

Chapter VI

Complex variation of the T(r) and the E(r)

In this study, there are three social variables: sex, job level and English language background of the subjects. The preceding chapter is involved with an analysis of the variation of the T(r) and E(r) by each of the social factors. One social factor is taken into consideration at a time. This chapter will deal with a more complex analysis of variation of the phonological variables by the three social factors. That is, when one social factor is under study, the other two are controlled. For example, when the variation of the T(r) by sex is under discussion, job level and English language background are controlled, or when the variation of the E(r) by job level is under study, sex and English language background are controlled.

In this study, there are three social variables and each of the three is divided into two to four groups, i.e. two sexes, four job levels and three types of English language background (1.6.2.1-1.6.2.3). Thus, there are all together 24 social categories (cells), resulting from the multiplication of the number of groups of each social variable ($2 \times 4 \times 3 = 24$), (as illustrated in Table 3.2).

According to Hudson (1980:153), and Wolfram and Fasold (1974:40), one should aim at a minimum of five people in each cell. Therefore, by this criteria there should ideally be at least $24 \times 5 = 120$ informants. This number is in fact more than twice the actual number of subjects in the study. The methodology adopted in this study, however, gives the weight to an approximately equal number of male and female employees in each job level rather than to the number of subjects in each cell (Table 3.1). Therefore, with 58 subjects selected, not all the cells can be filled. Instead, they will be modified and reduced so that as many subjects as possible will be assigned to the new cells. Even so, the numerical requirement for each cell as stated above may not completely be satisfied. However, as Milroy (1987:22) comments, in practice many surveys have fewer than four speakers in each cell.

It was noticed in discussion in the last chapter that the pattern of T(r) and E(r) usage of some groups of the subjects are closer to each other than to the others. In particular, the subjects of the middle status levels are similar in many respects, and so are the two groups with less exposure to English. Regarding the two middle status groups, their rate of each T(r) variant in the prevocalic position is almost identical while their rates of r-coloured T(r) variants, [l] and [ø] in clusters are

approximately the same (5.1.2 and Table 5.2). Similarly, their patterns of E(r) variation as well as the frequencies of the variants used in both prevocalic position and clusters are almost the same (5.1.3 and Table 5.3). As for the two groups with less English exposure, there seems to be no group differentiation between these two. They appear to belong to the same group, obviously distinct from Type I in their use of each T(r) variant in both positions (5.1.3 and Table 5.3). In addition, their rate of the standard English [ɹ] in both positions are correspondingly the same (5.2.3 and Table 5.6).

In the light of these previous findings, the two middle job levels (Job level II and Job level III) could be combined, to be called Job level II/III. Likewise, the two groups of subjects with less extensive English background (Type II and Type III) could be grouped into one single group, to be called Type II/III.

Therefore, the original four job levels (1.6.2.2) are now reduced to three. They are reclassified as Job level I, Job level II/III and Job level IV. They are high status, middle status and low status position, respectively. Similarly, the three types of English language background of the hotel employees (1.6.2.3) are

now reduced to two. They are Type I and Type II/III. The former is considered more exposure to English and the latter less exposure.

With the modified classification of the social factors, the number of cells is now reduced to twelve, derived from the multiplication of two sexes, three job levels, and two types of English language background ($2 \times 3 \times 2 = 12$), as shown in Table C.0. Since in the sample there is no subject of either sex of Type I working in the semi-skilled level (Job level IV), two more social categories are subtracted from twelve, reducing the number to ten. In spite of the adjustment, some cells still have less than five subjects. That is, there are two males of Type I in the high job level, two males of Type I in the middle job level, two females of Type II/III in the high job level and three middle-status females of Type I. Any generalization about these groups will thus be carefully made, in particular the groups with two subjects.

Table 6.0-Distribution of subjects by sex, modified job level and modified type of English language background

Type of English language background	Male			Female			Total
	Job level			Job level			
	I	II/III	IV	I	II/III	IV	
Type I	2	2	-	5	3	-	12
Type II/III	6	12	7	2	11	8	46
Total	8	14	7	7	14	8	58

6.1 Complex variation of the T(r)

The variation of T(r) in this section will be discussed in order of variation by sex (6.1.1), job level (6.1.2) and English language background (6.1.3). When one social variable is under discussion, the other two will be controlled.

6.1.1 Variation of the T(r) by sex

Table 6.1 and the corresponding Figures 6.1a-6.1b show the patterns of T(r) usage of each sex group by job level and English language background Type I. They show quite clearly that female speakers of high status and middle status with more English exposure have a higher rate of [r] and [ɹ] than the males of the same category in both prevocalic and postconsonantal positions. Conversely, the former have a lower rate of prevocalic [l] and r-deletion in clusters than the latter.

The differences in T(r) usage between males and females with more English exposure in each job level are statistically significant in three out of four cases of occurrence. The data support the hypothesis that female speakers use more prestigious T(r) variants than male when job level and English language background Type I are controlled.

Table 6.1 - Frequency of T(r) variants by sex, with
job level and ELB Type I controlled

English language background Type I										
Job level I				Job level II/III				Job level IV		
Male		Female		Male		Female		Male	Female	
<u>Prevocalic T(r)</u>										
[r]	0.6%	1	4.4%	14	-	-	4.4%	13	-	-
[ɹ]	1.3%	2	6.3%	20	0.6%	1	8.9%	26	-	-
[l]	98.1%	157	89.2%	282	99.4%	157	86.7%	254	-	-
	100%	160	100%	316	100%	158	100%	293	-	-
<u>Postconsonantal T(r)</u>										
[r]	2.5%	4	4.0%	7	8.7%	6	5.1%	5	-	-
[ɹ]	8.7%	14	12.1%	21	8.7%	6	28.3%	28	-	-
[l]	6.2%	10	19.7%	34	7.2%	5	8.1%	8	-	-
[∅]	82.6%	133	64.2%	111	75.4%	52	58.5%	58	-	-
	100%	161	100%	173	100%	69	100%	99	-	-

(prevocalic)

 $\chi^2=11.6$ df=2 p<0.01

(postconsonantal)

 $\chi^2=16.7$ df=3 p<0.01

(prevocalic)

 $\chi^2=19.2$ df=2 p<0.01

(postconsonantal)

 $\chi^2=10.2$ df=3 ns.

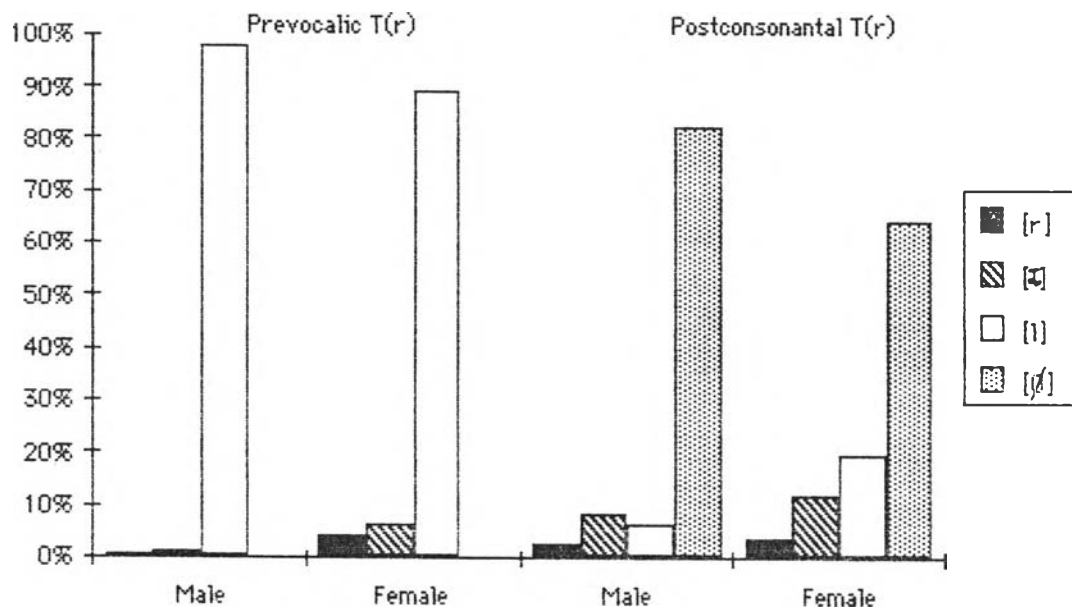


Figure 6.1a - Frequency of T(r) variants by sex (control: Job level I and ELB Type I)

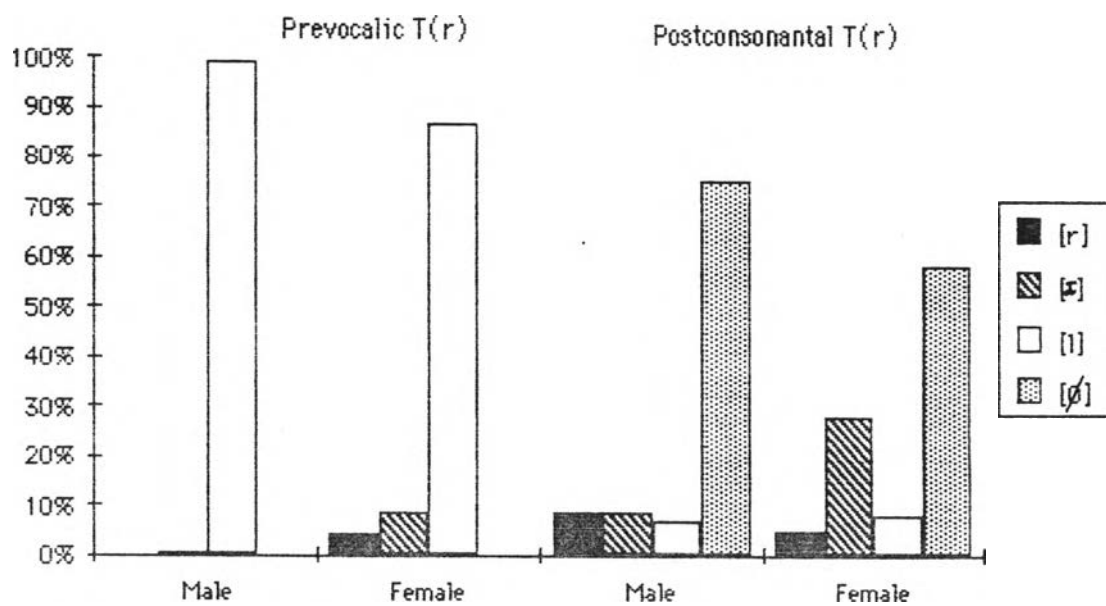


Figure 6.1b - Frequency of T(r) variants by sex (control: Job level II/III and ELB Type I)

The data show that there is no sex differentiation in the use of T(r) in clusters of middle status speakers with extensive English exposure. This is probably because both males and females are aware of the social value of the T(r). Their rate of r-deletion is lower than the average of that of all speakers. Besides, their use of [r] and the less prestigious [ɹ] are relatively high.

Table 6.1 also shows that both males and females of Job level I and Job level II have the same pattern of prevocalic T(r) variation which conforms to the general norm of all subjects [l] > [ɹ] > [r]. This is also the pattern of all male speakers. For the social sub-groups of females, this pattern differs from the norm of female speakers as a whole, i.e. [l] > [r] > [ɹ] (5.1.1).

In clusters, the high status male speakers have a higher rate of [ɹ] than [l]. This pattern is different from the norm of all the male speakers, [∅] > [ɹ] / [l] > [r] (5.1.1). The postconsonantal pattern of Job level I females does not deviate from the norm of all female speakers, i.e. [∅] > [l] > [ɹ] > [r] (5.1.1).

The females of high status and middle status positions with less English exposure also have a higher rate of [r] than male speakers of the same category in

Table 6.2 - Frequency of T(r) variants by sex, with
job level and ELB Type II/III controlled

English language background Type II/III												
Job level I				Job level II/III				Job level IV				
Male		Female		Male		Female		Male		Female		
<u>Prevocalic T(r)</u>												
[r]	1.6%	6	19.0%	46	1.6%	15	2.9%	23	4.6%	23	0.4%	2
[ɹ]	28.0%	104	4.5%	11	1.6%	15	1.1%	9	13.9%	69	0.2%	1
[l]	70.4%	262	76.5%	185	96.8%	926	96.0%	776	81.5%	404	99.4%	524
	100%	372	100%	242	100%	956	100%	808	100%	496	100%	527
<u>Postconsonantal T(r)</u>												
[r]	1.7%	3	7.1%	5	0.6%	3	5.9%	17	2.3%	8	3.3%	6
[ɹ]	8.9%	16	5.7%	4	3.3%	17	2.1%	6	14.4%	51	-	-
[l]	8.9%	16	21.4%	15	8.9%	46	12.9%	37	7.1%	25	1.7%	3
[∅]	80.5%	144	65.7%	46	87.2%	450	79.1%	227	76.2%	270	95.0%	173
	100%	179	100%	70	100%	516	100%	287	100%	354	100%	182

(prevocalic)

 $\chi^2=91$ df=2 p<0.01

(prevocalic)

 $\chi^2=4$ df=2 ns.

(prevocalic)

 $\chi^2=98.2$ df=2 p<0.01

(postconsonantal)

 $\chi^2=13.4$ df=3 p<0.01

(postconsonantal)

 $\chi^2=26.3$ df=3 p<0.01

(postconsonantal)

 $\chi^2=38.4$ df=3 p<0.01

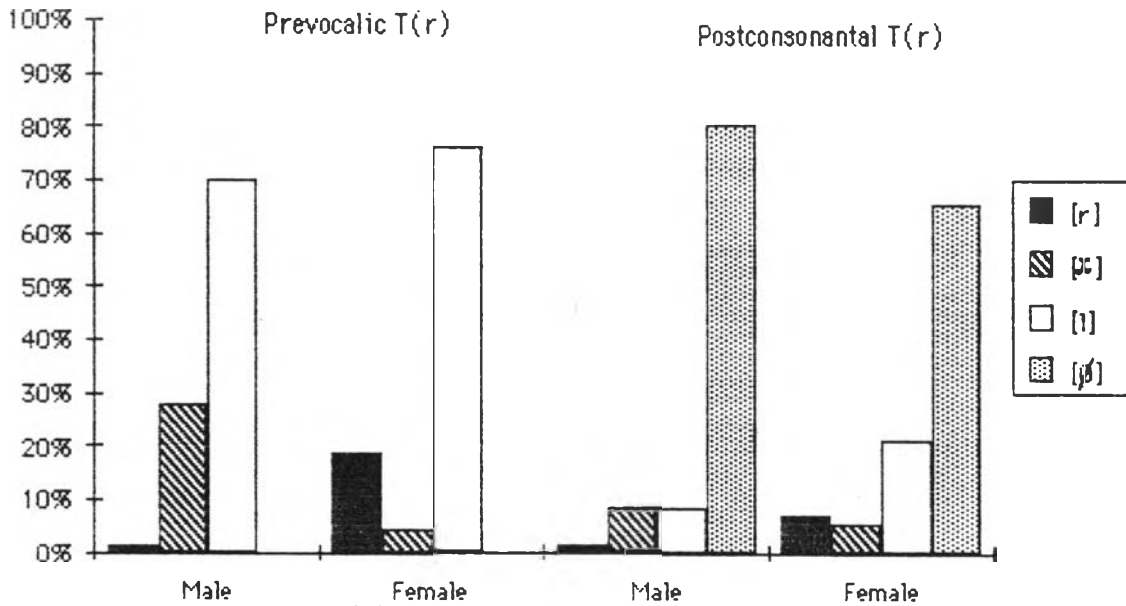


Figure 6.2a - Frequency of T(r) variants by sex (control: Job level I and ELB Type II/III)

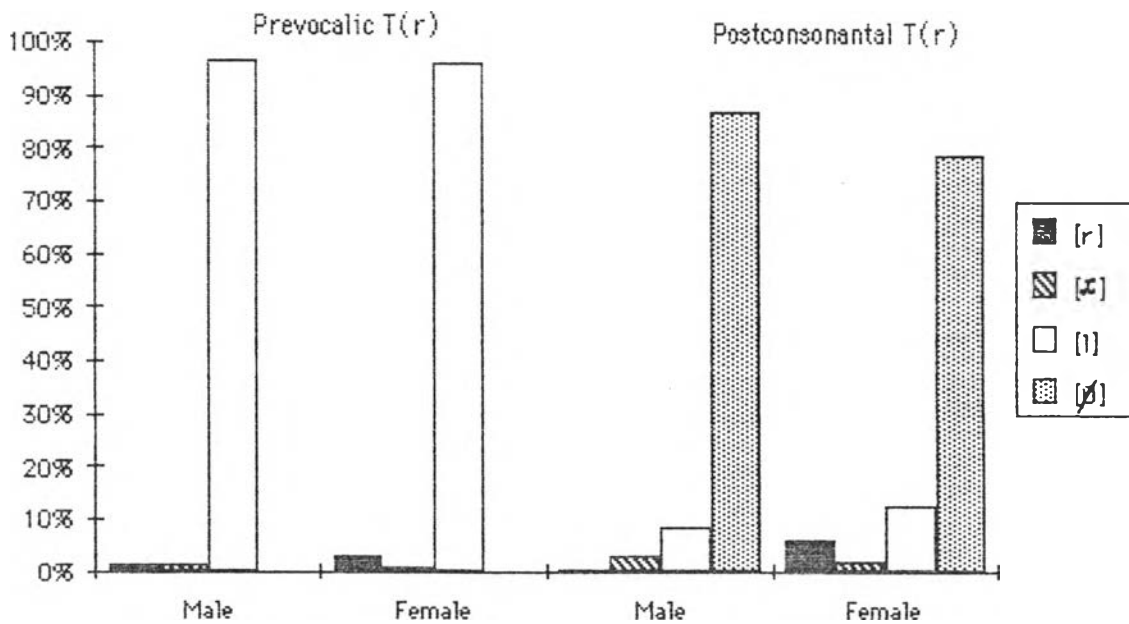


Figure 6.2b - Frequency of T(r) variants by sex (control: job level II/III and ELB Type II/III)

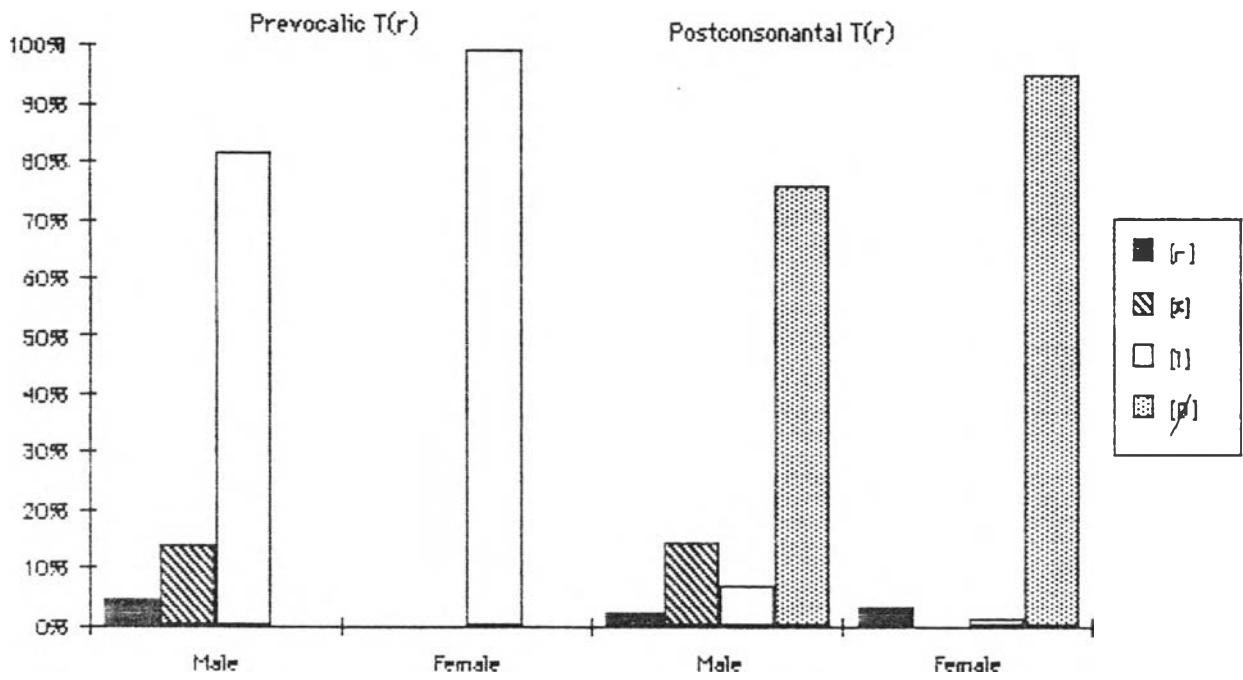


Figure 6.2c-Frequency of T(r) variants by sex (control: job level IV and ELB Type II/III)



both prevocalic position and in clusters. Table 6.2 and Figures 6.2a-6.2b show that the former also have a lower rate of r-reduction than the latter.

The differences in T(r) usage between males and females with less exposure to English in Job level I and Job level II/III are statistically significant in three out of four cases of occurrence. The data confirm the hypothesis that female speakers use more prestigious T(r) variant than male when job level and English language background Type II/III are controlled.

Sex differentiation is not significant in the case of the prevocalic position of middle status speakers with less English language background. This is probably because both sex groups are not aware of the prestigious form of the prevocalic T(r), especially the females. As can be seen from Table 6.2, females of the two lower status groups almost make an exclusive use of [l] in the prevocalic position.

In contrast to the two higher job levels, the male speakers of the bottom group with less exposure to English have a much higher rate of r-coloured T(r) variants than the females of the same category in both positions of occurrence. As can be seen from Table 6.2 and Figure 6.2c,

the former have a higher frequencies of prevocalic [l] and a much lower rate of r-lessness than the latter. This may partly due to the fact that of the two sex groups of low status, the males are the more dominant. Besides, they could be more ambitious, and want to attain a higher status position.

The differences in the use of T(r) between males and females of the low status group with less English speaking experience are statistically significant in both positions. The data of the low status job level do not support the hypothesis that female speakers use more prestigious T(r) variant than male.

The patterns of prevocalic T(r) variation of male speakers in high status and low status groups are exactly the same as the norm of all male speakers, [l]>[ɹ]>[r]. Similarly, the prevocalic T(r) patterns of female speakers of the same category are identical to the norm of all female speakers, [l]>[r]>[ɹ]. Notice also that the rate of [l] in the prevocalic position of male and female speakers of the managerial position (70% and 76%) is quite low when compared to the average use of [l] of all subjects (90.7%, 4.7.1).

The higher rate of [r] than [ɹ] in clusters of female speakers with less English speaking experience in each job level is the reversal of the norm of all female speakers with a higher rate of [ɹ] than [r]. The patterns of T(r) variation of male speakers of the middle status group ([ø]>[l]>[ɹ]>[r]), and the low status [ø]>[ɹ]>[l]>[r], obviously differ from the norm of male speakers as a whole, i.e. [ø]>[ɹ]/[l]>[r].

In 5.1.1, it was concluded that female speakers in general use more prestigious T(r) variant than male when only sex variable was considered. It has been shown in this section (6.1.1) that even though job level and English language background are controlled, the same tendency still prevails, with only one exception. That is, the males and females of the low job level with less English background bring out the opposite results.

Also in 5.1.1, it was pointed out that although female speakers have a higher rate of [r] than male, the latter make greater use of [ɹ] than the former. Table 6.1 demonstrates that female speakers with more exposure to English have a higher rate of [ɹ] than the males of the same category, regardless of job level. On the other hand, Table 6.2 shows rather convincingly that it is the males with less English language background who

use [.] more frequently than females of the same category, regardless of job level.

6.1.2 Variation of the T(r) by job level

Table 6.3 and the corresponding Figures 6.3a-6.3b show the patterns of T(r) variation by job level when sex and English language background Type I are controlled. The table and the figures demonstrate that there is likely to be no differences in the use of T(r) in both prevocalic position and clusters between high status and middle status speakers of both sex groups with extensive English exposure background. This may be due to the fact that the speakers consider their foreign experience as a great prestige (5.3), and thus they can overlook the social value of the T(r).

The only difference can be seen between high job level and middle job level of female speakers with more English exposure. The difference lies in the fact that the middle status group has a higher rate of [r] and [ɹ], and a lower rate of r-lessness than the high status. The rate of [ɹ] of the former is more than twice that of the latter. The differences of T(r) usage between the two groups are statistically significant. The data, however, show that middle status speakers of the female group with more English language background make greater use of the prestigious T(r) than their high status counterparts. That is the data do not support the hypothesis that speakers of a higher job level use more prestigious T(r) variants than those of a lower job level.

Table 6.3 - Frequency of T(r) variants by job level,
with sex and ELB Type I controlled

ELB Type I												
Male							Female					
JL I		JL II/III		JL IV			JL I		JL II/III		JL IV	
<u>Prevocalic T(r)</u>												
[r]	0.6%	1	-	-	-	-	4.4%	14	4.4%	13	-	-
[ɹ]	1.3%	2	0.6%	1	-	-	6.3%	20	8.9%	26	-	-
[l]	98.1%	157	99.4%	157	-	-	89.2%	282	86.7%	254	-	-
	100%	160	100%	158	-	-	100%	316	100%	293	-	-
<u>Postconsonantal</u>												
[r]	2.5%	4	8.7%	6	-	-	4.0%	7	5.1%	5	-	-
[ɹ]	8.7%	14	8.7%	6	-	-	12.1%	21	28.3%	28	-	-
[l]	6.2%	10	7.2%	5	-	-	19.7%	34	8.1%	8	-	-
[∅]	82.6%	133	75.4%	52	-	-	64.2%	111	58.5%	58	-	-
	100%	161	100%	69	-	-	100%	173	100%	99	-	-

(prevocalic)

$\chi^2=1.4$ df=2 ns.

(postconsonantal)

$\chi^2=5.6$ df=3 ns.

(prevocalic)

$\chi^2=0.9$ df=2 ns.

(postconsonantal)

$\chi^2=15.1$ df=3 $p<0.01$

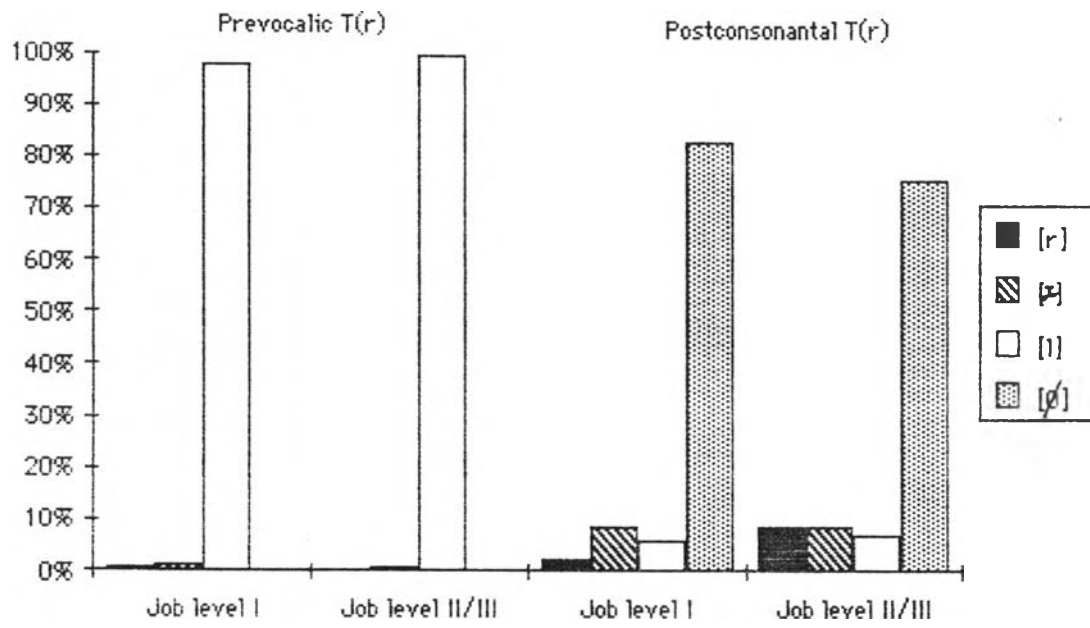


Figure 6.3a-Frequency of T(r) variants by job level (control: male and ELB Type I)

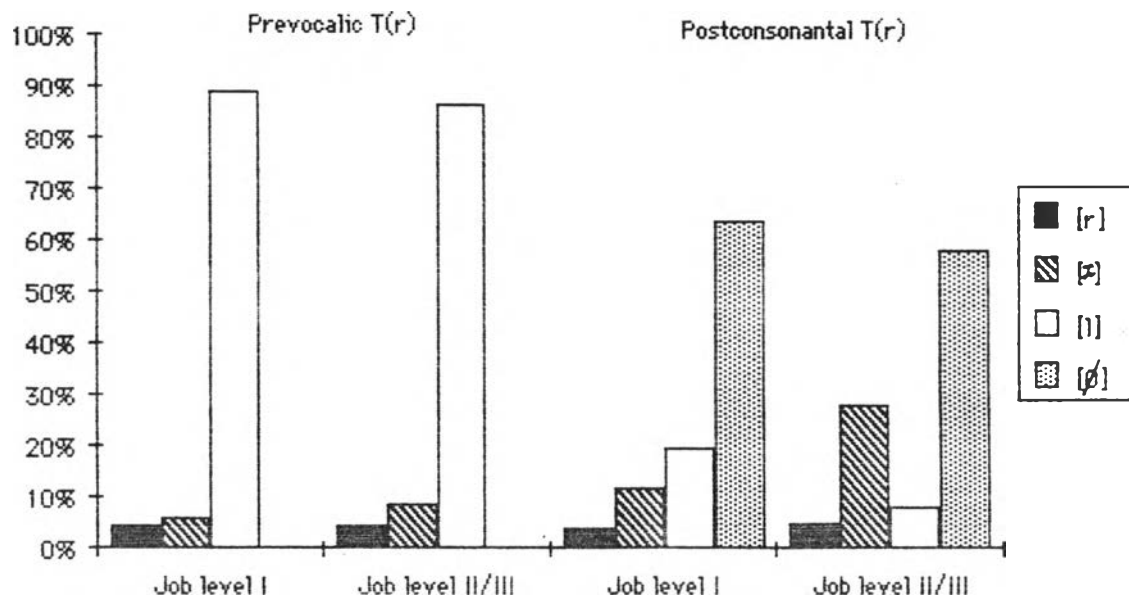


Figure 6.3b-Frequency of T(r) variants by job level (control: female and ELB Type I)

In 5.1.2, a hypercorrect pattern of T(r) usage is seen in the lowest status group. They use [ɹ] at a higher frequency than the two middle job levels. As a result, their T(r) usage resembles the highest status group. The data given in Table 6.3 and Figure 6.3b illustrate quite clearly that the middle status group of females with more English exposure has a complete hypercorrect pattern of the T(r). Once again, the most obvious hypercorrection occurs with the non-native Thai variant [ɹ]. Their rate of [ɹ] (28%) is so high that it is mainly responsible for a sharp drop in the use of [ø] (58%). It remains to be seen whether in other normal Bangkok Thai speaking communities the rate of [ɹ] would be as high, and the rate of [ø] would be as low as this social sub-group.

To conclude, there is no evidence to support the hypothesis that speakers of a higher job level use more prestigious T(r) variant than those of a lower job level when sex groups and English language background Type I are controlled. On the contrary, middle status group of female speakers with more English language exposure use more r-coloured T(r) variants than high status of the same category in the postconsonantal position.

Hypercorrection also plays an important role in class differentiation of the T(r) among male speakers with less English exposure. As can be seen from Table 6.4 and Figures 6.4a, the low status group of male employees without overseas English exposure has the highest frequency of [r] in the prevocalic position, and its rate of [ɹ] and [l] ranks second after the managerial.

The bottom group of male speakers with less English exposure also has the highest frequency of [r] and [ɹ], and the lowest frequency of [l] and r-deletion in clusters. The managerial group turns out to be second in terms of the frequencies of each T(r) variant used. Obviously the lowest status job level has a complete hypercorrection of all postconsonantal T(r) variants, surpassing both the middle status and the high status groups of male speakers with less English background.

The differences in the use of T(r) variants among the three job levels of male speakers without much English exposure are statistically significant in both positions of occurrence. The data do not support the hypothesis that speakers of a higher job level use more prestigious T(r) variant than those of a lower job level when male speakers and English language background Type II/III are controlled.

Table 6.4 - Frequency of T(r) variants by job level,
with sex and ELB Type II/III controlled

ELB Type II/III												
Male						Female						
	JL I	JL II/III	JL IV			JL I	JL II/III	JL IV				
<u>Prevocalic T(r)</u>												
[r]	1.6%	6	1.6%	15	4.6%	23	19.0%	46	2.9%	23	0.4%	2
[ɹ]	28.0%	104	1.6%	15	13.9%	69	4.5%	11	1.1%	9	0.2%	1
[l]	70.4%	262	96.8%	926	81.5%	404	76.5%	185	96.0%	776	99.4%	524
	100%	372	100%	956	100%	496	100%	242	100%	808	100%	527
<u>Postconsonantal T(r)</u>												
[r]	1.7%	3	0.6%	3	2.3%	8	7.1%	5	5.9%	17	3.3%	6
[ɹ]	8.9%	16	3.3%	17	14.4%	51	5.7%	4	2.1%	6	-	-
[l]	8.9%	16	8.9%	46	7.1%	25	21.4%	15	12.9%	37	1.7%	3
[∅]	80.5%	144	87.2%	450	76.2%	270	65.7%	46	79.1%	227	95.0%	173
	100%	179	100%	516	100%	354	100%	70	100%	287	100%	182

(prevocalic)

$\chi^2=102$ df=4 p<0.01

(postconsonantal)

$\chi^2= 41.4$ df=6 p<0.01

(prevocalic)

$\chi^2=172.1$ df=4 p<0.01

(postconsonantal)

$\chi^2=41.1$ df=6 p<0.01

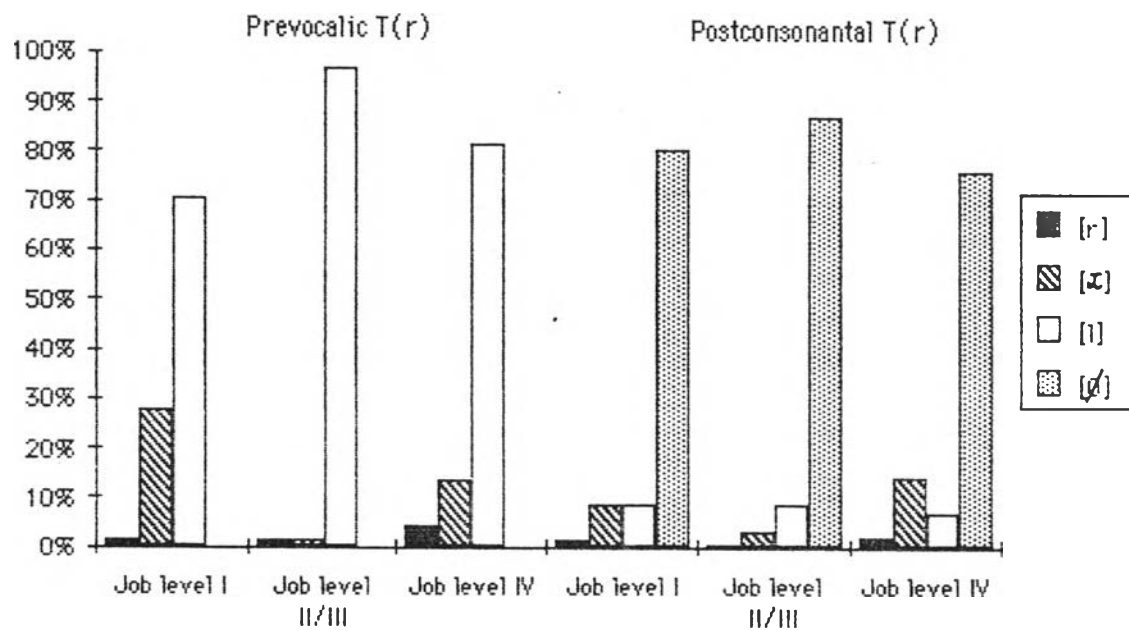


Figure 6.4a - Frequency of T(r) variants by job level (control: male and ELB Type II/III)

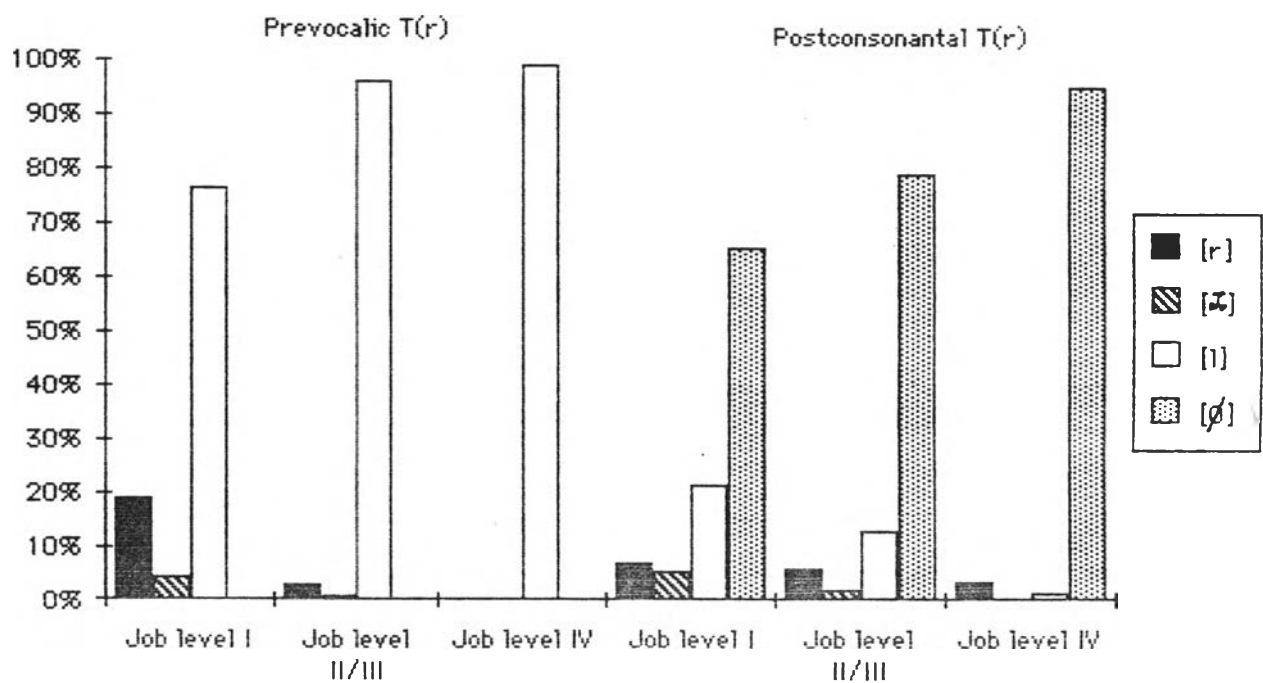


Figure 6.4b - Frequency of T(r) variants by job level (control: female and ELB Type II/III)

The linguistic behaviour of the three sub-social groups are exactly identical to the patterns of variation of the three respective job levels as a whole (5.1.2). It is interesting to note that the hypercorrection pattern of the lowest job level which appears in 5.1.2 is indeed contributed by the semi-skilled employees of the male group with less English exposure. Their higher scores of the prestigious [r] as well as their consistent use of the less prestigious [ɹ] confirm the fact that they are more aware of the social significance of T(r) variants than any other higher status groups of the same category.

On the other hand, speakers of a higher job level of female speakers with less English exposure use more prestigious T(r) variants than those of a lower job level. As can be seen from Table 6.4 and Figure 6.4b, the frequency of [r] and [ɹ] gradually decreases from the high status group to the low status in both prevocalic and postconsonantal positions. Conversely, the frequency of the stigmatized prevocalic [l] and r-reduction gradually increases from the high job level to the low job level. The differences of T(r) usage among the three sub-social groups are statistically significant. The hypothesis that speakers of a higher job level use the prestigious T(r) variant more than those of a lower job level is

supported when female speakers and English language background Type II/III are controlled.

In 1.3, a hypothesis was suggested that speakers of a higher job level use more prestigious variant than those of a lower job level. Subsequently, in 5.1.2, the hypothesis was modified to the generalization that speakers of the highest job level use more prestigious (r) variant than those of a lower job level. However, the data analysis has revealed that when female speakers and English language background Type II/III are controlled, the original hypothesis becomes fully supported. In other cases, the data suggest a hypercorrection on the part of the middle status speakers of the female group with more English exposure, and the low status speakers of the male group with less English exposure.

6.1.3 Variation of the T(r) by English language background

Table 6.5 and the corresponding Figures 6.5a and 6.5b show the T(r) variation patterns of speakers with different English language background when each sex group and Job level I are controlled. Table 6.5 and Figure 6.5a show that speakers with more English exposure (ELB Type I) of each sex group turn out to become less [r] users and adopt the stigmatised [l] in the prevocalic position more than those with less English language exposure (ELB Type II/III). Besides, speakers with less exposure to English of the male group have a much higher frequency of [l] in the prevocalic position than those with more exposure. In short, speakers with less exposure to English use more r-coloured variants for the T(r) than those with more exposure. This is probably due to the fact that the latter group has been abroad, which may be considered as an asset. Therefore, they can overlook the social value of T(r) variants although all of them are in high status position. On the other hand, speakers with less English exposure may be more sensitive to their social status, and thus select the form most appropriate to the status.

The differences between the two groups of English language background in the use of prevocalic T(r) variants are statistically significant. The data do not support the

Table 6.5 - Frequency of T(r) variants by English language background, with sex and Job level I controlled

Job level I								
Male					Female			
Type I		Type II/IIII			Type I		Type II/IIII	
<u>Prevocalic T(r)</u>								
[r]	0.6%	1	1.6%	6	4.4%	14	19.0%	46
[ɹ]	1.3%	2	28.0%	104	6.3%	20	4.5%	11
[l]	98.1%	157	70.4%	262	89.2%	282	76.5%	185
	100%	160	100%	372	100%	316	100%	242
<u>Postconsonantal T(r)</u>								
[r]	2.5%	4	1.7%	3	4.0%	7	7.1%	5
[ɹ]	8.7%	14	8.9%	16	12.1%	21	5.7%	4
[l]	6.2%	10	8.9%	16	19.7%	34	21.4%	15
[∅]	82.6%	133	80.5%	144	64.2%	111	65.7%	46
	100%	161	100%	179	100%	173	100%	70

(prevocalic)

$\chi^2=51.7$ df=2 p<0.01

(postconsonantal)

$\chi^2=1$ df=3 ns.

(prevocalic)

$\chi^2=30.5$ df=2 p<0.01

(postconsonantal)

$\chi^2=2.9$ df=3 ns.

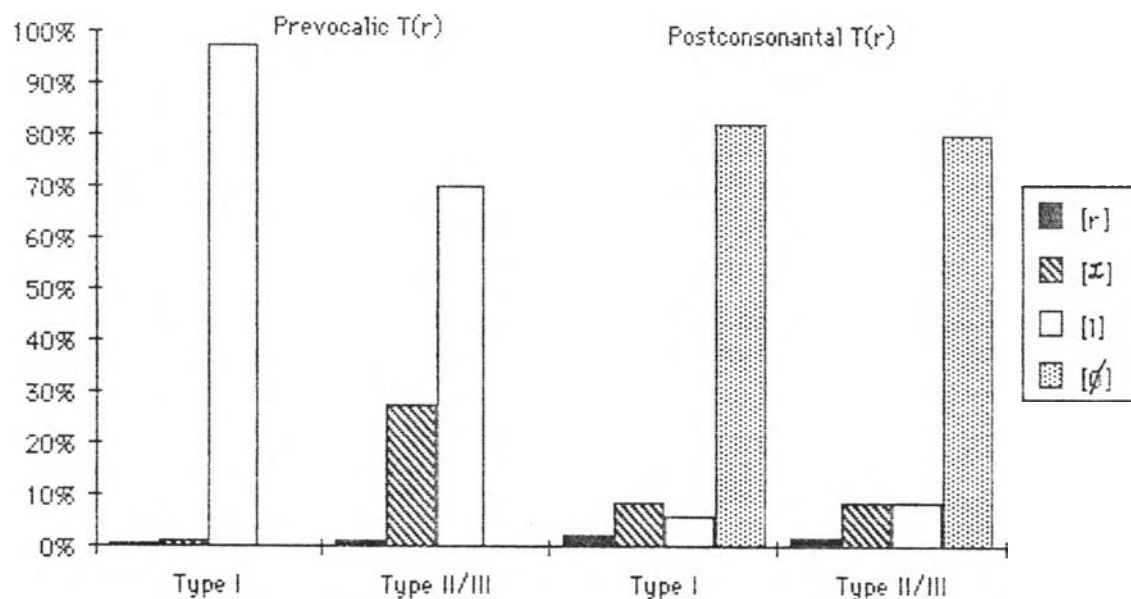


Figure 6.5a-Frequency of T(r) variants by English language background (control: male and Job level I)

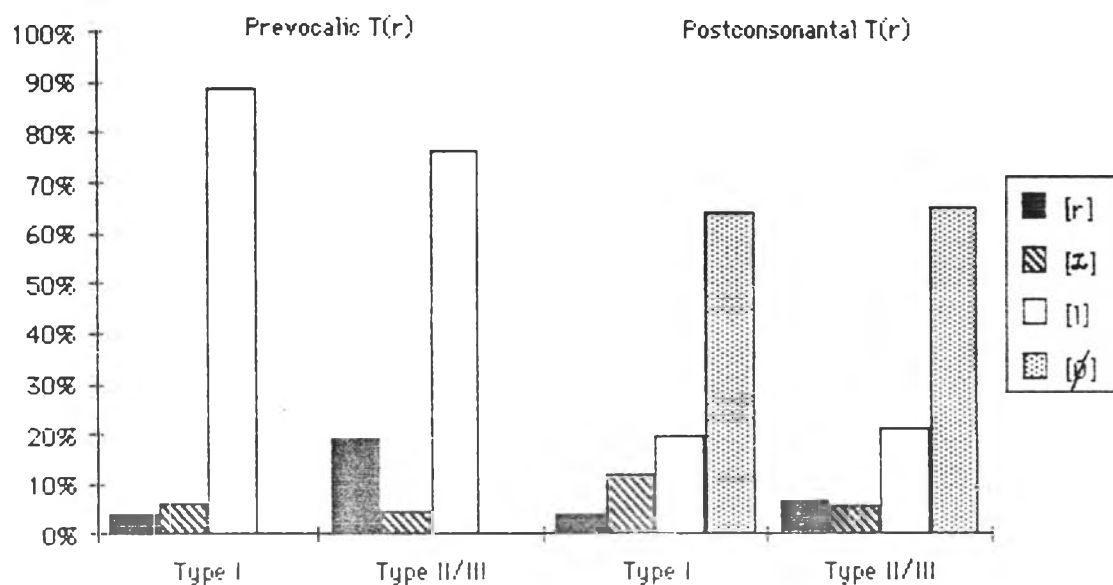


Figure 6.5b-Frequency of T(r) variants by English language background (control: female and Job level I)

hypothesis that speakers with more English language background use more prestigious T(r) variants than those with less English language background. The data tend to suggest a reversed direction. That is, speakers with less English language background of either sex group working in the managerial position use r-coloured variants for the T(r) more frequently than those with more English language background.

In clusters, the data do not show any significant differences in the use of T(r) variants between speakers with different English background when sex groups and Job level I are controlled. This may be due to the fact that speakers with different types of English exposure of the managerial group are more sensitive to r-deletion than the average of all subjects.

An opposite pattern of variation between the two types of English language background is evident when sex group and Job level II/III are controlled. As can be seen from Table C.6 and Figures C.6a - C.6b, the subjects with English speaking experience abroad of either sex who are in middle status position tend to use more r-coloured T(r) variants than speakers with less English exposure of the same category. In addition, the former use prevocalic [l] and r-deletion less frequently than the latter. The

Table 6.6-Frequency of T(r) variants by English language background, with sex and Job level II/III controlled

Job level II/III								
Male					Female			
Type I		Type II/III			Type I		Type II/III	
<u>Prevocalic T(r)</u>								
[r]	-	-	1.6%	15	4.4%	13	2.9%	23
[ɹ]	0.6%	1	1.6%	15	8.9%	26	1.1%	9
[l]	99.4%	157	96.8%	926	86.7%	254	96.0%	776
	100%	158	100%	956	100%	293	100%	808
<u>Postconsonantal T(r)</u>								
[r]	8.7%	6	0.6%	3	5.1%	5	5.9%	17
[ɹ]	8.7%	6	3.3%	17	28.3%	28	2.1%	6
[l]	7.2%	5	8.9%	46	8.1%	8	12.9%	37
[∅]	75.4%	52	87.2%	450	58.5%	58	79.1%	227
	100%	69	100%	516	100%	99	100%	287

(prevocalic)

$\chi^2 = 3.3$ df=2 ns.

(postconsonantal)

$\chi^2 = 30.9$ df=3 p<0.01

(prevocalic)

$\chi^2 = 44.3$ df=2 p<0.01

(postconsonantal)

$\chi^2 = 69.2$ df=3 p<0.01

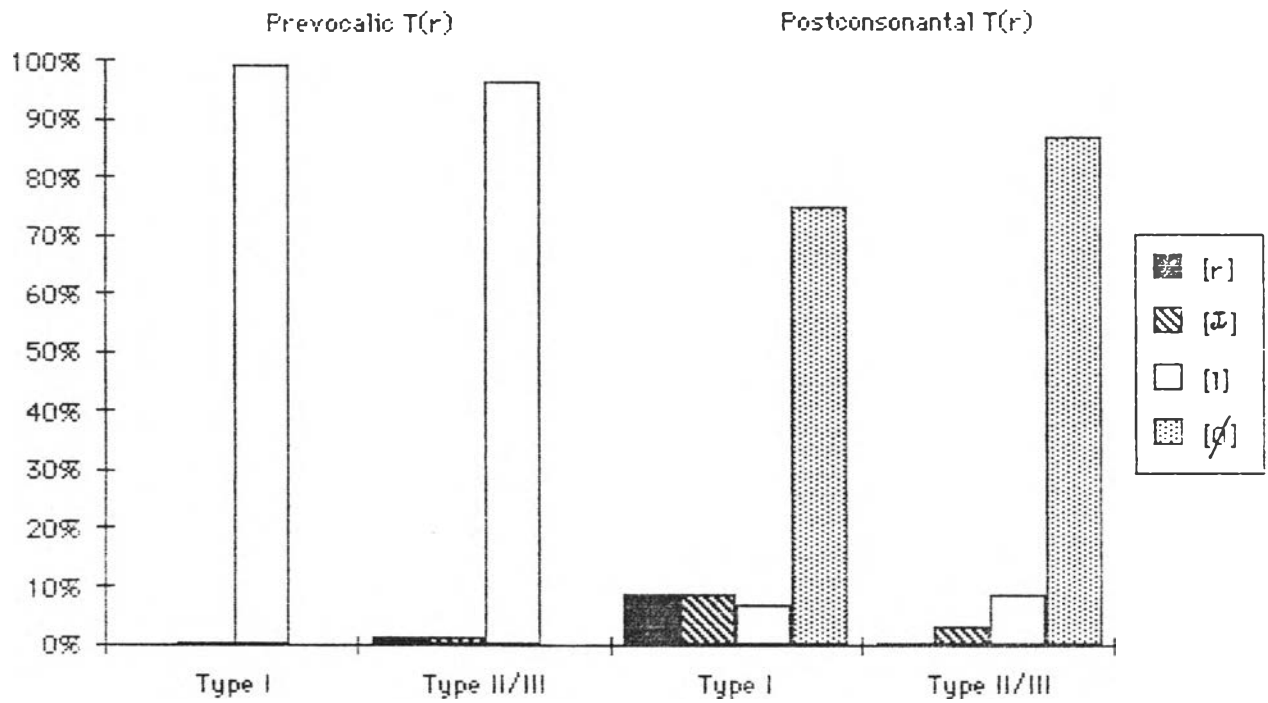


Figure 6.6a-Frequency of T(r) variants by English language background (control: male and Job level II/III)

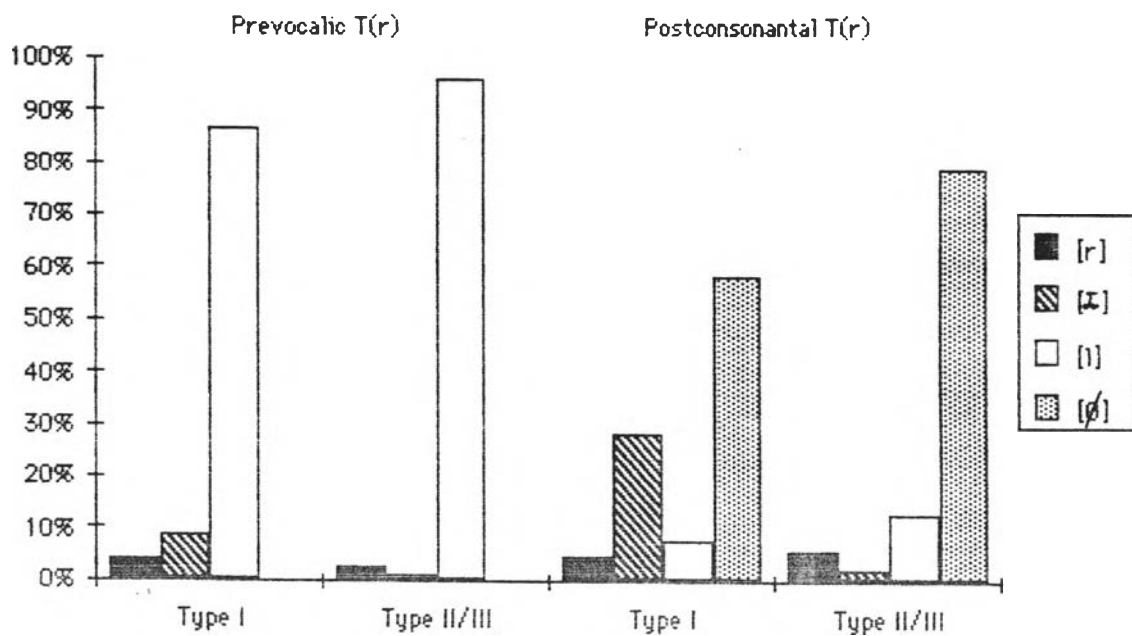


Figure 6.6b-Frequency of T(r) variants by English language background (control: female and Job level II/III)

differences of the T(r) usage between speakers of the two types of English language background are statistically significant in three out of four cases. The data, therefore, support the hypothesis that speakers with more English language background use more prestigious T(r) variants than those with less English language background when sex groups and Job level II/III are controlled.

The differences in the use of prevocalic T(r) of middle status males with different types of English exposure are not significant. Both social sub-groups obviously use [l] almost exclusively.

In the earlier discussion of variation of the T(r) by English language background (5.1.3), it was found that English language background is not related to the prevocalic T(r) variants. In clusters, it was concluded that speakers with more English language background use more prestigious T(r) variants than each group of speakers with less English exposure. When sex groups and job level are controlled, more striking facts are revealed. The data illustrate quite clearly that types of English language background are in fact related to T(r) variation in both prevocalic and postconsonantal positions. The patterns of ELB differentiation differ systematically, subject to job level. Type II/III

speakers of the managerial position of either sex group have a higher rate of r-coloured T(r) variants than Type I speakers of the same position. On the other hand, Type I speakers of the middle status of either sex group have a higher frequency of r-coloured T(r) variants than Type II/III speakers of the same category.

To conclude, more striking facts about the effect of each social factor on the T(r) variation are revealed when the other two are controlled. The data analysis show that female speakers do not always have a higher rate of [r] than male. Speakers of a lower job level may use [r] more frequently than those of a higher job level. Likewise, speakers with less English language background may pronounce more r-coloured T(r) variants than those with less English exposure. Despite differences of T(r) variation patterns, the T(r) of the social sub-groups is generally pronounced as [l] in the prevocalic position and [∅] in cluster. Hypercorrection once again plays an important role especially among low status male speakers with less English language background.

6.2 Complex variation of the E(r)

As having been presented earlier, the general patterns of E(r) variation of all the subjects are [ɹ]>[l]>[r] in the prevocalic position (4.7.1) and [∅]>[ɹ]>[l]>[r] in clusters (4.7.2). Some changes occur in the E(r) patterns when each social factor is taken into account (5.2.1-5.2.3). Most E(r) patterns remain the same as the general norms, however. The variation of E(r) in the following section will be discussed in order of sex (6.2.1), job level (6.2.2) and English language background (6.2.3). As in the analysis of the T(r), when one social variable is under study, the other two social factors will be controlled.

6.2.1 Variation of the E(r) by sex

Table 6.7 and the corresponding Figures 6.7a-6.7b show the pattern of E(r) variation of males and females when job level and English language background Type I are controlled. As the data illustrate, each sex group make a great use of [ɹ] in both positions, except one group, i.e. male speakers of the managerial position. This particular group is an exception as far as the E(r) is concerned, and it will be dealt with later. The rate of [ɹ] of the other three groups is more than 88% in the prevocalic position and above 68% in clusters. The

Table 6.7 - Frequency of E(r) variants by sex, with
job level and ELB Type I controlled

English language background Type I										
Job level I				Job level II/III				Job level IV		
Male		Female		Male		Female		Male	Female	
<u>Prevocalic E(r)</u>										
[r]	-	-	0.5%	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
[ɹ]	45.1%	23	96.9%	186	91.4%	53	88.7%	86	-	-
[l]	54.9%	28	2.6%	5	8.6%	5	11.3%	11	-	-
	100%	51	100%	192	100%	58	100%	97	-	-
<u>Postconsonantal E(r)</u>										
[r]	7.3%	3	1.5%	2	-	-	-	-	-	-
[ɹ]	39.0%	16	70.7%	94	68.6%	35	80.4%	41	-	-
[l]	22.0%	9	6.0%	8	17.7%	9	5.9%	3	-	-
[∅]	31.7%	13	21.8%	29	13.7%	7	13.7%	7	-	-
	100%	41	100%	133	100%	51	100%	51	-	-

(prevocalic)

 $\chi^2=94.1$ df=2 p<0.01

(postconsonantal)

 $\chi^2=22.7$ df=3 p<0.01

(prevocalic)

 $\chi^2=0.3$ df=1 ns.

(postconsonantal)

 $\chi^2=3.4$ df=2 ns.

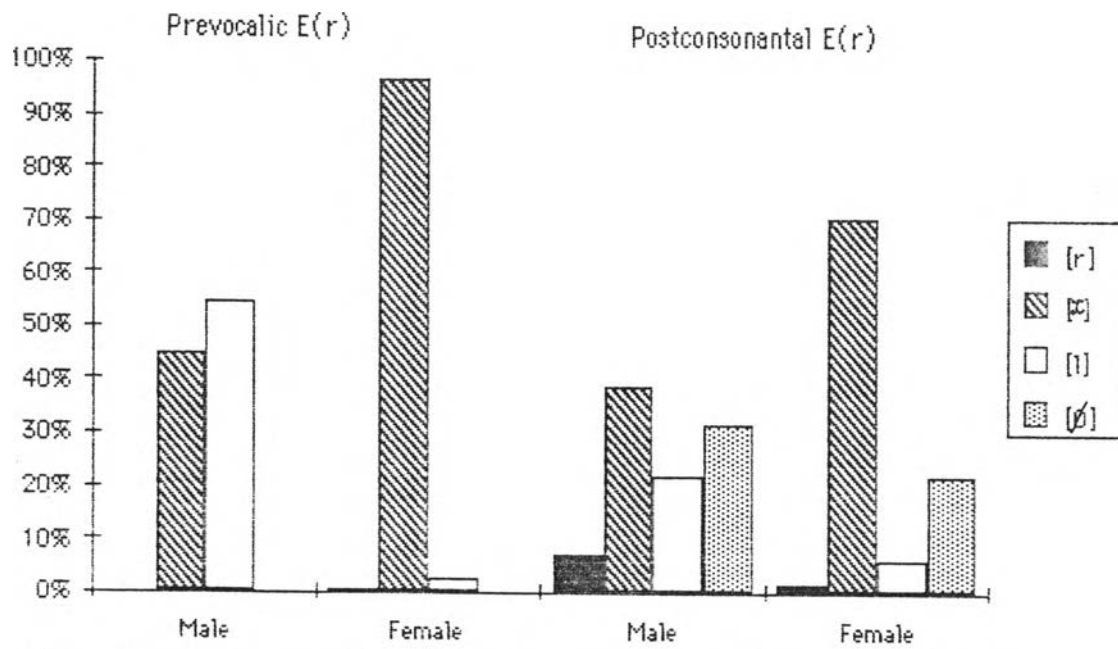


Figure 6.7a-Frequency of E(r) variants by sex (control: Job level I and ELB Type I)

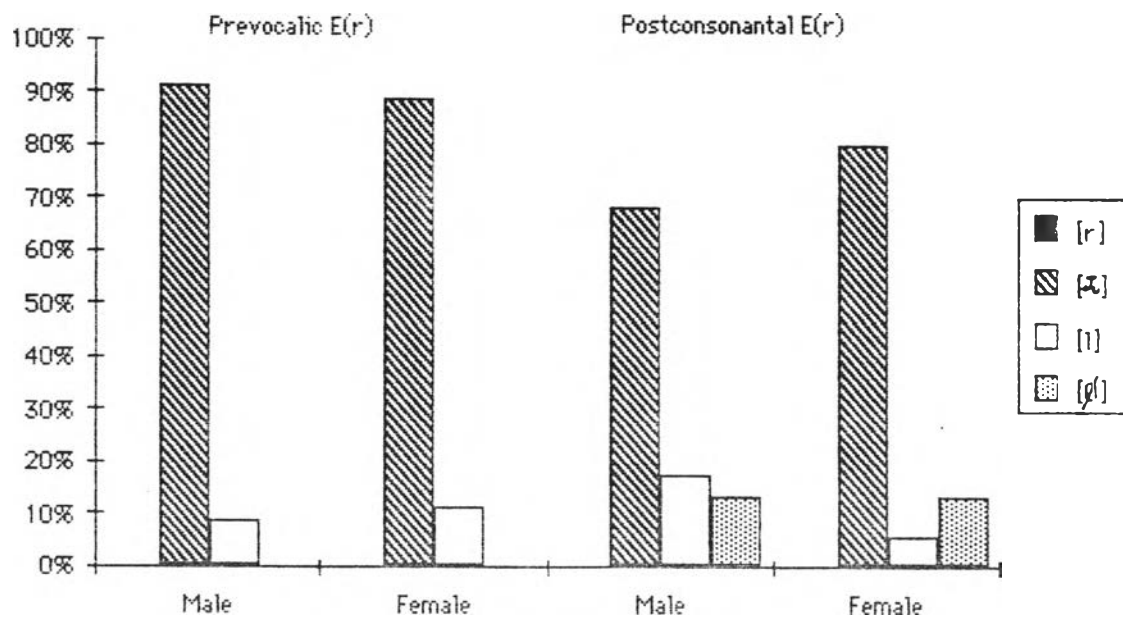


Figure 6.7 b-Frequency of E(r) variants by sex (control: job level II/III and ELB Type I)



frequency of [l] ranges from 3% to 11% and [r] is virtually non-existent.

Table 6.7 and Figure 6.7b show that there is no difference of E(r) usage between male and female speakers of the middle status group with more English language background in both prevocalic position and in clusters. This is probably because they both have an experience of speaking English in an English speaking environment abroad.

The rate of [ɹ] of Job level I males is unusually low in both prevocalic position (45%) and clusters (39%). As a matter of fact, each frequency is much lower than the average of all Job level I subjects, i.e. 81% and 57%, respectively (5.1.2). Conversely, their rate of [l] in the prevocalic position (55%) is much higher than the average of Job level I (17%). Their pattern of E(r) variation, especially in the prevocalic position, deviates from the norm as a result. An explanation is needed for this phenomenon.

The cause for such contrary results may be due to the linguistic behaviour of the selected subjects. As it is, there are two persons in this social category and one of them pronounced [ɹ] almost one hundred percent while the other used [l] most of the time, thus leading to such

an unexpected low rate of [ɹ]. This may be considered a drawback of the sampling method used. It is believed, however, that the data from a fresh sampling of three or four speakers of this social category will provide a better generalized pattern of the group. That is, more randomly selected speakers of this group are required before any proper conclusions can be drawn.

A rather complicated pattern of sex differentiation emerges when job level and English language background Type II/III are controlled. As can be seen from Table 6.8 and the corresponding Figure 6.8a-6.8c, the pattern of sex differentiation varies from the high status to the low status.

To start with, in Figure 6.8a, the females of the managerial position with less English exposure have a much higher rate of [ɹ] in the prevocalic position than their males counterparts. The former almost make an exclusive use of the standard E(r) variant. The latter, however, have a much lower rate of [ɹ] which accounts for two-thirds of all of their prevocalic E(r) occurrences. The differences in the use of E(r) variants between the two sex groups are statistically significant. The data confirm the hypothesis that female speakers use more prestigious E(r) variants than

Table 6.8 - Frequency of E(r) variants by sex, with
job level and ELB Type II/III controlled

English language background Type II/III												
Job level I				Job level II/III				Job level IV				
Male		Female		Male		Female		Male		Female		
<u>Prevocalic T(r)</u>												
[r]	4.4%	8	1.1%	1	0.8%	2	9.2%	27	1.2%	2	3.0%	4
[ɹ]	67.8%	122	96.6%	85	56.4%	137	42.0%	124	55.9%	95	47.0%	62
[l]	27.8%	50	2.3%	2	42.8%	104	48.8%	131	42.9%	73	50.0%	66
	100%	180	100%	88	100%	243	100%	282	100%	170	100%	132
<u>Postconsonantal E(r)</u>												
[r]	1.6%	2	1.3%	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
[ɹ]	42.6%	52	64.5%	49	37.1%	89	51.6%	65	41.3%	45	21.0%	20
[l]	21.3%	26	14.5%	11	16.7%	40	19.0%	24	12.8%	14	19.0%	18
[∅]	34.4%	42	19.7%	15	46.2%	111	29.4%	37	45.9%	50	60.0%	57
	100%	122	100%	76	100%	240	100%	126	100%	109	100%	95

(prevocalic)

 $\chi^2=28$ df=2 p<0.01

(prevocalic)

 $\chi^2=23.8$ df=2 p<0.01

(prevocalic)

 $\chi^2=3$ df=2 ns.

(postconsonantal)

 $\chi^2=9$ df=3 ns.

(postconsonantal)

 $\chi^2=10.2$ df=2 p<0.01

(postconsonantal)

 $\chi^2=9.6$ df=2 p<0.01

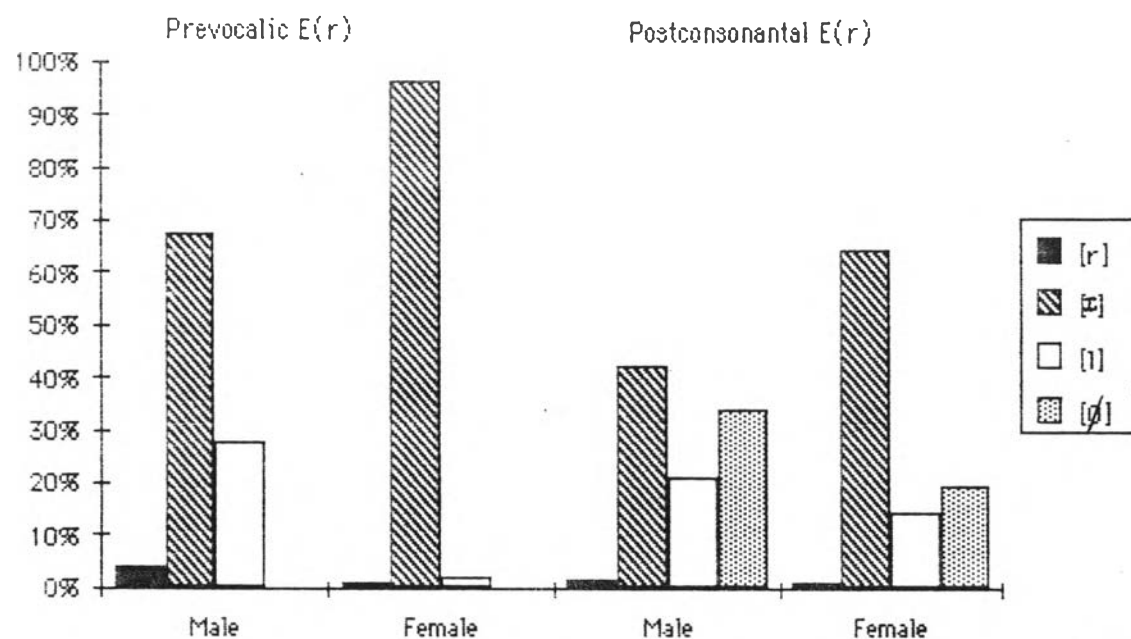


Figure 6.8a-Frequency of E(r) variants by sex (control: Job level I and ELB Type II/III)

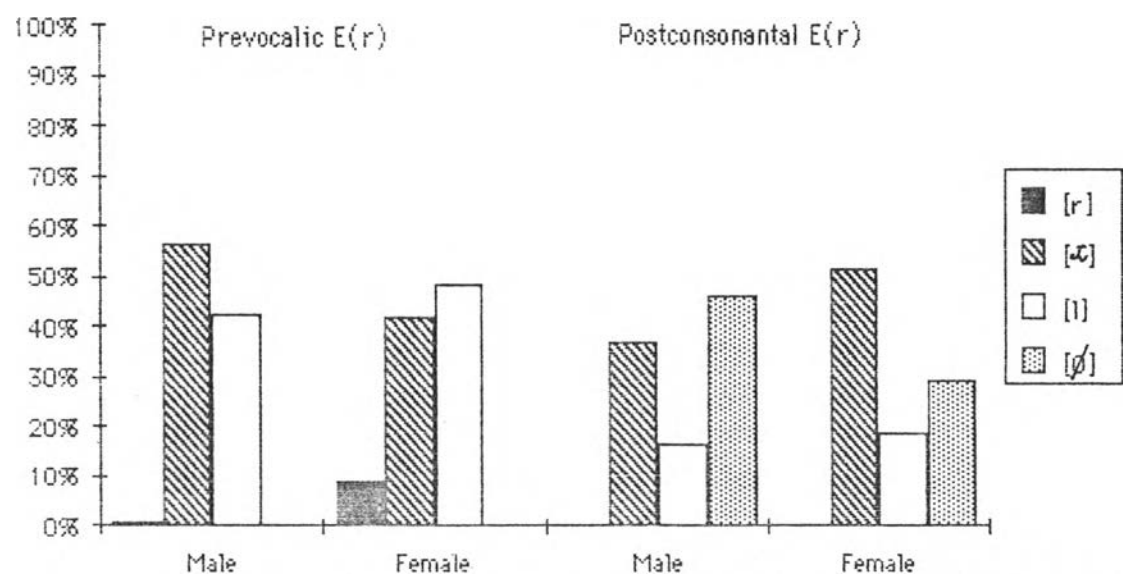


Figure 6.8b-Frequency of E(r) variants by sex (control: Job level II/III and ELB Type II/III)

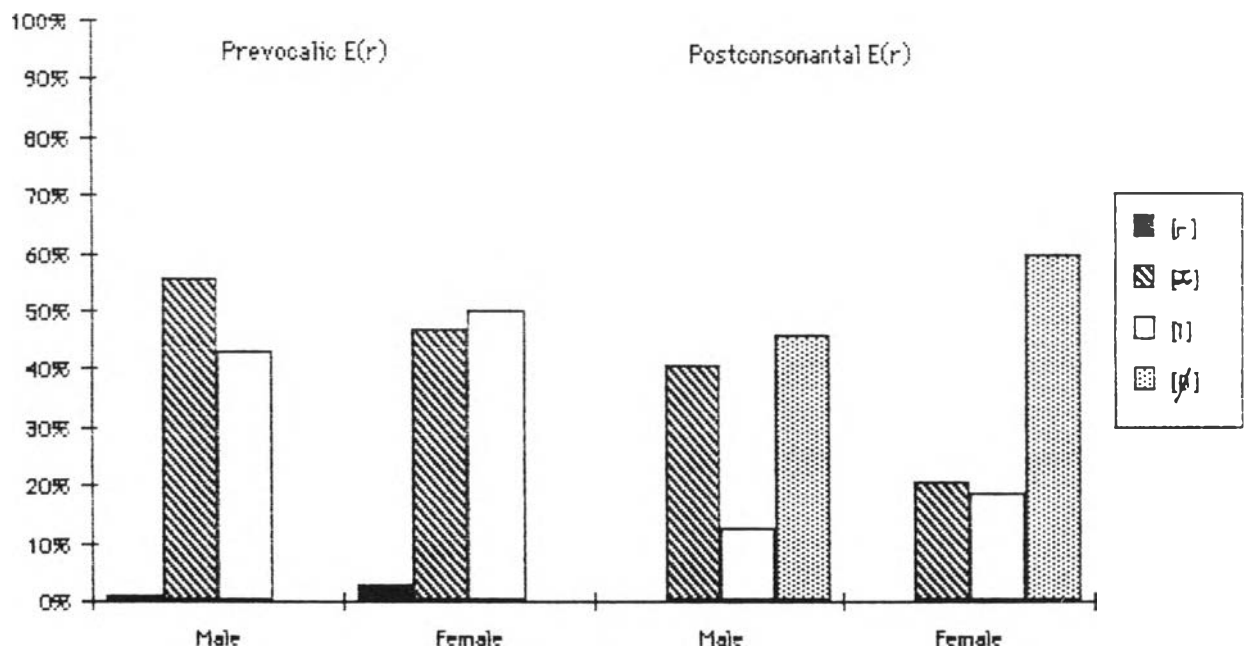


Figure 6.8c—Frequency of E(r) variants by sex (control: Job level IV and ELB Type II/III)

male in the prevocalic position even when Job level I and English language background Type II/III are controlled.

In clusters, although the females have a higher rate of [ɹ] than the males, the differences are not statistically significant.

On the other hand, Figure 6.8b shows that female speakers of the middle status group with less English language experience have a lower frequency of [ɹ] in the prevocalic position than their male counterparts. The rate of prevocalic [ɹ] of the former is lower than [l] but the combined percentage of [ɹ] and [r] (51.2%) becomes higher than the stigmatized [l] (48.8%). Their rate of [r] is quite high and a closer examination of the data reveal that it was used by three subjects who use [r] only once in Thai as against 27 in English. Moreover, their individual rate of [r] is higher than [ɹ] but lower than [l]. They may have attempted to use a socially prestigious form in place of [l], but instead of [ɹ], they resorted to [r] which they may be familiar with in formal use of the T(r).

In contrast, male speakers of middle status with less English exposure become less [ɹ] users and adopt [ø]

in clusters more frequently than their female counterparts. The male group has a higher rate of [ɹ] than [ø].

The differences of the use of E(r) variants in the prevocalic position and in clusters of the two sex groups are statistically significant. The data support the hypothesis that female speakers use more prestigious E(r) variants than male in clusters when the middle job level and English language background Type II/III are controlled. However, the data suggest that the former use less prestigious E(r) variants than the latter in the prevocalic position when the same social variables are controlled.

The females of the low status group with less exposure to English have a lower rate of [ɹ] than their male counterparts. However, the differences are not statistically significant in the prevocalic position. The frequency of [ɹ] in clusters of each sex group is lower than r-deletion. The differences of E(r) usage between the two sex groups in clusters are statistically significant. The data do not support the hypothesis that female speakers use more prestigious E(r) variants than male when the low job level and English language background Type II/III are controlled.

In 5.2.1, it was concluded that female subjects use more prestigious E(r) variants than male as hypothesized. When job level and English language background are controlled, it is possible to show that the hypothesis is supported in the case of prevocalic position of the high status group with less English language background and in the case of clusters of middle status with less English exposure. The data analysis has shown that the male speakers of the middle status with less English exposure have a higher rate of prevocalic [ɹ] than their female counterparts. Similarly, the males of the low job level with less English language background have a higher frequency of postconsonantal [ɹ] than their female counterparts.

6.2.2 Variation of the E(r) by job level

In 5.2.1, the E(r) was shown to be related to job level. Speakers of a higher status have a greater use of [ɹ] than those of a lower status. With English language background and sex controlled, the same general pattern prevails, as illustrated in Tables 6.9 and 6.10.

Table 6.9 and its corresponding Figures 6.9a-6.9b show variation of the E(r) by job level when sex and English language background Type I are controlled. In the table and Figure 6.9b, high status speakers of the female group have a higher rate of [ɹ] and a much lower rate of [ɹ̥] in the prevocalic position than middle status speakers. The differences are statistically significant. The data support the hypothesis that speakers of a higher job level use more E(r) prestigious variant than those of a lower job level.

In clusters, there are no significant differences between the two social class groups in the use of E(r). This is partly due to the fact that the middle status group has attempted to maintain the consistent use of [ɹ] whereas the high status shows a sharp drop of the same variant [ɹ̥].

Table 6.9 - Frequency of E(r) variants by job level, with sex and ELB Type I controlled

ELB Type I												
Male							Female					
JL I		JL II/III		JL IV			JL I		JL II/III		JL IV	
<u>Prevocalic E(r)</u>												
[r]	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.5%	1	-	-	-	-
[ɹ]	45.1%	23	91.4%	53	-	-	96.9%	186	88.7%	86	-	-
[l]	54.9%	28	8.6%	5	-	-	2.6%	5	11.3%	11	-	-
	100%	51	100%	58	-	-	100%	192	100%	97	-	-
<u>Postconsonantal E(r)</u>												
[r]	7.3%	3	-	-	-	-	1.5%	2	-	-	-	-
[ɹ]	39.0%	16	68.6%	35	-	-	70.7%	94	80.4%	41	-	-
[l]	22.0%	9	17.7%	9	-	-	6.0%	8	5.9%	3	-	-
[∅]	31.7%	13	13.7%	7	-	-	21.8%	29	13.7%	7	-	-
	100%	41	100%	51	-	-	100%	133	100%	51	-	-

(prevocalic)

$\chi^2=27.5$ df=1 p<0.01

(postconsonantal)

$\chi^2=11.1$ df=3 ns.

(prevocalic)

$\chi^2=9.7$ df=2 p<0.01

(postconsonantal)

$\chi^2=2.4$ df=3 ns.

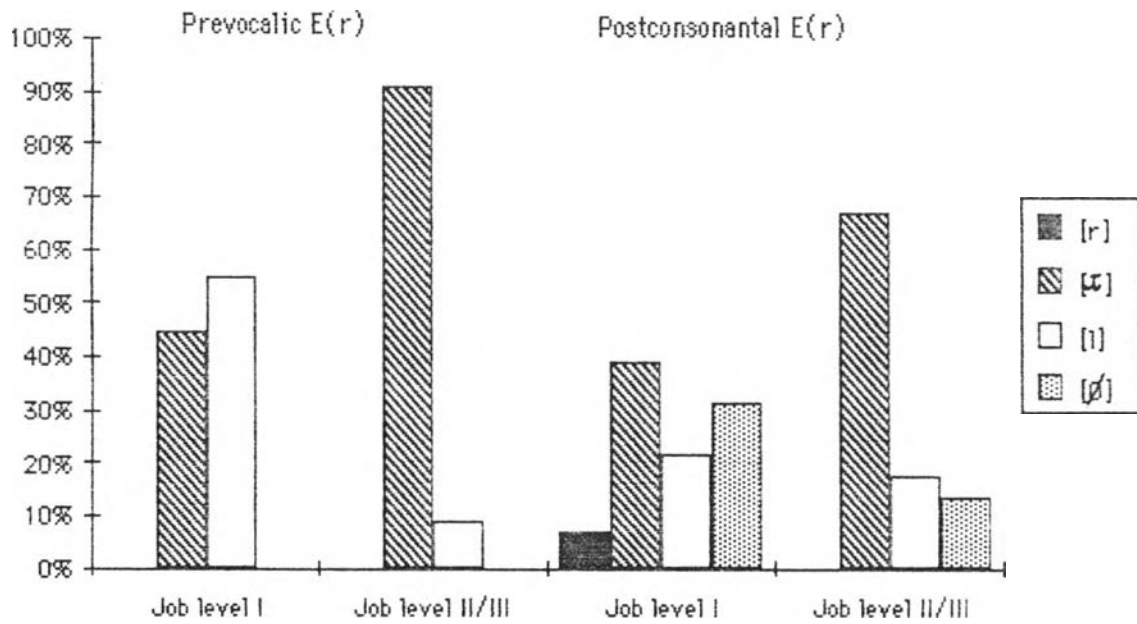


Figure 6.9a - Frequency of E(r) variants by Job level (control: male and ELB Type I)

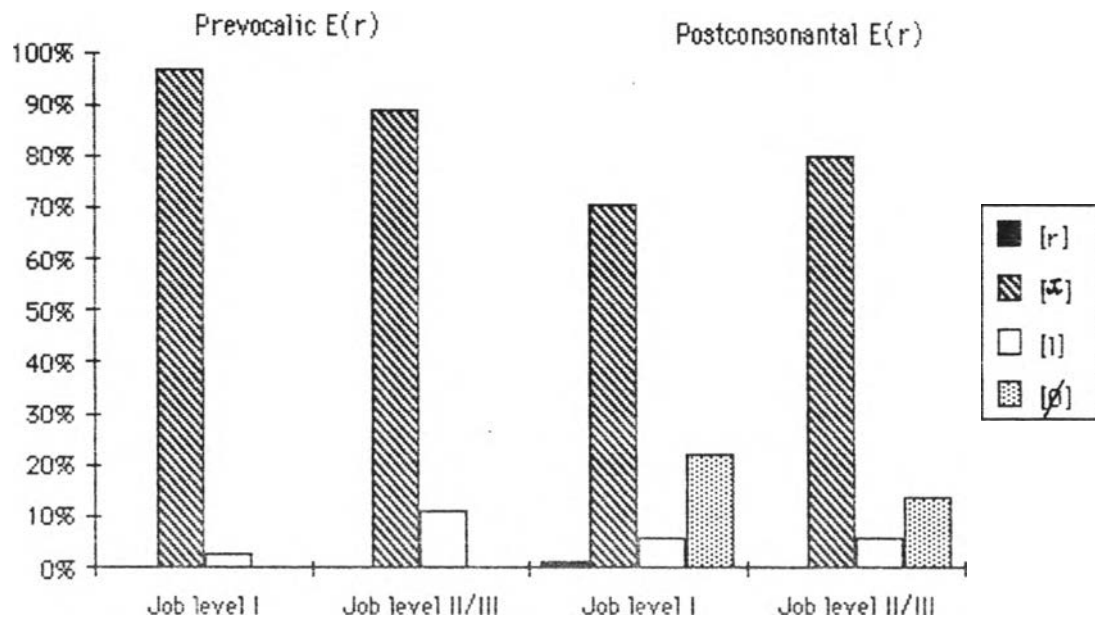


Figure 6.9b - Frequency of E(r) variants by job level (control: female and ELB Type I)

In Figure 6.9a, it may appear that the middle status speakers of male group with more English exposure pronounce [ɹ] significantly more frequently than their managerial counterparts in both positions of occurrence. However, the E(r) usage pattern of the latter group deviates so much from the norm that more evidence is needed before any conclusions can be reached of this group. The explanation for such a low rate of [ɹ] of this Job level I group has already been given in 6.2.1.

Table 6.10 and Figures 6.10a-6.10c show variation of the E(r) by job level when sex and English language background Type II/III are controlled. In most cases, speakers of a higher job level tend to use more standard E(r) variant than those of a lower job level. This is the pattern, regardless of the sex group. The differences in the use of the E(r) among various job levels of each sex groups are statistically significant in three out of four cases. The data support the hypothesis that speakers of a higher job level use more prestigious E(r) variants than those of a lower job level.

The differences of E(r) usage in clusters among the three job levels of male speakers are not statistically significant. E(r) clusters might be a problem sounds for male speakers of all job levels with less English language



Table 6.10- Frequency of E(r) variants by job level,
with sex and ELB Type II/III controlled

ELB Type II/III												
Male						Female						
	JL I	JL II/III	JL IV			JL I	JL II/III	JL IV				
<u>Prevocalic E(r)</u>												
[r]	4.4%	8	0.8%	2	1.2%	2	1.1%	1	9.2%	27	3.0%	4
[ɹ]	67.8%	122	56.4%	137	55.9%	95	96.6%	85	42.0%	124	47.0%	62
[l]	27.8%	50	42.8%	104	42.9%	73	2.3%	2	48.8%	131	50.0%	66
	100%	180	100%	243	100%	170	100%	88	100%	282	100%	132
<u>Postconsonantal E(r)</u>												
[r]	1.6%	2	-	-	-	-	1.3%	1	-	-	-	-
[ɹ]	42.6%	52	37.1%	89	41.3%	45	64.5%	49	51.6%	65	21.0%	20
[l]	21.3%	26	16.7%	40	12.8%	14	14.5%	11	19.0%	24	19.0%	18
[∅]	34.4%	42	46.2%	111	45.9%	50	19.7%	15	29.4%	37	60.0%	57
	100%	122	100%	240	100%	109	100%	76	100%	126	100%	95

(prevocalic)

$\chi^2=17.9$ df=4 p<0.01

(postconsonantal)

$\chi^2=11.8$ df=6 ns.

(prevocalic)

$\chi^2=88.3$ df=4 p<0.01

(postconsonantal)

$\chi^2=41.9$ df=4 p<0.01

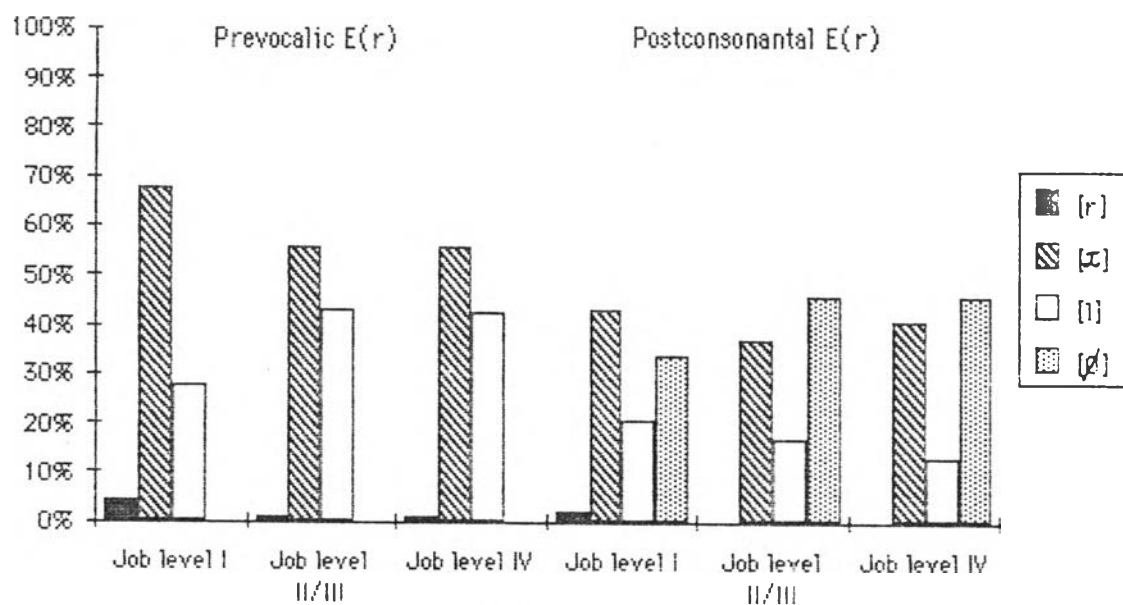


Figure 6.10a - Frequency of E(r) variants by job level (control: male and ELB Type II/III)

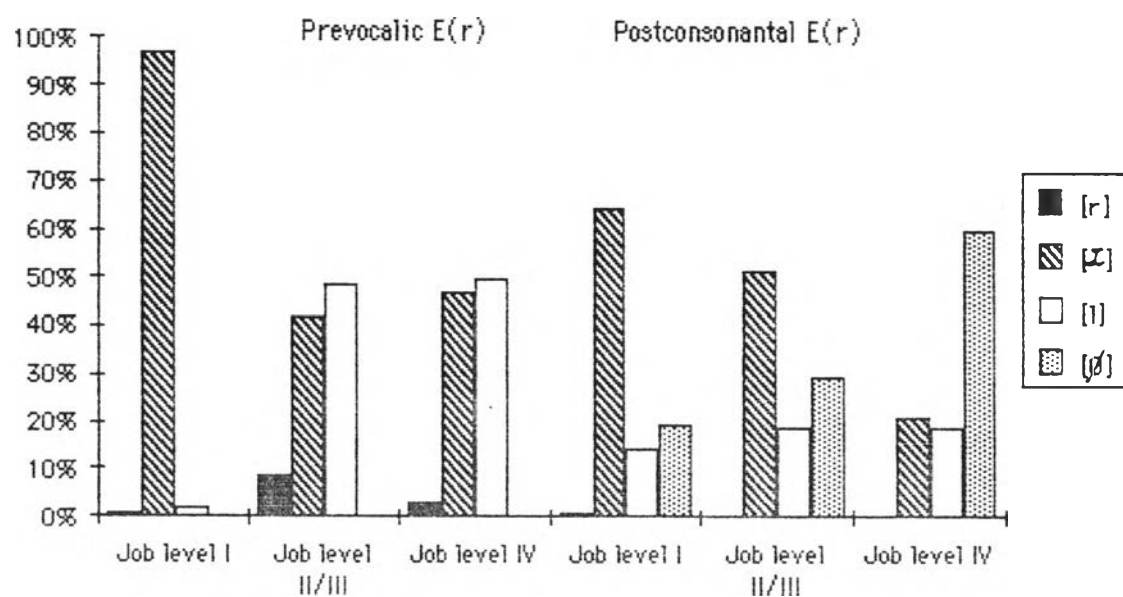


Figure 6.10b - Frequency of E(r) variants by job level (control: female and ELB Type II/III)

language background. As can be seen from the data, the rate of r-reduction of each social sub-group is less than 50%

It is noticed that most of the patterns of E(r) are the same as the norm of all speakers, i.e. [ɹ]>[l]>[r] in the prevocalic position, and [ɹ]>[∅]>[l]>[r] in clusters. However, middle status and low status speakers of the female group bring out a different prevocalic pattern, i.e. [l]>[ɹ]>[r]. Nevertheless, if [ɹ] and [r] are combined, the rates of [l] and r-coloured variants will be approximately equal. In clusters, low status group of female speakers have a much higher rate of [∅] than [ɹ].

To conclude, there is a clear pattern of class differentiation in the use of E(r) variants. Speakers of a higher job level use more prestigious E(r) variants than those of a lower job level in each sex group and in each type of English language background.

6.2.3 Variation of the E(r) by English language background

In an earlier analysis of variation of the E(r) by English language background (5.2.3), the English extensive group was found to make a significantly greater use of [r] than the other two groups with less exposure to English. Now, with sex groups and job level are controlled, other hidden facts on E(r) variation emerge. Table 6.11 shows variation of the E(r) by English language background when sex groups and Job level I are controlled. Table 6.12 shows variation of the E(r) by the same social factor when sex groups and Job level II/III are controlled.

As can be seen from Table 6.11 and its corresponding Figures 6.11a-6.11b, it is most likely that there are no differences in the use of the E(r) between speakers with and without English speaking exposure abroad in each sex group of the managerial level.

As regards speakers with more English exposure of male group in the high job level, it was noted earlier (6.2.1 and 6.2.2) that due to their linguistic behaviour and the sampling problem, no conclusive generalization can be made of this social sub-group as

Table 6.11-Frequency of E(r) variants by English language background, with sex and Job level I controlled

Job level I								
Male					Female			
Type I		Type II/IIII			Type I		Type II/IIII	
<u>Prevocalic E(r)</u>								
[r]	-	-	4.4%	8	0.5%	1	1.1%	1
[ɹ]	45.1%	23	67.8%	122	96.9%	186	96.6%	85
[l]	54.9%	28	27.8%	50	2.6%	5	2.3%	2
	100%	51	100%	180	100%	192	100%	88
<u>Postconsonantal E(r)</u>								
[r]	7.3%	3	1.6%	2	1.5%	2	1.3%	1
[ɹ]	39.0%	16	42.6%	52	70.7%	94	64.5%	49
[l]	22.0%	9	21.3%	26	6.0%	8	14.5%	11
[∅]	31.7%	13	34.4%	42	21.8%	29	19.7%	15
	100%	41	100%	122	100%	133	100%	76

(prevocalic)

$\chi^2=14.2$ df=2 p<0.01

(postconsonantal)

$\chi^2=3.3$ df=3 ns.

(prevocalic)

$\chi^2=0.4$ df=2 ns.

(postconsonantal)

$\chi^2=4.2$ df=3 ns.

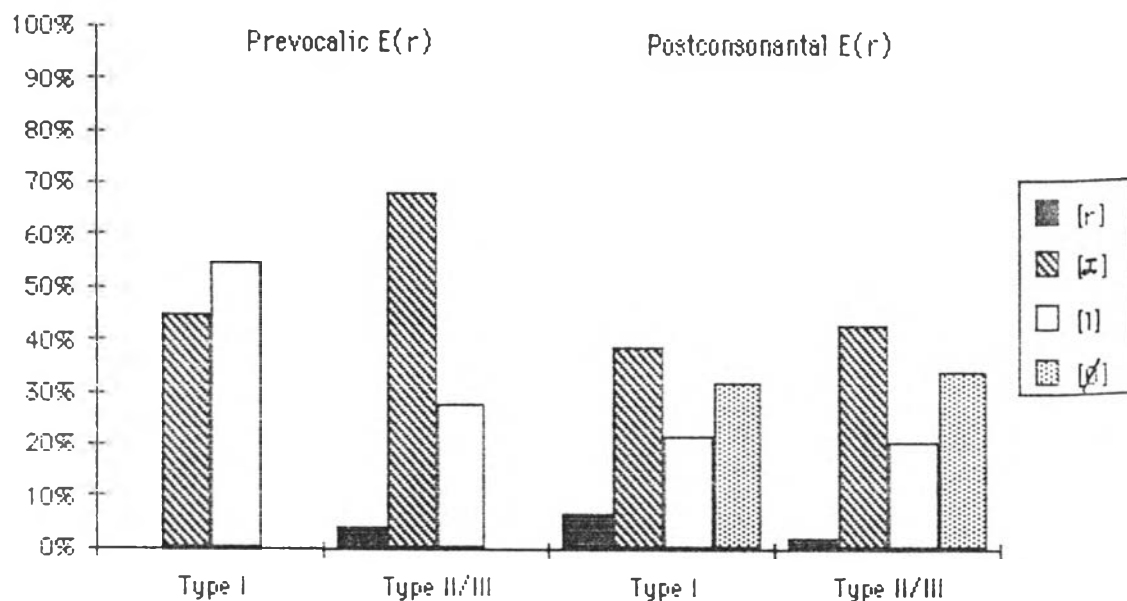


Figure 6.11a-Frequency of E(r) variants by English language background (control: male and Job level I)

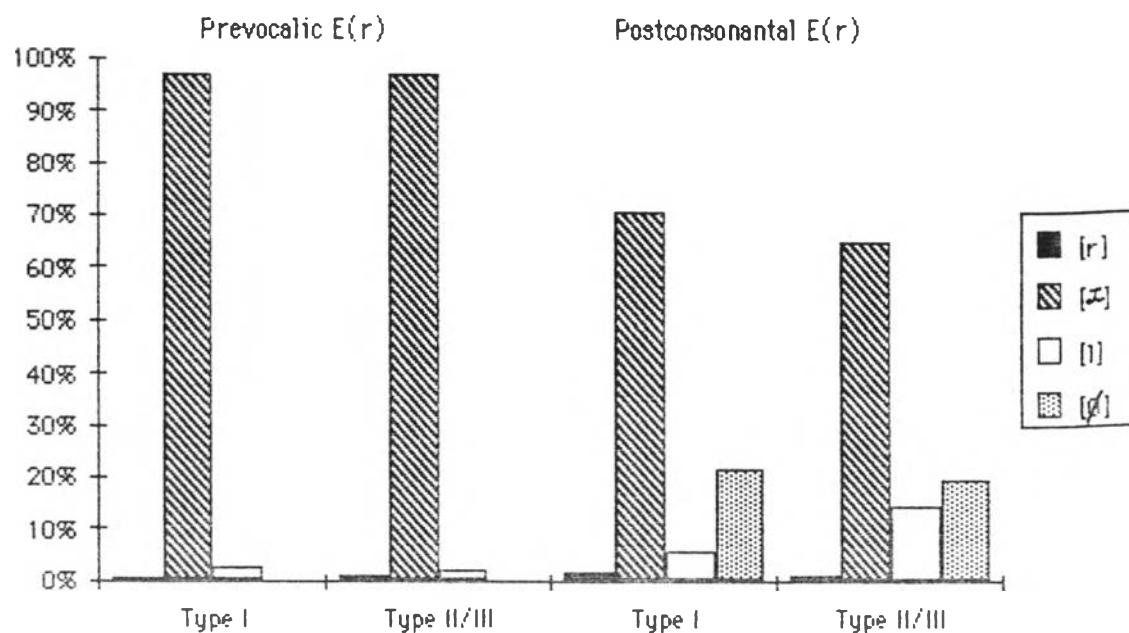


Figure 6.11b-Frequency of E(r) variants by English language background (control: female and Job level I)

yet. New evidence should be gathered of this problematic group before any conclusion can be drawn.

The data in Table 6.11 suggest that at least there is no difference in the use of E(r) between the two types of English language background of female speakers in the managerial position. This is probably due to the fact that, being in the key position, they are aware of the prestige and importance attached to the English medium principally used in communication with foreigners. Both groups thus consciously attempt to use the prestigious form of E(r) when speaking English, especially speakers with less exposure to English. This is in fact what one would expect of the speakers with more English exposure of the male social sub-group in the top job level.

Table 6.12 and its corresponding Figures 6.12a and 6.12b illustrate that speakers with more exposure to English make a much greater use of [ɹ] than those with less English exposure in each sex group of the middle job level. The former use [ɹ] much more frequently than the latter in both prevocalic position and clusters. At the same time, the former also prefer the stigmatized prevocalic [l] and r-dropping much less than the latter. The differences of the E(r) usage of the two types of English language background are statistically significant.

Table 6.12-Frequency of E(r) variants by English language background, with sex and Job level II/III controlled

Job level II/III								
Male					Female			
Type I		Type II/III			Type I		Type II/III	
<u>Prevocalic E(r)</u>								
[r]	-	-	0.8%	2	-	-	9.2%	27
[ɹ]	91.4%	53	56.4%	137	88.7%	86	42.0%	124
[l]	8.6%	5	42.8%	104	11.3%	11	48.8%	144
	100%	58	100%	243	100%	97	100%	295
<u>Postconsonantal E(r)</u>								
[r]	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
[ɹ]	68.6%	35	37.1%	89	80.4%	41	51.6%	65
[l]	17.7%	9	16.7%	40	5.9%	3	19.0%	24
[∅]	13.7%	7	46.2%	111	13.7%	7	29.4%	37
	100%	51	100%	240	100%	51	100%	126

(prevocalic)

$\chi^2=24.7$ df=2 p<0.01

(postconsonantal)

$\chi^2=20.7$ df=2 p<0.01

(prevocalic)

$\chi^2=77.3$ df=2 p<0.01

(postconsonantal)

$\chi^2=12.8$ df=2 p<0.01

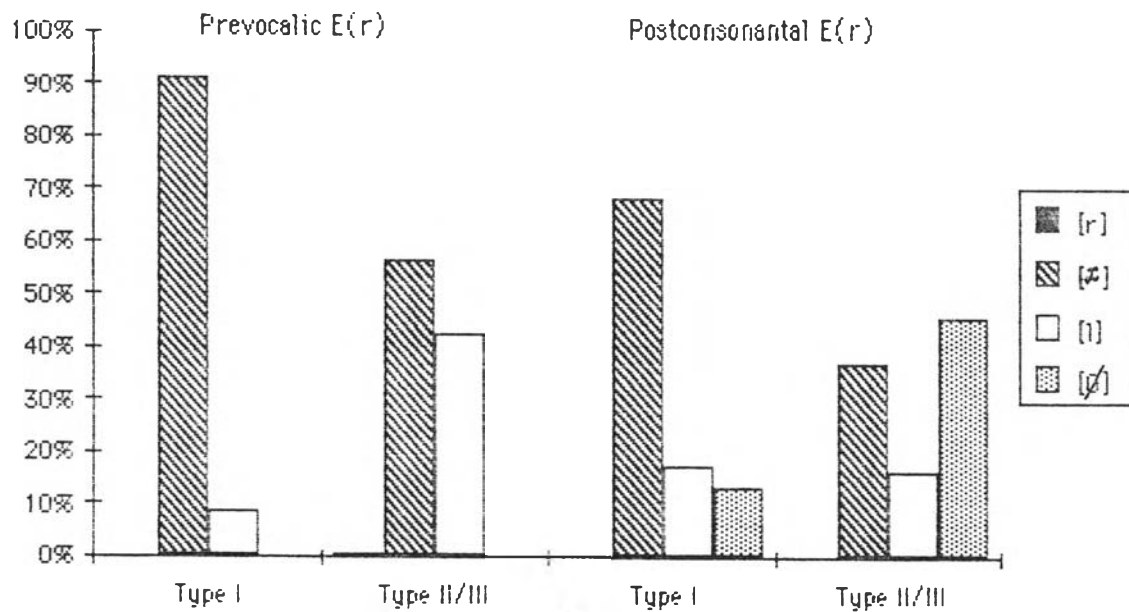


Figure 6.12a-Frequency of E(r) variants by English language background (control: male and Job level II/III)

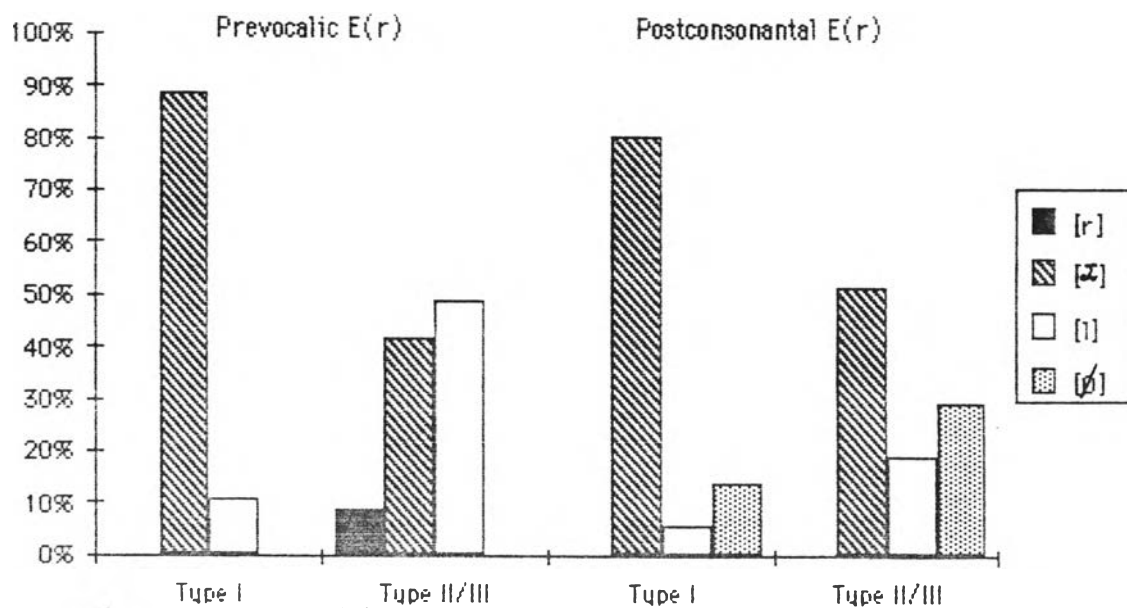


Figure 6.12b-Frequency of E(r) variants by English language background (control: female and Job level II/III)

in all cases. The data strongly support the hypothesis that speakers with more exposure to English use more E(r) variants than those with less English language background in each sex group of the middle job level.

In 5.2.3, speakers with more English language background were found to make greater use of [ɹ] than the other two groups with less exposure to English. When sex groups and job level are controlled, it is in fact speakers with more English language background of each sex group of the middle job level that have a higher rate of [ɹ] than speakers with less English exposure of the same category.

In sum, the findings in 6.2 reveal that most social sub-groups make a great use of the prestigious E(r) variant in both places of occurrence. As in the case with T(r) variation of the social sub-groups, the data analysis reveal more striking facts about E(r) variation when one social factor is under study controlling for the other two. Most of the findings confirm the hypotheses while some do not. For instance, female speakers do not always have a higher frequency of [ɹ] than male. Likewise, speakers with more English language background do not always use [ɹ] more frequently than those with less English language background.



6.3 Summary

This chapter explores the effect of each social factor on the T(r) and E(r) when the other two social factors are controlled. Tables 6.13 and 6.14 summarize the variations of the T(r) and E(r), respectively. Most of the findings confirm the hypotheses. However, some of the data analysis reveal different results from those presented in Chapter 5 when one social variable is taken into consideration at a time.

Focussing on sex differentiation with English language background and job level controlled, the study reveals that female speakers tend to have a higher rate of prestigious T(r) and E(r) variants than male. However, female speakers of the low status with less English language background use less prestigious T(r) variant than their male counterparts. Besides, there are no significant differences in the use of the E(r) between male and female speakers of middle status with more English exposure.

Focussing on class differentiation with sex groups and English language background controlled, it is found that speakers of a higher job level tend to have a higher rate of prestigious T(r) and E(r) variants than those of a lower job level. Low status speakers of the male group

Table 6.13 - Summary of T(r) variation by one social factor with the other two controlled

T(r)	<u>Prevocalic</u>		<u>Postconsonantal</u>	
	sig.	ns.*	sig.	ns.
<u>Sex differentiation</u>				
a. ELB Type I, Job level I	X		X	
b. ELB Type I, Job level II/III	X			X
c. ELB Type II/III, Job level I	X		X	
d. ELB Type II/III, Job level II/III		X	X	
e. ELB Type II/III, Job level IV	X		X	
<u>Class differentiation</u>				
a. ELB Type I, male		X		X
b. ELB Type I, female		X	X	
c. ELB Type II/III, male	X		X	
d. ELB Type II/III, female	X		X	
<u>ELB differentiation</u>				
a. Job level I, male	X			X
b. Job level I, female	X			X
c. Job level II/III, male		X	X	
d. Job level II/III, female	X		X	

*sig. = statistically significant ns. = non-significant

Table 6.14 - Summary of E(r) variation by one social factor
with the other two controlled

E(r)	<u>Prevocalic</u>		<u>Postconsonantal</u>	
	sig.	ns.*	sig.	ns.
<u>Sex differentiation</u>				
a. ELB Type I, Job level II/III		X		X
b. ELB Type II/III, Job level I	X			X
c. ELB Type II/III, Job level II/III	X		X	
d. ELB Type II/III, Job level IV		X	X	
<u>Class differentiation</u>				
a. ELB Type I, female	X			X
b. ELB Type II/III, male	X			X
c. ELB Type II/III, female	X		X	
<u>ELB differentiation</u>				
a. Job level I, female		X		X
b. Job level II/III, male	X		X	
c. Job level II/III, female	X		X	

*sig. = statistically significant ns. = non-significant

with less English language background bring out hypercorrection of the T(r) by having a higher frequency of [r] than high status and middle status speakers. The study also reveals that there is no class differentiation in each sex group with more English exposure.

Focussing on type of English language background with sex groups and job level controlled, the study finds that speakers with more exposure to English tend to use more prestigious T(r) and E(r) variants than those with less English language background. However, the study shows that speakers with less English language background of either sex group in the managerial position are more prestigious T(r) variant users than their counterparts with more English language background. Besides, the findings reveal that English language background has no effect on the use of E(r) of either sex of high status.

The data analysis once again show that most social sub-groups make a great use of [ɹ] in English but in Thai the prevocalic [l] and [ø] in clusters are the norm for the T(r). Most of the social groups do not use the stigmatized [l] and [ø] in English as frequently as in Thai. More details of comparisons of variations of the T(r) and E(r) as related to each social factor with the other two controlled will be presented in the next chapter.