

Accent intelligibility across native and non-native accent pairings: investigating links with electrophysiological measures of word recognition

Louise Marie Stringer

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UCL Division of Psychology and Language Sciences,
Department of Speech, Hearing and Phonetic Sciences

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Declaration

I, Louise Marie Stringer confirm that the work presented in this thesis is my own. Where information has been derived from other sources, I confirm that this has been indicated in the thesis.

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Abstract

The intelligibility of accented speech in noise depends on the interaction of the accents of the talker and the listener. However, it is not yet clear how this influence arises. Accent familiarity is commonly proposed to be a major contributor to accent intelligibility, but recent evidence suggests that the similarity between talker and listener accents may also be able to account for accent intelligibility across talker-listener pairings. In addition, differences in accent intelligibility are also often only found in the presence of other adverse conditions, so it is not clear if the talker-listener pairing also influences speech processing in quiet conditions.

This research had two main aims; to further investigate the relationship between accent similarity and intelligibility, and to use online EEG methods to explore the possible presence of talker-listener pairing related differences on speech perception in quiet conditions. English and Spanish listeners listened to Standard Southern British English (SSBE), Glaswegian English (GE) and Spanish-accented English (SpE) in a speech-in-noise recognition task, and also completed an event-related potential (ERP) task to elicit the PMN and N400 responses. Accent similarity was measured using the ACCDIST metric.

Results showed the same (or extremely similar) patterns in accent intelligibility and accent similarity for both listener groups, giving further support to the hypothesis that accent similarity can contribute to the level of intelligibility of an accent within a talker-listener pairing. ERP data also suggest that speech processing in quiet is influenced by the talker-listener pairing. The PMN, which relates to phonological processing, seems particularly dependent on a match between talker and listener accent, but the more semantic N400 showed some flexibility in the ability to process accented speech.

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1. Chapter one: Introduction

In everyday life, we commonly encounter speech in a range of accents, including native accents from a variety of countries and regions and also non-native accents of speakers with different native languages (L1s). We are able to understand some of these accents with ease, but others can be much harder to comprehend, particularly if there are other adverse factors present such as background noise or listening to speech in a language other than our L1. However, the intelligibility of an accent does not depend only on the accent of the talker, but also on its pairing with the listener's accent; one listener may find a talker to be highly intelligible, while another could have great problems understanding the same talker. For example, listeners from the south of England find Glaswegian accents harder to understand than Glaswegian listeners do (Adank, Evans, Stuart-Smith & Scott, 2009; Smith, Holmes-Elliott, Pettinato & Knight, 2014), Chinese listeners can be more accurate at identifying words in Mandarin-accented English than American listeners (Hayes-Harb, Smith, Bent & Bradlow, 2008), and highly proficient French speakers of English may find a standard native English accent to be more intelligible than French-accented English, while less proficient listeners may show the opposite pattern (Pinet, Iverson & Huckvale, 2011).

Although the talker-listener accent pairing seems to be very influential in determining the intelligibility of an accent, it is not clear how this effect arises. One factor which may underlie the intelligibility of an accent for a given pairing is the listeners' familiarity with the talker's accent, as listeners tend to find accents they are familiar with to be easier to understand than unfamiliar accents. This could explain some asymmetries in the patterns of accent intelligibility across talker-listener pairings; listeners with a standard accent often find their own accent to be more intelligible than an unfamiliar regional accent, but regional listeners who are familiar with the standard accent through extensive media exposure can find this accent as intelligible as their own regional accent (Adank et al., 2009; Smith et al., 2014; Sumner & Samuel, 2009). It has been proposed that this long-term familiarity allows listeners to form accent-specific phonological representations for their own regional accent and also the standard accent (Sumner & Samuel, 2009), which then facilitates word recognition in both accents.

Another recently explored factor which could influence the intelligibility of an accent in noise is the acoustic-phonetic similarity between talkers' and listeners' accents. Subjective judgements of accent similarity suggest that listeners whose accent is closer to that of a talker find that accent easier to understand than listeners whose accent is less similar (Evans & Iverson, 2007), and findings of studies that utilised objective measures of accent similarity suggest that a greater level of similarity between acoustic-phonetic features of talker and listener accents is associated with higher levels of with accent intelligibility. For example, vowels in regional accents whose vowel spaces are closer to the listeners' own accent are easier to identify than vowels in other regional accents which are more acoustically distant to the listeners' accent (Oder, Clopper & Ferguson, 2013; Wright & Souza, 2013), and the intelligibility of a range of native and non-native accents in noise shows a positive relationship with the degree of similarity in vowel spectral qualities and duration between talker and listener accents (Pinet et al., 2011). If acoustic-phonetic similarity does contribute to the influence of the talker-listener pairing on accent intelligibility, this would suggest that listeners deal with accented speech in a different way to that which has been suggested based on accent familiarity. Instead of forming new representations to accommodate an accent, listeners may interpret all accents through existing representations formed based on their own accent. More similar accents may then be easier to map onto these representations than accents which are more distant to the listener's accent.

Regardless of the factors underlying the influence of talker-listener combination on accent intelligibility, differences in the patterns of accent intelligibility across talker-listener pairs are often observed only in the presence of background noise; accents that may show very different levels of intelligibility in noise may be similarly intelligible in quiet conditions (e.g.: Adank et al., 2009, Pinet et al., 2011). This could suggest that processing difficulties affecting accent intelligibility across talker-listener pairings occur specifically as an interaction with background noise, and that listeners are able to successfully accommodate accent-related variability in quiet conditions. However, many behavioural studies measure accent intelligibility based on the outcome of word recognition processes, which raises the possibility that accented speech could cause processing difficulties in quiet conditions, but that these difficulties are not severe enough to prevent successful word recognition and affect the outcome of these tasks. Studies using online measures of word recognition

suggest that this may be the case; eye-tracking studies have shown that segmental (Trude, Tremblay & Brown-Schmidt, 2013) and suprasegmental (Reinsch & Weber, 2012) errors in non-native speech can cause some disruption to word recognition in quiet, even when word recognition accuracy is high. Using electroencephalography (EEG) measures to investigate event-related potentials (ERPs) also suggests there are qualitative differences in the processing of regional and non-native accents in quiet conditions (Brunellière & Soto-Faraco, 2013; Goslin, Duffy & Floccia, 2012; Hanulíková, van Alphen, van Gogh & Weber, 2012; Romero-Rivas, Martin & Costa, in press). If accent-related processing difficulties are present in quiet conditions, as suggested by these online studies, listeners may not be able to fully accommodate the variation occurring in accented speech even in favourable conditions.

The current research aimed to further explore links between accent intelligibility in noise and the acoustic-phonetic similarity of talker-listener accent pairings, and also to use EEG measures to investigate whether any influence of talker-listener pairing on word recognition processes could be observed in quiet conditions. Throughout, we compared responses to a standard native accent, a regional native accent and a non-native accent, (Standard Southern British English (SSBE), Glaswegian English (GE) and Spanish-accented English (SpE), respectively) for native English listeners and non-native Spanish listeners. It was necessary first to develop a suitable set of stimuli to accommodate the different task types and language background of the listeners, which is described in Chapter Two. The first part of the study then established the intelligibility of the three accents for each listener group (Chapter Three), and then went on to investigate links between accent similarity and intelligibility for the talker-listener pairings (Chapter Four). The final aspect of the research, described in Chapter Five, explored ERPs in response to each of the three accents for the two listener groups, in order to investigate whether there is any evidence of the influence of talker-listener accent pairing on online word recognition processes in quiet.

2. Chapter two: Developing new speech recognition materials suitable for non-native speakers of English

2.1. Existing speech recognition materials

Non-native speech perception research has greatly increased in recent years. However, few suitable materials have been developed specifically for this purpose, particularly at the sentence level, so it is common to use materials developed for other listener groups. Such materials can be very useful, but may not be entirely suitable for administration to non-native listeners.

A very commonly used materials set, the Bamford-Kowal-Bench (BKB) sentences (Bench, Kowal & Bamford, 1979), was developed for assessing hearing-impaired children's speech perception abilities. The BKB sentences consist of 320 simple sentences, each containing three or four key words (e.g.: "The *dog played* with a *stick*"). The BKB sentences have been used in many native and non-native speech perception studies, in areas such as accent intelligibility (Bent & Bradlow, 2003; Pinet et al., 2011; Stibbard & Lee, 2006), the influence of various maskers on speech-in-noise perception (Crandell & Smaldino, 1996; Smiljanic & Bradlow, 2011; Van Engen, 2010), and as training materials (Gao, Low, Jin & Sweller, 2013; Shin & Iverson, 2013). Although they are not syntactically complex and most words are familiar to non-native speakers (Bent & Bradlow, 2003), the BKB sentences could be seen as overly-simplistic and fairly childish, so may not be entirely suitable for administration to adults. In addition, there is no opportunity to manipulate the level of semantic context in sentences, which limits their use in EEG experiments focusing on components such as the N400 effect.

Another frequently used materials set is the Speech Perception in Noise (SPIN) sentences (Kalikow, Stevens & Elliott, 1977), which were created for assessing the speech perception abilities of hearing-impaired listeners, but adults in this case rather than children. The SPIN sentences also differ to the BKB sentences in that there are two sentence conditions with different amounts of semantic information provided. In high probability sentences, a strong semantic context means the final word is easy to predict (e.g.: "For your birthday I baked a cake"), while in low probability sentences, no useful semantic information is provided, so the final word is not easily anticipated

(e.g.: “Tom wants to know about the cake”). The SPIN sentences have been used in investigations of both native and non-native listeners’ use of semantic information to support speech perception in adverse conditions (e.g.: Clopper, 2012; Mayo, Florentine & Buus, 1997; Shi, 2012, 2014; Tabri, Abou Chacra & Pring, 2011), and also in EEG studies investigating the N400 effect (e.g.: Connolly & Phillips, 1994). The flexibility offered by having multiple context conditions may mean the SPIN sentences have wider applications than the BKB sentences, but their use is also limited in non-native speech perception studies as they contain some quite advanced vocabulary (e.g.: keywords include ‘brook’, ‘notch’, ‘sap’ and ‘tack’, Kalikow et al., 1977), which may be challenging for non-native speakers, particularly those who are not highly proficient in English.

While both the BKB and SPIN sentences are often used in both native and non-native speech perception studies, there are other material sets which are generally used only for native listeners. One example is the Harvard sentences (IEEE, 1969), which are commonly used in investigations into the perception of noise-vocoded or otherwise spectrally degraded speech (e.g.: Bent, Buchwald & Pisoni, 2009; Stacey & Summerfield, 2007), but are unsuitable for administration to many non-native listeners as the sentences are fairly complex, both in syntax and vocabulary (e.g.: “Trample the spark, else the flames will spread”).

Due to the limitations of administering these material sets in non-native speech perception studies, some materials have been developed specifically for use with non-native listeners. To investigate the use of semantic information to compensate for difficulties in adverse listening conditions, Bradlow and Alexander (2007) developed a set of sentences similar to the SPIN sentences, but with vocabulary that is more familiar to non-native speakers of English. While this set is more useful for non-native listeners, it contains only 120 sentences, which limits its use in studies with multiple within-subject conditions. High and low predictability sentences also differ in length, and low predictability sentences comprise only a small number of very simple sentence structures, meaning the conditions may differ in other features as well as the level of semantic information available. The only large-scale materials set developed specifically for non-native speakers of English is the recent Basic English Lexicon (BEL) sentences (Calandruccio & Smiljanic, 2012), which are based on a lexicon developed from recordings of spontaneous non-native speech. The BEL

sentences have so far been used in both non-native (Rimikis, Smiljanic & Calandruccio, 2013) and native speech perception studies (Smiljanic, Sheft, Chandrasekaran & Shafiro, 2013; van Engen, Chandrasekaran & Smiljanic, 2012). These materials have great potential for use in future research, but the BEL sentences are similar to the BKB sentences in that there is no opportunity to manipulate the level of contextual information present. Sentences are also restricted to a limited number of template forms, meaning some sentence structures become repetitive. In addition, some vocabulary may be unfamiliar to some non-native speakers, particularly those without exposure to American English.

For the present studies, we required sentence materials suitable for fairly advanced, but not proficient non-native listeners. In order to use the sentences in an EEG study in addition to speech-in-noise tasks we needed multiple sentence conditions which varied in the level of contextual information available. The set also needed to be large enough to allow a number of experimental conditions without having to repeat sentences. As none of the existing material sets described above met all these criteria, a new set of materials was developed.

2.2. The new materials set: Non-native speech recognition sentences

The non-native speech recognition (NNSR) sentences developed for the current research contain three related sentence conditions (predictable, neutral and anomalous), which differ based on the level of contextual constraint and/or the congruity of the final keyword. Sentences are organised into 439 related triplets containing one sentence in each of the three conditions to give a total of 1317 individual sentences. Sentences were formed by combining a sentence frame (the main body of a sentence without the final word) and a final keyword. Sentence frames have either a strongly or weakly constrained context, as determined by two or three 'pointer words' (content words which generate the context of a sentence, Kalikow et al., 1977). In strongly constrained sentence frames, the pointer words generate a very specific context, while in weakly constrained sentence frames, a more ambiguous context is generated. Final keywords are either congruous or incongruous to the context generated in the sentence frame.

Predictable sentences are formed of strongly constrained sentence frames and congruous final keywords; the specific context generated in the sentence frame can

be completed by very few words, so final keywords in this condition are highly predictable. Neutral sentences contain the same congruous final keywords, but in this case they complete weakly constrained sentence frames. The more ambiguous context generated means that many words could complete the sentence, so final keywords cannot be easily predicted and are now neutral. Anomalous sentences combine strongly constrained sentence frames with incongruous final keywords. As the keyword is not the predictable word that would be expected based on the context, the sentence becomes anomalous. The same sets of sentence frames and keywords appear in more than one condition, so the sentence content overlaps within each triplet; predictable and neutral sentences have different sentence frames, but share the same final keyword, while predictable and anomalous sentences show the opposite relationship (Table 1).

To ensure the NNSR sentences are suitable for lower-proficiency non-native speakers of English, lexical items and syntactic structures used in the sentences were drawn from materials designed for speakers at the B1 level of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). The B1 level is an ‘intermediate level’, where speakers can communicate successfully on a range of topics, but still have large gaps in their knowledge (North, Ortega & Sheehan, 2010). All words appearing in the materials were drawn from the Preliminary English Test (PET), whose vocabulary list contains approximately 3300 words (University of Cambridge ESOL Examinations, 2012). This source was chosen as the PET is a commonly administered B1 level examination which is taken by learners of English around the world, meaning that its vocabulary list is not likely to be biased towards speakers of a particular L1. The vocabulary list is also readily available as a study aid, meaning that

Table 1: Examples of how sentence frames and keywords are combined to form the three sentence conditions

Condition	Sentence Context	Final Keyword	Example
Predictable	Strongly constrained	Congruous	The <u>dolphins</u> are <u>swimming</u> in the SEA.
Neutral	Weakly constrained	Congruous	The <u>children</u> are <u>playing</u> in the SEA.
Anomalous	Strongly constrained	Incongruous	The <u>dolphins</u> are <u>swimming</u> in the ROAD.

Content overlapping across sentence types are shown in bold, pointer words are underlined and final keywords are capitalised

this is a good resource of words suitable for the B1 level. Syntactic structures are also limited to those expected to be familiar at the B1 level of the CEFR Core Inventory, which includes the majority of common syntactic structures (North et al., 2010, p10-11). To avoid the repetitive use of a limited number of syntactic structures, sentence structures are not restricted in any other way.

2.3. The development process

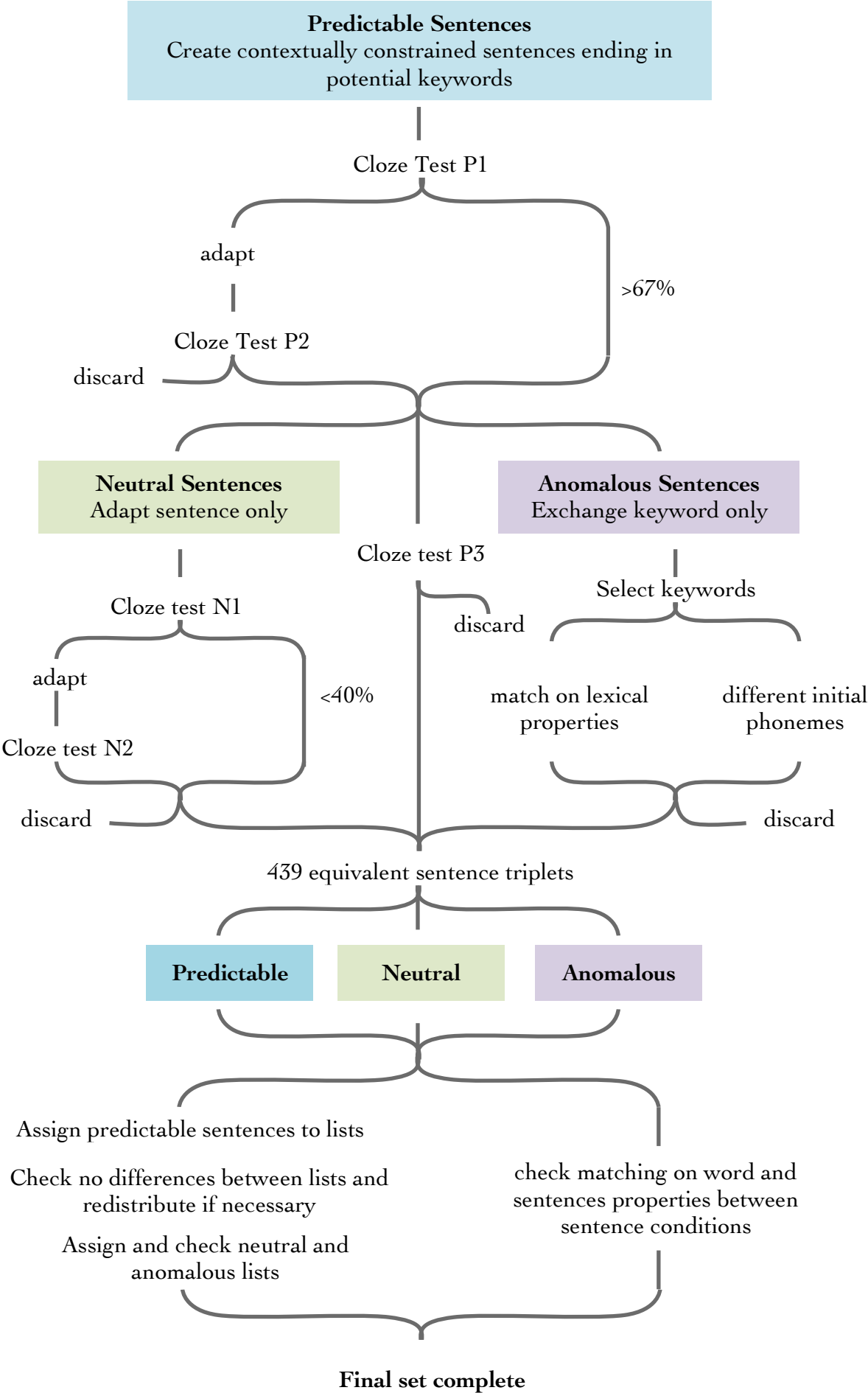
The development of the NNSR sentences began with creating predictable sentences, which were then used as the basis of neutral and anomalous sentences. The process of development and validation is described below and summarised in Figure 2.1, and the complete materials set can be found in Appendix 1.

The first stage of development was to select a pool of potential final keywords from the PET vocabulary list (University of Cambridge ESOL Examinations, 2012). As in the SPIN sentences, final keywords were limited to nouns to maintain similarity across sentences (Kalikow et al., 1977). All nouns on the PET vocabulary list were identified, excluding nouns that are also verbs (e.g.: book), multi-word nouns (e.g.: weather forecast, although one-word compounds were retained), acronyms (e.g.: DVD), words with common abbreviations (e.g.: bicycle/bike), occupations with different male/female forms (e.g.: actor/actress), titles (e.g.: Mr., Miss), hyphenated words (e.g.: make-up). These words were excluded in order to minimise possible confusions as to which word should complete a strongly constrained sentence frame. A small number of words were also excluded because they did not appear in word property databases used at later stages in development. This left a pool of 1413 potential final keywords of between one and five syllables and with a frequency of between 0.04 and 5250 occurrences per million words (mean frequency = 61 occurrences/million words, Brysbaert & New, 2009). As the words were all drawn from B1 level materials, even the least frequent words were likely to be familiar to non-native participants (e.g.: notepaper, footballer).

2.3.1. Predictable sentences

Predictable sentences were constructed by creating strongly constrained sentence frames that are congruently completed by one of the potential keywords. Each sentence frame contained two or three related pointer words in order to generate a specific context related to its keyword. In line with existing materials, the length of

Figure 2.1: Development process of the new sentence materials



sentence frames was limited to 5-9 words/5-12 syllables (e.g.: Block & Baldwin, 2010; Bradlow & Alexander, 2007; Calandruccio & Smiljanic, 2012), giving complete sentence lengths of 6-10 words and 6-16 syllables. To maximise the size of the final materials set, a highly constrained sentence frame was created for as many of the potential keywords as possible, giving an initial set of 553 predictable sentences.

To ensure these sentences were indeed predictable, the predictability of the final keyword of each sentence was assessed using a series of cloze tests. In a cloze test, participants receive a list of sentences frames and supply a word to complete the sentence (e.g.: “The dolphins are swimming in the _____”). No possible options are provided. A word’s cloze probability is the proportion of participants who choose that word to complete the sentence. For example, if nine out of ten participants chose ‘sea’ to complete the above sentence, it has a cloze probability of 90%. If a sentence has a highly constrained context and a predictable final keyword, the cloze probability of the final keyword should be high (Kutas & Hillyard, 1984). A cloze probability of greater than 65% was set as the threshold for inclusion in the predictable sentences set, which is consistent with thresholds set in other stimuli sets which constrained the predictability of the final word (Block & Baldwin, 2010; Bradlow & Alexander, 2007). Predictability ratings are usually assessed based on native speakers’ responses, but as these materials are intended for use in non-native speech perception research, both native and proficient non-native speakers participated in the cloze tests. In order to ensure the materials set is not biased towards speakers of any particular language, the L1 of non-native participants was not restricted, and speakers of 20 different L1s took part in the various cloze tests (Table 2). Although the current research focuses on native Spanish speakers, this means that the materials could also be administered to a wider population in future work.

Cloze test P1 contained all of the predictable sentences divided randomly into four lists of approximately 140 sentences. Sentence frames appearing in the four surveys did not differ based on syllable, pointer word or total word count. A cloze test was created for each list and completed online by 18 native (13 female) and 26 proficient non-native English speakers (13 female, average age of acquisition (AoA)= 9.45years, for L1s see Table 2)) with a mean age of 29.75 years. Each participant completed only one survey, was requested to work alone without a dictionary, and was not

Table 2: Native languages of cloze test participants

Cloze Test P1	Cloze Test P2	Cloze Test P3	Cloze Test N1	Cloze Test N2
Albanian (1)	Dutch (1)	Bosnian (1)	English (9)	Cantonese (1)
Arabic (2)	English (10)	French (1)	Kiswahili (1)	English (14)
Cantonese (2)	French (1)	German (1)	Korean (2)	German (1)
Dutch (2)	German (2)	Hindi (2)	Mandarin (1)	Romanian (1)
English (18)	Romanian (1)	Hungarian (5)	Slovak (1)	Slovak (1)
French (1)	Serbian (1)	Italian (2)		
German (7)	Spanish (2)	Korean (3)		
Hungarian (3)		Russian (2)		
Italian (1)		Spanish (9)		
Korean (1)		Thai (1)		
Polish (1)		Vietnamese		
Romanian (2)		(8)		
Serbian (1)				
Spanish (2)				

Where the number of speakers of each language is given in brackets

compensated for their time. The average cloze probability for all sentences was 81.8%, showing that overall the final keywords were highly predictable. Based on the cloze probabilities of the keywords, sentences were either retained, adapted or removed from the set of predictable sentences; most sentences with a keyword cloze probability over 65% were retained unmodified (387), but some were adapted slightly based on responses to further strengthen contextual constraint (54), or removed for being too specifically British (7). Sentences whose keyword's cloze probability was under the 65% threshold were adapted to reduce contextual ambiguity (62) or removed (42). For one sentence with 100% cloze probability, the given response was not the intended keyword. This alternative response also appeared on the potential keywords list, so this response replaced the intended keyword in the retained sentence.

Cloze test P2 was then carried out to ensure the 116 sentences modified after cloze test P1 now passed the 65% cloze probability threshold. A new cloze test was completed online by 10 native (7 female) and 8 proficient non-native English speakers (4 female, average AoA = 9.88years, for L1s see Table 2) with a mean age of 31.4 years. Again, participants worked alone and did not receive any compensation. Sentences whose keyword's cloze probability was now over the 65% threshold were retained (88), with one sentence adapted very slightly based on responses to reduce ambiguity. Sentences under the 65% threshold were either removed (23) or adapted

based on responses if their cloze probability was close to 65% (3). An additional sentence frame was changed back to its original form, as its keyword had a higher cloze probability in test P1 (this sentence had originally been over the 65% threshold, but had been modified slightly based on responses to attempt to further strengthen the context). Along with the 388 sentences included after cloze test P1, this gave a set of 481 highly constrained sentences with a predictable final keyword (average cloze probability = 92.4%). These remaining predictable sentences were used as the basis of the development of the neutral and anomalous sentence conditions.

To ensure the sentences are also suitable for lower-proficiency non-native participants, a third cloze test, P3, was administered to lower level non-native learners of English. The 481 predictable sentences were divided into four lists of approximately 120 sentences, which did not differ based on the number of pointer words, syllables or total word count. A cloze test was compiled for each list, and completed either in pen-and-paper form or online by 36 participants (19 female, mean age = 27.7 years, mean AoA = 7.5 years, for L1s see Table 2). All participants were students enrolled in pre-intermediate (1), intermediate (17) or upper-intermediate level (18) English classes, covering the CEFR levels A2 - B2. Participants completed only one cloze test each, were asked to work alone without a dictionary, and were not compensated for their time. One upper-intermediate level participant's responses were excluded as they completed only a small part of the test. The average cloze probability of final keywords was 67.9%, showing that the sentences were less predictable for this group than for the native and proficient non-native participants. The cloze probability of most sentences was still over the 65% threshold; 284 sentences had a keyword cloze probability over 65%, along with 7 sentences that also had a cloze probability of over 65%, but where the most common response was related to, but not the intended keyword. Of sentences under the 65% threshold, nine were removed as their keyword had a very low cloze probability or responses suggested participants may not understand the sentence, and five sentences were modified to be easier to understand. For many other sentences with a keyword cloze probability under the 65% threshold, responses were often related to the intended keyword. For example, to complete "The dolphins are swimming in the _____", words such as 'river' or 'lake' may be given instead of the more expected 'ocean' or 'sea'. Although sentences are less predictable than for native and proficient non-native speakers, it seems that the relevant context is still activated, and so the

sentences are still suitable for lower proficiency non-native speakers of English. Sentences that were removed or modified from the predictable condition following cloze test P3 were also removed or modified accordingly in the neutral and anomalous conditions during their development.

2.3.2. Neutral sentences

Neutral sentences were created by adapting predictable sentences. The same final keyword was retained in each sentence, but was now paired with a new, weakly constrained sentence frame. These weakly constrained sentence frames were created by substituting pointer words in the strongly constrained sentence frames for others which are less related to the final keyword (e.g.: 'dolphins' -> 'children', 'swimming' -> 'playing'). This generates a more weakly defined context so final keywords are no longer easily predictable. The number of pointer words was unchanged, but in some cases function or filler words were permitted to be added to or deleted to maintain naturalness. In some cases it was not possible to generate a weakly constrained context only by substituting pointer words, so new frames were constructed with the same number of pointer words. For example, "*Meat* from a *cow* is called beef" was difficult to modify by changing only the pointer words, so it became "*My favourite meat* is beef". While this meant that some strongly-weakly constrained sentence frame pairs were less similar than other pairs where only the pointer words differ, the structure of the sentence frames was kept as similar as possible across pairs. To ensure these modified sentences with weakly constrained sentence frames were neutral, further cloze tests were carried out. In this case, if a sentence frame has a weakly constrained context and its final keyword is not easy to predict, the cloze probability of the final word should be low. The cloze probability threshold for inclusion in the neutral condition was set at under 40%, and applied to the most common response given instead of just the intended keyword. This threshold was again chosen to be similar to thresholds set in similar stimuli sets (Block & Baldwin, 2010).

Cloze test N1 contained all 481 neutral sentences and was completed online by 9 native (6 female) and 5 proficient non-native (5 female, average AoA = 8.60 years, for L1s see Table 2) English speakers with an average age of 25.78 years. Participants had not completed any of the previous cloze tests, and received course credits for their time. Sentences where the most common response had a cloze probability under

the 40% threshold were retained unmodified (248) or adapted slightly to further weaken contextual constraint (e.g.: “My *favourite meat* is beef” became “My *favourite food* is beef”). The nine sentences removed from the predictable condition after cloze test P3 were also removed from the neutral condition at this point, even though they had been under the 40% threshold. Sentences whose most common response had a cloze probability of over 40% were adapted to increase contextual ambiguity (195).

Cloze test N2 contained the 224 modified sentences after cloze test N1, and was completed online by 14 native (12 female) and four proficient non-native (3 female, average AoA = 9.75 years, for L1s see Table 2) English speakers with an average age of 32.61 years. Participants received course credits for their participation, and had not completed any of the previous surveys. Sentences whose most common response now had a cloze probability of under 40% were retained (168 sentences), along with three sentences just over this threshold, but where the most common response was not the intended keyword. Sentences which still had a final word cloze probability above the 40% threshold were either removed (15) or modified based on responses to further weaken contextual constraint and then retained (38). Following these procedures, 457 pairs of predictable and neutral sentences sharing the same final keyword remained.

2.3.3. Anomalous sentences

To form anomalous sentences, the congruous final keywords of the predictable sentences were replaced by alternatives which are incongruous to the strongly constrained sentence frames. These incongruous final keywords were selected from the remaining pool of 932 potential keywords by matching congruous-incongruous keyword pairs as closely as possible on a number of features, including noun type (i.e.: a singular countable noun was substituted by another singular countable noun), syllable count, lexical stress pattern, lexical frequency (Brysbaert & New, 2009), phonological neighbourhood density (Marian, Bartolotti, Chabal & Shook, 2012) and phonological Levenshtein distance (Balota, Yap & Hutchinson, 2007). As far as possible, words were also matched on concreteness ratings (Wilson, 1988), but age of acquisition was not used as a matching criteria as this data was only available for around half of the potential keywords (Wilson, 1988). Keyword pairs were also selected to be immediately acoustically distinguishable, with no initial phonological overlap between the two words; initial consonants (singletons or clusters) differ in

place and/or manner of articulation and voicing (e.g.: /b/ vs. /s/, /sl/ vs. /tr/), and the first vowel also differs in height and/or roundedness (e.g.: /i:/ vs. /æ/). As the pool of potential keywords was limited, it was not possible to find a suitable incongruous keyword to match each congruous keyword, so 18 sets of predictable and neutral sentences were removed at this point, leaving a final set of 439 sentence triplets.

2.4. Ensuring equivalence across sentence conditions

Sentences within each triplet were closely matched on a one-to-one basis during the development process, but to ensure equivalence was maintained across the three sentence conditions the final sets were also compared as a whole. Initial comparisons found that although strongly and weakly constrained sentence frames differ in content and in some cases structure, they two sets of frames as a whole did not differ based on syllable count or pointer word count,. However, they did differ on total word count; weakly constrained sentence frames were slightly shorter on average than strongly constrained frames, so approximately 20 of the shortest weakly constrained sentence frames were lengthened by separating contractions, which had been counted as one word (e.g.: don't -> do not), or adding 'filler' words (e.g.: very, really). Following this the two sets did not differ based on syllable count, $F=1.167$, $p=.280$, pointer word count, $F=0.215$, $p=.643$, or total word count, $F=2.271$, $p=.132$. While the total pointer word count did not differ between the two sets of sentence frames, the average frequency of each pointer word across the set was higher for weakly constrained sentence frames (Table 3). This is because the less defined context generated in the weakly constrained sentences requires more general pointer words which may occur frequently compared to the more specific pointer words in the strongly constrained frames. For example, "people" may be used a number of times in weakly constrained frames to substitute more specific, but less frequently used pointer words such as "children", "students", "teachers" and "scientists" in strongly constrained frames.

Congruous and incongruous final keywords did not differ based on syllable count, $F=0.006$, $p=.936$, lexical frequency, $F=0.190$, $p=.663$, phonological neighbourhood density, $F=0.002$, $p=.969$, or phonological Levenshtein distance, $F=0.523$, $p=.470$. However, due to difficulties matching pairs on all features, the two sets of keywords were found to differ based on concreteness, $F=43.691$, $p<.001$, with congruous keywords having more concrete ratings than incongruous keywords (Table 4).

Table 3: Properties of strongly and weakly constrained sentence frame sets

	Strongly constrained context	Weakly constrained context
Syllable count	8.40 (1.58)	8.36 (1.32)
Total word count	6.51 (1.15)	6.40 (1.04)
Pointer word count (per sentence)	2.50 (0.50)	2.46 (0.49)
Pointer word count (across whole set) *	1100 (623 unique)	1087 (425 unique)
Pointer word frequency (across whole set)	1.79 (1.69)	2.56 (3.57)

Where values are in the form: mean (s.d.), except *

Table 4: Properties of congruous and incongruous final keyword sets

	Congruous	Incongruous
Syllable Count	1.792 (0.839)	1.797 (0.840)
Lexical Frequency (SUBTLEX Lg10)	3.137 (0.597)	3.120 (0.593)
Phonological Neighbourhood Density (CLEARPOND)	12.430 (13.791)	12.467 (13.830)
Phonological Levenshtein Distance (English Lexicon Project)	1.910 (0.871)	1.867 (0.884)
Concreteness (MRC)	543.947 (84.697)	493.706 (105.775)

Where values are in the form: mean (s.d.)

Table 5. Properties of keywords and sentences used as dependent variables in investigations into the equivalence of complete sentence sets across the three conditions and of smaller experimental lists within each sentence condition

Keyword properties	Sentence properties
Syllable count	Sentence frame syllable count
Lexical frequency	Sentence frame pointer word count
Phonological neighbourhood density	Sentence frame word count
Phonological Levenshtein distance	Complete sentence syllable count
Concreteness	Complete sentence word count

Table 6: Examples of completed sentence triplets

Predictable	Neutral	Anomalous
A0106 To EARN MONEY you need a JOB	B0106 To BE HAPPY you need a JOB	C0106 To EARN MONEY you need a TALK
A0901 RABBITS like EATING fresh ORANGE CARROTS	B0901 Some PETS like EATING fresh TASTY CARROTS	C0901 RABBITS like EATING fresh ORANGE SWIMMERS
A1822 You WEAR a HAT on your HEAD	B1822 He PUT the BOOK on his HEAD	C1822 You WEAR a HAT on your GIRL

Pointer words and final keywords are capitalised

2.5. Forming equivalent lists of sentence triplets

Although the current research used the complete set of NNSR sentences, in the future it may be desired to use only a subset of the materials, depending on experimental design. In this case, it is important that the subset chosen reflects the properties of the materials as a whole, so the 439 sentence triplets were organised into 18 equivalent experimental lists of 24 sentences, with the remaining 7 triplets forming a training list.

The lists were created by first distributing predictable sentences across 18 lists, with a spread of keyword syllable counts, sentence syllable counts, final keyword cloze probabilities and pointer word counts within each list. A MANOVA with list number as a fixed factor and the keyword and sentence frame properties listed in Table 5 as dependent variables showed that these initial experimental lists of predictable sentences differed only on sentence frame pointer word count. Bonferroni-corrected post-hoc comparisons showed that lists 1 and 3 had lower pointer word counts, and lists 10 and 11 had higher pointer word counts than other lists. To correct the balance, a small number of sentences (matched for other properties) were exchanged among these lists. A second MANOVA was conducted and the 18 lists of predictable sentences now did not differ based on any of the sentence frame or keyword properties described in Table 5 (all comparisons $p > .261$). The neutral and anomalous sentences of each triplet were then assigned to the list corresponding to that of the triplet's predictable sentence (i.e.: if a predictable sentence was assigned to predictable list 3, the neutral and anomalous sentences from its triplet were assigned

to neutral list 3 and anomalous list 3, respectively). This gave 18 corresponding experimental lists for the three sentence conditions. Further MANOVA tests showed that within each sentence condition, the neutral and anomalous lists also did not differ based on the properties listed in Table 5.

The final sentence triplets are identified via a code comprising sentence type (predictable = A, neutral = B, anomalous = C), a list identifier (01-18 plus 00 for the training list) and finally a sentence number identifier (01-24). For example, sentence A0101 is the first predictable sentence in list 1. The same code describes each member of a triplet; sentence A0101 is drawn from the same triplet as B0101 and C0101. Examples of complete sentence triplets are shown in Table 6.

3. Chapter three: Accent intelligibility in noise across different talker-listener pairings

3.1. Introduction

The intelligibility of an accent depends on the particular combination of talker and listener, rather than being purely driven by features of the talker's speech. In this way, different talker-listener pairings can give rise to many patterns of relative accent intelligibility. A listener's familiarity with a talker's accent is often proposed to be a major contributor to accent intelligibility (e.g., Adank et al., 2009), but recently the level of acoustic-phonetic similarity between the talker and listener's accents has also been suggested to contribute to the intelligibility of accented speech in noise (e.g., Pinet et al., 2011). This chapter begins by reviewing some findings in this field and discussing how they could support either the influence of familiarity or similarity on accent intelligibility. We then move on to examine the intelligibility of accents within the talker-listener pairings in this study. Note that the mechanisms through which accent familiarity and similarity may influence intelligibility, and the implications this may have for word recognition will be discussed in the next chapter.

3.1.1. Accent intelligibility for native listeners

Native listeners who have a standard native accent (e.g., SSBE, General American etc.) generally find this accent to be more intelligible than a regional accent in noise. For example, southern English listeners are less accurate at recognising Northern Irish-accented speech than SSBE (Pinet et al., 2011), and are also slower to identify speech in a Glaswegian accent (Adank et al., 2009) and do so less accurately (Smith et al., 2014). Similar effects are seen in American English; listeners with a General American accent are slower to recognise words in the non-rhotic New York accent than in their own rhotacised accent (Sumner & Samuel, 2009), and are more accurate at transcribing sentences in a General American accent than other more highly marked regional accents (Clopper & Bradlow, 2008). This disadvantage for processing regional accents likely stems from the systematic variations in these accents compared to the relevant standard accent; particular phonemes may be realised phonetically differently in either spectral or durational terms, may occur in different phonotactic environments or may have different lexical distributions, and there may also be differences in suprasegmental features (Wells, 1982a, pp. 72-86).

These variations could impede comprehension as they may not be familiar to standard-accented listeners, who may not commonly encounter speakers of these accents or receive as much exposure to regional accents through the media. It is also possible that regional accents disrupt processing for standard-accented listeners as these variations mean the regional accent is less acoustic-phonetically similar to their own accent.

If the pairing is reversed, native listeners with a regional accent tend to find their own regional accent and the relevant standard accent to be equally intelligible. This has been observed across multiple regional-standard accent pairings, in different countries and languages; word identification in SSBE and Glaswegian accents occurs equally quickly (Adank et al., 2009) and accurately (Smith et al., 2014) for Glaswegians, and is also equally fast in General American and New York accents for New Yorkers (Sumner & Samuel, 2009), and in a local regional accent and standard Parisian French for listeners from the south of France (Floccia, Goslin, Girard & Konopczynski, 2006). Given that the regional accent is both highly familiar to the listeners and also phonetically very similar to their own accent, it may not be surprising that in this case the regional accent is highly intelligible. The standard accent is also likely to be highly familiar to regional listeners through extensive media exposure and to a lesser extent, possibly also through interaction with speakers of the standard accent (Adank et al., 2009, Sumner & Samuel, 2009). This allows listeners to accommodate the differences between the standard accent and their own, and so leads to this accent being more intelligible to regional listeners than in the reverse pairing. However, it is hard to account for this advantage for a standard accent shown by regional listeners based on accent similarity, as the standard accent should be equally distant from the regional accented listeners' accent than the regional accent is for listeners with a standard accent.

While this asymmetry in accent intelligibility is usually accounted for by assuming that a listener's own accent is inherently highly intelligible, and that the standard accent also becomes highly intelligible with sufficient exposure, it could be possible that the reverse is true, and standard accents are inherently more intelligible than other accents and regional listeners' extensive exposure to their own accent and its phonetic similarity to their own speech allows them to process it with ease. Standard accents contain features that could help them to be relatively more intelligible than

other accents; SSBE vowels on average have more central formant placements as compared to other regional English accents, meaning this accent is of a similar acoustic difference to regional accents as diverse as those spoken in Glasgow, East Anglia and Birmingham (Ferragne & Pellegrino, 2010), and so may be comparably intelligible to listeners all around the country. Standard accents may also be more intelligible than other accents as they lack some features of regional accents that could make words harder to distinguish. For example, in many Northern English accents the vowels in words such as *could* and *cuɔ* are both realised as /ʊ/, and in a Liverpool accent the vowels in *fairy* and *furry* are merged into a single /ɜ/ vowel. In SSBE, both pairs of words are minimal pairs rather than homophones (Wells, 1982b, pp. 356, 361). The Glaswegian accent also adheres to the Scottish Vowel Length Rule, meaning that words such as *beat* and *bead* are both realised with a short vowel (Scobbie, Hewlett & Turk, 1999). In this accent, the main cues used to distinguish the words appear in the final consonant, while in SSBE vowel duration cues would also be available. In these cases, the standard accent has more cues available to differentiate the words, which may help this accent to be generally more intelligible than regional accents. This could account for the finding in some studies that regional listeners can find the standard accent to be more intelligible than their own accent (Evans & Iverson, 2007; Sumner & Samuel, 2009).

In addition to showing difficulties processing unfamiliar regional accents, native listeners also tend to find a non-native accent to be less intelligible than a standard native accent. English listeners are more accurate at recognising SSBE than French-accented English (Pinet & Iverson, 2010; Pinet et al., 2011), and are faster at recognising their own English accent than a Spanish (Adank et al., 2009) or French accent (Floccia, Butler, Goslin & Ellis, 2009). American listeners find the General American accent more intelligible than Mandarin-accented (Hayes-Harb et al., 2008; Munro & Derwing, 1995), Korean-accented (Bent & Bradlow, 2003) or Spanish-accented English (Imai, Walley & Flege, 2005), and Dutch listeners find a native Dutch accent easier to understand in noise than English-accented Dutch (van Wijngaarden, 2001). These non-native accents may be less intelligible than a native accent as they contain both systematic variations compared to native accents, such as a tendency for French speakers to drop /h/ when speaking in English (Walter, 2001), and also more unsystematic variations due to the high level of variance within non-native talkers' ability to produce L2 sounds accurately and consistently (e.g., Burgos,

Cucchiari, van Hout & Strik, 2014; Evanini & Huang, 2012; Flege, Bohn & Jang, 1997). These accent features may be unfamiliar to native listeners as non-native accents are not commonly represented in the media, and listeners may have few encounters with non-native speakers depending on where they live, which could account for the lower intelligibility of these accents. The difficulties posed by non-native accents may also relate to acoustic-phonetic differences to native accents. Non-native speech is influenced by the L1 sound system, and as such, vowels produced by non-native speakers may differ in terms of both spectral properties and duration to vowels produced by native speakers (Flege et al., 1997; Flege, Schirru & McKay, 2003). However, this depends on L2 proficiency levels, and more proficient non-native speakers' productions tend to be closer to those of native speakers than less proficient speakers' productions (Burgos et al., 2014; Flege et al., 1997; Pinet et al., 2011). As well as being less similar to native speech, less proficient non-native talkers also tend to be harder to understand than more proficient talkers (Bent & Bradlow, 2003; Stibbard & Lee, 2006), which could suggest a link between the similarity of non-native and native accents and the intelligibility of non-native accents. It should be noted though that this would depend on the specific talker-listener accent pairing, as there is considerable variation between both native and non-native accents.

3.1.2. Accent intelligibility for non-native listeners

Considering the intelligibility of accented speech for non-native listeners is more complex than for native listeners. Non-native speakers have an incomplete model of their second language (L2), and the influence of the L1 sound system can cause problems discriminating and identifying L2 sounds, factors which are exacerbated in the presence of conditions which may make speech recognition more difficult (see García Lecumberri, Cooke & Cutler, 2010 for a review). However, there is a great deal of variability in L2 ability and experience among non-native listeners, meaning that while the combination of talker-listener accent remains important for determining accent intelligibility, the L2 proficiency of non-native listeners is also likely to play a role.

One situation where there is a clear relationship between listener proficiency and accent intelligibility is the relative intelligibility of a non-native listener's own accent and that of a standard native accent. Highly proficient non-native speakers may behave in a similar way to native listeners, in that the standard accent may be more

intelligible than the non-native accent; highly proficient French speakers find SSBE to be more intelligible than French-accented English (Pinet et al., 2011), and a General American accent is more intelligible than the listeners' own accent for experienced Spanish (Imai et al., 2005), Dutch (van Wijngaarden, Steeneken & Houtgast, 2002) and Chinese listeners (Hayes-Harb et al., 2008). Non-native listeners of slightly less experience may not show this advantage, and instead can find the standard accent equally intelligible to their own non-native accent. This has been found for French-accented English and SSBE for French speakers (Pinet & Iverson, 2010), and for the listeners' own accent compared to a General American accent for Chinese (Bent & Bradlow, 2003; Xie & Fowler, 2013), Korean (Bent & Bradlow, 2003), Spanish (Imai et al., 2005) and Dutch speakers (van Wijngaarden, 2001). Low proficiency non-native listeners show the opposite pattern to highly proficient listeners, where their own accent is more intelligible than a standard native accent (Pinet & Iverson, 2010; Pinet et al., 2011; Van Wijngaarden et al., 2002; Xie & Fowler, 2013).

This increasing relative intelligibility of a standard native accent as L2 proficiency develops could be accounted for in terms of both familiarity and similarity. More proficient L2 speakers are likely to have had greater exposure to native speech, and so will be more familiar with a standard native accent than less proficient listeners. This means they will have more experience of the L2 sound system, and are more familiar with features which may be more likely to occur in native rather than non-native speech, such as vowel reduction in unstressed syllables in stress-timed languages or a failure to release final stops in continuous speech. A greater awareness of these features could then help listeners to understand standard native accents. Accent similarity could also account for the increasing intelligibility of a standard accent as L2 proficiency develops; speakers tend to become more accurate at producing L2 sounds as their L2 proficiency develops (Burgos et al., 2014) and their accent becomes more similar to that of native speakers (Pinet et al., 2011). As such, it may be easier for listeners to understand the native accent if it more closely matches their own.

When non-native talkers and listeners have different L1s, different patterns of intelligibility may be seen. For fairly proficient listeners, if the speaker's L1 is similar to their own, this accent can be as intelligible as the listener's own accent; Chinese

and Korean listeners can find both Chinese and Korean-accented English to be equally intelligible, and at least as intelligible as General American (Bent & Bradlow, 2003). However, if the talker's L1 is more dissimilar to that of the listener, this accent can be less intelligible, particularly if the talker is of low proficiency; this pattern has been found in English for French speakers listening to Korean and French accents (Pinet et al., 2011), Dutch speakers listening to Dutch and Japanese accents (Weber, Broersma & Aoyagi, 2011), and Korean and Arabic speakers listening to low-proficiency talkers of both accents (Stibbard & Lee, 2006). These differences in accent intelligibility have been proposed to be related to the talkers' and listeners' interlanguage, or the knowledge of both the L1 and L2 which speakers apply to the L2. If speakers have the same or similar L1s (e.g.: Chinese and Korean), knowledge relating to the L1 system and its interaction with the L2 system may overlap, meaning that similar features appear in both L2 accents (Bent & Bradlow, 2003). For example, both Chinese and Korean lack the English /æ/ and do not distinguish /ɪ/ and /i:/, which may lead to similar problems in pronouncing these sounds in Chinese- and Korean-accented English (Chang, 2001; Lee, 2001). These variations in the talker's accent may therefore be familiar to the listener if they also occur in their own accent, and shared features are also likely to mean that the accent of talkers with a similar L1 may be quite acoustically similar to the listener's accent. If speakers have more dissimilar L1s (e.g.: Arabic and Korean), their interlanguage will overlap to a lesser extent, so different features may occur in the speakers' L2 accents (Stibbard & Lee, 2006). For example, the vowel inventory of Arabic is much smaller than that of Korean, which can result in very different realisations of English vowels by speakers of these languages (Lee, 2001; Smith, 2001). The accent of a talker with a very different L1 may then be much less familiar, and a lack of shared features could also mean that the accents of the talker and listener may be quite acoustic-phonetically distant.

Regional native accents can also be difficult for non-native listeners to understand; listeners can be less accurate at identifying words in a regional accent than in either a standard native accent or the listeners' own non-native accent (Northern Irish, SSBE and French-accented English, Pinet et al., 2011; Quebecois French, Standard French and English-accented French, Pinet 2012), and word recognition in an unfamiliar regional accent may be slower than in a standard native accent (Jamaican Mesolect, Cockney English and Standard Australian English, Ying, Shaw & Best, 2013). These

accents may be less intelligible because they are likely to be unfamiliar to non-native listeners as regional accents are less commonly represented in the media and teaching materials. Alternatively, the variation between the accents could also increase the acoustic-phonetic distances between the accents and reduce their intelligibility.

3.1.3. Accent intelligibility for talker-listener pairings in the current study

In this study, we presented Standard Southern British English (SSBE), Glaswegian English (GE) and Spanish-accented English (SpE) to groups of English and Spanish listeners. The English listeners also have an SSBE accent, so we could have predicted that they would find the SSBE accent to be more intelligible than the regional GE accent, based on both familiarity and accent similarity. The SpE accent may have been of a similar intelligibility to the GE accent, as found by Adank et al. (2009), or it could have been less intelligible than the other accents; this would likely depend on the accent of these specific Spanish talkers and how close it was to native speech, as listeners were likely to have little familiarity with this accent. It was harder to predict the relative intelligibilities of the accents for the Spanish listeners. They have a high level of proficiency, so it seems unlikely that the SpE accent would have been the most intelligible, but based on comparisons to listener groups in other studies, it was hard to say if the SSBE and SpE accents would be equally intelligible, or if the listeners are of high enough proficiency to show an advantage for the SSBE accent. Although there have been few prior studies investigating the intelligibility of a regional accent for non-native listeners, we could have predicted that the Spanish listeners' lack of exposure to GE speech may also mean that this accent would be the least intelligible for this group. In addition, while we may have expected these patterns of intelligibility in noise, it is likely that in quiet differences would be much less pronounced, if they are observed at all.

3.2. Methods

3.2.1. Listeners

One group of native, monolingual Southern British English listeners, and one group of native Spanish listeners completed the study. All participants were right handed, reported no known hearing, language or learning impairments, and grew up speaking only their native language at home. The 16 English participants (7 female, mean age = 25.25 years, s.d. = 4.20 years, range = 19-32 years) grew up in Southern England and had a Standard Southern British English accent. None had previously lived in

Scotland or Spain. Due to technical problems, one participant's data were excluded from the analysis. The 16 Spanish participants (12 female, mean age = 19.38 years, s.d. = 2.02 years, range = 18-24 years) were raised in northeast Spain, and none had ever lived in an English-speaking country. All were first or second year students in an English Studies degree at the University of the Basque Country, spoke English at an upper-intermediate or advanced level and had begun learning English between the ages of 5 and 7.

3.2.2. Talkers

The NNSR sentences (Chapter 2) were recorded by 4 talkers (2 male, 2 female) for each of three different accents: Standard Southern British English (SSBE), Glaswegian English (GE), and Spanish-accented English (SpE). SSBE and GE talkers were native, monolingual English speakers, with an accent typical of southeastern England or Glasgow, respectively. SpE talkers were native Spanish speakers from northeastern Spain, and all were in the third year of an English Studies degree at the University of the Basque Country. They spoke English at an upper-intermediate or advanced level, and had begun learning English in primary school between the ages of 5 and 8. Recordings were made digitally in a recording booth at UCL (SSBE talkers and one GE talker), the University of Glasgow (other GE talkers) or the University of the Basque Country (SpE talkers) at a sampling rate of 44100 Hz and with 24 bits per sample. Recordings were normalised to the same mean intensity after completion.

3.2.3. Procedure

Testing took place at UCL (English listeners) or the University of the Basque Country (Spanish listeners). The complete set of 432 neutral NNSR sentences were presented over headphones at a comfortable volume. Sentences were embedded in stationary speech-shaped noise based on the specific talker's average long-term spectrum at three signal-to-noise ratios (SNRs): +3dB, 0dB and -3dB, and also presented in quiet. Sentences were presented in a random order and were equally distributed across the combinations of talker and noise conditions. For each participant, sentences appeared in only one of these combinations, but between participants sentences were counterbalanced so that each sentence appeared in every accent and at every noise level across the experiment. After each sentence participants repeated the words they understood, and the experimenter recorded the

Table 7: Average sentence and final keyword durations of the neutral sentences presented in each accent in the speech-in-noise recognition task

Accent	Sentence duration (s)	Final keyword duration m(s)
SSBE	1.97 (1.15 – 3.27)	0.49 (0.18 – 0.94)
GE	1.90 (1.00 – 3.83)	0.45 (0.12 – 0.91)
SpE	2.18 (1.23 – 3.76)	0.47 (0.14 – 0.92)

Where values are in the form: mean (min – max)

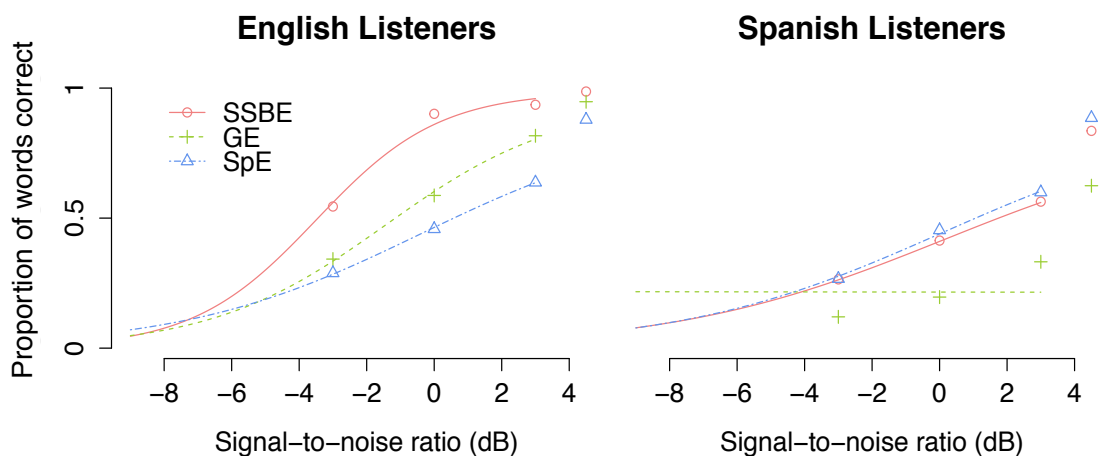
SSBE = Standard Southern British English, GE = Glaswegian English, SpE = Spanish-accented English

number of keywords correctly identified per sentence. Short breaks were given throughout the task. The mean total sentence durations and mean final keyword durations were very similar across the three accents (Table 7).

3.3. Results

The mean proportion of words correctly identified in each accent as a function of noise level is shown in Figure 3.1. Focusing on the accuracy of recognition at the three noise levels suggests that English listeners were more accurate overall than Spanish listeners, and that the intelligibility of the three accents in noise follows different patterns for the two listener groups. Turning to the scores in quiet, as represented by the separate points at the right of the plots, there is less difference in the intelligibility of most of the accents, with average word recognition accuracy over or close to 85%. The exception was the GE accent for Spanish listeners, which had a much lower recognition score of around 60%.

Figure 3.1: Recognition accuracy of SSBE, GE and SpE as a function of noise level for native and non-native listeners



The furthest right data points for each listener group show speech recognition accuracy in quiet.

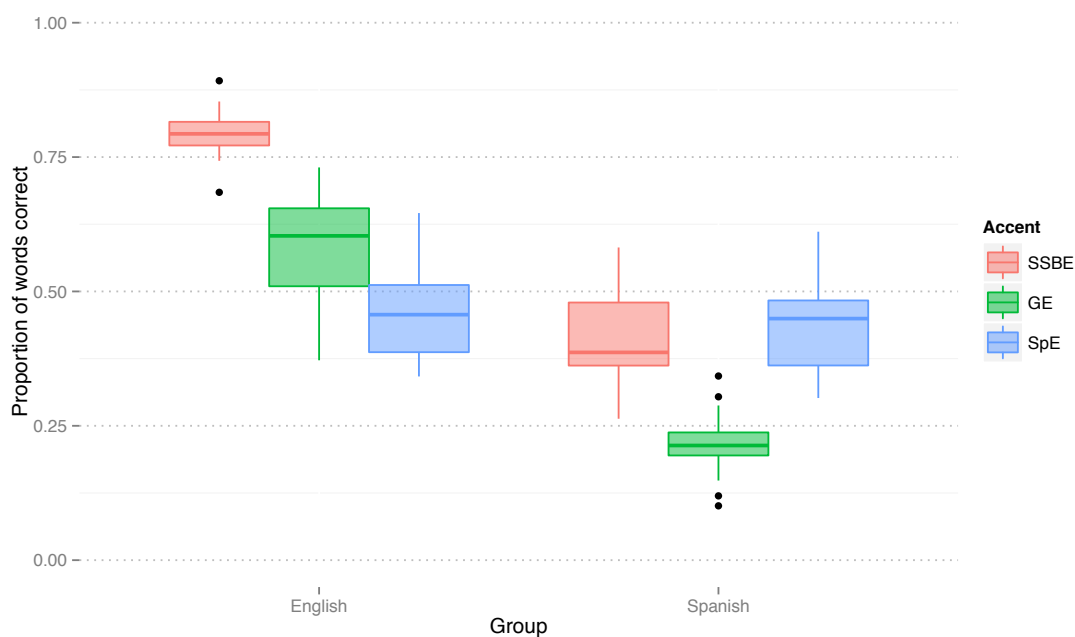
SSBE = Standard Southern British English, GE = Glaswegian English, SpE = Spanish-accented English

To explore the relationship between accent and recognition accuracy in noise for the English and Spanish listeners, the proportion of words correctly identified in each accent was averaged over the three SNRs for each listener to give average speech-in-noise accuracy levels (Figure 3.2). Sentences presented in quiet were not included in this calculation. Mean accuracy scores for each accent were then entered into a linear mixed-effect model with the fixed effects of accent and listener group (including the interaction term) and by-participant random intercepts. There were significant main effects of accent, $F(2, 62)=161.77$, $p<0.0001$, and listener group, $F(1,31)=100.88$, $p<0.0001$, with the SSBE accent being in general more intelligible than the other accents, and English listeners being more accurate at identifying words than Spanish listeners. There was also a significant interaction between the terms, $F(2, 62)=147.23$, $p<0.0001$. To investigate this interaction further, bonferroni-corrected pairwise contrasts were performed to compare the intelligibility of the three accents for each listener group. These tests confirmed that English listeners were selectively tuned to their own accent; the SSBE accent was more intelligible than the GE accent, and the SpE accent was in turn less intelligible than the GE accent (all three accents were significantly different from each other, $p<0.0001$). For Spanish listeners, the SSBE and SpE accents were equally intelligible in noise ($p=0.671$, n.s.), but both accents were more intelligible than the GE accent ($p<0.0001$).

3.4. Discussion

Our findings show a clear effect of talker-listener accent pairing on the intelligibility of an accent in noise. English listeners display a distinct advantage for their own SSBE accent, finding it to be much more intelligible in noise than either of the other accents, even though all three were of a similar intelligibility in quiet. To a lesser extent, this advantage extended to native speech in general, as the GE accent was more intelligible in noise than the SpE accent. This pattern of intelligibility could reflect the listeners' familiarity with the accents; they will be highly familiar with their own SSBE accent, and less so with the others. However, it is hard to say which of the GE and SpE accents would be most familiar to these listeners. While listeners may have more exposure to GE speech in the media, these listeners reside in London, where there is a large population of Spanish speakers who listeners may interact with. The intelligibility of the accents could also correspond to the level of accent similarity across the talker-listener pairings; the listeners also have an SSBE accent, so this accent will of course be the most similar to their speech, while variations in the

Figure 3.2: Accent intelligibility in noise, with accuracy averaged across SNRs for each listener (excluding quiet)



SSBE = Standard Southern British English, GE = Glaswegian English, SpE = Spanish-accented English

GE and SpE accents compared to the SSBE accent will make these accents less similar to the listeners' accent. However, because variations in the GE accent are in general quite systematic and also based on a broadly similar sound system, this accent may be more similar to the listeners' accent than the SpE accent as this may contain more unsystematic variations and is also influenced by the Spanish sound system. Although there was some overlap in the intelligibility of GE and SpE talkers for these listeners, the intelligibility of individual speakers was not specifically investigated in these analyses, as the current research is focusing more on between, rather than within-accent differences in intelligibility. However, this would be an interesting avenue for further research.

Spanish listeners were less accurate overall at recognising speech in noise than English listeners, which could be expected as they have to cope with the extra demands of listening in an L2, and will also be more adversely affected by the presence of noise than the native listeners (Cooke, García Lecumberri & Barker, 2008). The Spanish group also showed a different pattern of accent intelligibility; these listeners found the SSBE and SpE accents to be equally intelligible, while the GE accent was considerably harder to understand. As they did not show the

advantage for a standard native accent which has previously been observed for highly proficient L2 speakers (Imai et al., 2005; Pinet et al., 2011; van Wijngaarden et al., 2002), this suggests that although our listeners are sufficiently proficient to study a degree taught in English, they have not had enough exposure to native English accents in their small Spanish city to allow them to tune to the SSBE accent more selectively. However, as the great majority of English these listeners hear in their daily lives is spoken by other native Spanish speakers, in this case selectively tuning to an SSBE accent may not be necessary and could even be detrimental to the listeners in their more every day interactions.

The difficulty the Spanish listeners faced with the regional GE is consistent with other investigations into regional native accent processing by non-native speakers (Pinet et al., 2011; Pinet, 2012). This accent is unfamiliar to the listeners (none reported any trips to Scotland, or having Scottish friends etc.), which could account for why it was so hard to understand. In addition, the Spanish listener's interlanguage is likely to contain knowledge relating to a standard English accent, as these accents are commonly represented in the media and in teaching material. As the Scottish sound inventory differs to that of the SSBE accent, and the GE accent also contains features not observed in the SSBE accent (Wells, 1982b), the accents of the Spanish listeners and the GE talkers may be quite acoustically-phonetically dissimilar, which could also contribute to the low intelligibility of this accent.

While the patterns of intelligibility for each of the listener groups are consistent with those found in previous research, it is not clear from these data whether this influence of talker-listener pairing on accent intelligibility stems from differences in the familiarity of the accents to the listeners, or if it can be accounted for by the acoustic-phonetic similarity across the talker-listener combinations. In light of this, the next part of this research went on to further investigate links between accent intelligibility and similarity.

4. Chapter four: The relationship between accent intelligibility and similarity

4.1. Introduction

Listeners' familiarity with an accent and also the acoustic-phonetic similarity between talkers' and listeners' accents seem to be able to account for a range of patterns of accent intelligibility. However, the mechanisms through which accent familiarity and similarity may contribute to the influence of talker-listener pairing on accent intelligibility are likely to differ and may then have different implications for word recognition processes.

Accent familiarity may contribute to the influence of talker-listener pairing on accent intelligibility, by allowing listeners to form multiple exemplars for words in each accent. Although regional listeners may not have much personal interaction with speakers of a standard accent, accents such as SSBE and General American tend to be the media standard in the relevant countries, and as such these listeners may receive high levels of exposure to a standard accent (e.g.: Adank et al., 2009; Clopper & Bradlow, 2008; Sumner & Samuel, 2009). This familiarity may allow listeners to become 'multi-dialectical', where they are able to store phonological representations of words in their own accent and also in the standard accent (Sumner & Samuel, 2009). This could account for the asymmetry seen in accent intelligibility across standard-regional accent pairings, as standard listeners will lack regional-accent specific representations, but regional listeners can directly map input onto stored phonological forms that match the features of the relevant accent.

However, even extensive media exposure to a standard accent may not be enough to allow regional listeners to accommodate differences between the standard accent and their own without also having personal contact with speakers of this accent (Evans & Iverson, 2004), and immersion in a regional accent environment also does not seem to be sufficient for standard-accented listeners to form additional long-term representations for the regional accent (Sumner & Samuel, 2009). These findings suggest it is unlikely that regional listeners store multi-accent phonological representations as a matter of course. Accent familiarity also is not able to account for all patterns in accent intelligibility. For example, low-proficiency French listeners can

find Korean-accented English to be equally as intelligible as SSBE, where accent familiarity would predict that the SSBE accent would be more intelligible than the unfamiliar Korean accent (Pinet et al., 2011).

Accent similarity may instead influence accent intelligibility through a different mechanism; instead of listeners flexibly processing accents in a multi-dialectal way, listeners may process all accents through their own accent. This may suggest that accents which are more similar to the listener's own are easier to map to stored phonological representations based on the listener's accent than accents which are more acoustically-phonetically distant.

Accent similarity is often gauged using subjective perceptual tasks, such as accent free classification, where raters assign speakers to groups based on the similarity of their accents (e.g.: Clopper & Bradlow, 2008, 2009; Clopper & Pisoni, 2007). While this can be useful to explore the factors which influence the perceptual similarity of accents, the classifications can be hard to relate to accent intelligibility as there is a great deal of variability in ratings (Clopper & Bradlow, 2008) and classifications of accent similarity may also be influenced by features which are not directly related to accent, such as a speaker's gender (Clopper & Pisoni, 2007). Accentedness ratings may also give another subjective measure of accent similarity that is possible to relate to accent intelligibility; listeners from the north of England whose accent was rated as being more similar to a southern accent found SSBE to be more intelligible than listeners who were rated as sounding more northern (Evans & Iverson, 2007). However, perception of accentedness may also be influenced by factors unrelated to accent, such as whether a talker mumbles (Derwing & Munro, 1997), which means such ratings may not be a reliable measure of accent similarity.

Objective measures based on the acoustic-phonetic qualities of speech have recently been used to compare accents, with a number of studies performing formant-based comparisons of vowels in different accents to investigate links between accent similarity and intelligibility. Oder et al., (2013) compared the position of vowels in various American English accents according to their first and second formants (F1 and F2, respectively), and found the Mid-Atlantic accent was more similar to the Midland accent than the Southern accent and also that Mid-Atlantic vowels were more intelligible to Midland listeners than Southern vowels. A similar pattern has

been found for synthesised vowels designed to be equivalent to the F1-F2 positions of vowels in the Pacific Northwest (PNW) accent or to be acoustically close or distant to this accent; PNW listeners found the more distant vowels to be harder to identify than either the close vowels or the PNW vowels (Wright & Souza, 2013). Dutch listeners also had more difficulty understanding German-accented vowels whose F1-F2 position was very different native Dutch vowels than they did when the German-accented vowels had more similar formant frequencies to the native vowel (Witteman, Weber & McQueen, 2013).

Another objective measure of accent similarity is the ACCDIST metric (Huckvale, 2004, 2007), which compares the distance between spectral properties of segments within one speaker's productions to those of other speakers. Relative, rather than absolute distances are used, so talker-specific features unrelated to accent do not influence the ratings, which avoids some of the issues of subjective measures of accent similarity. ACCDIST can also be applied to a much wider range of speech samples than the isolated vowels in the studies above, so it can be used in studies looking at more global measures of accent intelligibility. Pinet et al. (2011) used ACCDIST to measure the similarity between talker and listener accents in their study of accent intelligibility. For English listeners with an SSBE accent, they found that the similarity of the talkers' accents to that of the listeners showed a positive relationship with the intelligibility of the accents in noise, with SSBE being both most intelligible and also closest to the listeners' accent. The non-native accents were least intelligible and also least similar to the listeners' accent, with the regional Northern-Irish accent intermediate in terms of both intelligibility and accent similarity. A similar pattern was also found for low-proficiency French listeners; French-accented English was most similar to their own accent and most intelligible, Northern Irish English was the most distant and also the least intelligible, and SSBE and Korean-accented English were intermediate both in terms of accent similarity and intelligibility. Higher proficiency French listeners who found the SSBE accent to be more intelligible also showed a higher level of similarity between their own accent and the SSBE accent.

Together, these findings suggest that the intelligibility of accents may be at least in part driven by the similarity of the talker and listener's accents, although findings are so far limited. To further expand research in this area, this study went on to

investigate the similarity of accents across the talker-listener pairings described in Chapter 3 using the ACCDIST metric, and explored links between these levels of similarity and the patterns of accent intelligibility previously observed.

4.2. Methods

The 16 English and Spanish listeners that participated in the accent intelligibility task (section 3.2.1.) also recorded the first 48 sentences of the predictable NNSR sentences (Appendix 1). These recordings were compared to the same sentences as read by the SSBE, GE and SpE talkers from the accent intelligibility task (section 3.2.2.) using the ACCDIST metric (Huckvale, 2004, 2007) in order to assess the similarity of the talkers' and listeners' accents. In the first stage, an automatic phonetic alignment was performed using the HTK Hidden Markov Modelling Toolkit (1989), whereby hidden Markov models were used to identify the sections of the speech recording that corresponded to each phoneme in a transcription of the sentence. These automatic alignments were then hand checked to ensure phoneme boundaries had been located correctly. In the following analyses, only the segments corresponding to vowels (excluding schwa) were considered.

To measure the similarity of vowel spectra among the talker-listener pairings, the spectral qualities of vowels for each speaker were evaluated by calculating Mel-frequency cepstral coefficients (MFCCs) across the first and second half of each vowel, which are derived using a filter bank approximating the function of the cochlea, giving a more perceptual representation of a signal's spectral properties (Vergin, O'Shaughnessy & Farhat, 1999). The MFCCs of vowels appearing in repeated tokens of words such as 'and' and 'you' were averaged across each word, but vowels occurring in different contexts, such as 'large' and 'stars' were not averaged. An intra-speaker vowel distance table was then computed based on the Euclidian distance between the MFCC vectors of each pair of vowels for each talker and listener. This use of relative rather than absolute distances between vowels normalises speaker-specific differences in production (Huckvale, 2007). The similarity of the accents was then obtained by calculating the correlation between the vowel spectral distance tables of each talker-listener pair. To give a more representative measure of the similarity of a listener's accent to that of each accent group as a whole rather than to the individual talkers, for each listener the similarity of their vowels to those of the four talkers of each accent were averaged to give the

mean similarity to each of the SSBE, GE and SpE accents.

A measure of accent similarity based on vowel duration was also calculated. For each talker and listener individually, the duration of each vowel token was extracted from the forced alignment data (repeated tokens were not averaged in this case), giving an intra-speaker list of vowel durations. The correlation of these vowel duration lists was then calculated for each talker-listener pair to give a measure of accent similarity. These similarity measures were then averaged across the four talkers of each accent for each listener to give a mean listener-accent similarity in the same way as described above.

4.3. Results

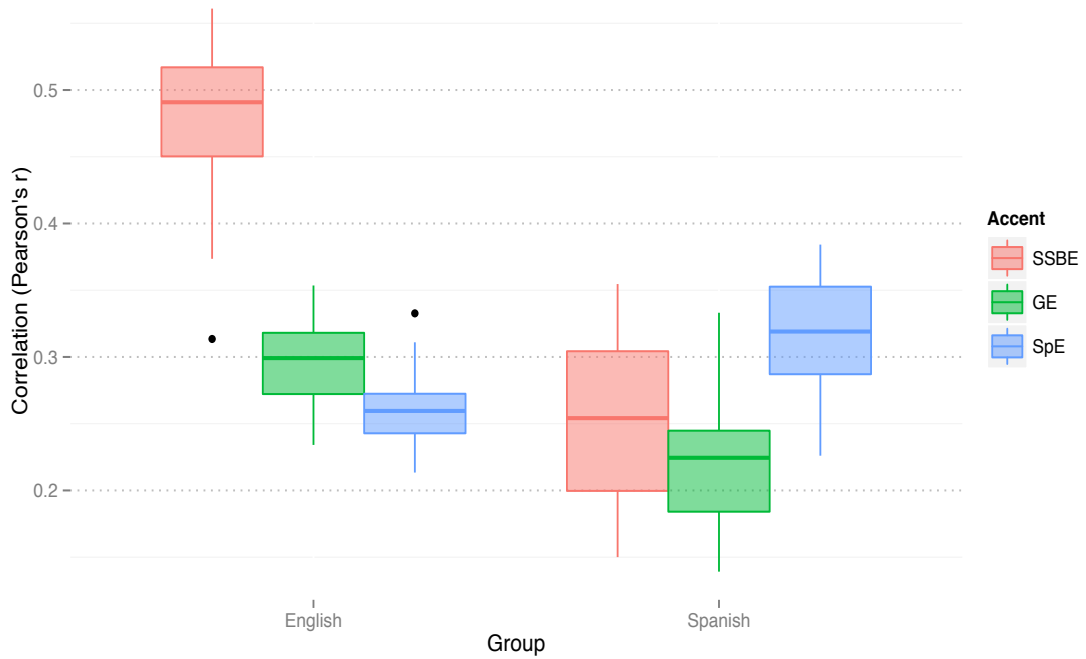
The similarity between the listeners' accents and the SSBE, GE and SpE accents based on vowel spectral qualities and duration can be seen in Figure 4.1. To confirm which accents were closer to those of the listeners, the level of similarity between each listener-talker accent combination based on both measures of accent similarity were entered into separate linear mixed effects models with talker accent and listener group as fixed effects (also including their interaction term), and by-listener random intercepts.

For talker-listener accent similarity based on vowel spectral qualities, there was a significant effect of listener group, $F(1,32)=29.33$, $p<0.0001$, with the English listeners' vowels closer in spectral characteristics to the talkers' accents overall than the Spanish listeners' vowels (average similarity measures of 34.6% and 26.5% respectively). There was also a significant effect of talker accent, $F(2,64)=88.21$, $p<0.0001$ and a significant interaction between the terms, $F(2,64)=136.46$, $p<0.0001$. Pairwise contrasts (Bonferroni-corrected) showed that the similarity of the three talker accents to the listener accents differed for the two listener groups. English listeners' vowels were closest to the SSBE accent than the other two accents (both $p<0.0001$), with the GE accent being more similar than the SpE accent ($p=0.0173$). Spanish listeners' accents were closest to the SpE accent than the other accents (both $p<0.001$), with SSBE more similar than the GE accent ($p=0.0105$). The similarity of talker-listener accent pairings based on vowel duration also showed a significant effect of listener group, $F(1,31)=32.17$, $p<0.0001$, again due to greater similarity between the duration of English listeners' vowels and those of the talkers than for

Spanish listeners (average similarities of 62.6% and 51.2% respectively). The effect of talker accent was also significant, $F(2,64)=323.85$, $p<0.0001$, along with the interaction between talker accent and listener group, $F(2, 64)=209.76$, $p<0.0001$. Pairwise contrasts (Bonferroni-corrected) again found that the English listeners' vowel durations were most similar to those in the SSBE accent, then GE and finally SpE (all differences $p<0.0001$). Spanish listeners' vowels were equally similar in terms of duration to those of the SSBE and SpE accents, and were less similar to the GE vowels ($p<0.001$). In general, listeners' accents showed a higher level of similarity to the talkers' accents in terms of vowel duration than vowel spectral similarity.

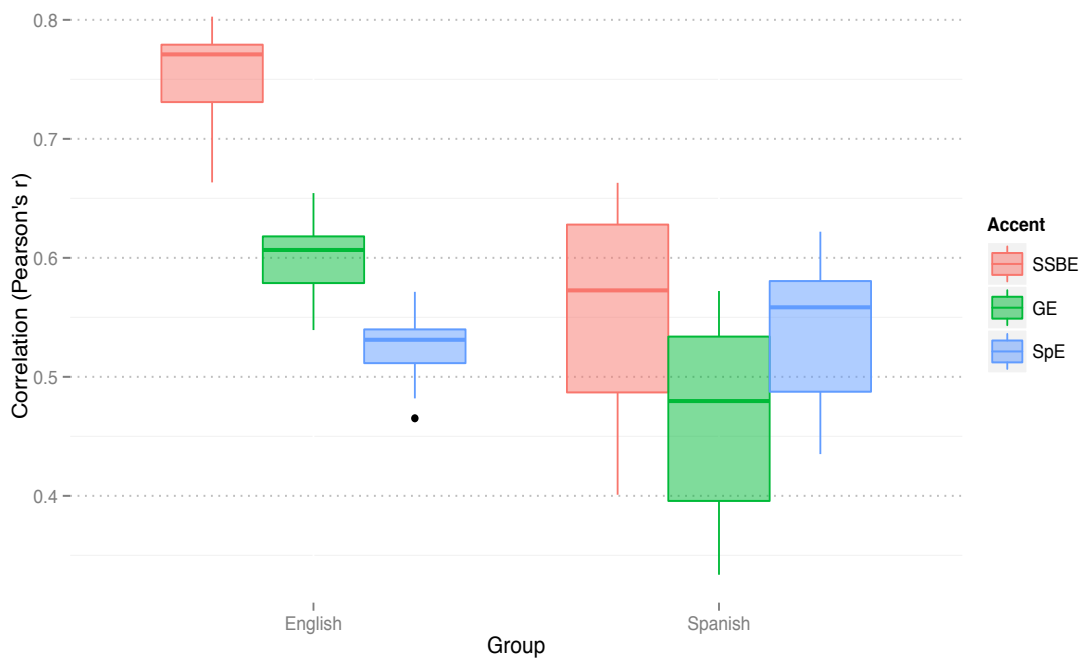
Comparing accent intelligibility in noise to the similarity between talker and listener accents suggests our data may show a positive correlation between the level of accent similarity across a talker-listener pairing and the intelligibility of an accent for the listener groups (Figure 4.3). To explore this relationship further, word recognition accuracy in noise was entered into a linear mixed effects model, with vowel spectral similarity, vowel duration similarity and listener group as fixed effects and also by-accent and by-listener random intercepts. The two measures of accent similarity were highly correlated, $\rho= 0.79$, $p<0.001$, but comparing this full model to reduced models excluding each of the measures in turn showed that vowel spectral similarity, $\chi^2(4)=18.40$, $p=0.0010$, and vowel duration similarity, $\chi^2(4)=25.87$, $p<0.001$, were both able to account for unique variance in speech in noise intelligibility. A three-way interaction between the two accent similarity measures and listener group was also found, $F(1,69)=16,14$, $p=0.001$. Figure 4.3 suggests that this interaction may arise as English listeners seem to show a stronger link between accent intelligibility and similarity than Spanish listeners. To investigate this further, mixed effects models were then constructed for the two groups separately, each containing word recognition accuracy in noise, the fixed effects of vowel spectral and duration similarity and by-accent and by-listener random intercepts. Using a method developed by Nakagawa and Schielzeth (2013), the amount of variance in accent intelligibility accounted for by the fixed effects in each model was then calculated. This showed that for English listeners, accent similarity measures were able to account for around three-quarters of the variation in accent intelligibility, $R^2=0.7408$, compared to only around a third of variance in intelligibility for Spanish listeners, $R^2=0.2948$.

Figure 4.1: Similarity between listeners' speech and SSBE, GE and SpE in terms of correlation between relative intra-speaker vowel spectral distances as measured using the ACCDIST metric



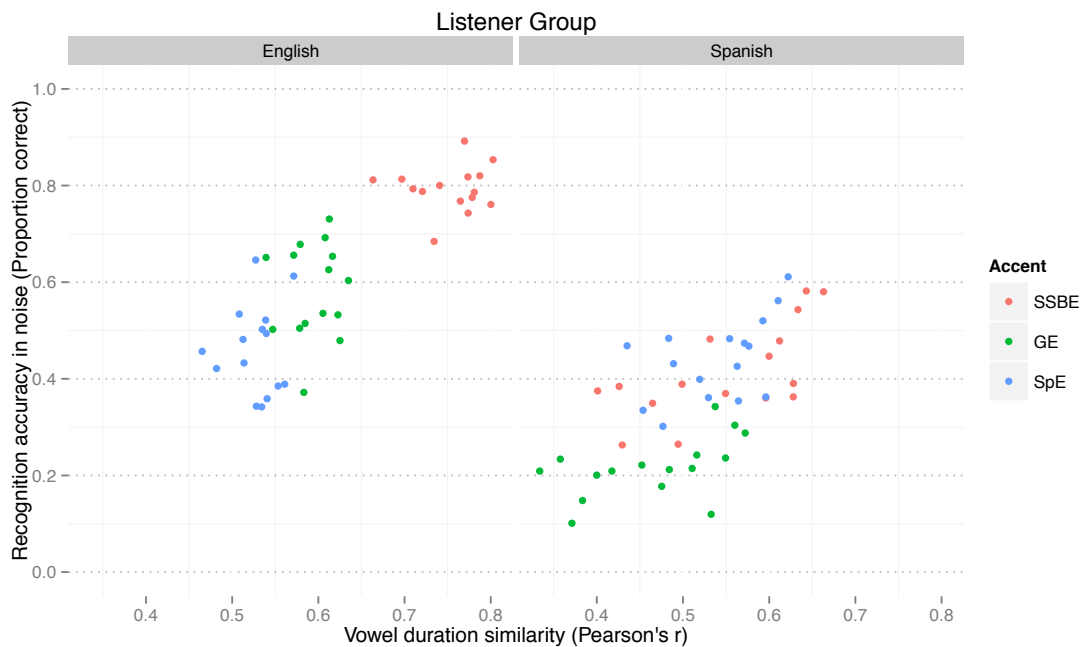
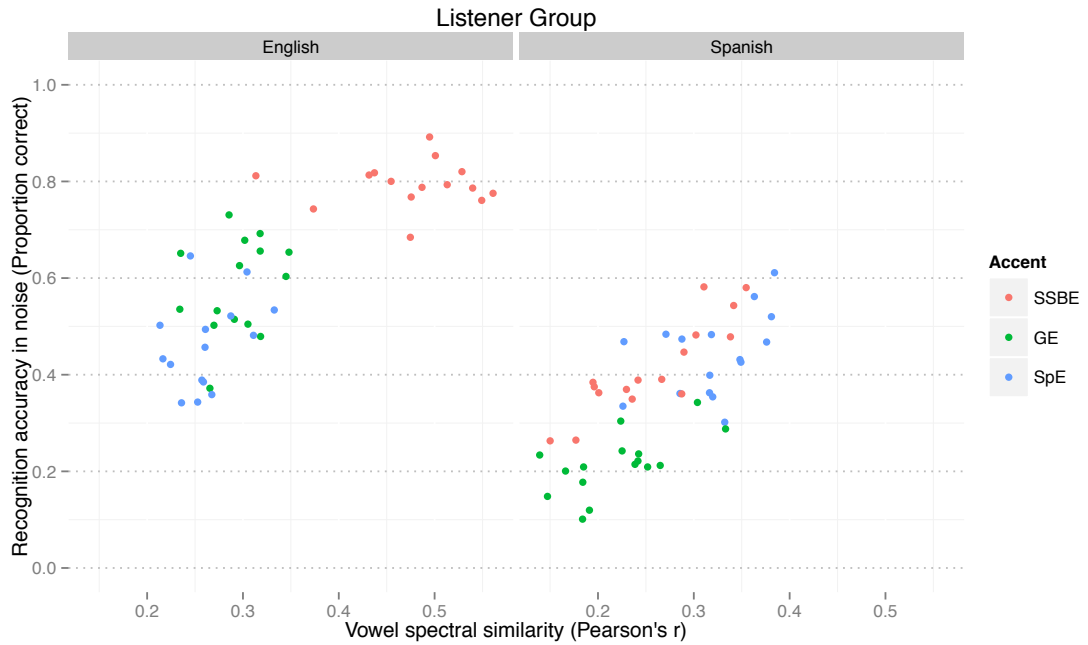
SSBE = Standard Southern British English, GE = Glaswegian English, SpE = Spanish-accented English

Figure 4.2: Similarity between listeners' speech and SSBE, GE and SpE in terms of correlation in vowel duration



SSBE = Standard Southern British English, GE = Glaswegian English, SpE = Spanish-accented English

Figure 4.3: The relationship between accent intelligibility in noise for SSBE, GE and SpE and the level of acoustic-phonetic similarity between these accents and listeners' speech in terms of vowel spectral similarity or vowel duration similarity, for both native and non-native listeners



SSBE = Standard Southern British English, GE = Glaswegian English, SpE = Spanish-accented English

4.4. Discussion

The aim of this study was to explore possible links between the intelligibility of accents in noise across talker-listener pairings and the acoustic-phonetic similarity of speakers' accents. We found different levels of similarity between the accents of the English and Spanish listeners and the SSBE, GE and SpE talker accents, but evidence of a relationship between accent similarity and intelligibility was seen for both listener groups.

English listeners showed the same pattern of accent similarity in terms of both vowel spectral qualities and duration as observed by Pinet et al. (2011); their accent was most similar to talkers of their own standard native accent, followed by a regional native accent, and was least similar to a non-native accent. This pattern seems to reflect the level of variation between the regional and non-native accents and the listeners' standard accent; vowels in both accents contain variations compared to the standard accent, but in a regional accent these are based on a broadly similar sound system as the standard accent, and are consistently produced (Wells, 1982a), whereas variations in non-native accents may be more severe as they are based on the interaction of the L1 and L2 sound systems (e.g.: Flege et al., 2003), and can also be rather inconsistent both within and between speakers (Flege et al., 1997; Wade, Jongman, & Sereno, 2007), leading to greater acoustic-phonetic distance to a standard accent.

Spanish listeners showed slightly different patterns of accent similarity across the pairings depending on the measure used. In terms of vowel spectral qualities, the accent of the Spanish listeners was closest to the SpE accent, followed by SSBE and finally the GE accent. As both the Spanish listeners' and talkers' representations of the English sound system are influenced the Spanish vowel system, and they also have similar English experiences (they were all studying the same English degree course, in the same Spanish city with little exposure to native English accents), it would be expected that the similarity of this talker-listener pairing would be highest. The similarity between the Spanish listeners' accent and those of the talkers is in contrast to the pattern shown by the more experienced French listeners in Pinet et al.'s study (2011), whose accent was most similar to that of the SSBE talkers. However, Pinet et al.'s listeners were living in London and so would have had much more experience with the SSBE accent than our Spanish listeners, which may have

helped them develop a more native-like accent. In spite of these differences, in both cases the pattern of similarity across talker-listener pairings was consistent with the intelligibility of the accents for the two listener groups. The similarity of accents based on vowel duration was slightly different, with Spanish listeners' vowels equally similar in duration to both the SpE and the SSBE accents, and least similar to GE. This finding that the Spanish listeners' accent was more similar to SSBE in terms of vowel duration than spectral properties may stem from the large spectral differences between the Spanish and English vowel systems; Spanish has only five vowels (Martínez-Celdrán, Fernández-Planas & Carrera-Sabaté, 2003), so usually two or three English vowels can correspond to a single Spanish vowel category, which can cause difficulty distinguishing English vowels (Coe, 2001). In comparison, durational cues may be more salient and so easier for these listeners to acquire.

Although the Spanish listeners have little interaction with native English speakers, most are likely to have learnt English according to an SSBE-based model as teaching materials in Europe are usually based on British English, with mostly SSBE speakers appearing in recordings. This greater familiarity with SSBE may in part account for why it is more similar to the Spanish listeners' accent than GE. In addition, GE differs to SSBE in terms of both spectral and durational features (Scobbie et al., 1999), so GE may be less intelligible than SSBE if the Spanish listeners' interlanguage is comprised of features of the Spanish and SSBE vowel systems.

We also found a strong link between accent similarity and intelligibility across the talker-listener pairings, with accents which were more similar to that of the listeners generally being more intelligible than less similar accents; English listeners found their own SSBE accent to be more intelligible than GE, which was more intelligible than SpE. This same SSBE>GE>SpE pattern was also found for the similarity of the accents to the listeners' own speech, in terms of both vowel spectral properties and duration. Spanish listeners found SpE and SSBE to be equally intelligible and these accents were also equally similar to the listeners' speech in terms of vowel duration. GE was least intelligible to the Spanish listeners and also the most distant from their speech in terms of both measures of accent similarity. This link between accent similarity and intelligibility may then suggest that listeners process all accents in a fairly inflexible manner, whereby all input is recognised through stored representations related to the listener's own accent. If an accent matches that of the

listener, or is quite acoustically-phonetically close to it, mapping input to these representations should be easy, and so the accent is more intelligible. For an accent that is more distant to that of the listener, mismatches between the input and the stored representations would make the mapping process more difficult, so word recognition is harder and the accent is less intelligible. Both vowel spectral and durational similarity were able to account for unique variance in accent intelligibility, showing that both cues are important in the mapping process.

Although both listener groups showed a positive relationship between accent similarity and intelligibility, the strength of this relationship was much weaker for the Spanish listeners. This likely reflects the lack of clear distinction between the accents in terms of their similarity to the Spanish listeners' accent (Figure 4.3). There are also additional difficulties posed by listening in an L2 that may influence the relationship between accent similarity and intelligibility. For example, incomplete knowledge of the L2 sound system and the influence of L1 knowledge can lead to listeners having difficulties discriminating some L2 contrasts. This could then mean that the perceptual similarity of a talker's accent to a non-native listener's own accent may also contribute to its intelligibility; phonetic variations in a non-native accent may not impede word recognition by non-native listeners if these variations are perceptually confusable for features of the listeners' own accent or a native accent (Weber et al., 2011). If input is perceptually similar to a listener's accent, it may then be easier to map onto stored representations than other variations which are not perceptually confusable but are similarly different in terms of acoustic-phonetic properties. In addition, although listeners tend to become more accurate in both perceiving and producing L2 sounds as their proficiency develops, it seems that gains in perceptual accuracy may often occur before equivalent improvements in production (e.g.: Bradlow, Pisoni, Akahane-Yamada & Tokhura, 1997; Flege et al., 1997). Finally, non-native listeners are also disproportionately affected by the presence of background noise (Cooke et al., 2008). These factors may also contribute to the weaker link between accent intelligibility and similarity seen for non-native listeners.

Overall, accent similarity was able to account for between a third and three-quarters of the variance in accent intelligibility, depending on the listener group. Along with the findings of similar studies (Oder et al., 2013; Pinet et al., 2011; Wright & Souza, 2012), these data provide further support for the hypothesis that talker-listener

accent similarity is an important contributor to accent intelligibility in noise. If this is the case, it may suggest that listeners are rather inflexible and process all accents through stored representations relevant to their own accents. This would be consistent with findings that listeners show rather little change in their vowel best exemplar locations (Evans & Iverson, 2007) and don't seem to form new representations relating to a regional accent that differs to their own (Sumner & Samuel, 2009) even after extensive exposure to an accent.

However, listeners do show some flexibility in their speech perception, and are able to retune phoneme category boundaries in response to specific variations in speech. For example, when either /f/ or /s/ is replaced with an ambiguous fricative midway between /f/ and /s/, listeners are able to retune the relevant /f/ or /s/ category (depending on which phoneme is replaced) to accommodate this ambiguous phoneme (McQueen, Cutler & Norris, 2006; Norris, McQueen & Cutler, 2003). This category retuning occurs even when the manipulation appears in the context of a global non-native accent (Reinisch & Holt, 2014), and has also been observed in response to systematic variations in vowel height (Maye, Ashlin & Tannenhaus, 2008). Nonetheless, this flexibility in processing is limited; category retuning seems to be largely talker-specific, or at least limited to speakers whose voice is similar to that of the speaker listeners were initially exposed to (Eisner & McQueen, 2005; Maye et al., 2008), and does not occur if the variation is a context-specific dialect feature rather than a context-independent feature of a talker's speech (Kraljic, Brennan & Samuel, 2008). In light of these findings, this surface flexibility may be a mechanism to allow listeners to cope with idiosyncratic features of individual talkers' speech, rather than reflecting a more general level of flexibility in accent accommodation. The retuning of categories also generalises to new words where the variation was not previously heard, showing this flexibility is not a result of the formation of new stored representations to accommodate these variations (McQueen et al., 2006). This may also suggest that listeners continue to process the variant forms through their own stored presentations.

Although these findings suggest that listeners may show a long-term inflexibility in their processing of accented speech, in some cases listeners seem able to process multiple accents with ease, at least at a surface level (Adank et al., 2009; Sumner & Samuel, 2009). As such, accent familiarity may contribute to determining accent

intelligibility across talker-listener pairings along with accent similarity. Listeners may process all accents through stored representations relating to their own accent, with the level of similarity between accents giving a 'baseline' intelligibility for the talker's accent based on how difficult input is to map to the listener's existing stored representations. Familiarity with an accent may then allow listeners to learn how to better perform this mapping process, allowing some perceptual flexibility in processing accented speech. For example, in the lexically guided category retuning studies described above, listeners could use the context that the variant form appeared in to map it to their own stored representations.

5. Chapter five: Electrophysiological responses to accented speech in quiet

5.1. Introduction

The importance of the talker-listener pairing for the intelligibility of an accent in noise is clear. However, when speech is presented in quiet conditions, this relationship often breaks down, and differences that are robust in noise may not be observed. For example, Adank et al. (2009) found that although English listeners found the unfamiliar Glaswegian accent to be less intelligible than their own SSBE accent in noise, the accents were equally intelligible in quiet. Pinet et al.'s (2011) findings also suggest that native English and French-English bilingual listeners find SSBE, Northern-Irish, French and Korean accents all to be highly intelligible in quiet, even though they show distinct tuning to the SSBE accent in noise (but note that accuracy in quiet was not specifically analysed). For less proficient French speakers, it appears that there is some difference in the intelligibility of the accents in quiet, but this is less pronounced than the pattern seen in noise. Some studies have reported significant differences in the intelligibility of accents in quiet, but in each case other adverse conditions which may impede speech processing were also present; for native listeners, non-native accents may be less intelligible than a native accent in quiet for anomalous sentences (Behrman & Akhund, 2013) or isolated words (Hayes-Harb & Watzinger-Tharp, 2012), as contextual information is not available, and also if the talker has low L2 proficiency (Stibbard & Lee, 2006) which further increases the acoustic-phonetic variation present in the speech.

If differences in accent intelligibility across talker-listener combinations arise only in the presence of background noise or other adverse conditions, this may suggest that processing difficulties caused by accented speech arise specifically as an interaction with noise and are not present in quiet. Background noise masks parts of the speech signal, so listeners must use 'glimpses' of the signal where the SNR is temporarily favourable enough in order to understand speech (Cooke, 2006). While the segmental and suprasegmental variation in accented speech may not be severe enough to disrupt processing in quiet conditions, when listeners have to rely on these glimpses of the speech signal, they may not be able to compensate for this variation, resulting in differing levels of accent intelligibility in noise. However, accent

intelligibility tends to be measured using tasks such as word recognition accuracy scores, or the response times of lexical decision or other speeded judgement tasks. These tasks give only a measure of the outcome of word recognition processes, so it may be possible that accented speech can disrupt processing in quiet conditions, but that the difficulties caused are not severe enough to prevent successful word recognition. This means differences in accent intelligibility in quiet may not be identified by outcome-based tasks unless other adverse conditions are present which further increase processing difficulties and cause word recognition to begin to break down.

Instead of these outcome-based measures of word recognition, there are also online measures which could be useful to investigate accent-related processing difficulties. Eye-tracking studies that give a measure of ongoing word recognition processes suggest that the talker-listener pairing may be influential even in quiet conditions. For example, listeners do not rule out competitors in French-accented English as quickly as in their own American English accent (Trude et al., 2013), and suprasegmental errors in Hungarian-accented Dutch also cause native listeners to be slower to rule out competitors, even after the target word is identifiable based on its segmental properties (Reinsch & Weber, 2012). Word recognition accuracy in both cases was very high (over 95%), which lends support to the hypothesis that processing difficulties related to talker-listener accent pairing are present even in quiet conditions, but are difficult to observe using common behavioural tasks.

Recently, electrophysiological measures (EEG) of word recognition have also been used to further investigate accent related processing difficulties in quiet. There are two particular EEG components related to word recognition that may be influenced by global features of accented speech, rather than specific segmental variations; the Phonological Mapping Negativity (PMN) and the N400 effect. The PMN is a relative negativity occurring around 200-350ms after critical word onset, and is caused by input which mismatches phonological expectations about an upcoming word (e.g.: Connolly & Phillips, 1994; Diaz & Swaab, 2007; Newman & Connolly, 2009). The N400 effect is also a relative negativity, but peaks around 400ms after critical word onset, and is elicited by violations of semantic expectations related to upcoming words (Kutas & Hillyard, 1984). For both the PMN and N400, words which cause greater violations of these expectations lead to more negative responses

Table 8: Situations that may elicit the PMN and N400 effect

	Key word	Phonological mismatch	Semantic mismatch	Effects
I like my	cream			Baseline (fully expected)
coffee with	crime		x	N400
sugar	milk	x		PMN
and...	meat	x	x	PMN & N400

(e.g.: Connolly, Phillips, Stewart & Brake, 1992). Phonological and semantic expectations are created by the context which precedes the critical word, either through priming or more commonly through a highly constrained sentence context that leads listeners to expect a particular word to complete the sentence. Input which does not match this predicted word causes violations of the phonological and semantic expectations created, which gives rises to the PMN and N400 effect (see Table 8 for examples of situations where the PMN and N400 effects may be elicited). These features mean the PMN and N400 are useful components for investigating the presence of accent-related processing difficulties in quiet; if the same sentences are presented in each accent, the extent to which the final key word violates expectations based on the linguistic content of the sentence will be equivalent across accents, so any differences observed in the PMN and N400 effects would then be attributable to features specific to the accent of the talker and would then suggest that the talker-listener accent pairing does influence word recognition in quiet.

Recently, a number of studies have begun to explore the influence of accented speech in quiet on the PMN and N400 effect. In a study focusing on regional accents, Brunellière and Soto-Faraco (2013) found that native Catalan speakers showed clear a PMN and N400 effect in response to phonological and semantic anomalies in their own Eastern accent, and also in the regional Western accent. The PMN appears to be smaller for the regional accent, but the relative sizes of the responses in the two accents were not specifically compared, so we do not know whether the responses actually differ for the two accents. Other studies do provide some evidence that the talker-listener pairing can influence speech processing in quiet conditions. Native listeners have been found to show a smaller PMN in response to a regional accent

compared to their own accent, and an even smaller response to a non-native accent. No difference was found in the N400 effects in response to the listeners' own accent and a regional accent, but responses to a non-native accent were smaller (Goslin et al., 2012). As the non-native accent elicited a smaller PMN and N400, compared to just a smaller PMN for a regional accent, this could suggest that the difficulties caused by a non-native accent are more long-lived and are harder to compensate for. However, it seems that this may not be the case in all situations; Dutch listeners show equivalent N400 effects in response to semantic violations in a native Dutch accent and Turkish-accented Dutch (Hanulíková et al., 2012), and Spanish listeners have exhibited a larger N400 effect in response to violations in a mixed group of non-native accents when compared to a native Spanish accent (Romero-Rivas et al., in press). While inconclusive, these findings do seem to suggest that the talker-listener accent pairing is able to influence the PMN and N400 effects in quiet, and so could reveal differences in accent processing in quiet conditions that are difficult to observe behaviourally.

The aim of this part of the study were to further explore whether talker-listener pairings influences word recognition processes in quiet conditions by investigating the online PMN and N400 responses to different accents. To expand on the limited research conducted so far in this area and explore a wider variety of talker-listener combinations, we presented a standard native (SSBE), regional native (GE) and non-native (SpE) accent to English and Spanish listener groups.

5.2. Methods

5.2.1. Listeners and talkers

The same English and Spanish listeners who participated in the speech in noise task (section 3.2.1.) also completed this EEG task. They also heard the same SSBE, GE and SpE talkers (section 3.2.2.). One English listener's EEG data were excluded due to technical problems.

5.2.2. Procedure

Testing took place at UCL (English listeners) or the University of the Basque Country (Spanish listeners), between one and four days before the speech in noise recognition task. Listeners were presented with 216 predictable and 216 anomalous sentences from the NNSR sentences (from different sentence triplets) in quiet, with

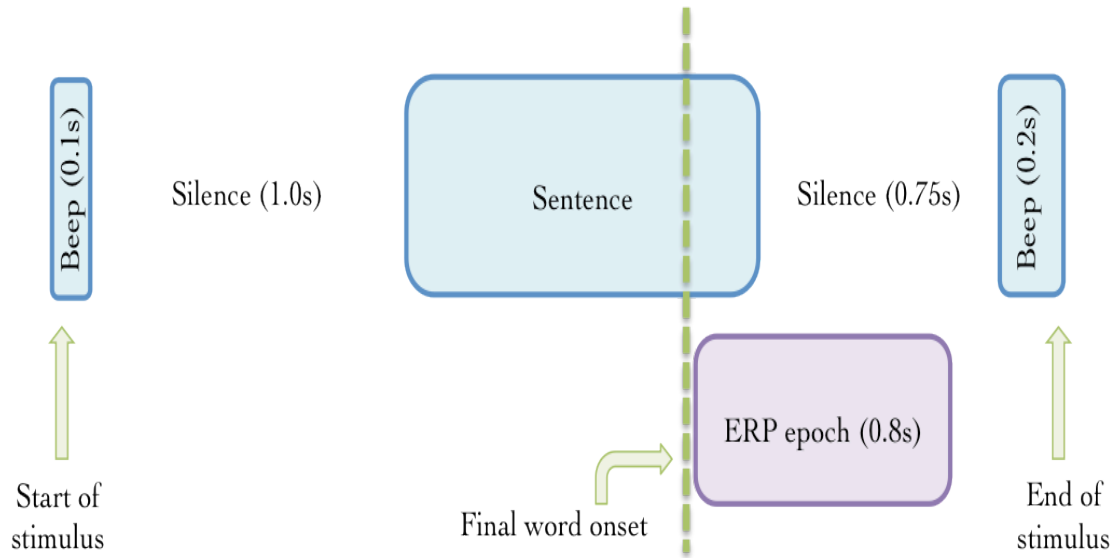
an equal number occurring in each accent. Sentences were presented in a random order, and conditions were counterbalanced so that each sentence appeared in both sentence conditions and in each accent across the experiment. Mean total sentence durations and final keyword durations of the predictable and anomalous sentences in each accent presented were also fairly similar, except for both sentence conditions the GE sentences and final keywords were slightly shorter in duration (Table 9). The speech in noise task used the neutral sentences, so listeners did not hear repeated sentences across the tasks, although listeners heard two sentences from each triplet in different accents across the tasks (e.g.: A0101 in SSBE in the ERP experiment and B0101 in GE in the speech in noise task).

Stimuli were presented binaurally through shielded insert earphones at the same volume for each subject. Each stimulus consisted of a short beep followed by 1000ms of silence and then a sentence. This was followed by 750ms of silence and then a second, longer beep (Figure 5.1). The next stimulus was presented after a response from the participant (see below). The relevant ERP data was recorded during an 800ms epoch time-locked to the onset of the final word of the sentence, so this second silence ensured that the responses were recorded before the next sentence was presented. Participants were asked to blink when they heard the first beep of the stimulus, and to try not to blink again until the second beep to attempt to minimise artifacts relating to eye movement. To ensure participants attended to the sentences, they were asked to decide if the final word of each sentence matched the context, and pressed a corresponding button (labelled “yes” or “no”) on a keyboard held on their lap after the second beep at the end of each stimulus. The next stimulus was presented after this response. Before starting the main task, a short training task with 4 sentences in each accent was given to familiarise participants with the experimental procedure. These sentences were not repeated in the main task. Short breaks were given after every 50 sentences.

5.2.3. EEG methods

EEG recordings were made from 64 Ag-AgCl active electrodes (BioSemi) arranged according to the 10/20 system, along with electrodes placed above and below the left eye and electrodes adjacent to the external canthus of each eye. Data were collected at a sampling rate of 2048Hz, and online referenced to the left mastoid, filtered with a low-pass cut-off of 100Hz and a high-pass cut-off of 0.16Hz. Unless otherwise

Figure 5.1: Diagram showing the structure of stimuli presented in the ERP task and the EEG recording window of interest



Where blue boxes denote the auditory stimulus components presented to participants and the purple box denotes the time window where the relevant EEG data were recorded. The start of this window was time-locked to the onset of the final word of the sentence, marked by the dashed green line

Table 9: Average sentence and final keyword durations of the predictable and anomalous sentences for each accent presented in the EEG task

Predictable Sentences

Accent	Sentence duration (s)	Final keyword duration m(s)
SSBE	2.09 (1.13 – 3.53)	0.51 (0.22 – 1.00)
GE	1.90 (1.08 – 3.57)	0.46 (0.18 – 1.00)
SpE	2.32 (1.20 – 4.19)	0.50 (0.14 – 0.97)

Anomalous Sentences

Accent	Sentence duration (s)	Final keyword duration m(s)
SSBE	2.12 (1.23 – 3.60)	0.52 (0.23 – 0.99)
GE	1.93 (1.20 – 3.36)	0.48 (0.17 – 0.90)
SpE	2.29 (1.33 – 4.04)	0.51 (0.20 – 1.00)

Where values are in the form: mean (min – max)

SSBE = Standard Southern British English, GE = Glaswegian English, SpE = Spanish-accented English

specified, data were analysed using SPM8 (Litvak et al., 2008). Data were re-referenced offline to an electrode on the tip of the nose, high-pass filtered with a cut-off of 0.5Hz, then low-pass filtered with a cut-off of 30Hz before being downsampled to 512Hz. Artifacts related to eye-movements in continuous data were corrected for using independent component analysis (ICA; EEGLAB, Delorme & Makeig, 2004), and then data relating to each sentence was extracted in 1000ms epochs time-locked to the onset of the final keyword (200ms pre-stimulus baseline, 800ms post-stimulus onset). Any trials that still contained artifacts exceeding a threshold of $\pm 150\mu\text{V}$ were rejected (an average of 10.87 trials per English listener and 11.31 trials per Spanish listener). Remaining trials were averaged over each combination of accent and sentence condition for each participant. Grand-average difference waveforms were also calculated for each accent by subtracting responses to predictable sentences (averaged over participants) from those to anomalous sentences.

5.3. Results

Scalpmaps showing grand average responses averaged across the time windows corresponding to the PMN (Figure 5.2a) and N400 effect (Figure 5.2b) for the English and Spanish listeners suggest that there may be some differences in the responses to the three accents in quiet conditions. To investigate the distribution of responses across the scalp, a regional analysis was performed. Grand average difference waveforms for each listener group and accent were first averaged across the time windows corresponding to the PMN (200-350ms) and N400 (350-500ms).

As the responses at neighbouring electrodes are not independent of each other, responses were then averaged over electrodes within nine regions of interest (Figure 5.3) to avoid over-inflating any effects. Mean responses at each ROI were entered into ANOVAs for each listener group and time window separately. During the early time window, English listeners showed a significant effect of ROI on PMN amplitude, $F(8,16)=3.02$, $p=0.0284$, with the strongest responses concentrated over the midline regions and also less strongly over right fronto-central regions. Spanish listeners however did not show a significant effect of ROI. The usual distribution of the PMN is a frontal-central distribution evenly spread over the left and right hemispheres (e.g.: Newman, Connolly, Service & McIvor, 2003), and as we did not find this distribution for either listener group, this may suggest that a PMN effect was not reliably elicited in this study. Turning to the N400 effect, a significant effect

Figure 5.2a: Scalpmaps showing grand-average differences between responses to anomalous and predictable final words in SSBE, GE and SpE for native and non-native listeners during the PMN time window (200-350ms)

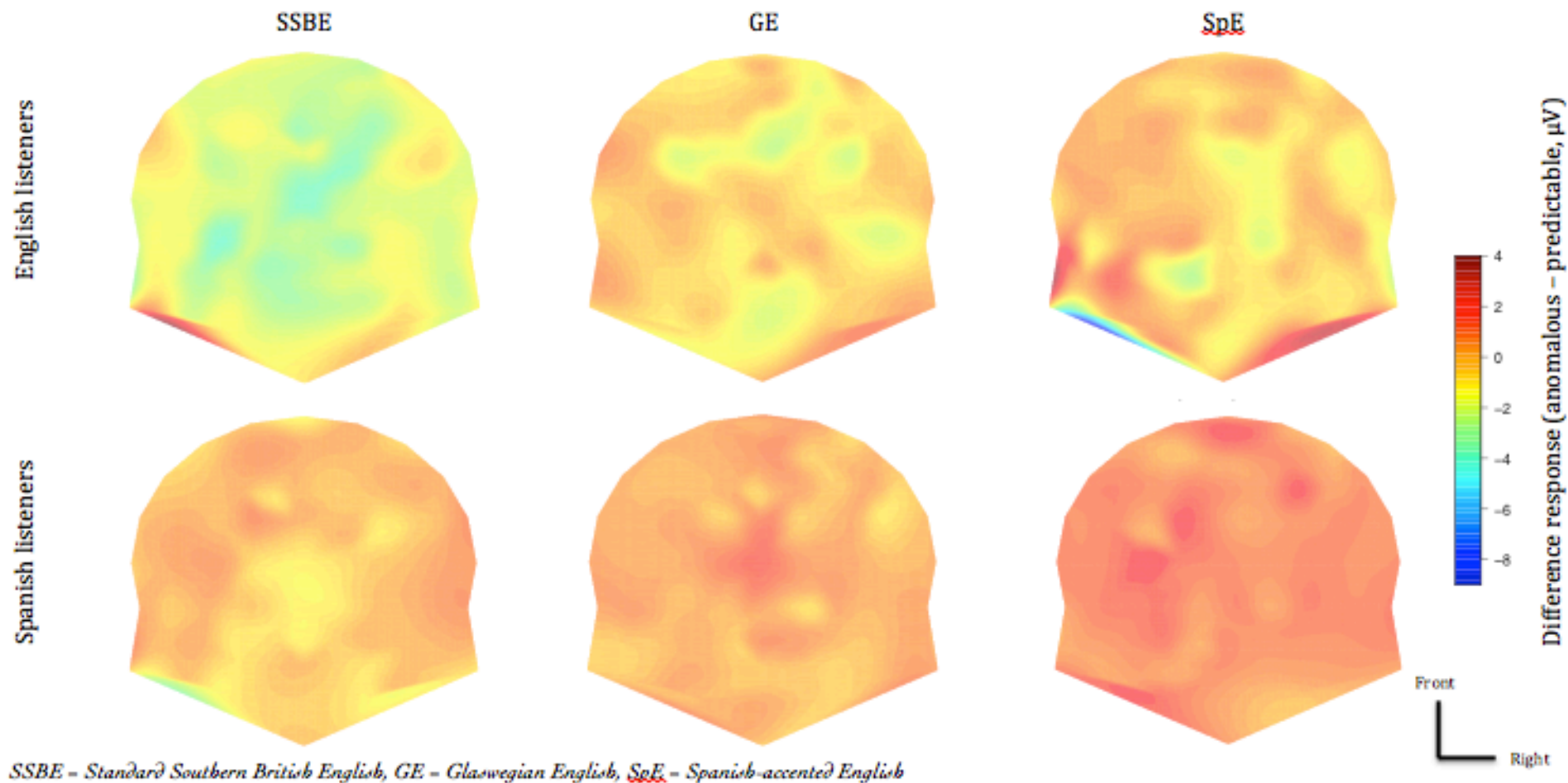


Figure 5.2b: Scalpmaps showing grand-average differences between responses to anomalous and predictable final words in SSBE, GE and SpE for native and non-native listeners during the N400 time window (350-500 ms)

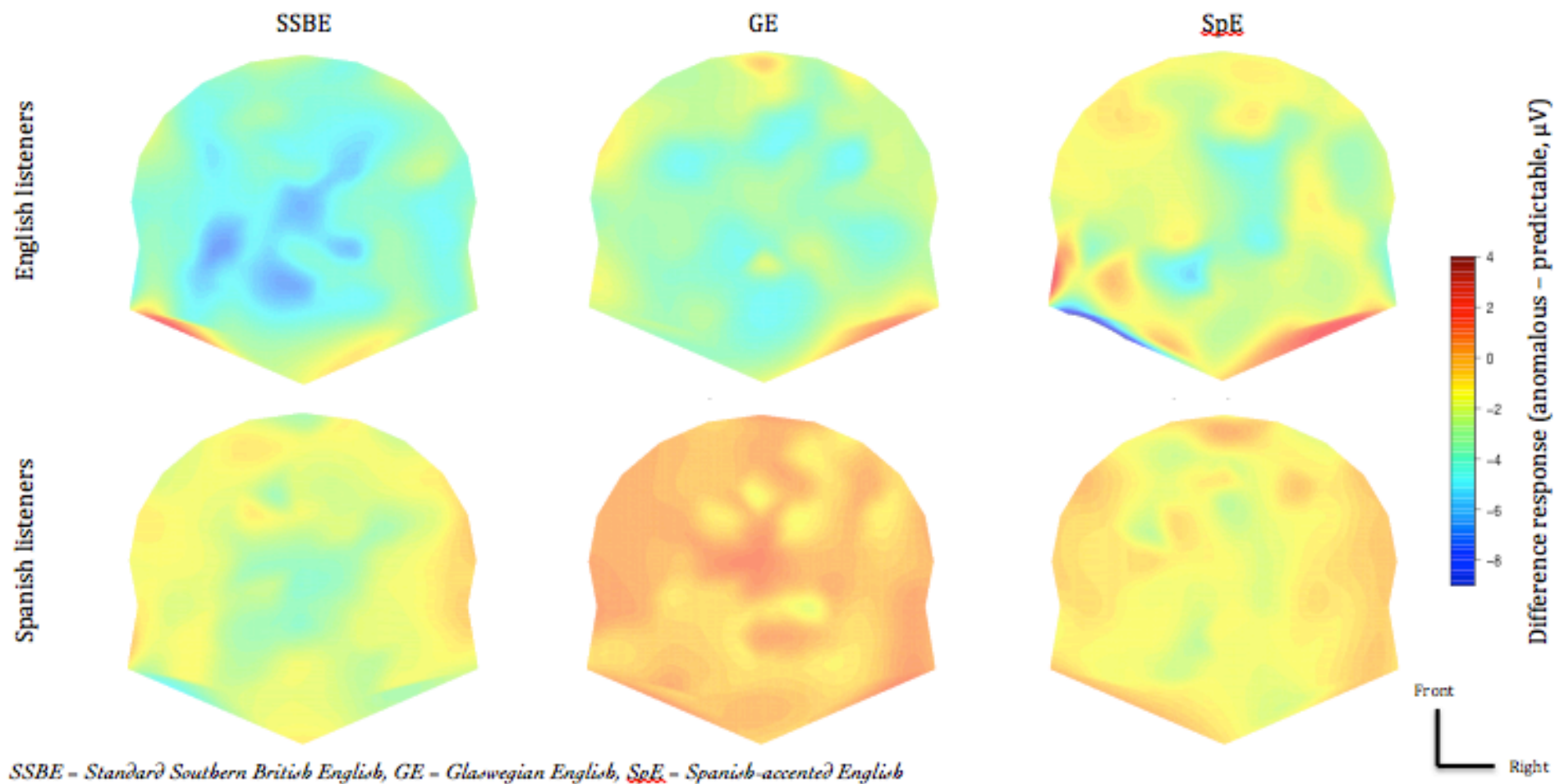
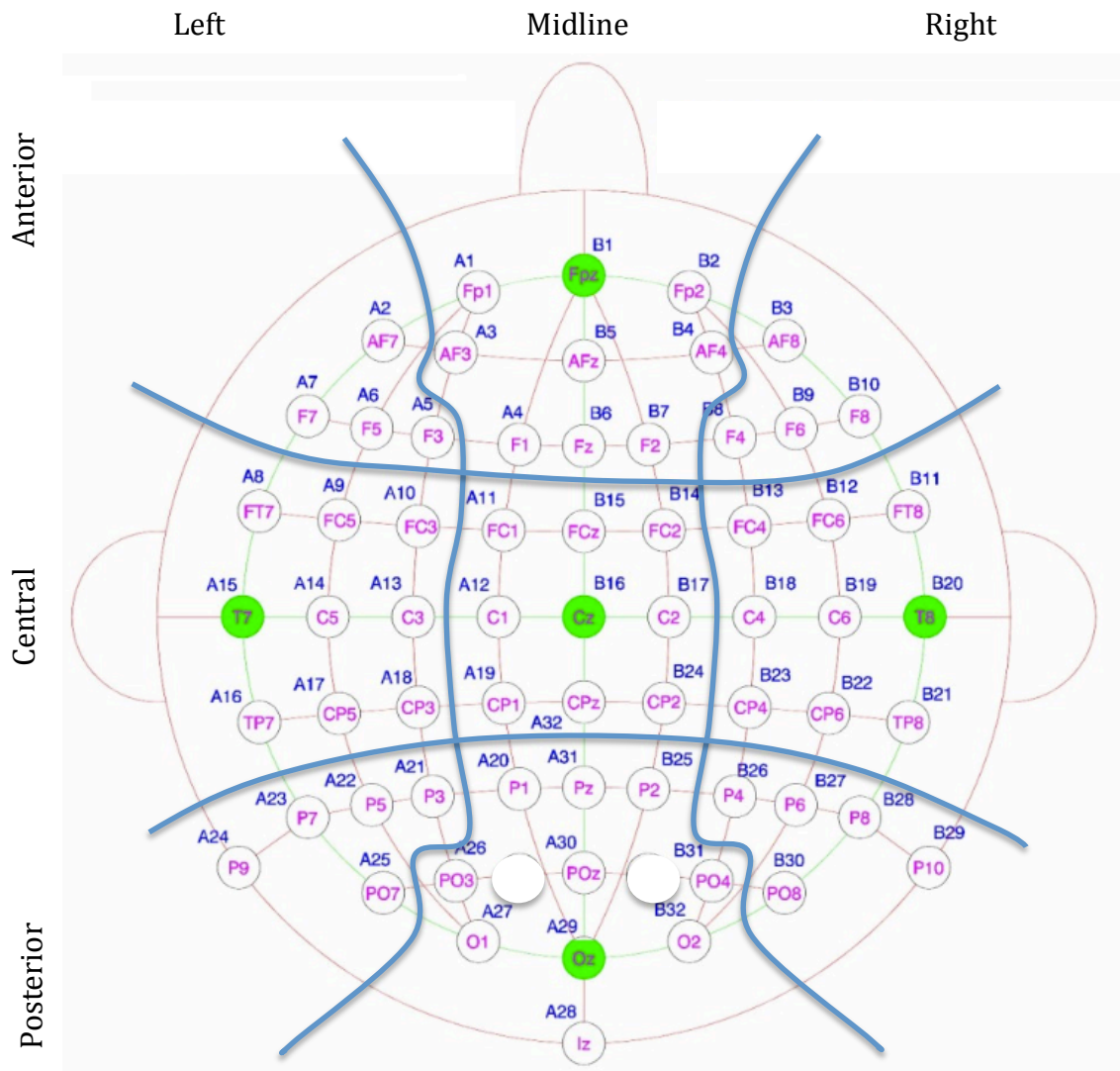


Figure 5.3: Locations of electrodes contained within the nine regions of interest included in initial analyses of ERP scalp distribution



of ROI was seen for both English listeners, $F(8,16)=4.76$, $p=0.0039$, and Spanish listeners, $F(8,16)=3.89$, $p=0.0100$. The strongest effects were exhibited at the midline/central region for English listeners and at the midline/central and midline/parietal regions for Spanish listeners. The N400 is usually concentrated over centro-parietal sites (see Kutas & Federmeier, 2011 for review), so these results suggest the study successfully elicited the N400 effect for both listener groups.

Based on the findings of the regional analyses, further analyses of the PMN and N400 effects in response to the three accents focused on the Cz electrode (Figure 5.4). The PMN effect for each accent was calculated by averaging the amplitude of

responses in each sentence condition across the 200-350ms time window, and then subtracting the mean amplitude for predictable sentences from that of anomalous sentences. The PMN is negative going throughout the response, but during the N400 time window, responses are first negative going, and then begin to return to baseline. Inspection of each participant's difference waveforms at Cz suggested individual differences in the latency of the negative peak and also in the rate of return to baseline, which could obscure differences in the N400 effect between participants if responses are averaged across the whole time window. To avoid this, the N400 effect was calculated based on each participant's average latency across all accents. The latency was determined by first constructing a difference wave for each accent across the 350-500ms time window by subtracting responses to predictable sentences from those to anomalous sentences at each sample, and then averaging across the three accents to give a mean N400 response across all accents. The most negative amplitude within the window was identified, and this time point used as that participant's N400 latency. The N400 effect for each accent was then calculated at this latency by subtracting the amplitude of the response to predictable sentences at that time point from the response to anomalous sentences. PMN and N400 effect amplitudes were then entered into separate linear mixed-effects models containing the fixed effects of accent and listener group (with their interaction term) and by-participant random intercepts.

5.3.1. PMN (200-350ms)

The PMN effect at Cz by accent for each listener group can be seen in Figure 5.5. Significant effects of accent, $F(2, 93)=6.04$, $p=0.0034$, and listener group, $F(1,93)=4.94$, $p=0.0286$, were found, with larger responses for English listeners than for Spanish listeners. No significant interaction between the terms was found.

Responses seemed rather small (Figure 5.5), so to explore the PMN effect further, average amplitudes in response to the anomalous and predictable sentences over the 200-350ms time window were entered separately into another mixed effects model, with sentence type, listener group and accent as fixed effects and by-participant random intercepts. No significant main effects were found, but significant two-way interactions were seen between sentence type and accent, $F(2,155)=6.12$, $p=0.003$, sentence type and listener group, $F(1,155)=5.01$, $p=0.0275$, and accent and listener group, $F(2,155)=6.47$, $p=0.0020$. Pairwise comparisons (Bonferroni-corrected)

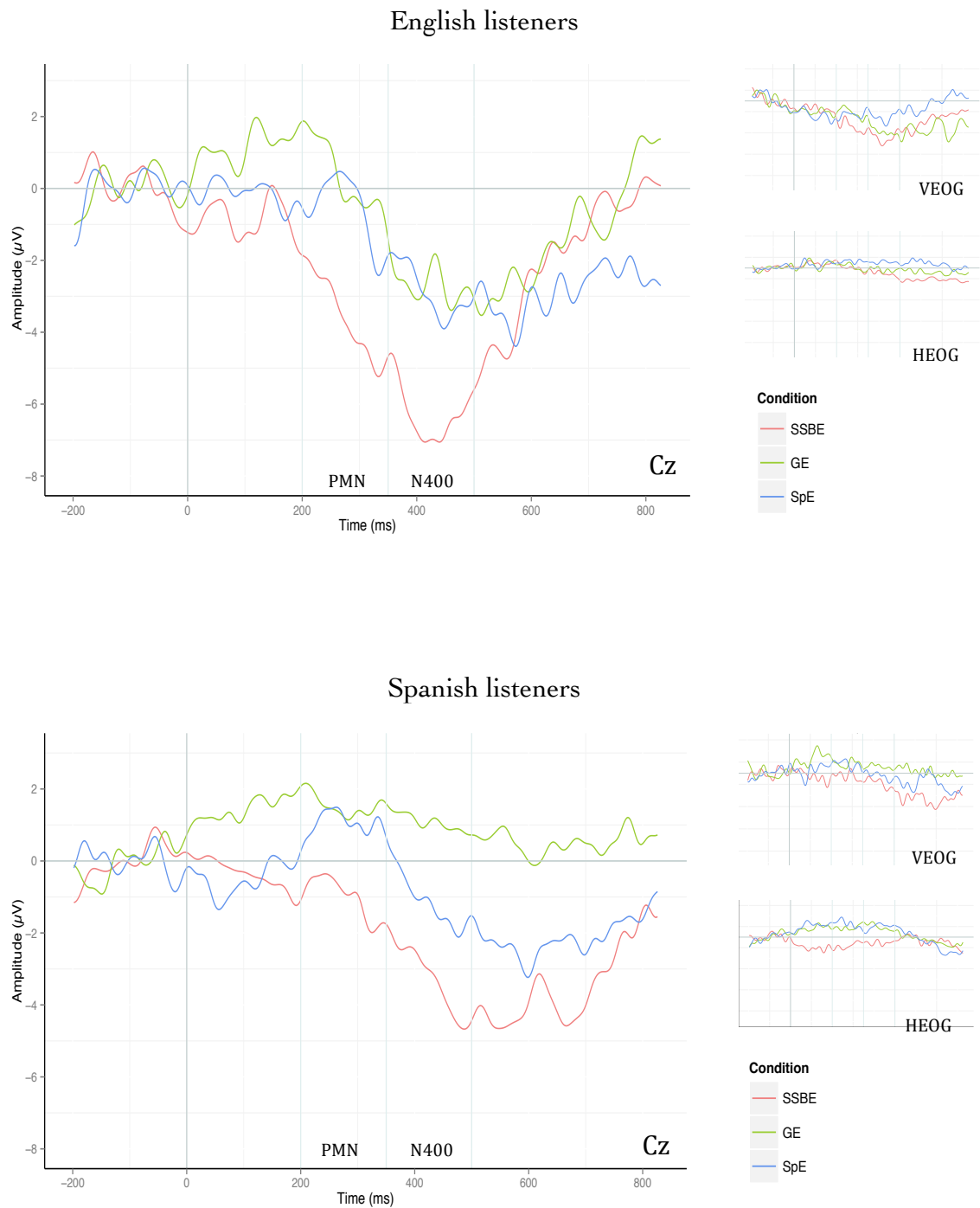
showed that these interactions arise as the only significant difference between responses to anomalous and predictable key words occurred in response to SSBE for English listeners ($p=0.0017$). This means that a significant PMN effect is seen only for the talker-listener pairing of SSBE accent-English listener, suggesting that there may need to be a match between talker and listener accent to elicit a PMN response. This is consistent with the weak ROI results discussed above.

5.3.2. N400 (350-500ms)

The average latency of the N400 differed between the two groups; 434ms post final word onset for the English listeners, compared to 468ms for the Spanish listeners, $t(62)=-5.21$, $p<0.0001$. The N400 effect by accent for each listener group is shown in Figure 5.6. Again, significant effects of accent, $F(2, 93)=8.20$, $p=0.0005$, and listener group, $F(1, 93)=8.17$, $p=0.0052$, were found, with no significant interaction. Overall, Spanish listeners showed smaller N400 effects compared to the English listeners, but both listener groups show the same general pattern in N400 magnitude; the largest N400 effect was in response to the SSBE accent, followed by the SpE accent and a weaker still N400 for the GE accent. In both cases, the N400 effect response to the SE accent is significantly larger than that for the GE accent (English listeners, $p=0.0267$; Spanish listeners, $p=0.0010$). The response to the SpE accent is in between those to the SSBE and GE accents for English listeners, and is not significantly different to either, but for the Spanish listeners it is more similar to the N400 effect for the SSBE accent, and is also significantly larger than the response to the GE accent ($p=0.0393$).

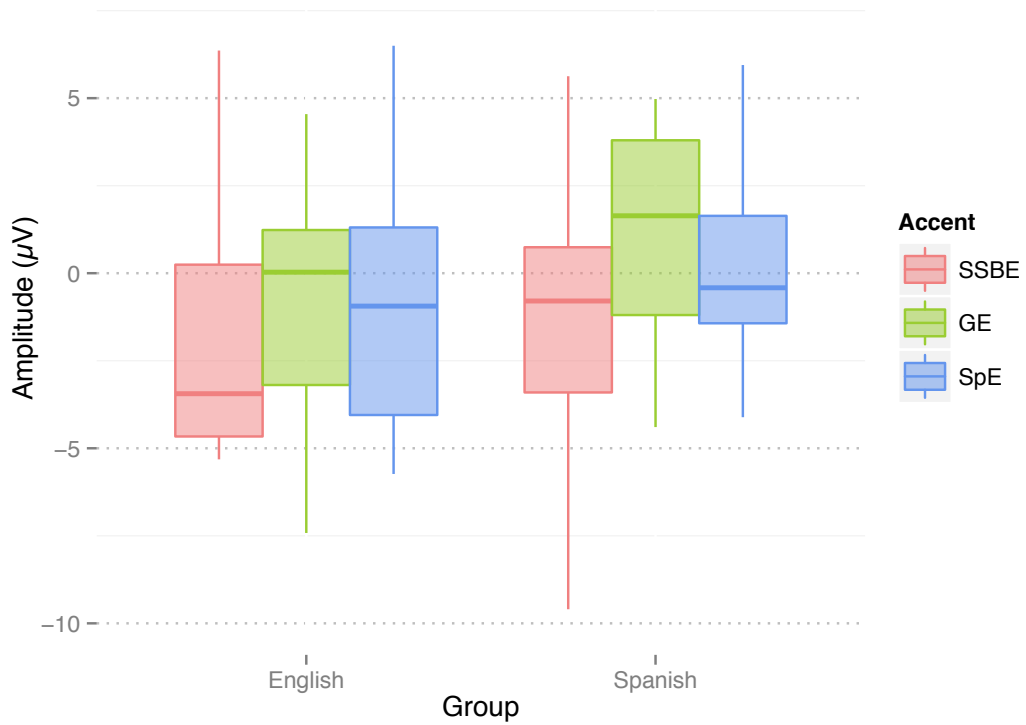
To explore the N400 effect further, amplitudes for anomalous and predictable sentences at each participants' N400 latency were entered into another mixed effect model with sentence type, listener group and accent as fixed effects and by-participant random intercepts. A significant main effect of sentence type was found, $F(1,155)=62.93$, $p<0.0001$, with more negative responses to anomalous final keywords. Significant two-way interactions were also found between sentence type and accent, $F(2,155)=7.57$, $p=0.0007$, and between sentence type and group, $F(1,155)=7.54$, $p=0.0067$, with larger differences in responses to predictable and anomalous sentences for English listeners. Bonferroni-corrected pairwise comparisons showed significant differences between responses to anomalous and predictable keywords for all accents for English listeners (all $p<0.05$), and for SSBE

Figure 5.4: Grand-average waveforms showing differences in responses to anomalous and predictable final words in SSBE, GE and SpE for native and non-native listeners



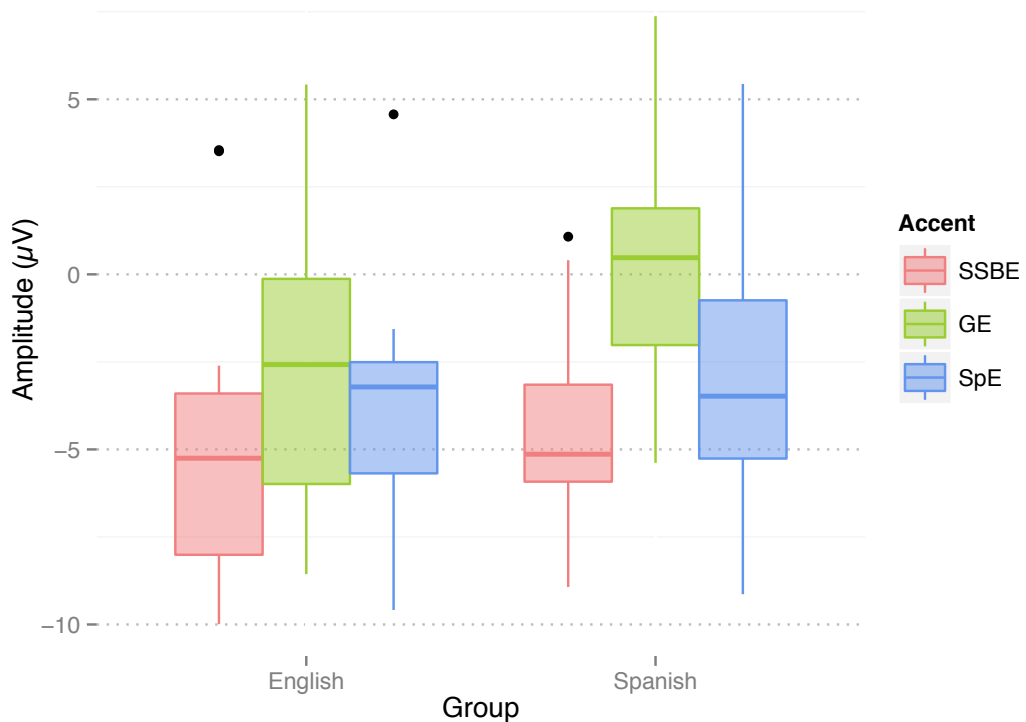
SSBE = Standard Southern British English, GE = Glaswegian English, SpE = Spanish-accented English
VEOG = Vertical electrooculogram, HEOG = Horizontal electrooculogram,

Figure 5.5: PMN responses at Cz to SSBE, GE and SpE in quiet for native and non-native listeners



SSBE = Standard Southern British English, GE = Glaswegian English, SpE = Spanish-accented English

Figure 5.6: N400 responses at Cz to SSBE, GE and SpE in quiet for native and non-native listeners



SSBE = Standard Southern British English, GE = Glaswegian English, SpE = Spanish-accented English

for Spanish listeners ($p < 0.001$). The N400 effect in response to SpE for the Spanish listeners was marginally significant ($p = 0.0764$), but no effect was found in response to GE ($p = 1.0000$, n.s.). As an N400 effect was seen for all talker-listener combinations except for the GE accent-Spanish listener pairing, this suggests that the N400 effect may be more flexibly influenced by the talker-listener accent combination than the PMN. The N400 effect for Spanish listeners in response to SpE was weak, but this may reflect the slightly small sample size in this study and may have been more robust if more participants had been tested.

5.3.3. The relationship between the N400 and accent intelligibility

To further investigate the relationship between EEG responses and accent intelligibility, average word recognition scores in quiet and in noise were entered into separate linear mixed effects models with the fixed effect of N400 response amplitude and by-listener group random intercepts. PMN amplitude was not entered into these models as we did not find a reliable PMN for most talker-listener pairings.

N400 amplitude showed a significant relationship with accent intelligibility in quiet, $F(1, 88) = 5.49$, $p = 0.0214$ and also accent intelligibility in noise, $F(1, 75) = 6.92$, $p = 0.0103$. However, N400 effect size was able to account for more variance in intelligibility when speech was presented in quiet, $R^2 = 0.091$, than in noise, $R^2 = 0.039$. In both cases, the amount of variance in intelligibility accounted for by N400 amplitudes was very small, suggesting the N400 reflects only some of the processes which contribute to accent intelligibility.

5.4. Discussion

The aim of this study was to investigate whether an influence of talker-listener pairing could be observed in quiet conditions. To do this, we compared English and Spanish listeners' EEG responses to SSBE, GE and SpE accents during time windows corresponding to the PMN and N400 effect. These responses are elicited by phonological and semantic anomalies, respectively (e.g.: Connolly & Philips, 1994), but as the same linguistic content was presented in each accent, any resulting differences in the PMN and N400 for the listener groups could then be attributed to properties of the speech, rather than to sentence content. We found overall effects of listener background and talker accent on the presence and amplitude of the PMN and N400 effect, with smaller overall responses by Spanish listeners and to the GE

and SpE accents.

The PMN seems to be particularly dependent on a match in the talker-listener combination, even in quiet conditions. We found a reliable PMN response only for the SSBE accent-English listener pairing, suggesting that even if accented speech is highly intelligible in quiet, earlier phonological processing stages can be severely affected by mismatches between the talker's accent and that of the listener. However, there seem to be some situations where a mismatching accent can elicit a PMN, as Brunellière and Soto-Faraco (2013) found a clear PMN response for the listeners' own accent and also a regional accent. The distinction between these accents seems to be based on quite minor differences in the application of vowel reduction, so in this case the regional accent may be similar enough to the listeners' own accent to be processed in a similar way and also elicit a PMN response. This study did find some evidence that listeners do not form fine phonological expectations in the regional accent though, as a PMN was not elicited when the accent changed from the regional to the listeners' own accent on the final word of the sentence, but was elicited with the reverse manipulation. Goslin et al. (2012) also reported differences in responses during the time window corresponding to the PMN for regional and non-native accents compared to the listeners' accent. However, the methodology used differs to that of the current study and other ERP studies mentioned; this study measured absolute responses to fairly neutral sentences rather than using the more standard methodology which is to calculate the relative differences between responses to anomalous and predictable words. This makes it difficult to compare the findings of the current study to Goslin et al.'s (2012) findings.

During the later time window, we found that Spanish listeners showed a longer latency of the N400 effect than English listeners. This is consistent with the findings of a number of other studies, and may reflect the greater difficulty of speech processing for non-native listeners (e.g.: Hahne, 2001; Newman, Tremblay, Nichols, Neville & Ullman, 2012; Weber-Fox & Neville, 1996). Spanish listeners also showed smaller N400 effects overall than the English listeners, a pattern which again has also been found previously (auditory N400: Hahne, 2001; Hahne & Friederici, 2001; visual N400: Martin et al., 2013; Newman et al., 2012). Despite these group differences, we found very similar patterns of responses for both listener groups, with the largest N400 effects overall in response to the SSBE accent, followed by SpE and

finally the GE accent. That the Spanish listeners also showed this pattern is interesting, as it may suggest that listeners form expectations based on SSBE, rather than their own SpE accent. This in turn could suggest that the listeners are beginning to tune their English word representations to a native accent, even though they are not able to produce a native-like accent. The N400 effect also seems to be more robust to accented speech than the PMN, with responses observed for all pairings except the GE accent for Spanish listeners. The greater flexibility of N400 effect responses across the talker-listener pairings than seen for the PMN may suggest that lexical integration processes are better able to accommodate differences among accents than phonological processes. N400 amplitudes also showed closer links to accent intelligibility in quiet than in noise. Together, these findings provide further support that the talker-listener accent pairing influences word recognition processes in quiet, even though this is hard to observe using behavioural methods. It should be noted that our findings differ to those of some previous studies; Goslin et al. (2012) found equivalent responses to the listeners' own accent and a regional accent, with smaller responses to a non-native accent (using the same methodology as described for the PMN), but Romero-Rivas et al. (in press) found larger responses to non-native accents than the listeners' own accent and Hanulíková et al. (2012) did not find any differences in N400 effect size in response to a native or a non-native accent. These inconsistencies could result from the specific talker-listener pairings in the studies, or perhaps from differences in methodology such as differences in the number of talkers appearing in the studies or differences in methods of calculating the N400 effect. However, even with the different patterns of results across the studies, findings do seem to suggest that there are differences in accent processing in quiet conditions.

In general, PMN and N400 effects are elicited in response to input which conflicts with expected phonological or semantic forms, respectively. The conflicting input may be harder to map onto activated lexical candidates than the expected form, meaning lexical integration is more effortful and resulting in larger responses (Brown & Hagoort, 1993). Applying this to the current study, acoustic-phonetic variation in accented speech could be expected to mean that anomalous words cause greater conflict with expected forms than in a standard accent, causing further lexical integration difficulties and increasing PMN and N400 effects. However, the opposite pattern was observed in this study, and PMN and N400 effects for accented speech

were smaller than responses to a standard accent, and in some cases were not observed at all. This could instead suggest that listeners form weaker expectations in response to accented speech, meaning that predictable words are less expected and anomalous words are less unexpected than in a standard accent, leading to smaller PMN and N400 effects. Spanish listeners' responses were also smaller than those of English listeners, suggesting that their expectations may also be weakened as a result of listening in an L2. Non-native listeners are less able to use contextual information to recognise words than native listeners (Bradlow & Alexander, 2007; Mayo et al., 1997; Shi, 2014), and also experience more diffuse activation of lexical competitors during word recognition (e.g.: Broersma, 2012; Broersma & Cutler, 2011; Weber & Cutler, 2004), in addition to having incomplete language knowledge of the L2. All these factors may mean that non-native listeners are less able to form fine phonological and semantic expectations about upcoming words than native listeners.

Weaker expectations may be formed about upcoming words in accented speech because the acoustic-phonetic variations in regional and non-native accents compared to a standard accent can cause difficulties identifying words and also lead to lexical uncertainty (see Mattys, Davis, Bradlow & Scott, 2012 for a review). Artificially degraded speech that causes similar processing difficulties elicits reduced N400 effects compared to clear speech, with less intelligible speech generally leading to smaller responses (Aydelott, Dick & Mills, 2006; Boulenger, Hoen, Jacquier & Meunier, 2011; Obleser & Kotz, 2011; Strauß, Kotz & Obleser, 2013). The reduced intelligibility of degraded speech may limit listeners' access to the semantic information in a sentence, meaning the context is less clearly defined. Listeners' semantic expectations about upcoming words will then be weaker, resulting in smaller N400 effects (Aydelott et al., 2006). Phonological expectations may be affected in the same way, as the only study to report findings during the PMN time window found a PMN effect for clear, but not degraded speech (Strauß et al., 2013). Our results generally follow this pattern, with smaller N400 responses to the less intelligible GE and SpE accents than for the SSBE accent, and a reliable PMN seen only for the most intelligible accent, which could suggest expectations are weakened by accented speech in a similar way. However, the accents presented in this study were generally highly intelligible in quiet, and we also found little link between N400 amplitude and accent intelligibility, so it seems unlikely that this is the only mechanism through which accents influence the PMN and N400. However, the GE

accent was difficult for the Spanish listeners to understand even in quiet, so difficulties accessing the content of the sentences could contribute to the lack of PMN and N400 effects seen for this talker-listener pairing.

Listeners' expectations about upcoming words may also be influenced by global knowledge based on a talker's accent. Previous knowledge of a talker's accent can affect listeners' speech perception, with just the suggestion that a speaker has a particular native accent (Hay, Nolan & Drager, 2006; Niedzielski, 1999) or is a non-native speaker (Hu & Lindemann 2009; Rubin, 1992) influencing listeners' judgements, even if the same talker is heard in all "accents". Listeners also seem to expect non-native speech to contain more variation or a greater number of errors compared to a standard native accent; listeners are more tolerant of phonological errors in non-native speech than in native speech (Schmid & Yeni-Komshian, 1999) and process it in less detail (Lev-Ari & Keysar, 2012), and syntactic errors elicit a P600 effect in native speech, but not in non-native speech where they may be less unexpected (Hanulíková et al., 2012). Expectations formed about upcoming words are also influenced by listeners' prior knowledge or biases about a talker; a mismatch between input and expectations based on a speaker's age, gender or social class can elicit N400 effects without a semantic anomaly (e.g.: if a child says "I should stop smoking", Van Berkum, van den Brink, Tesink, Kos & Hagoort, 2008), and smaller N400 effects occur if semantic anomalies are congruent with prior knowledge of a character (e.g.: "The Hulk picked up the lorry", Filik & Leuthold, 2013). It could then be expected that listeners are also influenced by their prior knowledge and biases when forming expectations about accented speech. If listeners expect more variation, they may form less defined expectations about upcoming words in order to accommodate this increased level of ambiguity in accented speech. This would mean that predictable words conform less to expectations and anomalous words violate expectations less, leading to smaller PMN and N400 effects.

Whether weaker expectations arise because of difficulties accessing the context of sentences or due to the influence of listeners' prior experiences of accented speech, our findings suggest that phonological and semantic expectations may also depend on the talker-listener pairing, even in quiet conditions. Phonological expectations were severely affected by accented speech; English listeners showed a clear PMN only for their own SSBE accent and Spanish listeners showed no PMN at all. This could

suggest that listeners may be too uncertain about the phonological variation in unfamiliar regional and non-native accents to be able to form detailed phonological expectations about accents that are different to their own. This requirement that accents either match or be very similar to the listener's own in order to elicit a PMN response (Brunellière & Soto-Faraco, 2013) may also provide further support for the hypothesis that accent similarity is important in determining accent intelligibility. Semantic expectations seem to be more robust across talker-listener pairings, as more flexibility was seen in N400 effects across talker-listener combinations. This may be because semantic forms are less specific to accent than phonological forms, and so may be less affected by mismatches between talker and listener accent.

Forming weaker expectations in relation to accented speech could also be a compensatory mechanism to accommodate the ambiguity associated with accented speech, possibly by limiting the occurrence of costly repair processes. Minor variation or errors in accented speech may not inhibit successful communication, and as these errors may not necessarily require repair, weaker expectations could allow them to be overlooked (Hanulíková et al., 2012) in order to maintain efficiency in processing. Less clearly defined expectations could also allow more severe variations in speech to occur without triggering repair processes. For example, if a speaker uses "glass" when "cup" would be correct, repair may not be necessary if a listener expects "something to drink from" rather than something more specific to the features of a cup, as the input can still be mapped to this less constrained representation (Lev-Ari & Keysar, 2012). Listeners have also been found to show slight delays in word recognition processes if a signal is unreliable, because confidence in having correctly identified the input is weaker (McQueen & Huetting, 2012; Trude et al., 2013). This delay may allow listeners to avoid prematurely identifying words and then needing to apply repair processes if later input contradicts this judgement. Forming weaker expectations may be analogous to this process, allowing listeners to avoid incorrectly identifying words. While forming weaker expectations about upcoming words may protect listeners from unnecessary repair processes or premature word recognition, this mechanism may still introduce some processing inefficiency. More predictable words are more intelligible than neutral or anomalous words (e.g.: Bradlow & Alexander, 2007; Clopper, 2012; Kalikow et al., 1977), possibly as having strong expectations about upcoming words facilitates the activation of relevant lexical candidates and means input is more easily mapped to representations of the

predictable word (Aydelott & Bates, 2004). Weaker expectations may mean that anomalous input is less disruptive to lexical integration, but would also mean that congruent input does not benefit from this support given by stronger expectations, and word recognition may be comparatively slower and more effortful.

To return to our aim of investigating whether the influence of talker-listener pairing is also important in quiet conditions, the reduced PMN and N400 effects we observed for accented speech in quiet (along with the weaker expectations we hypothesise are associated with them) suggest that this is the case. Phonological processes reflected in the PMN seem to be reliant on a talker and listener sharing the same L1 accent, but lexical integration processes, reflected in the N400, show a similar pattern to the intelligibility of accents across the talker-listener pairings in quiet, with smaller responses (and more difficulties) for less intelligible accents. These difficulties may relate to a reduced efficiency of word recognition processes, and so do not necessarily prevent word recognition if there are no further adverse listening conditions present. This could explain why we could observe accent related difficulties with the online EEG measures, but accent intelligibility in quiet remained high.

6. Chapter six: General discussion

The findings of this research have added to our understanding of the mechanisms of how talkers' and listeners' backgrounds interact to influence accent intelligibility. Findings provide further evidence to support the contribution of accent similarity across talker-listener combinations to accent intelligibility in noise, with accent similarity in terms of vowel spectral qualities and duration able to account for variance in accent intelligibility. This relationship was observed for native and non-native listeners, but was weaker for non-native listeners, suggesting other factors may also contribute to accent intelligibility for this group. Online EEG measures of word recognition processes also showed that the influence of talker-listener pairing was present in quiet conditions and so did not arise specifically as an interaction with difficulties caused by background noise. Listeners' ability to form phonological expectations about upcoming words was severely affected by mismatches in talker-listener accent, with a PMN response elicited only by the English listeners' own SSBE accent. Semantic expectations were less severely affected by a mismatching accent, but difficulties seemed to remain with weaker responses to regional and non-native accents.

Previous research has proposed that different patterns of intelligibility across talker-listener pairings reflect listeners' differing levels of familiarity with the talkers' accents (e.g., Adank et al., 2009). As listeners become more familiar with a media-standard accent, they may be able to develop multiple stored phonological representations relating to their own accent and also this standard accent (Sumner & Samuel, 2009). This would be consistent with exemplar-based models of word recognition such as MINERVA (Hintzman, 1986) or the exemplar-resonance model (Johnson, 2006) where multiple exemplars of each word are stored in order to account for the high level of variability in speech. Input is then compared to these exemplars, with matching exemplars activated in order to retrieve the relevant conceptual representation. As the level of activation depends on the level of similarity between the input and stored exemplars (Hintzman, 1986; Johnson, 2006), if familiarity with an accent allows listeners to form accent-specific representations, there will be a better match between input in that accent and stored exemplars, leading to stronger activation and thus easier word recognition.

However, listeners do not always have sufficient flexibility to form multi-accent stored representations; Sumner and Samuel (2009) found that while speakers with a typical New York accent store representations in both the standard rhotic form and the regional non-rhotic form, New Yorkers who produce the more standard rhotic forms store representations only of this rhotic form, even though they are highly familiar with the regional non-rhotic form. This suggests that forming accent-specific representations may be very difficult for listeners to achieve, even with extensive exposure. Sumner and Samuel (2009) suggest that listeners may need this extensive exposure to an accent in early childhood; the typical New Yorkers would have received exposure to non-rhotic forms at home, along with rhotic forms through the media, but rhotic New Yorkers would have received much less exposure to non-rhotic forms as they heard rhotic forms at home, and non-rhotic forms are less represented in the media. If this very early exposure is required to form multi-accent representations, most listeners would never be able to form multiple representations, suggesting that familiarity with an accent may not influence accent intelligibility by allowing new exemplars to be formed.

Instead of accent familiarity being the main determiner of accent intelligibility, the similarity of accents across talker-listener pairings also seems to be influential (e.g., Pinet et al., 2011). In this study, we observed the same patterns of accent intelligibility and similarity across our talker-listener pairings, which could support this hypothesis. A greater role of accent similarity would suggest listeners are more inflexible and process accents by mapping multiple variations onto a single abstract representation based on the listener's own accent (Sumner & Samuel, 2009). The general premise of abstract models of word recognition such as TRACE (McClelland & Elman, 1986), Shortlist (Norris, 1994) and Merge (Norris, McQueen & Cutler, 2000) is similar to that of the exemplar based models described above; input is compared to stored representations, and units that match the input are activated. Competition between activated units leads to eventual lexical retrieval. The difference between the models is the nature of the stored forms - instead of multiple episodic memory traces for each unit, in the abstract models representations have been stripped of surface variation and are stored as an abstract representation. The similarity of a talker's accent to that of the listener could then influence intelligibility based on the ease of mapping the accented input onto the listener's stored phonological representations. Input in a similar accent is easier to recognise as

corresponding to a particular stored unit, be that feature-based representations, as in TRACE (McClelland & Elman, 1986) or phonemes, as in Shortlist (Norris, 1994) or Merge (Norris et al., 2000) than input which is more acoustically-phonetically distant, which may not be recognised, or may be misidentified. This more efficient mapping to stored representations would then make word recognition easier in more similar accents.

ERP findings in this study may also suggest that listeners only store representations relating to their own accent. The only reliable PMN effect found was in response to SSBE for English listeners, suggesting that listeners are only able to form fine-grained phonological expectations in their own accent. This inflexibility may reflect the underlying nature of their stored phonological representations, as multiple representations could be expected to allow listeners to adapt their expectations based on accent. Brunellière & Soto-Faraco (2013) found that if a regional accent is similar enough to that of the listeners, they may be able to form phonological expectations, leading to a PMN in response to mismatching input. However, no PMN was elicited in another part of the study where the final word of the sentence changed from the regional accent into the listeners' own accent, but a clear PMN was seen in the reverse situation. This asymmetry may suggest that the expectations formed about upcoming words in the regional accent are still based on stored representations specific to their own accent.

While these findings show that the level of similarity between a talker and listener's accent can influence the accent intelligibility, the contribution of accent familiarity cannot be completely discounted as listeners are able to use knowledge of particular accent features to aid speech perception (e.g., Dahan, Drucker & Scarborough, 2008; Oder et al., 2013) and can quickly adapt to unfamiliar accents (e.g., Bradlow & Bent, 2008; Clarke & Garrett, 2004). This could provide support for a hybrid model of word recognition, incorporating elements of both abstract and exemplar-based models. Goldinger (2007) has proposed a hybrid 'complementary learning system' containing a stable cortical network of abstract representations along with a fast-learning hippocampal network that is able to quickly form episodic memories in order to accommodate idiosyncratic variation. When listeners encounter a new accent, they can use the hippocampal network to form short-lived traces to aid word recognition, which could account for listeners' ability to rapidly adapt to a previously

unfamiliar accent. Dahan et al. (2008) proposed that listeners adapt to a specific accent feature by altering their stored representations to incorporate this variation, but this could also have occurred by recruiting this fast-learning hippocampal network. If a listener has more long-term exposure to an accent, traces in the hippocampal network can interact with the cortical network to affect the listeners' abstract representations. This could possibly allow representations to encompass multiple accented forms, rather than forming separate accent-specific representations, and may account for Sumner and Samuel's (2009) finding that New Yorkers with a standard rhotic accent are also able to easily process the non-rhotic forms that they have extensive exposure to even though they retain only rhotic stored representations.

A further possibility may be that the acoustic-phonetic similarity between accents determines the 'baseline' intelligibility of an accent for a listener. Familiarity with an accent may then allow listeners to build on this baseline level of intelligibility. This could be consistent with a recently proposed model of word recognition that takes a rather different approach than the activation-based models described above. Instead of matching input to stored abstract representations based on the sequences of phonemes contained in the input, in Shortlist B (Norris & McQueen, 2008) the input is phoneme probabilities. This replaces the interaction-activation process in other models with Bayesian judgements of likelihood in order to recognise words, and listeners identify speech based on phoneme likelihoods - their prior knowledge of the likelihood of a phoneme occurring given the specific input. These probabilities of a phoneme's occurrence are then used to estimate the likelihood of a particular word occurring. Phoneme likelihood functions are based on listeners' knowledge of the probability of certain acoustic input being associated with different phonemic categories. For example, input A may be more likely to be interpreted as /s/ than input B, and so the phoneme likelihood for /s/ will be higher for input A. If a talker's accent is very similar to a listener's own accent, the listener's knowledge of phoneme likelihoods may apply well to the talker's accent. However, if the accent is more acoustically-phonetically distant, the phoneme likelihoods may not fit well, making word recognition more difficult. Familiarity with an accent may contribute to accent intelligibility by allowing listeners to update their knowledge of phoneme likelihoods to incorporate regular variation that they encounter in accented forms. This could account for the ability of listeners to learn to interpret an ambiguous segment as

either /f/ or /s/ depending on its lexical context (McQueen et al., 2006; Norris et al., 2003). Listeners may have updated their likelihood functions of the relevant phoneme to have greater density corresponding to the ambiguous input. In this way, listeners may not modify their original representations in response to accented speech, but exposure may allow them to become more skilled at mapping from the accented input to their own representations.

There remain a number of questions this study did not explore which may be interesting avenues for future research. One option would be to investigate the relationship between accent similarity and intelligibility in a more fine-grained manner, as there is generally a lot of variation in talker intelligibility within accent groups as well as between accents. Reanalysing the current data to compare listeners' responses to the four individual talkers of each accent, rather than looking at their responses to the accents in general would allow this to be explored further. If listeners do process all speech through their own representations, links between similarity and intelligibility may be observed even within one accent group. To further investigate the possibility of forming accent-specific phonological representations, it would be interesting to extend this research to a group with long-term exposure to another accent, as listeners in this study were largely unfamiliar with the accents that did not match their own. One such group are Glaswegian listeners, as this group will obviously be highly familiar with GE, but will also have received extensive exposure to SSBE through the media. If Sumner and Samuel's (2009) proposal is correct, these listeners may have had sufficient early exposure to both accents to form multi-accent long-term representations. If this is the case, a weaker relationship between accent similarity and intelligibility could be expected. In terms of ERP data, if listeners have stored representations corresponding to both SSBE and GE, they may be able to form expectations about upcoming words in both accents. This would mean that input in both accents would mismatch less with expectations, leading to less distinction between differences in the PMN and N400 responses to SSBE and GE. However, if listeners continue to interpret both accents through GE-based representations, a PMN may only be observed in response to the GE accent, and the N400 effect may be strongest for GE and the other accents. It may also be interesting to include a group of Spanish listeners who have lived in London for an extended period to see whether they become more tuned to SSBE than SpE, and if this also manifests in EEG responses.

7. References

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Appendix 1: Sentence Recognition Materials

Predictable Sentences			Neutral Sentences			Anomalous Sentences		
A0101	Warm sweaters are made from wool from a	sheep	B0101	Farms have lots of animals like	sheep	C0101	Warm sweaters are made from wool from a	cruise
A0102	The chef used a lot of salt and	pepper	B0102	The chef cooked using a lot of	pepper	C0102	The chef used a lot of salt and	novels
A0103	A large church is called a	cathedral	B0103	The large building over there is a	cathedral	C0103	A large church is called a	diploma
A0104	For breakfast children eat toast or	cereal	B0104	For dinner students sometimes eat	cereal	C0104	For breakfast children eat toast or	literature
A0105	Last night we saw the stars and the	moon	B0105	Some people want to go to the	moon	C0105	Last night we saw the stars and the	hole
A0106	To earn money you need a	job	B0106	To be happy you need a	job	C0106	To earn money you need a	talk
A0107	My children enjoy singing simple	songs	B0107	The students enjoy hearing simple	songs	C0107	My children enjoy singing simple	books
A0108	Beef and chicken are types of	meat	B0108	The man is choosing some nice	meat	C0108	Beef and chicken are types of	crew
A0109	The clothes are cheap because they are on	sale	B0109	Students get most of their clothes in the	sale	C0109	The clothes are cheap because they are on	dirt
A0110	Camels usually live in the	desert	B0110	People don't often live in the	desert	C0110	Camels usually live in the	project
A0111	The light hangs from the	ceiling	B0111	The fly is walking on the	ceiling	C0111	The light hangs from the	ladder
A0112	Remote controls can change the TV	channel	B0112	The children want to watch their favourite	channel	C0112	Remote controls can change the TV	quarter
A0113	Keep your drink cold with some	ice	B0113	Please can you give me some	ice	C0113	Keep your drink cold with some	age
A0114	Beef and milk come from	cows	B0114	The man draws pictures of	cows	C0114	Beef and milk come from	bays
A0115	He parks his cars in his	garage	B0115	He keeps his stuff in the	garage	C0115	He parks his cars in his	member
A0116	She usually wakes up early in the	morning	B0116	He usually does his homework in the	morning	C0116	She usually wakes up early in the	lady
A0117	Cars and factories can cause air	pollution	B0117	In some cities there is lots of	pollution	C0117	Cars and factories can <i>cause</i> air	gymnastics
A0118	Your aunt and uncle's children are your	cousins	B0118	My children like to play with their	cousins	C0118	Your aunt and uncle's children are your	programs
A0119	The shop assistant served all the	customers	B0119	The angry man talked to the	customers	C0119	The shop assistant served all the	benefits
A0120	The north is colder than the	south	B0120	The food is better in the	south	C0120	The north is colder than the	pants
A0121	The passengers thanked the bus	driver	B0121	The visitors thanked the kind	driver	C0121	The passengers thanked the bus	soldier
A0122	My hair was too long so I got a	haircut	B0122	I don't like going to get a	haircut	C0122	My hair was too long so I got a	technique

A0123	I went to the post office to buy a	stamp	B0123	I went to the supermarket to buy a	stamp	C0123	I went to the post office to buy a	quiz
A0124	After dinner we asked the waiter for the	bill	B0124	After we finished we waited for the	bill	C0124	After dinner we asked the waiter for the	cold
A0201	You can see lions and monkeys at the	zoo	B0201	You can have lots of fun at the	zoo	C0201	You can see lions and monkeys at the	tap
A0202	Flats don't have gardens but they have	balconies	B0202	People sometimes buy flats with big	balconies	C0202	Flats don't have gardens but they have	lotteries
A0203	The sheep had two cute little	lambs	B0203	The cutest baby animals are	lambs	C0203	The sheep had two cute little	pills
A0204	Football and running are types of	sport	B0204	On Sundays I often do some	sport	C0204	Football and running are types of	range
A0205	The sun can burn your	skin	B0205	Put the cream on your	skin	C0205	The sun can burn your	paint
A0206	There are three pictures hanging on the	wall	B0206	There are many dirty marks on the	wall	C0206	There are three pictures hanging on the	pain
A0207	The opposite of midday is	midnight	B0207	The quietest time of day is	midnight	C0207	The opposite of midday is	knowledge
A0208	Sick people should see a	doctor	B0208	Some students will become a	doctor	C0208	Sick people should see a	business
A0209	You should put your rubbish in the	bin	B0209	You should put your tickets in the	bin	C0209	You should put your rubbish in the	rail
A0210	A T-Rex was a big	dinosaur	B0210	That animal was a big	dinosaur	C0210	A T-Rex was a big	coconut
A0211	The chef cooks in the hot	kitchen	B0211	The boy plays in the big	kitchen	C0211	The chef cooks in the hot	station
A0212	When there is snow in the mountains we go	skiing	B0212	When it is cold in the winter we like	skiing	C0212	When there is snow in the mountains we go	banking
A0213	Spring and summer are two of the four	seasons	B0213	In some countries there are only two	seasons	C0213	Spring and summer are two of the four	warnings
A0214	He opened the lock with a	key	B0214	He could not find the correct	key	C0214	He opened the lock with a	pop
A0215	Zebras have many black and white	stripes	B0215	Some animals have big black	stripes	C0215	Zebras have many black and white	flutes
A0216	Eat breakfast in the morning and dinner in the	evening	B0216	Some employees have to work in the	evening	C0216	Eat breakfast in the morning and dinner in the	figure
A0217	The day after today is called	tomorrow	B0217	We are going to the dentist	tomorrow	C0217	The day after today is called	professor
A0218	She packed her holiday clothes in the	suitcase	B0218	She put all her winter clothes in the	suitcase	C0218	She packed her holiday clothes in the	peanut
A0219	We crossed the river by walking over the	bridge	B0219	We discussed the modern and expensive	bridge	C0219	We crossed the river by walking over the	throat
A0220	I always look up new words in a	dictionary	B0220	I always correct mistakes with a	dictionary	C0220	I always look up new words in a	babysitter
A0221	We went to visit our grandfather and	grandmother	B0221	Every week the girl visits her lonely	grandmother	C0221	We went to visit our grandfather and	property
A0222	Children like pasta with tomato	sauce	B0222	Children like burgers with delicious	sauce	C0222	Children like pasta with tomato	noon
A0223	He rides through the desert on a	camel	B0223	He often goes to the market to buy a	camel	C0223	He rides through the desert on a	disco

A0224	Turn it on using the remote	control	B0224	You must press the button on the	control	C0224	Turn it on using the remote	report
A0301	In tennis you hit the ball with a	racket	B0301	In some games you play using a	racket	C0301	In tennis you hit the ball with a	puzzle
A0302	A shape with no corners is called a	circle	B0302	That special thing is called a	circle	C0302	A shape with no corners is called a	taxi
A0303	Every country is run by the	government	B0303	That country will soon have a new	government	C0303	Every country is run by the	memory
A0304	When it is raining you should carry your	umbrella	B0304	When you have time you should buy a better	umbrella	C0304	When it is raining you should carry your	accountant
A0305	We knocked on the front	door	B0305	We often stopped at the big	door	C0305	We knocked on the front	check
A0306	There are sixty seconds in a	minute	B0306	He went into the house for a	minute	C0306	There are sixty seconds in a	human
A0307	In the day we get light from the	sun	B0307	Every day we can see the	sun	C0307	In the day we get light from the	fair
A0308	Bosses should be kind to their	employees	B0308	The old manager has lots of	employees	C0308	Bosses should be kind to their	adventures
A0309	February is always the shortest	month	B0309	This is always the shortest	month	C0309	February is always the shortest	gift
A0310	Giraffes have spots and a long	neck	B0310	That manager has a long	neck	C0310	Giraffes have spots and a long	form
A0311	The mother and father have four	children	B0311	The nurse doesn't want to have any	children	C0311	The mother and father have four	pieces
A0312	After his shower he got dried with a	towel	B0312	Before he went he looked for his	towel	C0312	After his shower he got dried with a	chat
A0313	Every day I write my thoughts in my	diary	B0313	Sometimes I put my ideas in my	diary	C0313	Every day I write my thoughts in my	relative
A0314	Tourists read about the sights in their	guidebook	B0314	People read about the town in their	guidebook	C0314	Tourists read about the sights in their	snowboard
A0315	The footballer kicked the round	ball	B0315	The athlete held the really heavy	ball	C0315	The footballer kicked the round	shop
A0316	Trousers and skirts are types of	clothes	B0316	Some people do not have nice	clothes	C0316	Trousers and skirts are types of	steps
A0317	Eggs come from a duck or a	chicken	B0317	Her family like meat from a	chicken	C0317	Eggs come from a duck or a	boyfriend
A0318	Doctors try to cure dangerous	diseases	B0318	Scientists try hard to stop different	diseases	C0318	Doctors try to cure dangerous	pianos
A0319	There was lots of rain and lightning during the	storm	B0319	In the summer we had a very big	storm	C0319	There was lots of rain and lightning during the	cliff
A0320	The bride is wearing a white	dress	B0320	That teacher is wearing a nice	dress	C0320	The bride is wearing a white	club
A0321	My shoes are made of brown	leather	B0321	My coat is made of nice	leather	C0321	My shoes are made of brown	hockey
A0322	Athletes get instructions from their	coach	B0322	The athlete needs a new	coach	C0322	Athletes get instructions from their	block
A0323	Friday is my favourite day of the	week	B0323	I want to visit them for a	week	C0323	Friday is my favourite day of the	guess
A0324	Eating quickly will give you a stomach	ache	B0324	Playing the guitar can make my hand	ache	C0324	Eating quickly will give you a stomach	oil
A0401	The car has space for a driver and three	passengers	B0401	The train carriage has space for all the	passengers	C0401	The car has space for a driver and three	signatures

A0402	I get my hair cut by my favourite	hairdresser	B0402	The teenager admires her favourite	hairdresser	C0402	I get my hair cut by my favourite	pineapple
A0403	In winter there can be very cold	weather	B0403	In my city we have very good	weather	C0403	In winter there can be very cold	candy
A0404	I keep my wallet in my trouser	pocket	B0404	I put the pencil in my little	pocket	C0404	I keep my wallet in my trouser	lesson
A0405	She smelled the flowers using her	nose	B0405	The woman has a really interesting	nose	C0405	She smelled the flowers using her	cash
A0406	Your sister's son is your	nephew	B0406	Please promise to help your	nephew	C0406	Your sister's son is your	blanket
A0407	Your brother's daughter is your	niece	B0407	My kids are playing with my	niece	C0407	Your brother's daughter is your	coin
A0408	The boss of a ship is called the	captain	B0408	The man in the corner is the	captain	C0408	The boss of a ship is called the	office
A0409	You wear shoes on your	feet	B0409	You have dirt on your	feet	C0409	You wear shoes on your	trucks
A0410	The athlete is a very fast	runner	B0410	The teacher is a very fast	runner	C0410	The athlete is a very fast	spelling
A0411	A book about someone's life is called a	biography	B0411	The story of his life would be a good	biography	C0411	A book about someone's life is called a	curriculum
A0412	Apples and bananas are types of	fruit	B0412	Every day I have a piece of	fruit	C0412	Apples and bananas are types of	yard
A0413	The popular girl has lots of	friends	B0413	The quiet woman has a lot of	friends	C0413	The popular girl has lots of	thoughts
A0414	They went to watch a play at the	theatre	B0414	They went to meet a friend at the	theatre	C0414	They went to watch a play at the	document
A0415	He drove too fast and had an	accident	B0415	He knew the woman had an	accident	C0415	He drove too fast and had an	officer
A0416	A black and white horse is a	zebra	B0416	At the zoo the boy saw a	zebra	C0416	A black and white horse is a	handbag
A0417	We work during the week and relax at the	weekend	B0417	We work hard sometimes and relax at the	weekend	C0417	We work during the week and relax at the	magic
A0418	They gave a prize to the competition	winner	B0418	They gave a gift to the very lucky	winner	C0418	They gave a prize to the competition	model
A0419	There are eleven players on a football	team	B0419	There are interesting people on the famous	team	C0419	There are eleven players on a football	fire
A0420	The baseball player hit the ball with his	bat	B0420	The lazy player forgot to bring his	bat	C0420	The baseball player hit the ball with his	row
A0421	Magicians know a lot of card	tricks	B0421	Children know a lot of clever	tricks	C0421	Magicians know a lot of card	scenes
A0422	Everest is the world's highest	mountain	B0422	My country only has one	mountain	C0422	Everest is the world's highest	jacket
A0423	There are hundreds of countries in the	world	B0423	There are lots of people in the	world	C0423	There are hundreds of countries in the	thing
A0424	The queen is married to the	king	B0424	The man is related to the	king	C0424	The queen is married to the	news
A0501	My phone doesn't work because it's run out of	battery	B0501	My laptop doesn't work because it's got no	battery	C0501	My phone doesn't work because it's run out of	comedy
A0502	These clothes were made by the fashion	designer	B0502	All of my clothes were made by the same	designer	C0502	These clothes were made by the fashion	relation

A0503	The border guard put a stamp in my	passport	B0503	My friend often forgets to bring his	passport	C0503	The border guard put a stamp in my	software
A0504	Grandfather has a moustache and a long	beard	B0504	My uncle has green eyes and a big	beard	C0504	Grandfather has a moustache and a long	sheet
A0505	The customers queued in a straight	line	B0505	The schoolchildren stood in a messy	line	C0505	The customers queued in a straight	cut
A0506	Villages are smaller than cities and	towns	B0506	These days more and more people live in	towns	C0506	Villages are smaller than cities and	drinks
A0507	A big sea is called an	ocean	B0507	This place is far from the	ocean	C0507	A big sea is called an	apple
A0508	Rain falls from big black	clouds	B0508	He sees some very big black	clouds	C0508	Rain falls from big black	snacks
A0509	Famous people are also called stars or	celebrities	B0509	The people were excited to meet the	celebrities	C0509	Famous people are also called stars or	varieties
A0510	Every morning he washes in the sink in the	bathroom	B0510	Every evening he changes his clothes in the	bathroom	C0510	Every morning he washes in the sink in the	final
A0511	People sleep with their head on a	pillow	B0511	People like having a comfortable	pillow	C0511	People sleep with their head on a	farmer
A0512	Please don't tell anyone my	secret	B0512	Please don't talk about my	secret	C0512	Please don't tell anyone my	college
A0513	The south is warmer than the	north	B0513	People are friendlier in the	north	C0513	The south is warmer than the	choice
A0514	They are drinking coffee in the	café	B0514	They are sitting together at the	café	C0514	They are drinking coffee in the	ferry
A0515	In some zoos animals live in small	cages	B0515	In some places pets live in little	cages	C0515	In some zoos animals live in small	purses
A0516	One hundred years is called a	century	B0516	A really long time is called a	century	C0516	One hundred years is called a	basketball
A0517	Before you use it you should read the	instructions	B0517	Before you start you must find the	instructions	C0517	Before you use it you should read the	arguments
A0518	The student makes a lot of spelling	mistakes	B0518	The student hates all the annoying	mistakes	C0518	The student makes a lot of spelling	partners
A0519	She made a special cake for her son's	birthday	B0519	We had a lovely chat about his	birthday	C0519	She made a special cake for her son's	message
A0520	Someone who owns a meat shop is called a	butcher	B0520	The woman who lives nearby works as a	butcher	C0520	Someone who owns a meat shop is called a	necklace
A0521	Honest people always tell the	truth	B0521	It can be hard to find out the	truth	C0521	Honest people always tell the	luck
A0522	On her birthday she ate chocolate	cake	B0522	On the weekend she ate creamy	cake	C0522	On her birthday she ate chocolate	bells
A0523	The girl likes toast with strawberry	jam	B0523	The girl likes eating delicious	jam	C0523	The girl likes toast with strawberry	corn
A0524	My favourite flowers are red	roses	B0524	I often give my friend some	roses	C0524	My favourite flowers are red	gases
A0601	In rush hour there is a lot of	traffic	B0601	In the city there is lots of	traffic	C0601	In rush hour there is a lot of	winter
A0602	Trees grow lots of green	leaves	B0602	We saw a lot of brown	leaves	C0602	Trees grow lots of green	gaps
A0603	Footballers are happy when they score a	goal	B0603	People are happy when they see a	goal	C0603	Footballers are happy when they score a	tune

A0604	I can't read your terrible	handwriting	B0604	I really can't stand your terrible	handwriting	C0604	I can't read your terrible	luxury
A0605	He keeps money in a leather	wallet	B0605	He keeps important things in his	wallet	C0605	He keeps money in a leather	photo
A0606	The policeman shot the thief with his	gun	B0606	The policeman hit his friend with his	gun	C0606	The policeman shot the thief with his	part
A0607	The opposite of war is	peace	B0607	The president wants to have	peace	C0607	The opposite of war is	snow
A0608	The two boys are identical	twins	B0608	Those nice boys are obviously	twins	C0608	The two boys are <i>identical</i>	dials
A0609	Someone who makes bread is called a	baker	B0609	The man quit his job and became a	baker	C0609	Someone who makes bread is called a	singer
A0610	He cuts vegetables with a sharp	knife	B0610	He prepares breakfast with an old	knife	C0610	He cuts vegetables with a sharp	square
A0611	I chose a recipe and bought all the	ingredients	B0611	The delicious biscuits have a lot of	ingredients	C0611	I chose a recipe and bought all the	examiners
A0612	The photographer took pictures with a	camera	B0612	The engineer borrowed an expensive	camera	C0612	The photographer took pictures with a	prison
A0613	Your mum and dad are your	parents	B0613	On Fridays I sometimes meet my	parents	C0613	Your mum and dad are your	clinics
A0614	Chairs and tables are types of	furniture	B0614	My house has lots of lovely	furniture	C0614	Chairs and tables are types of	politics
A0615	Students have to write a lot of long	essays	B0615	Sometimes we have to read a lot of	essays	C0615	Students have to write a lot of long	olives
A0616	I protect my eyes from the sun with	sunglasses	B0616	I keep myself safe outside with	sunglasses	C0616	I protect my eyes from the sun with	microwaves
A0617	The people who live near you are your	neighbours	B0617	The people who make lots of noise are my	neighbours	C0617	The people who live near you are your	melons
A0618	There are three children and two parents in the	family	B0618	There are lots of children in the big	family	C0618	There are three children and two parents in the	radio
A0619	The carpet is covering the	floor	B0619	The girl is sitting on the	floor	C0619	The carpet is covering the	trip
A0620	We planned our journey using a	map	B0620	Before our trip we bought a	map	C0620	We planned our journey using a	gate
A0621	The mess is cleaned up by the	cleaner	B0621	This place is looked after by the	cleaner	C0621	The mess is cleaned up by the	speaker
A0622	The actors performed on the theatre's	stage	B0622	The schoolchildren played on the enormous	stage	C0622	The actors performed on the theatre's	cook
A0623	I cut up lettuce and tomato for the	salad	B0623	I prepared everything for the simple	salad	C0623	I cut up lettuce and tomato for the	drawing
A0624	For dinner we often eat fish and	chips	B0624	For dinner we often eat eggs and	chips	C0624	For dinner we often eat fish and	pipes
A0701	This beach has soft white	sand	B0701	She likes to relax on the nice	sand	C0701	This beach has soft white	routes
A0702	French fries and chips are made from	potato	B0702	The famous dish is made from	potato	C0702	French fries and chips are made from	discussion
A0703	Tonight we are going to a restaurant for	dinner	B0703	Tomorrow I will be too busy for	dinner	C0703	Tonight we are going to a restaurant for	changes
A0704	Children usually write with a pen or	pencil	B0704	Children usually have a favourite	pencil	C0704	Children usually write with a pen or	comic

A0705	After school children must do their	homework	B0705	On Friday I sometimes do my	homework	C0705	After school children must do their	plastic
A0706	The dining table has six matching	chairs	B0706	The living room has two nice modern	chairs	C0706	The dining table has six matching	notes
A0707	Clean your teeth with toothpaste and a	toothbrush	B0707	Make sure your child uses the right	toothbrush	C0707	Clean your teeth with toothpaste and a	nightclub
A0708	The husband bought flowers for his	wife	B0708	The lawyer had dinner with his	wife	C0708	The husband bought flowers for his	stuff
A0709	Dollars and pounds are different types of	currency	B0709	Those two countries have different types of	currency	C0709	Dollars and pounds are different types of	scenery
A0710	Pork and bacon come from a	pig	B0710	Her favourite animal is a	pig	C0710	Pork and bacon come from a	fan
A0711	The class went on a history trip to the	museum	B0711	The family went on a group tour of the	museum	C0711	The class went on a history trip to the	solution
A0712	Put the letter inside the white	envelope	B0712	Put the form under the orange	envelope	C0712	Put the letter inside the white	industry
A0713	Every night I read my children a	story	B0713	Every night she wants a different	story	C0713	Every night I read my children a	couple
A0714	We went sailing on the lake in our new	boat	B0714	We went there to look at the fantastic	boat	C0714	We went sailing on the lake in our new	mess
A0715	He typed using the computer's	keyboard	B0715	The computer has a tiny	keyboard	C0715	He typed using the computer's	brochure
A0716	I write my homework sitting at my	desk	B0716	I often eat my dinner at my	desk	C0716	I write my homework sitting at my	crowd
A0717	There are many trees in the	forest	B0717	Many animals live in the	forest	C0717	There are many trees in the	rabbit
A0718	Scientists do experiments in a	laboratory	B0718	Engineers sometimes work in a	laboratory	C0718	Scientists do experiments in a	certificate
A0719	My bag was stolen by a	thief	B0719	My dog was taken by a	thief	C0719	My bag was stolen by a	trunk
A0720	We waited an hour in the long	queue	B0720	We talked for an hour in the	queue	C0720	We waited an hour in the long	blog
A0721	Boys quickly grow up and become	men	B0721	Boys often admire those famous	men	C0721	Boys quickly grow up and become	ways
A0722	The orchestra played some classical	music	B0722	The architects know some interesting	music	C0722	The orchestra played some classical	service
A0723	Doctors take care of their	patients	B0723	Those very sad people are her	patients	C0723	Doctors take care of their	credits
A0724	In China the most famous drink is green	tea	B0724	In my country a popular drink is	tea	C0724	In China the most famous drink is green	soul
A0801	When we go camping we sleep in a	tent	B0801	When we go walking we take a	tent	C0801	When we go camping we sleep in a	gum
A0802	The plane was flown by the	pilot	B0802	The house was bought by the	pilot	C0802	The plane was flown by the	shadow
A0803	Circles and squares are different	shapes	B0803	Children learn the names of the	shapes	C0803	Circles and squares are different	flats
A0804	Patients are cared for by doctors and	nurses	B0804	Sometimes children are looked after by	nurses	C0804	Patients are cared for by doctors and	crosses
A0805	Many people died in the Second World	War	B0805	Many people cried during the awful	War	C0805	Many people died in the Second World	top

A0806	The little girl loves her <i>teddy</i>	bear	B0806	The little boy saw the really angry	bear	C0806	The little girl loves her <i>teddy</i>	sea
A0807	People who design buildings are called	architects	B0807	Some people who work in this building are	architects	C0807	People who design buildings are called	inventions
A0808	Your heart's job is to move your	blood	B0808	The new film has a lot of	blood	C0808	Your heart's job is to move your	street
A0809	The sports team built a big new	stadium	B0809	Concerts sometimes happen at the	stadium	C0809	The sports team built a big new	granddaughter
A0810	Land with water all around is called an	island	B0810	We travelled to the very beautiful	island	C0810	Land with water all around is called an	author
A0811	Famous chefs usually work at expensive	restaurants	B0811	Famous actors often go to popular	restaurants	C0811	Famous chefs usually work at expensive	battles
A0812	The food is on a white	plate	B0812	The stuff is on a white	plate	C0812	The food is on a white	spy
A0813	When he moved house he told me his new	address	B0813	When he got here he told me his new	address	C0813	When he moved house he told me his new	regret
A0814	The new chemical was discovered by a	scientist	B0814	The new machine was invented by that	scientist	C0814	The new chemical was discovered by a	capital
A0815	When you travel by train you should buy a	ticket	B0815	When you visit it you must have a	ticket	C0815	When you travel by train you should buy a	shower
A0816	The nasty cat caught the little	mouse	B0816	The lion caught the unlucky	mouse	C0816	The nasty cat caught the little	jet
A0817	Clothes for sleeping in are called	pyjamas	B0817	I like to buy some interesting	pyjamas	C0817	Clothes for sleeping in are called	recycling
A0818	I passed my test and got my driving	licence	B0818	I failed my test and didn't get my	licence	C0818	I passed my test and got my driving	discount
A0819	Footballers wear a t-shirt and	shorts	B0819	Little boys often like wearing	shorts	C0819	Footballers wear a t-shirt and	beans
A0820	Girls quickly grow up and become	women	B0820	They are talking to the friendly	women	C0820	Girls quickly grow up and become	today
A0821	Hair above your lip is called a	moustache	B0821	The pilot has a big orange	moustache	C0821	Hair above your lip is called a	cabbage
A0822	The little girl made a new dress for her	doll	B0822	The father made his daughter a new	doll	C0822	The little girl made a new dress for her	meal
A0823	I eat soup in a white	bowl	B0823	I put the milk in a white	bowl	C0823	I eat soup in a white	shore
A0824	Take aspirin if you have a	headache	B0824	Buy this if you have a	headache	C0824	Take aspirin if you have a	product
A0901	Rabbits like eating fresh orange	carrots	B0901	Some pets like eating fresh tasty	carrots	C0901	Rabbits like eating fresh orange	swimmers
A0902	People usually sleep in a	bed	B0902	People usually like their own	bed	C0902	People usually sleep in a	rock
A0903	I prefer pens with blue	ink	B0903	I prefer ones with nice blue	ink	C0903	I prefer pens with blue	herbs
A0904	A sandwich has two pieces of	bread	B0904	For lunch I have three pieces of	bread	C0904	A sandwich has two pieces of	snake
A0905	Cyclists protect their head with a	helmet	B0905	People protect themselves with a	helmet	C0905	Cyclists protect their head with a	picnic
A0906	We checked in at the hotel	reception	B0906	My son works at the hotel	reception	C0906	We checked in at the hotel	conclusion

A0907	I grow beautiful flowers in my	garden	B0907	I eat delicious dinners in the	garden	C0907	I grow beautiful flowers in my	painting
A0908	A very bad cold is called the	flu	B0908	It isn't nice to have the	flu	C0908	A very bad cold is called the	skill
A0909	The prince's parents are the king and	queen	B0909	The old woman is a powerful	queen	C0909	The prince's parents are the king and	suit
A0910	Cook the chicken at a high	temperature	B0910	Make sure it is at the right	temperature	C0910	Cook the chicken at a high	quality
A0911	A zebra is similar to a	horse	B0911	An elephant is bigger than a	horse	C0911	A zebra is similar to a	star
A0912	The busiest part of the city is the	centre	B0912	I don't like needing to go into the	centre	C0912	The busiest part of the city is the	lighter
A0913	Police work hard to catch dangerous	criminals	B0913	Some children grow up and become	criminals	C0913	Police work hard to catch dangerous	periods
A0914	The king lives in an old stone	castle	B0914	The nice tourists enjoyed the old	castle	C0914	The king lives in an old stone	penny
A0915	Make sure you wash your hands with	soap	B0915	Make sure you always use the	soap	C0915	Make sure you wash your hands with	chin
A0916	Get out of the ocean if you see a	shark	B0916	Most people are scared if they see a	shark	C0916	Get out of the ocean if you see a	pound
A0917	Poor people don't have a lot of	money	B0917	Some people don't need a lot of	money	C0917	Poor people don't have a lot of	places
A0918	I keep my money in an account at the	bank	B0918	I keep my things in a box in the	bank	C0918	I keep my money in an account at the	wind
A0919	Someone who writes for a newspaper is a	journalist	B0919	The woman who lives across the road is a	journalist	C0919	Someone who writes for a newspaper is a	strawberry
A0920	Boxes are made of strong paper called	cardboard	B0920	The artist made a sculpture using	cardboard	C0920	Boxes are made of strong paper called	lunchtime
A0921	Painters and musicians are different types of	artist	B0921	That interesting woman is a famous	artist	C0921	Painters and musicians are different types of	event
A0922	Cows eat a lot of green	grass	B0922	Animals eat a lot of fresh	grass	C0922	Cows eat a lot of green	steak
A0923	A big boat is called a	ship	B0923	I really like to travel by	ship	C0923	A big boat is called a	field
A0924	You wash your hair using	shampoo	B0924	My dad forgot to buy	shampoo	C0924	You wash your hair using	lettuce
A1001	There are twentysix letters in the English	alphabet	B1001	Some countries use different types of	alphabet	C1001	There are twentysix letters in the English	waterfall
A1002	Tomorrow there will be rain with thunder and	lightning	B1002	Tomorrow there will be heavy rain and	lightning	C1002	Tomorrow there will be rain with thunder and	tennis
A1003	The walkers followed the forest	path	B1003	The children walked along the dark	path	C1003	The walkers followed the forest	bride
A1004	He often buys his wife a bunch of	flowers	B1004	He often gives his friend some lovely	flowers	C1004	He often buys his wife a bunch of	turkeys
A1005	A male cow is called a	bull	B1005	They are very scared of the big	bull	C1005	A male cow is called a	mum
A1006	Leaves fall off trees in the	autumn	B1006	It is very nice here in the	autumn	C1006	Leaves fall off trees in the	insect
A1007	Workers get instructions from their	boss	B1007	People get annoyed by their	boss	C1007	Workers get instructions from their	food

A1008	I made a cake by following the	recipe	B1008	I followed the long and complicated	recipe	C1008	I made a cake by following the	cabinet
A1009	We study lots of vocabulary and	grammar	B1009	We practice lots of complicated new	grammar	C1009	We study lots of vocabulary and	logos
A1010	The bored children aren't paying	attention	B1010	The bored children gave me their	attention	C1010	The bored children aren't paying	history
A1011	Sick animals are cared for by a	vet	B1011	The little child wants to become a	vet	C1011	Sick animals are cared for by a	disk
A1012	You have eight fingers and two	thumbs	B1012	Most animals do not have	thumbs	C1012	You have eight fingers and two	links
A1013	Paintings and music are types of	art	B1013	The teacher is interested in	art	C1013	Paintings and music are types of	shame
A1014	Jungles have a hot and wet	climate	B1014	Some countries have a pleasant	climate	C1014	Jungles have a hot and wet	backpack
A1015	Students go to university to get a	degree	B1015	Architects and engineers need to have a	degree	C1015	Students go to university to get a	poem
A1016	Our house has two bathrooms and three	bedrooms	B1016	The couple's children have cosy	bedrooms	C1016	Our house has two bathrooms and three	contracts
A1017	The day is light but the night is	dark	B1017	My grandfather's house is very	dark	C1017	The day is light but the night is	group
A1018	We heard rain falling on the house's	roof	B1018	We saw people fixing the building's	roof	C1018	We heard rain falling on the house's	trade
A1019	The pilot got the plane ready for the next	flight	B1019	The family arrived early for their	flight	C1019	The pilot got the plane ready for the next	track
A1020	Women sometimes wear nice smelling	perfume	B1020	Women sometimes buy nice special	perfume	C1020	Women sometimes wear nice smelling	sunshine
A1021	He went to hospital in the	ambulance	B1021	He drove there very fast in the	ambulance	C1021	He went to hospital in the	underwear
A1022	She loves swimming and sunbathing on the	beach	B1022	She loves reading and relaxing at the	beach	C1022	She loves swimming and sunbathing on the	lock
A1023	On each foot you have five	toes	B1023	Some people have very strange	toes	C1023	On each foot you have five	pans
A1024	Letters are delivered by the	postman	B1024	My gift was taken by the	postman	C1024	Letters are delivered by the	spinach
A1101	After the main course we ordered	dessert	B1101	Children usually love to have	dessert	C1101	After the main course we ordered	repairs
A1102	We got on the plane at the	airport	B1102	We saw people arriving at the	airport	C1102	We got on the plane at the	object
A1103	The wife cooked dinner for her	husband	B1103	The woman baked bread for her	husband	C1103	The wife cooked dinner for her	problem
A1104	Birds fly by using their	wings	B1104	Some insects have got big	wings	C1104	Birds fly by using their	caps
A1105	History is lots of students' favourite	subject	B1105	This is lots of children's favourite	subject	C1105	History is lots of students' favourite	purpose
A1106	Buses and trains are types of public	transport	B1106	Some cities have extremely crowded	transport	C1106	Buses and trains are types of public	luggage
A1107	I'll call you if you give me your telephone	number	B1107	I'll remind you if you give me the correct	number	C1107	I'll call you if you give me your telephone	person
A1108	Go to the dentist if you have	toothache	B1108	Don't complain loudly if you have	toothache	C1108	Go to the dentist if you have	surnames

A1109	A very small town is called a	village	B1109	I grew up in a boring	village	C1109	A very small town is called a	planet
A1110	The couple have two girls and a	boy	B1110	The couple would like another	boy	C1110	The couple have two girls and a	fine
A1111	The thick book had five hundred	pages	B1111	The old book had a lot of	pages	C1111	The thick book had five hundred	glasses
A1112	The big university has thousands of clever	students	B1112	The famous professor has a lot of interesting	students	C1112	The big university has thousands of clever	bottoms
A1113	The baby has big blue	eyes	B1113	The lovely baby has two nice	eyes	C1113	The baby has big blue	acts
A1114	There are billions of websites on the	internet	B1114	There is lots of information on the	internet	C1114	There are billions of websites on the	embassy
A1115	The alphabet has five vowels and twentyone	consonants	B1115	The interesting language doesn't have many	consonants	C1115	The alphabet has five vowels and twentyone	motorways
A1116	The model wore a top and a short	skirt	B1116	The student had a fashionable new	skirt	C1116	The model wore a top and a short	breeze
A1117	A baby cow is called a	calf	B1117	The children looked at the little	calf	C1117	A baby cow is called a	jug
A1118	Your mother's sister is your	aunt	B1118	That nice woman is helping your	aunt	C1118	Your mother's sister is your	engine
A1119	She ate her food with a knife and	fork	B1119	My mother has an old silver	fork	C1119	She ate her food with a knife and	cheek
A1120	Zoos have a lot of dangerous	animals	B1120	Cities don't have a lot of big	animals	C1120	Zoos have a lot of dangerous	enemies
A1121	He holds up his trousers with a	belt	B1121	He always wears a brown	belt	C1121	He holds up his trousers with a	tongue
A1122	I can't see because the TV has a small	screen	B1122	I'll buy this one because it has a good	screen	C1122	I can't see because the TV has a small	brush
A1123	Monkeys like to eat yellow	bananas	B1123	Some children's favourite food is	bananas	C1123	Monkeys like to eat yellow	policemen
A1124	The competition winner received a	prize	B1124	The badminton player was given a	prize	C1124	The competition winner received a	chain
A1201	Stealing and killing people are types of	crime	B1201	In this neighbourhood there isn't much	crime	C1201	Stealing and killing people are types of	spot
A1202	Biology and chemistry are types of	science	B1202	Those schoolchildren enjoy learning about	science	C1202	Biology and chemistry are types of	career
A1203	I keep my pictures in a photo	album	B1203	I put her drawings in a pretty	album	C1203	I keep my pictures in a photo	oven
A1204	Astronauts use rockets to go to	space	B1204	Yesterday we watched a film about	space	C1204	Astronauts use rockets to go to	heat
A1205	Most governments have a prime minister or a	president	B1205	Many countries have an interesting	president	C1205	Most governments have a <i>prime minister</i> or a	company
A1206	Penguins and ducks are types of	bird	B1206	That country has many types of	bird	C1206	Penguins and ducks are types of	van
A1207	Cats and dogs are popular	pets	B1207	Father talked about our nice	pets	C1207	Cats and dogs are popular	miles
A1208	The journalist wrote a long	article	B1208	The grandmother saw the long	article	C1208	The journalist wrote a long	universe
A1209	New shoes usually come in a cardboard	box	B1209	The vegetables are under the wooden	box	C1209	New shoes usually come in a cardboard	land

A1210	The children are playing a fun	game	B1210	The girls are talking about the new	game	C1210	The children are playing a fun	ride
A1211	Carrots and potatoes are types of	vegetable	B1211	The tasty curry has two types of	vegetable	C1211	Carrots and potatoes are types of	lemonade
A1212	Smoking is a very bad	habit	B1212	This man has a very bad	habit	C1212	Smoking is a very bad	review
A1213	In the morning we drink tea or	coffee	B1213	At lunchtime I usually drink	coffee	C1213	In the morning we drink tea or	presents
A1214	She has a gold ring on her	finger	B1214	She has a small cut on her	finger	C1214	She has a gold ring on her	market
A1215	Football teams always have eleven	players	B1215	The team manager wants other	players	C1215	Football teams always have eleven	turnings
A1216	If you are lost, ask someone for	directions	B1216	If you are there, get some useful	directions	C1216	If you are lost, ask someone for	reporters
A1217	Next month the pregnant lady will have her	baby	B1217	Next month the busy woman will have a	baby	C1217	Next month the pregnant lady will have her	million
A1218	Children should never talk to	strangers	B1218	Those weird people over there are	strangers	C1218	Children should never talk to	toilets
A1219	The girl brushed her long blonde	hair	B1219	The man loved his soft black	hair	C1219	The girl brushed her long blonde	bar
A1220	Every day the chicken lays an	egg	B1220	Every day those people eat one	egg	C1220	Every day the chicken lays an	inch
A1221	The desk has four wooden	legs	B1221	That man has very nice	legs	C1221	The desk has four wooden	bands
A1222	People eat soup or cereal using a	spoon	B1222	In some countries people never use a	spoon	C1222	People eat soup or cereal using a	film
A1223	The singer has a beautiful	voice	B1223	The lawyer has a powerful	voice	C1223	The singer has a beautiful	list
A1224	An architect's job is to design	buildings	B1224	Those people's job is to tidy up	buildings	C1224	An architect's job is to design	girlfriends
A1301	For lunch I usually eat a cheese	sandwich	B1301	On Monday I often have a small	sandwich	C1301	For lunch I usually eat a cheese	jungle
A1302	Asia is not a country, it's a	continent	B1302	This lovely place is my favourite	continent	C1302	Asia is not a country, it's a	pharmacy
A1303	In the morning people eat toast for	breakfast	B1303	In some countries people don't often have	breakfast	C1303	In the morning people eat toast for	marriage
A1304	Children ask their teachers lots of	questions	B1304	Sometimes children have a lot of	questions	C1304	Children ask their teachers lots of	brothers
A1305	Money you pay to the government is called	tax	B1305	Most people enjoy complaining about their	tax	C1305	Money you pay to the government is called	rap
A1306	The happy president won the	election	B1306	The excited people watched the	election	C1306	The happy president won the	arrangement
A1307	Really scary dreams are called	nightmares	B1307	Children have a lot of scary	nightmares	C1307	Really scary dreams are called	baseballs
A1308	We showed our passports when we crossed the	border	B1308	We showed our tickets when we reached the	border	C1308	We showed our passports when we crossed the	fever
A1309	A baby cat is called a	kitten	B1309	I used to have a little	kitten	C1309	A baby cat is called a	poster
A1310	In the morning she drinks orange	juice	B1310	In the morning she drinks tasty	juice	C1310	In the morning she drinks orange	coast
A1311	Draw a straight line using the	ruler	B1311	The designer bought a new	ruler	C1311	Draw a straight line using the	parrot

A1312	Lots of teachers work in that	school	B1312	Lots of people work in that	school	C1312	Lots of teachers work in that	chance
A1313	Children love playing with noisy	toys	B1313	People like shopping for lovely	toys	C1313	Children love playing with noisy	ports
A1314	Tablets and pills are types of	medicine	B1314	The man takes many types of	medicine	C1314	Tablets and pills are types of	video
A1315	A jacket isn't as warm as a long	coat	B1315	This thing isn't as useful as a nice	coat	C1315	A jacket isn't as warm as a long	lake
A1316	The bride and groom had a traditional	wedding	B1316	The man and woman went to a horrible	wedding	C1316	The bride and groom had a traditional	army
A1317	Your eyes and mouth are part of your	face	B1317	These important things are part of your	face	C1317	Your eyes and mouth are part of your	dad
A1318	He loves driving fast in his	car	B1318	She loves eating chips in her	car	C1318	He loves driving fast in his	sir
A1319	In Asia people eat a lot of	rice	B1319	In that country they eat a lot of	rice	C1319	In Asia people eat a lot of	caves
A1320	You can get fit by working out at the	gym	B1320	You can have fun by going to the	gym	C1320	You can get fit by working out at the	flag
A1321	The largest animal in Africa is the	elephant	B1321	My favourite animal in Africa is the	elephant	C1321	The largest animal in Africa is the	orange
A1322	The tourists are visiting the capital	city	B1322	The people are visiting the famous	city	C1322	The tourists are visiting the capital	power
A1323	Keep your neck warm with a long	scarf	B1323	Keep yourself warm with a long	scarf	C1323	Keep your neck warm with a long	bulb
A1324	Sweet honey is made by	bees	B1324	Some children are really scared of	bees	C1324	Sweet honey is made by	huts
A1401	Tourists often send their friends a	postcard	B1401	People sometimes send their friends a	postcard	C1401	Tourists often send their friends a	classroom
A1402	In some countries schoolchildren wear a	uniform	B1402	In some places people wear a	uniform	C1402	In some countries schoolchildren wear a	location
A1403	I paid the money into his bank	account	B1403	I asked the man about his other	account	C1403	I paid the money into his bank	extra
A1404	After dinner we left the waiter a small	tip	B1404	My father doesn't usually leave a	tip	C1404	After dinner we left the waiter a small	bone
A1405	Children enjoy seeing clowns at the	circus	B1405	Children enjoy having fun at the	circus	C1405	Children enjoy seeing clowns at the	district
A1406	Some children go to school on a yellow	bus	B1406	Some people go to work on the crowded	bus	C1406	Some children go to school on a yellow	clock
A1407	The musician plays the piano and other	instruments	B1407	Some people have a lot of different	instruments	C1407	The musician plays the piano and other	announcements
A1408	Please put the flowers in a	vase	B1408	Please be careful with that old	vase	C1408	Please put the flowers in a	grill
A1409	A kitten is a baby	cat	B1409	The old lady has a very cute	cat	C1409	A kitten is a baby	board
A1410	The painting is in a wooden	frame	B1410	The nice present is a beautiful	frame	C1410	The painting is in a wooden	tube
A1411	Cars and buses are types of	vehicle	B1411	The man will have three types of	vehicle	C1411	Cars and buses are types of	prisoner
A1412	I take sandwiches to work to eat for	lunch	B1412	Every day I drink chocolate milk with my	lunch	C1412	I take sandwiches to work to eat for	front

A1413	Use the lift or walk up the	stairs	B1413	Turn right and then walk up the	stairs	C1413	Use the lift or walk up the	term
A1414	People you work with are your	colleagues	B1414	I often have meetings with my	colleagues	C1414	People you work with are your	painters
A1415	A baby dog is called a	puppy	B1415	The children love their cute	puppy	C1415	A baby dog is called a	sweater
A1416	Those bees make delicious sweet	honey	B1416	The children eat tasty sweet	honey	C1416	Those bees make delicious sweet	matter
A1417	When you eat , food goes down into your	stomach	B1417	When you eat too much you get a fat	stomach	C1417	When you eat , food goes down into your	machine
A1418	The Italian restaurant sells slices of	pizza	B1418	The expensive restaurant sells pieces of	pizza	C1418	The Italian restaurant sells slices of	football
A1419	Your hand is connected to your	arms	B1419	Your ears aren't connected to your	arms	C1419	Your hand is connected to your	east
A1420	The tourists are staying in an expensive	hotel	B1420	The receptionist works at a famous	hotel	C1420	The tourists are staying in an expensive	system
A1421	I drink coffee with sugar and	milk	B1421	Kids sometimes drink a lot of	milk	C1421	I drink coffee with sugar and	staff
A1422	I often borrow books from the	library	B1422	I don't read newspapers at the	library	C1422	I often borrow books from the	chocolate
A1423	You can't control the beating of your	heart	B1423	You can't change the action of your	heart	C1423	You can't control the beating of your	side
A1424	Meat from a cow is called	beef	B1424	My favourite food is called	beef	C1424	Meat from a cow is called	zone
A1501	Managers often earn a high	salary	B1501	He doesn't have a very good	salary	C1501	Managers often earn a high	festival
A1502	In the past teachers wrote on the	blackboard	B1502	In the past people used a	blackboard	C1502	In the past teachers wrote on the	checkout
A1503	People with toothache should visit the	dentist	B1503	Every six months I visit my	dentist	C1503	People with toothache should visit the	sunset
A1504	There are sixty minutes in an	hour	B1504	We are going home in one	hour	C1504	There are sixty minutes in an	air
A1505	The rock musician plays the	guitar	B1505	The old scientist plays the	guitar	C1505	The rock musician plays the	reward
A1506	Carrying a heavy bag can hurt your	back	B1506	The man fell and really hurt his	back	C1506	Carrying a heavy bag can hurt your	set
A1507	To visit some countries you need a	visa	B1507	Before his holiday he got a	visa	C1507	To visit some countries you need a	topic
A1508	I prefer typing to writing with a	pen	B1508	At work I often have to find a	pen	C1508	I prefer typing to writing with a	duck
A1509	He's drinking water out of the tall	glass	B1509	He's pouring water into the small	glass	C1509	He's drinking water out of the tall	breath
A1510	After lunch I work all	afternoon	B1510	I only work here in the	afternoon	C1510	After lunch I work all	engineer
A1511	My dentist looks after my	teeth	B1511	I always look after my	teeth	C1511	My dentist looks after my	lamps
A1512	A puppy is a baby	dog	B1512	The children have a nice little	dog	C1512	A puppy is a baby	fact
A1513	The traditional furniture is made of	wood	B1513	The very pretty jewellery is made of	wood	C1513	The traditional furniture is made of	golf
A1514	Mice love to eat <i>smelly</i>	cheese	B1514	I really like sandwiches that have	cheese	C1514	Mice love to eat <i>smelly</i>	views

A1515	Eggs taste better with a little	salt	B1515	It is better with a little	salt	C1515	Eggs taste better with a little	league
A1516	The tour guide is talking to a group of	tourists	B1516	The woman is talking to a group of	tourists	C1516	The tour guide is talking to a group of	biscuits
A1517	We used the bridge to cross the	river	B1517	Many cities have a big	river	C1517	We used the bridge to cross the	summer
A1518	A holiday after your wedding is called a	honeymoon	B1518	We really enjoyed planning our special	honeymoon	C1518	A holiday after your wedding is called a	champion
A1519	She's cutting the paper using sharp	scissors	B1519	She's making some trousers using old	scissors	C1519	She's cutting the paper using sharp	pirates
A1520	Keep your feet warm with wool	socks	B1520	Keep your hands off my new	socks	C1520	Keep your feet warm with wool	tins
A1521	People in England and China speak different	languages	B1521	The clever students are learning some new	languages	C1521	People in England and China speak different	characters
A1522	In the morning father always reads the	newspaper	B1522	In the evening I usually buy a	newspaper	C1522	In the morning father always reads the	studio
A1523	A pilot's job is to fly a	plane	B1523	Their job is to fix the	plane	C1523	A pilot's job is to fly a	fool
A1524	The child loves his mother and	father	B1524	On Mondays the child helps his	father	C1524	The child loves his mother and	running
A1601	The mother loves her son and	daughter	B1601	The nurse plays with her little	daughter	C1601	The mother loves her son and	surprise
A1602	Her wedding ring is made of	gold	B1602	The small statue is made of	gold	C1602	Her wedding ring is made of	stores
A1603	The funniest people at the circus are the	clowns	B1603	The saddest people at the theatre were some	clowns	C1603	The funniest people at the circus are the	dust
A1604	Forests have many tall green	trees	B1604	People like to walk near nice	trees	C1604	Forests have many tall green	kicks
A1605	The teacher helps the children in her	class	B1605	The man talked to the children in the	class	C1605	The teacher helps the children in her	fault
A1606	We hear sound using our	ears	B1606	Some kids have very big	ears	C1606	We hear sound using our	halls
A1607	Children between thirteen and nineteen are	teenagers	B1607	The kittens are playing with the group of	teenagers	C1607	Children between thirteen and nineteen are	calendars
A1608	Some women wear very <i>high-heeled</i>	shoes	B1608	Some men like very expensive	shoes	C1608	Some women wear very <i>high-heeled</i>	pies
A1609	He called the restaurant to book a	table	B1609	He asked the waiter about the	table	C1609	He called the restaurant to book a	middle
A1610	The doctor told me to quit	smoking	B1610	My mother told me to stop	smoking	C1610	The doctor told me to quit	drama
A1611	My favourite fish is grilled pink	salmon	B1611	My favourite food is nice fresh	salmon	C1611	My favourite fish is grilled pink	cola
A1612	In the summer we go to the swimming	pool	B1612	At the weekend we often go to the	pool	C1612	In the summer we go to the swimming	cream
A1613	At the gym I put my things in the	locker	B1613	At work I put my things in my	locker	C1613	At the gym I put my things in the	tiger
A1614	I buy all my food at the big	supermarket	B1614	I saw all this stuff at the new	supermarket	C1614	I buy all my food at the big	graduation
A1615	Cars and buses have four	wheels	B1615	Trains and buses have big	wheels	C1615	Cars and buses have four	pots

A1616	Please help me to open the jam	jar	B1616	Please help me with this big	jar	C1616	Please help me to open the jam	phrase
A1617	The sports centre has a new basketball	court	B1617	The sports team is playing on the new	court	C1617	The sports centre has a new basketball	date
A1618	When it is hot you should drink lots of	water	B1618	When you get home you should have some	water	C1618	When it is hot you should drink lots of	trouble
A1619	Before we ordered we looked at the restaurant	menu	B1619	Before we decided we looked at the long	menu	C1619	Before we ordered we looked at the restaurant	bucket
A1620	The model looked at herself in the	mirror	B1620	The designer bought an expensive	mirror	C1620	The model looked at herself in the	section
A1621	My car was fixed by a	mechanic	B1621	My son was helped by a	mechanic	C1621	My car was fixed by a	translation
A1622	She called the doctor to make an	appointment	B1622	She asked the woman to change the	appointment	C1622	She called the doctor to make an	example
A1623	The postman delivered the important	letter	B1623	The scientist opened the important	letter	C1623	The postman delivered the important	kisses
A1624	The student studied and got good	grades	B1624	The professor rarely gives good	grades	C1624	The student studied and got good	shocks
A1701	Penguins eat a lot of	fish	B1701	Those people like to eat lots of	fish	C1701	Penguins eat a lot of	guards
A1702	On sunny days there are no clouds in the	sky	B1702	On winter days there are some birds in the	sky	C1702	On sunny days there are no clouds in the	firm
A1703	Silver , gold and iron are different types of	metal	B1703	This company uses different types of	metal	C1703	Silver , gold and iron are different types of	cable
A1704	<i>Wine</i> is usually made from	grapes	B1704	Dishes are sometimes made with	grapes	C1704	<i>Wine</i> is usually made from	wool
A1705	The tea is in a small white	cup	B1705	The stuff is in a small clean	cup	C1705	The tea is in a small white	roll
A1706	Cars are made in a	factory	B1706	Those men work in a	factory	C1706	Cars are made in a	performance
A1707	History is learning about what happened in the	past	B1707	Students like this subject because they learn about the	past	C1707	History is learning about what happened in the	break
A1708	If you are hot you can open the	window	B1708	If you are bored you can clean the	window	C1708	If you are hot you can open the	future
A1709	He is driving faster than the speed	limit	B1709	The driver is going over the	limit	C1709	He is driving faster than the speed	pattern
A1710	Your father's brother is your	uncle	B1710	My father often meets my	uncle	C1710	Your father's brother is your	picture
A1711	I called the hotel to book a	room	B1711	I called the place to ask about a	room	C1711	I called the hotel to book a	case
A1712	<i>Sweets</i> and biscuits have a lot of	sugar	B1712	He enjoys food with a lot of	sugar	C1712	<i>Sweets</i> and biscuits have a lot of	monkeys
A1713	Keep your head warm by wearing a	hat	B1713	You can look nice by wearing a	hat	C1713	Keep your head warm by wearing a	park
A1714	<i>Login</i> using your username and	password	B1714	It's hard for me to remember my	password	C1714	<i>Login</i> using your username and	bracelet
A1715	I like driving instead of	walking	B1715	I like football , swimming and	walking	C1715	I like driving instead of	duty
A1716	Children are punished for their bad	behaviour	B1716	Children are admired for their good	behaviour	C1716	Children are punished for their bad	departure

A1717	Most vegetables are grown on a	farm	B1717	Most weekends I work on a	farm	C1717	Most vegetables are grown on a	speech
A1718	The area close to your house is your	neighbourhood	B1718	My house is in a very quiet	neighbourhood	C1718	The area close to your house is your	butterfly
A1719	People enjoy reading their birthday	cards	B1719	People enjoy receiving a lot of	cards	C1719	People enjoy reading their birthday	brains
A1720	Chefs are very good at	cooking	B1720	His father is really good at	cooking	C1720	Chefs are very good at	dollars
A1721	Reading and photography are common	hobbies	B1721	People often have a lot of different	hobbies	C1721	Reading and photography are common	candles
A1722	He carefully filled out the job	application	B1722	He quickly finished the very boring	application	C1722	He carefully filled out the job	entertainment
A1723	Russia is the world's largest	country	B1723	Tourists like going to that small	country	C1723	Russia is the world's largest	moment
A1724	Clothes fit best if they are the right	size	B1724	Make sure that you get the correct	size	C1724	Clothes fit best if they are the right	fear
A1801	Some people wear blue trousers called	jeans	B1801	Some people enjoy wearing clothes called	jeans	C1801	Some people wear blue trousers called	grooms
A1802	Housewives carry food in a plastic	bag	B1802	The housewife couldn't find her favourite	bag	C1802	Housewives carry food in a plastic	seat
A1803	I like jewellery made of gold more than	silver	B1803	I like sculptures made of wood more than	silver	C1803	I like jewellery made of gold more than	talent
A1804	Doctors and nurses work in a	hospital	B1804	The cleaners work in the big	hospital	C1804	Doctors and nurses work in a	detective
A1805	The criminal was caught by the	police	B1805	The man was interviewed by the	police	C1805	The criminal was caught by the	watches
A1806	Kind people give money to	charity	B1806	The people talked about the	charity	C1806	Kind people give money to	happiness
A1807	Children's films made of drawings are called	cartoons	B1807	Some popular films are amazing	cartoons	C1807	Children's films made of drawings are called	trumpets
A1808	There are books and CDs on the	shelf	B1808	There are lots of things on the	shelf	C1808	There are books and CDs on the	drum
A1809	Your heart moves blood around your	body	B1809	Some people do not like their	body	C1809	Your heart moves blood around your	reason
A1810	Children quickly grow up and become	adults	B1810	Children often do not want to become	adults	C1810	Children quickly grow up and become	options
A1811	Babies drink from a plastic	bottle	B1811	He threw away the old	bottle	C1811	Babies drink from a plastic	level
A1812	Schoolchildren wear trousers and a white	shirt	B1812	Office workers usually wear a	shirt	C1812	Schoolchildren wear trousers and a white	bunch
A1813	He called the restaurant to make a	reservation	B1813	She told her husband to make a	reservation	C1813	He called the restaurant to make a	generation
A1814	Eating fruit and exercising are good for your	health	B1814	Teenagers don't know how to look after their	health	C1814	Eating fruit and exercising are good for your	price
A1815	In summer we always go abroad on	holiday	B1815	In summer we always have a relaxed	holiday	C1815	In summer we always go abroad on	gallery
A1816	In India we ate rice and chicken	curry	B1816	At the weekend I like to eat chicken	curry	C1816	In India we ate rice and chicken	leisure

A1817 The **restaurant** has a **famous** **chef**

A1818 She **invited** all her **friends** to her **birthday** **party**

A1819 She **speaks** with a **strong Scottish** **accent**

A1820 The **class** **listened** to their **teacher**

A1821 The nervous **fans** **watched** the **football** **match**

A1822 You **wear** a **hat** on your **head**

A1823 A **small mountain** is called a **hill**

A1824 The mother made her **sick** child some **chicken** **soup**

A0001 **Doctors** choose **medicine** and then **write** a **prescription**

A0002 In **maths** **class** we do **sums** using a **calculator**

A0003 **Call** the **police** or an **ambulance** in an **emergency**

A0004 She wants to get a **degree** from a **famous** **university**

A0005 **Studying** **animals** and **plants** is called **biology**

A0006 The **scientist** is in the **lab** doing the **experiment**

A0007 Someone who **doesn't** **eat** **meat** is called a **vegetarian**

B1817 The **woman** knows a very **famous** **chef**

B1818 She **arrived** with her **friends** at the **fantastic** **party**

B1819 She **likes** his **lovely** **pleasant** **accent**

B1820 The **students** always **listen** to their **teacher**

B1821 The **children** **watched** the **important** **match**

B1822 He **put** the **book** on his **head**

B1823 My **town** is close to a **big** **hill**

B1824 The mother made her **child** some **delicious** **soup**

B0001 After our **discussion** he **gave** me a **prescription**

B0002 In **some** **classes** we **need** to use a **calculator**

B0003 **Call** this **number** if you **have** an **emergency**

B0004 She will get a **certificate** from the **old** **university**

B0005 The **scientist** **studies** a lot of **biology**

B0006 The **engineer** is in the **room** doing the **experiment**

B0007 I **don't** **want** those **things** because I'm a **vegetarian**

C1817 The **restaurant** has a **famous** **plug**

C1818 She **invited** all her **friends** to her **birthday** **sister**

C1819 She **speaks** with a **strong Scottish** **entry**

C1820 The **class** **listened** to their **danger**

C1821 The nervous **fans** **watched** the **football** **file**

C1822 You **wear** a **hat** on your **girl**

C1823 A **small mountain** is called a **mate**

C1824 The mother made her **sick** child some **chicken** **tear**

C0001 **Doctors** choose **medicine** and then **write** a **tomato**

C0002 In **maths** **class** we do **sums** using a **millimetre**

C0003 **Call** the **police** or an **ambulance** in an **operation**

C0004 She wants to get a **degree** from a **famous** **possibility**

C0005 **Studying** **animals** and **plants** is called **facilities**

C0006 The **scientist** is in the **lab** doing the **ability**

C0007 Someone who **doesn't** **eat** **meat** is called a **documentary**