to describe its realization in more detail. The first of the three most usual realizations of /r/ is an alveolar tap, [ɾ], particularly associated with within-word environments V__V and C__V (*sorry, agree*), and the other two are an alveolar or retroflex approximant, [ɹ] or [ɻ], associated with the environments V__C and V__# (*word, care*).

There are some other characteristics which can be found in SSE, though the reader must bear in mind that they are subject of further regional or social differences and as such will be discussed in more detail in paper. Plosives

As opposed to RP, where plosives in the initial position are pronounced with aspiration, SSE pronounces /p, t, k/ with little or no aspiration; the place of articulation of /t/ and /d/ can be either dental or alveolar. When /t/ does not occur

in the initial, it is a subject of T Glottalling, thus words like *sentimental* are pronounced [ˈsɛnʔɪˈmɛnʔl]. Some speakers, who glottal /t/ may also add a glottal reinforcement to /p/ and /k/ in the same environment, thus *purple* is pronounced [ˈpʌrpʔl]. T Glottalling can be heard in Robert Martin’s informal utterance.

f) Voicing Assimilation

Voicing assimilation is an interesting phenomenon occurring time to time in ScE (Wells, 1979, p. 412), which can be observed for example in *most valuable* being transcribed as [ˈmoz ˈvaljəbl]. The elision of the /t/ of *most* can be found in virtually all accents of English; but the change from [s] to [z] under the influence of the following voiced /v/ can be found only in Scotland and few other territories.

g) Fricatives

Although SSE does pronounce [θ] and [ð] in the same way as RP does, there are dialects of ScE where these fricatives do miss completely or certain words, where the pronunciation differs from RP. Namely, words *although*, *though*, *thither* are generally pronounced with [θ] instead of [ð].

3. Intonation of Scottish English

Intonation makes differences of tone in tone languages/r/, where a syllable or word consisting of the same segmental sequence has different lexical meanings according to the pitch used with it (e.g. in Chinese). Outside tone languages, pitch also makes differences of intonation whereby different pitch contours produce difference of attitudinal or discoursal meaning (discoursal here refers to the way successive chunks of utterances are linked together). However, in SSE pitch does not play an important role.

While tone is a feature of syllables of words, ‘intonation’ is a feature of phrases or clauses. Some combination of the features of pitch, length and loudness will also produce accent, whereby particular syllables are made to stand out from those around them. [8, 158].

Rising tones are reported for many northern cities, for example in Glasgow [4,512]. Apart from Glasgow, another pattern involves a series of falls, one on each accented syllable and another on the last accented syllable. Variation in the height of the peak may arise: for statements such accented syllables have high fall and high fall, for wh-questions high fall and mid fall, and for yes-no questions mid fall and high fall.

Conclusion

The purpose of this report is to investigate the use of Scottish English accents in formal and informal utterances.

The speech of some speakers living in central Scotland, i.e. in Perthshire was analysed. They said there is some various features of Scottish English and English. It was found out that the tempo of formal and informal utterances is similar, the informal being slightly slower because the speakers' thinking. The characteristics vowels and consonants uttered both formally and informally do not vary significantly.

The results show that the informal utterance showed higher occurrence of glottal stops, hesitation sounds [e:], and various deviations from the Basic Scottish Vowel System. Furthermore, none of the speakers uttered the word *promontory* correctly.

Should any similar study be carried out, the use of a camera recorder instead of a voice recorder is advised. However, the possible negative impact on the spontaneity of informants must be considered.

The work on this report was an enriching experience. Not only did it raise the awareness characteristics of Scottish English, it also showed that there is no good or bad accent but there are only different kinds of them.

References

1. Karimov I. A. Cementing the achieved results, to consistently aspire towards new goals.-T.:Uzbekistan, 2006-52pp.
2. Abduazizov A. English phonetic, издательство «Ўқитувчи» Т. 1972 г.
3. Abduazizov A. Theoretical phonetics of modern English Tashkent 1986
4. Gimson, A. C. Gimson's Pronunciation of English. Sixth Edition. / Revised by Alan Gruttenden. London, New York: Edward Arnold, 2001. – 339 p.
5. Gimson, A.C. Jones and Standards of English Pronunciation// English Studies. – Vol.58. - №2. – 1997. – P.152 – 157.
6. Vassilyev V.A English phonetics. A normative Course- M. 1980
9. Horne K.M." Language"
10. Crystal, D. (1991). *A dictionary of linguistics and phonetics* (3rd ed.). Oxford: Basil Blackwell.
11. Chambers, J. K., & Trudgill, P. (1980). *Dialectology*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
12. Chambers, J. K., & Trudgill, P. (1980). *Dialectology*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
13. Downes, W. (1998). *Language and society* (2nd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
14. General Register Office for Scotland (2005a). *Gaelic language (Scotland) act 2005*. The Stationery Office Limited.
15. Gimson, A. C. (1984). RP accent. In P. Trudgill (Ed.), *Language in the British isles* (pp. 45-69). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
16. Inglis (n.d.). *Dictionary of the Scots language*. Retrieved from <http://www.dsl.ac.uk>.

17. Iris (n.d.). *Dictionary of the Scots language*. Retrieved from <http://www.dsl.ac.uk>.
18. Johnston, P. (1997). Regional variety. In C. Jones (Ed.), *The Edinburgh history of the Scots language* (pp. 433-513). Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.