

A typology of laterals in twelve English dialects

Sam Kirkham,^{1, a)} Danielle Turton,¹ and Adrian Leemann²

¹⁾*Department of Linguistics and English Language, Lancaster University, United Kingdom*

²⁾*Center for the Study of Language and Society, University of Bern, Switzerland*

s.kirkham@lancaster.ac.uk,

d.m.turton@lancaster.ac.uk,

adrian.leemann@csls.unibe.ch

(Dated: 26 June 2020)

1 **Abstract:** Allophonic patterns of variation in English laterals have
2 been well studied in phonetics and phonology for decades, but estab-
3 lishing broad generalizations across varieties has proven challenging. In
4 this study, we advance a typology of onset/coda lateral distinctions in
5 English, using crowdsourced recordings from 95 speakers across twelve
6 dialects of Anglo (UK) English. Results confirm the existence of di-
7 alects with and without onset/coda distinctions, and conditional infer-
8 ence trees are used to identify three main patterns in the data: (1) clear
9 onsets and dark codas; (2) intermediate/dark onsets and dark codas,
10 but with a positional distinction intact; (3) dark onsets and dark codas,
11 with minimal or no distinctions between positions.

© 2020 Acoustical Society of America.

^{a)} Author to whom correspondence should be addressed.

1. Introduction

The majority of research on lateral consonants frames their production in terms of two broad variants: a more /i/-like ‘clear’ variant, and a more /u/-like ‘dark’ variant (Recasens, 2012). Clearer variants tend to show a raised and fronted tongue body, with a more simultaneous tip/dorsum articulation, and a lower F1 and higher F2 frequency. Darker variants tend to show a lowered and retracted tongue dorsum, with tongue dorsum retraction occurring prior to tip raising, and a higher F1 and lower F2 frequency (Ladefoged and Maddieson, 1996). There are two major factors in whether a lateral is produced as clear or dark. First, language and dialects substantially differ in the realisation of laterals, with some languages or dialects generally producing clearer /l/s (e.g. German, French) and others darker /l/s (e.g. Russian) (Recasens, 2012). Second, syllable position has a strong effect on laterals, with clearer realisations being more common in syllable onsets and darker realisations more common in syllable codas (Gick *et al.*, 2006; Sproat and Fujimura, 1993). These two factors inevitably interact. For instance, the tendency for syllable-initial and syllable-final laterals to differ from each other has been posited as a potential cross-linguistic universal (Gick *et al.*, 2006), so even in varieties with generally clearer or darker laterals, there is likely to be some degree of contrast between initial and final /l/.

The specific nature of initial~final contrast is to some degree language- or dialect-specific, with some varieties showing phonetic effects of onsets versus codas, while others show an initial~final contrast that is too big to be explained by phonetic effects alone. Recasens (2012) terms the former phonetic effects ‘intrinsic’ and the more distinct allophones

33 ‘extrinsic’. Many dialects of English display robust ‘extrinsic’ positional allophony, with
 34 notably clearer realisations syllable-initially and darker realisations syllable-finally. However,
 35 there are also dialects with dark /l/ in all contexts (Kirkham, 2017; Turton, 2017), clear /l/ in
 36 all contexts (Carter and Local, 2007), hyper-clear initial /l/s (Kirkham, 2017), and a variety
 37 of intermediate patterns (Kirkham *et al.*, 2019; Turton, 2017). While we can establish some
 38 broad generalizations across studies, there is a need for a comparative study of laterals in
 39 English dialects that utilise a comparable data collection method and set of materials. This
 40 will allow us to better establish the typology of initial~final contrast in the English lateral
 41 system.

42 In this study, we address the above problem by examining initial~final allophony
 43 in twelve dialects of Anglo English. Our twelve dialects represent a spread of geographi-
 44 cal locations across England, including 6 Northern varieties (Leeds, Liverpool, Manchester,
 45 Newcastle, Sheffield, York), 4 Southern varieties (Bristol, London, Norwich, Peterborough)
 46 and 2 Midlands varieties (Birmingham, Nottingham). Northern varieties typically lack the
 47 clear/dark allophony found in the south of England (Wells, 1982, 370). For example, Leeds,
 48 Sheffield and Manchester are both reported to produce very dark /l/s in onsets and codas
 49 (Carter and Local, 2007; Kirkham, 2017), but recent evidence from Manchester suggests that
 50 working-class speakers may produce darker /l/s than middle-class speakers (Turton, 2014).
 51 Liverpool is reported to have a more intermediate realisation of onset /l/ (Kirkham *et al.*,
 52 2019) but with positional differences intact (Turton, 2017). Newcastle differs from other
 53 northern varieties as it is widely recognised to show clear initial and final /l/s (Carter and

54 [Local, 2007](#)). The prototypical Standard Southern British English pattern is clear initial /l/
55 and dark final /l/ ([Wells, 1982](#)). Norwich is described as historically having clear /l/ in all
56 positions, but is more recently described as following the typical SSBE pattern of clear ini-
57 tial and dark final /l/ ([Trudgill, 1999](#)). Midlands varieties are less well described, but show
58 a tendency towards intermediate or dark /l/ in most positions and coda /l/ vocalisation
59 ([Hughes *et al.*, 2012](#)).

60 2. Methods

61 Our data comes from the English Dialects App corpus ([Leemann *et al.*, 2018](#)), which contains
62 data from crowdsourced smartphone recordings by speakers from across the United Kingdom.
63 Participants were instructed to record themselves in a quiet place, to hold their device
64 approximately 15 cm from their mouth, and to speak in the way they would talk to friends
65 from home. All recordings were then saved as 44.1 kHz WAV files with 16-bit quantization.

66 The sub-sample of the corpus used for this study focuses on 95 Anglo English speak-
67 ers from 6 Northern varieties (Leeds, Liverpool, Manchester, Newcastle, Sheffield, York),
68 4 Southern varieties (Bristol, London, Norwich, Peterborough) and 2 Midlands varieties
69 (Birmingham, Nottingham). The dialects were chosen on the basis of having high-quality
70 and comparable data for 6–10 speakers per region. We defined this as follows: good quality
71 audio recordings with no obvious noise or distortion; within the age range of 18–30; born in
72 the UK; no detectable non-native accent features; sounds like a plausible native speaker from
73 the self-reported dialect region (i.e. there was not any obvious misreporting of the speaker’s
74 dialect). We do not focus on speaker gender in the present analysis, but there was an average

75 of 3.83 female and 4 male speakers per dialect. The majority (74.5%) of our speakers were
76 university-educated, making them more likely to constitute a middle-class sample.

77 All speakers recorded themselves reading the passage ‘The boy who cried wolf’, result-
78 ing in roughly one minute of speech per speaker. The passage was automatically segmented
79 using a custom HTK-based forced aligner (Strycharczuk *et al.*, 2019). Segmentation was
80 checked and manually adjusted by paid student research assistants using Praat (Boersma
81 and Weenink, 2020), with segmentation based on a steady state of F2 in the lateral, thereby
82 excluding formant transitions into and out of the surrounding vowels. 20 tokens were ex-
83 cluded from the data due to formant estimation uncertainty that remained after manual
84 correction. In total, we report data on 1120 tokens of onset/coda laterals, with a range of
85 72–122 tokens per dialect and 35–62 tokens per dialect*position combination. F1 and F2
86 were extracted from a 25 ms Gaussian window centred on the temporal midpoint of the la-
87 belled lateral interval. Formant estimation was conducted using Praat’s LPC Burg method,
88 set to find 5 formants up to a ceiling of 5500 Hz. While laterals are highly dynamic seg-
89 ments, previous research also shows that midpoint measures of the lateral steady-state are
90 a reasonable approximation of lateral quality and can show positional and group differences
91 comparable with those seen in dynamic measures (Carter and Local, 2007; Kirkham *et al.*,
92 2019).

93 Our analysis focuses on two measures. The first is Euclidean distance of median
94 z -scored F1 and F2 values between initial and final /l/, which we calculated separately
95 for each speaker. This gives us a single value representing difference in four-dimensional

96 space between initial and final /l/ in joint F1~F2 space. The second measure is F2-F1 in
97 Hertz for each token, which we use as a proxy for absolute clearness/darkness in /l/, while
98 also permitting some degree of between-speaker normalization (Kirkham, 2017; Sproat and
99 Fujimura, 1993). Our statistical modelling uses conditional inference trees in order to (1)
100 examine the effects of dialect on initial~final contrast using the Euclidean distance measure;
101 and (2) examine the effects of position and dialect on absolute clearness/darkness of /l/ using
102 the F2-F1 measure. Conditional inference trees are a classification and regression technique,
103 which test whether each variable has a significant association with the outcome variable
104 (Breiman, 2001). It finds the predictor that is most strongly associated with the outcome
105 variable and performs a binary split on this variable, after which it then tests the effect of the
106 next most significant predictor within each category of this binary split, until all significant
107 levels are exhausted. Our analyses were carried out using R (R Core Team, 2018), using
108 the party package (Borkovec and Madin, 2019) for conditional inference trees, and ggplot2
109 (Wickham, 2016) and ggpary (Hothorn *et al.*, 2006) for visualizations. All analysis code and
110 further documentation of the data sample is available online at: <https://osf.io/mvjw3/>.

111 3. Results

112 Figure 1 shows the initial~final distance in F1~F2 space for each dialect. Leeds and Sheffield
113 occupy the lower end of the scale, showing a much smaller initial~final contrast than other
114 dialects. In contrast, Peterborough, Norwich and Newcastle show the biggest difference
115 between initial and final /l/. So far, these patterns are largely as predicted, but there
116 are some unexpected findings. Manchester is typically considered to have dark /l/s in all

117 contexts, but its initial~final contrast lies in the middle of the overall range between dialects.
 118 Bristol is also generally considered to show a more southern pattern, with clear onsets and
 119 vocalised codas, but the data here show a smaller initial~final contrast for this dialect.

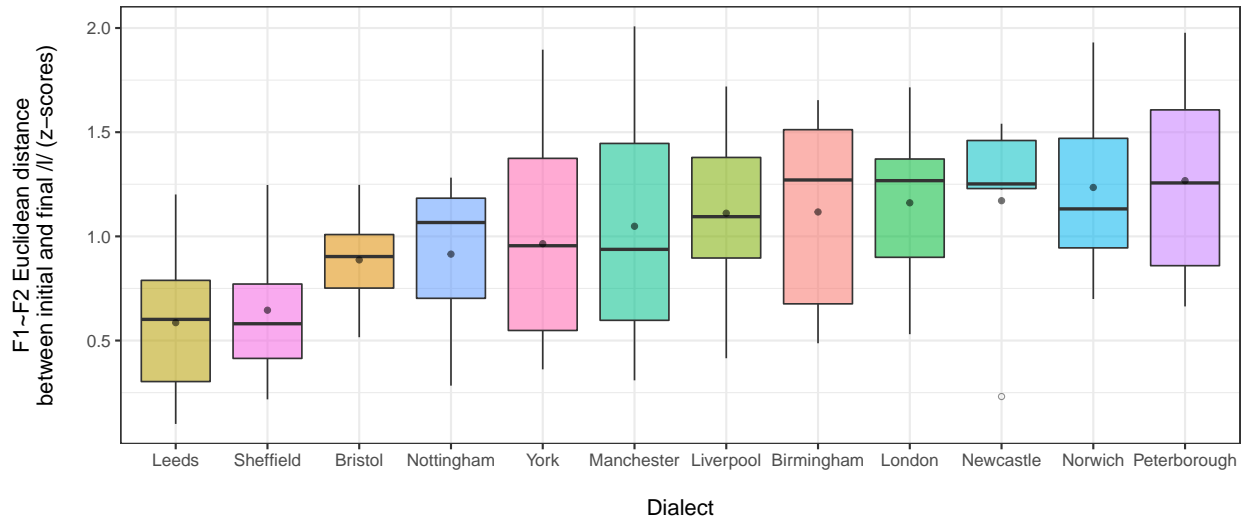


Fig. 1. Boxplot of Euclidean distance between z -scored F1~F2 in initial /l/ and z -scored F1~F2 in final /l/ for each dialect. Dialects are ordered by mean value from left to right, with the mean values indicated by the filled dots. The whiskers represent the maximum value for each dialect up to $1.5 \times$ interquartile range. (colour online).

120 In order to observe more holistic geographical patterns, we also plot the data on
 121 a map in Figure 2. Each circle represents one speaker, with the data scaled between 0
 122 (smaller initial~final distance) and 1 (larger initial~final distance). The map shows that
 123 northern dialects generally have a smaller initial~final contrast, with Sheffield and Leeds
 124 showing consistently small initial~final differences across speakers, while Liverpool, Manch-
 125 ester and York show greater between-speaker variability. While it may be tempting to

126 correlate initial~final distance with northerness, this is highly problematised by Newcastle,
 127 which is the most northern city in our data yet has a large initial~final distance.

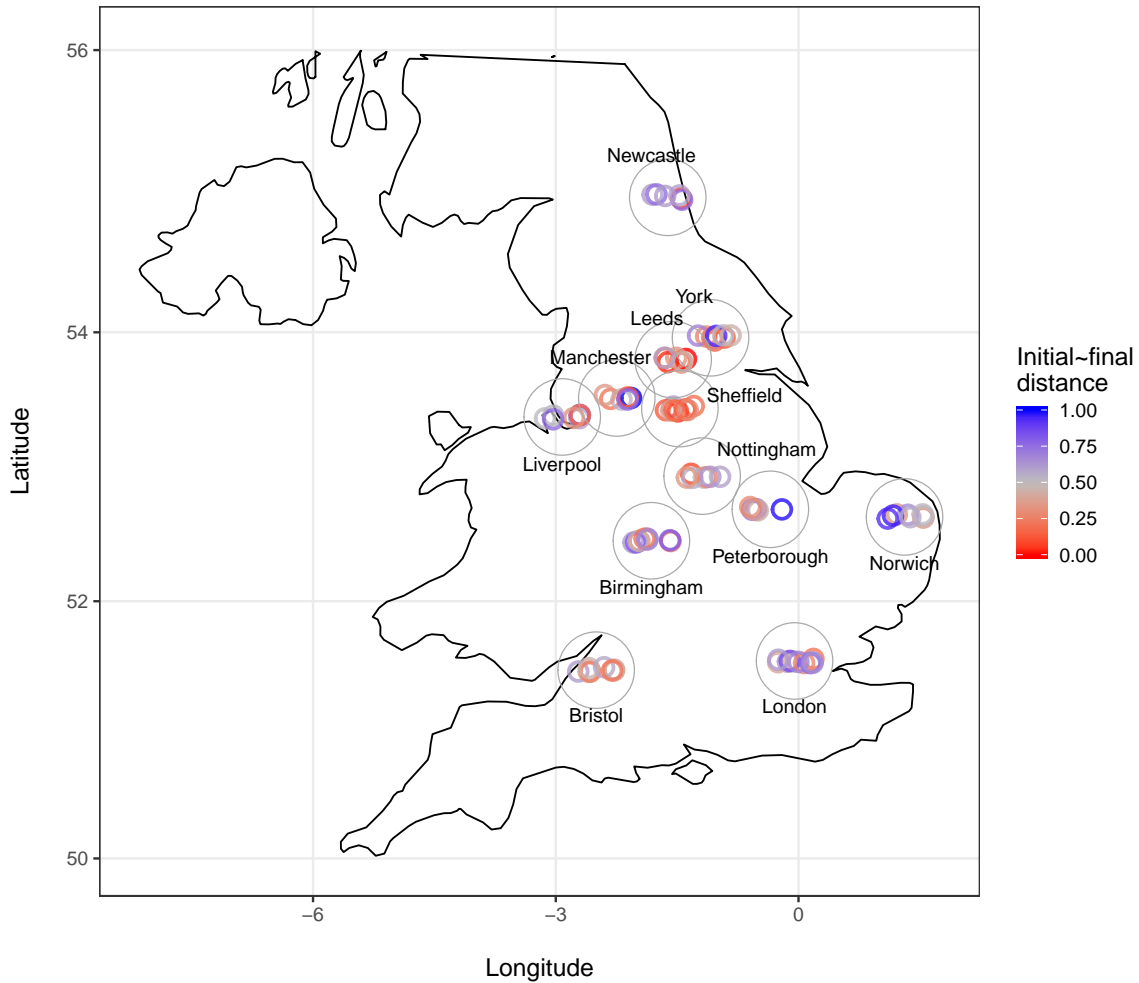


Fig. 2. A map of the lower half of the UK, showing Euclidean distance between z -scored F1~F2 in initial /l/ and z -scored F1/F2 in final /l/ for each dialect. Each circle represents one speaker, with the data scaled between 0 and 1. (colour online).

128 The conditional inference tree in panel (A) of Figure 3 models the effects of dialect
 129 on initial~final distance in F1~F2 space. Dialect is a significant predictor of initial~final

130 distance ($p = .043$), with the binary split in the data confirming that Leeds and Sheffield
 131 are distinct from all other dialects in producing a smaller difference between initial and final
 132 /l/. All other dialects cluster together. However, this only tells us about the size of the
 133 difference between initial and final /l/, but not necessarily about the relative clearness and
 134 darkness of /l/ in each dialect, which we investigate next.

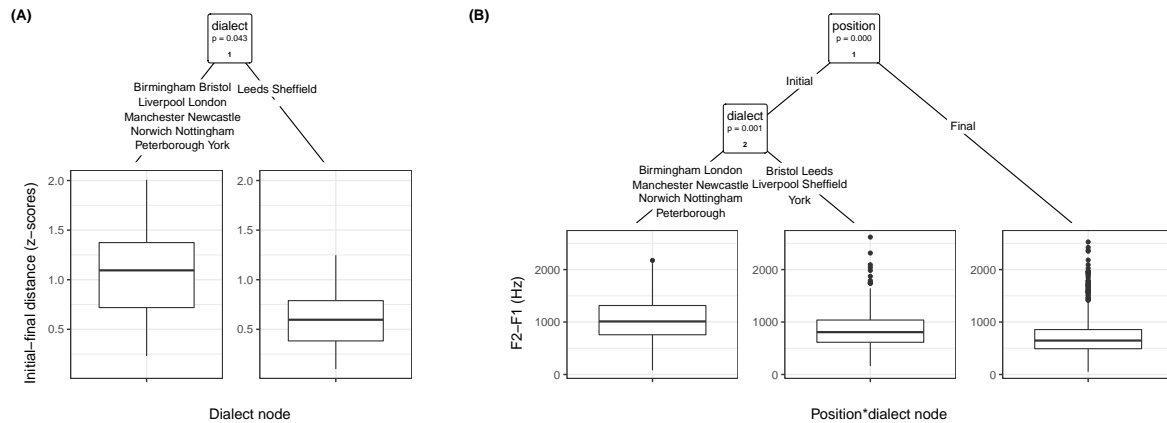


Fig. 3. Conditional inference tree of the effect of (A) dialect on initial~final distance in z -scored $F1\sim F2$ space; (B) position and dialect on $F2-F1$ (Hz).

135 The conditional inference tree in panel (B) of Figure 3 examines the raw $F2-F1$
 136 data in order to examine any differences in absolute clearness, particularly for onset /l/.
 137 We examine the unnormalised data because z -scoring would eliminate any differences in
 138 absolute clearness, as it expresses each token relative to each speaker's mean value. The
 139 plot shows that the most important binary split corresponds to a contrast between initial
 140 and final /l/ ($p < .0001$). This suggests that position is the strongest predictor in the data,
 141 with initial /l/ showing higher $F2-F1$ than final /l/. However, within initial tokens there

142 is a further split between dialects ($p = .001$), with Bristol, Leeds, Liverpool, Sheffield and
 143 York all producing lower F2–F1 values in initial /l/ than Birmingham, London, Manchester,
 144 Newcastle, Norwich, Nottingham and Peterborough. This suggests that the former set of
 145 dialects produce a darker initial /l/ and the latter set of dialects produce a clearer initial
 146 /l/.

147 4. Conclusion

148 Our initial~final distance results show that Leeds and Sheffield produce a very small
 149 initial~final distinction in comparison to the other ten dialects. However, our analysis
 150 of the F2–F1 Hz data shows that within the group of dialects that do show positional con-
 151 trast, there is a further distinction between dialects that are more likely to produce darker
 152 initial /l/s (Bristol, Liverpool and York, in addition to Leeds and Sheffield) versus those that
 153 are more likely to produce clearer initial /l/s (Birmingham, London, Manchester, Newcastle,
 154 Norwich, Nottingham, Peterborough).

155 These patterns broadly confirm previous community-scale studies of specific varieties.
 156 The majority of northern cities show darker /l/s, with the exception of Newcastle, which
 157 shows clearer /l/s as predicted. However, there are some surprising exceptions to this, such
 158 as Manchester not being in the darker /l/ group. [Turton \(2014\)](#) finds that middle-class
 159 speakers in Manchester have clearer /l/s than working-class speakers, so our results are
 160 likely to reflect a more middle-class pattern for this dialect. At the same time, the fact that
 161 areas such as Sheffield and Leeds do remain firmly in the dark camp despite also containing
 162 speech from upwardly-mobile young people reflects one of two possible situations. The first

163 is that /l/ variation is socially-stratified in Manchester but not in Leeds and Sheffield. The
 164 second is that Manchester is more susceptible to a potential change in progress towards clear
 165 initial /l/s in the middle classes due to changing demographic patterns. Such questions can
 166 be addressed with further sociolinguistic studies.

167 Another city that does not pattern as expected is Bristol. As a southern variety,
 168 we expected similarities with other southern varieties in terms of initial /l/ realisation and
 169 initial~final contrast. One factor that could explain this is liquid polarity, whereby varieties
 170 with clearer laterals with show darker (i.e. more pharyngealized) rhotics, and vice versa
 171 ([Carter and Local, 2007](#)). Bristol is a rhotic dialect, so it is possible Bristol's clear rhotics
 172 may be matched by dark laterals across the board, thus explaining the patterns we see here.
 173 Although it is unlikely that the upwardly-mobile speakers in our sample are strongly rhotic,
 174 this may reflect a synchronic residue of a diachronic situation. It is cases like these where
 175 more detailed community studies of particular dialects will help to resolve these complex
 176 dynamics.

177 In his cross-linguistic typology, [Recasens \(2012\)](#) argues for a subdivision of clear versus
 178 dark /l/ varieties, as well as a distinction between intrinsic phonetic and extrinsic allophonic
 179 differences. Our English data largely supports this. Our analysis shows that for initial /l/
 180 there is a distinction between clear, dark and intermediate dialects. In addition to this, there
 181 is a notable difference between intermediate/dark dialects in terms of whether or not they
 182 show substantial positional contrast between initial and final /l/. In summary, we find three
 183 distinct patterns across the twelve dialects, which leads us to propose the following typology

184 for Anglo English laterals: (1) clear onsets and dark codas; (2) intermediate/dark onsets
 185 and dark codas, but with a positional distinction intact; (3) dark onsets and dark codas,
 186 with minimal or no distinctions between positions. Future research should seek to further
 187 investigate this typology in terms of the temporal dynamics of laterals and lateral-vowel
 188 coarticulation (Kirkham *et al.*, 2019; Recasens, 2012) and articulatory studies of initial~final
 189 lateral gestures (Sproat and Fujimura, 1993; Turton, 2017). In addition, our findings have
 190 illuminated potential avenues for researchers in language variation and change and phonology
 191 to investigate further.

192 **References and links**

193

194 Boersma, P., and Weenink, D. (2020). “Praat: doing phonetics by computer” Version 6.1.16,
 195 retrieved 6 June 2020 from <http://www.praat.org/>.

196 Borkovec, M., and Madin, N. (2019). “ggparty: ‘ggplot’ visualizations for the ‘partykit’
 197 package” R package version 1.0.0.

198 Breiman, L. (2001). “Random forests,” *Machine Learning* **45**(1), 5–32.

199 Carter, P., and Local, J. (2007). “F2 variation in Newcastle and Leeds English liquid sys-
 200 tems,” *Journal of the International Phonetic Association* **37**(2), 183–199.

201 Gick, B., Campbell, F., Oh, S., and Tamburri-Watt, L. (2006). “Toward universals in the
 202 gestural organization of syllables: a cross-linguistic study of liquids,” *Journal of Phonetics*
 203 **34**(1), 49–72.

- 204 Hothorn, T., Hornik, K., and Zeileis, A. (2006). “Unbiased recursive partitioning: A con-
 205 ditional inference framework,” *Journal of Computational and Graphical Statistics* **15**(3),
 206 651–674.
- 207 Hughes, A., Trudgill, P., and Watt, D., eds. (2012). *English Accents and Dialects: An Intro-*
 208 *duction to Social and Regional Varieties of English in the British Isles*, fifth ed. (Hodder,
 209 London).
- 210 Kirkham, S. (2017). “Ethnicity and phonetic variation in Sheffield English liquids,” *Journal*
 211 *of the International Phonetic Association* **47**(1), 17–35.
- 212 Kirkham, S., Nance, C., Littlewood, B., Lightfoot, K., and Groarke, E. (2019). “Dialect
 213 variation in formant dynamics: The acoustics of lateral and vowel sequences in Manchester
 214 and Liverpool English,” *Journal of the Acoustical Society of America* **145**(2), 784–794.
- 215 Ladefoged, P., and Maddieson, I. (1996). *The Sounds of the World’s Languages* (Blackwell,
 216 Oxford).
- 217 Leemann, A., Kolly, M.-J., and Britain, D. (2018). “The English Dialects App: The creation
 218 of a crowdsourced dialect corpus,” *Ampersand* **5**, 1–17.
- 219 R Core Team (2018). “R: A language and environment for statistical computing” R version
 220 3.5.2.
- 221 Recasens, D. (2012). “A cross-language acoustic study of initial and final allophones of /l/,”
 222 *Speech Communication* **54**(3), 368–383.
- 223 Sproat, R., and Fujimura, O. (1993). “Allophonic variation in English /l/ and its implica-
 224 tions for phonetic implementation,” *Journal of Phonetics* **21**(2), 291–311.

- 225 Strycharczuk, P., Brown, G., Leemann, A., and Britain, D. (2019). “Investigating the FOOT-
226 STRUT distinction in northern Englishes using crowdsourced data,” Proceedings of the 19th
227 International Congress of Phonetic Sciences 1337–1341.
- 228 Trudgill, P. (1999). “Norwich: endogenous and exogenous linguistic change,” in *Urban*
229 *Voices: Accent Studies in the British Isles*, edited by P. Foulkes and G. J. Docherty (Arnold,
230 London), pp. 124–140.
- 231 Turton, D. (2014). “Variation in English /l/: Synchronic reflections of the life cycle of
232 phonological processes,” Ph.D. thesis, University of Manchester, Manchester.
- 233 Turton, D. (2017). “Categorical or gradient?: An ultrasound investigation of /l/-darkening
234 and vocalization in varieties of English,” *Laboratory Phonology* **8**(1), 1–31.
- 235 Wells, J. C. (1982). *Accents of English: Volumes 1–3* (Cambridge University Press, Cam-
236 bridge).
- 237 Wickham, H. (2016). *ggplot2: Elegant graphics for data analysis* (Springer-Verlag, New
238 York, NY).