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DIALECT ACQUISITION IN THE VIEW OF PARENTAL ORIGINS: THE CASE OF KANSAI DIALECT OF JAPANESE

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1. INTRODUCTION

This study exhibits the parental accent influence on children's accent acquisition in Japanese. There have been many previous studies concerning the parental influence on children's dialect acquisition in both English and Japanese. The strongest and the most influential claim in dialect acquisition is summarized by Labov: In the great majority of cases that we have studied or encountered, children follow the pattern of their peers (1991: 304). However, is that really the case?

Payne (1976) claims that the children who could not fully master the Short-*a*, a notorious phonological rule in Philadelphia dialect, were the ones whose parents were not locally born. Kerswill and Williams (2000) in Milton Keynes show that the children in newly formed residential areas participate in language change no matter what kind of dialects their parents use. Recently, Stanford (2008) demonstrated that dialect acquisition in Chinese rural areas is not influenced by the parents or peers. Children in those areas acquire the paternal dialect because of the clan system in the region. This made us rethink other influences, namely, cultural perspectives, on dialect acquisition. Besides Payne, however, most of the studies focused only on the acquisition of phonological variables - not on the acquisition of phonological rules, which is regarded as a part of grammar.

This study tries to understand how phonological variables and phonological rules are acquired through different parental locality conditions. This paper consists of five sections. The first section introduces how the survey is conducted and gives a short explanation on the target dialect, Kansai dialect of Japanese (KJ). In the second section, previous studies concerning the parental influence on children's dialect acquisition will be presented. The third section gives sketches the survey procedure and its results. In the fourth section, the results with regards to parental influence are discussed. Lastly, the fifth section sums up this study.

1.1. Background of this study

The purpose of this study is to investigate the parents' dialectal influence in dialect acquisition. The inconsistency in selecting dialect informants is found in past literature. In strict dialectal research, it has been said that the dialect informants must reside in a specific area for three generations or be an ideal speaker of a dialect i.e. Non-mobile,

Older, Rural-resident and Male (NORM). However, there has been no discussion as to why these are the conditions an ideal speaker should meet.

On the other hand, in somewhat loose dialect studies, informants are selected by simple conditions such as being locally born and raised in the target area. However, even if all the children used as informants in a study are born and raised in the same area, it cannot be attested that all those children acquire the same local pronunciation or accent if their parents' origins are taken into consideration. If the parents are not from the local area, do their children acquire exactly the same pronunciation as their peers with locally born and raised parents? The amount of time children spent with their parents at home starting from birth, their parents' origins and the parents' accentual influence are factors that must be considered with regards to dialect acquisition.

Based on the preceding background, the study investigates how much parental accent affects children's accent acquisition. Furthermore, it explores the differences that can be observed because of parental origins. Thus, the study collects data from informants in the same area, but with differing parental origins. If there are any differences observed in their accents, this study proposes that parental accent influence partially, but not solely, causes the differences.

More importantly however, this study investigates accent acquisition from the two-point view: Firstly, whether or not the informants have acquired the local lexical accents. Secondly, the study explores whether or not the informants have acquired the phonological rule, namely, a compound accent rule. Nasu (2004) pointed out this two-point view in accent acquisition in Japanese.

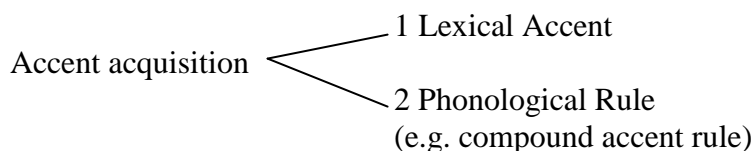


Figure 1 Accent acquisition (Nasu 2004)

It is supposed that each lexical item has its own accent, so lexical accents are stored in the memory one by one. On the other hand, a phonological rule, or a compound accent rule in Japanese for example, is a rule which can designate where accents fall in compound words. Once s/he learns the rule, the rule can be applicable to any compound words. Therefore, those who were born and raised in the same area are expected to have acquired both lexical accents and the phonological accent rule.

1.1. Target dialect – Kansai dialect of Japanese

The target dialect used in this survey is Kansai dialect of Japanese (KJ). KJ is one of the major dialects in Japanese, and its accentuation is different from the Tokyo dialect of Japanese (TJ). Table 1 shows Japanese dialect categories based on pitch falls and tones. KJ is a dialect with pitch falls and tones shown in Table 1.

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Table 1 Japanese dialect categories based on pitch falls and tones. (Kibe 2008)

		Pitch fall	No pitch falls
Tone	High tone	Kansai High Tone	Multiple tones (e.g. Kagoshima dialect)
	Low tone	Kansai Low Tone	
No tones		Tokyo dialect of Japanese (TJ)	No tone/ No pitch fall dialect (e.g. Miyakonojo dialect)

KJ was chosen as a target dialect because of its phonological rule, with the purpose of looking into whether or not the informants have acquired the compound accent rule mentioned before. This phonological rule is called the “Tone Preservation Rule (TPR)” in Japanese (Wada 1943). Prosodic structure of compound words in KJ is determined by their initial member.

- | | | | | | | |
|-----|----------------|-----------------------------------|---|-------------------------------|---|---|
| (1) | a. (High tone) | Kya .be.tsu
(cabbage) | + | ha. ta .ke
(fields) | → | kya.be.tsu.ba.ta.ke
(cabbage fields) |
| | | HLL | + | LHL | → | HHHLL |
| | b. (Low tone) | i. chi .go
(strawberry) | + | ha. ta .ke
(fields) | → | i.chi.go. ba .ta.ke
(strawberry fields) |
| | | LHL | + | LHL | → | LLLHL |

(1a) shows a High tone example. The letters with bold face indicate High tone. If the initial mora of the first member begins with a high tone then the compound word takes High tone. (1b) exhibits a Low tone example. If the initial mora of the first member is Low tone, then the compound word takes Low tone. This rule can be applicable to compound words of more than five moras. If the compound word is less than four moras, this rule does not apply and an irregular accent is observed (Nakai 1996). By using KJ as the target dialect in this study, we can observe which aspect of parental influence can be observed, namely, the lexical accent or the phonological rule.

2. PREVIOUS STUDIES

I will present four studies in terms of parental influence on children’s dialect acquisition. Three of them are concerned with English dialect and the other one is about Japanese dialect.

Trudgill (1986) conducted the survey to see parental influence on dialect acquisition in Norwich, England where twenty people locally born and raised participated. The test sentence was “Norwich city scored an own goal” and the subject was asked to read in a local pronunciation. The target words were “own goal” and is supposed to read [ʌn gu:ɫ] in Norwich. The twenty participants were divided into two groups and each group contained ten people. One group consisted of ten people whose parents were born and raised in Norwich. The other group’s parents were born elsewhere. The result was that those with parents born in Norwich were able to speak the sentence with correct local

pronunciation.

The second study was from Payne (1976). She carried out her study in Philadelphia, looking into children's dialect acquisition by out-of-state children. The subjects were thirty-four out-of-state children, who had moved to Philadelphia. Seven children out of thirty-four were born in Philadelphia, and were of varying ages. Payne focused on two aspects, the first being Philadelphian vowels which are phonological variables. The second aspect was the characteristics of Philadelphian dialect and is called the "Short-*a*" rule, which is regarded as a very complicated phonological rule. The result for the first aspect is that thirty-four out-of-state children acquired the Philadelphian vowels, but the older the children's ages are, the harder it was for them to acquire the Philadelphia vowels. The result for the latter aspect, Short-*a* phonological rule, is that out-of-state children partially acquired the rule, but their acquisition was not perfect. Even some locally born and raised children never mastered the rule. On the other hand, children whose parents were locally born and raised in Philadelphia were able to master the rule.

Kerswill and Williams (2000) carried out a koineization survey in Milton Keynes, England, which was identified as new residential area at that time. They looked into the acquisition of the phonetic variables by 4, 8 and 12 year-old locally born children. They claim to have found out that koineization was observed in these locally born children, despite the fact that their parents' origins differ. They claim that the individual human network is the key to children's dialect acquisition. However, there are some points to be reconsidered in their results. Firstly, they disregard parental influence even though they have raised data which indicates a correlation between parental origins and children's phonetic variable acquisition. Secondly, children at those ages are still at the stage of language acquisition. Thus, it is not known what kind of dialect they will acquire after such a critical period.

More recently, Stanford (2008) claims that the kind of dialect, namely paternal dialect or maternal dialect that the children acquire, depends on culture. In other words, the parent/peer relationship is not an issue in dialect acquisition. However, his study does not include children with non-locally born parents, which makes it impossible to evaluate the nature of the dialect that those children acquired.

The final study is about Osaka Japanese (OJ), which is a subcategory of KJ. Sugito (1984) looked into the difference of lexical accents in terms of parental origins. Her subjects were female college students and were divided into four categories based on paternal and maternal origins as shown in Table 2.

Table 2 Subject type based on parental origin (Sugito 1984) (): Number of subjects

Father Mother	From Osaka area	Outside of Osaka area
From Osaka area	Group A (30)	Group B (12)
Outside of Osaka area	Group C (10)	Group D (8)

She compared their lexical accents with the traditional OJ accent, which have been transcribed in the *Zenkoku Akusento Jiten* (All-Japan Accent Dictionary) (Hirayama

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1960). Her results indicated that the subjects whose parents were both born in the same area (categorized in group A in Table 2), showed the highest percentage in terms of preservation of the traditional OJ accent. Group B showed the next highest percentage. Group D, whose parents were both from outside of the Osaka area showed the least percentage in preserving the traditional OJ accent. Thus, she concluded that the maternal origin is the key to acquiring the OJ traditional lexical accent. In her results, it could be said that there is a parental locality difference in lexical accent acquisition, however, the acquisition of the phonological rule was not investigated.

As we have seen in previous studies, there have been many studies on parental influence in dialect acquisition. The studies above are just some of them. However, the research procedures are inconsistent and the issue has not been settled. In order to see parental influence in dialect acquisition, we conducted a dialect survey considering the acquisition of two aspects and parental origins. The next section explains the survey procedures and its results.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Survey procedures

In this survey, participants are directed to read out loud the test words on the sheet twice. If accent inconsistency is found in their speech, such as *a.mè* (rain) for the first time but *a.me* (candy) for the second time, the speaker is directed to choose one of these accentuations, which corresponds with his/her native intuition. The author transcribes the accent on site, but their speech was also recorded.

Lexical items consist of one hundred two-mora nouns. Novel Compound Words (NCW) are made by combining the selected two-mora nouns with other selected nouns such *matsuri* (festival), *mondai* (problem), *kakari* (a person in charge) and so on. The latter members should be the ones which can make sense when they are combined with the first members. (2) shows how compound words are made.

(2) Compound words = First member + Second member

First member: 100 lexical items

Second member: *matsuri* (festival)/ *mondai* (problem)/ *kakari* (a person in charge)/ *fukuro* (bag) etc.

a. *ni. wa* (garden) + *mondai* (problem) = ni.wa.mo.n.da.i.

b. *a. mè* (rain) + *matsuri* (festival) = a. me.ma.tsu.ri.

The reason why we employ NCW is because the resulting noun is an impromptu word made with established words, but it does not exist. Therefore, we can observe how the subject applies TPR to NCW.

3.2. Analysis

This section explains the analysis of lexical items and related compound words, as well as definitions on the correct answers. The survey had two focuses, firstly being the preservation of the traditional lexical accent, which is similar to the survey conducted by Sugito (1984). The second focus is the acquisition of the compound accent rule.

Having mentioned the “Tone Preservation Rule” in KJ in 1.2, Table 3 exhibits how much their performance was checked.

For example, if the informant pronounces the standalone word “na.tsu (summer)” with High (H) and Low (L) tone as shown in (a) in Table 3, s/he preserves the traditional KJ lexical accent. When s/he pronounces the NCW, s/he is expected to pronounce the first member of the word with the same tone. Therefore, it is the High tone in this case. If s/he pronounces the first member of the compound word with the wrong tone - which is Low tone in this case - it is judged that s/he does not apply the rule. This is shown in (b) in Table 3. If s/he masters the rule, s/he pronounces the novel compound words with the right tone in accordance with the tone of the initial member. Based on these criteria, each informant’s performance on lexical accent and the NCW tone is evaluated.

Table 3 Preservation of traditional accent and application of compound accent rule

	Standalone word (SW)	Novel compound word tone and accent	Preservation of traditional accent in SW	Tone Preservation Rule (TPR)
(a)	na.tsu (summer) (HL)	na.tsu.ma.tsu.ri (summer festival) (HHLL)	OK	OK
(b)	na.tsu (HL)	na.tsu.ma.tsu.ri (LLHLL)	OK	-
(c)	na. tsu (LH)	na.tsu.ma.tsu.ri (LLHLL)	-	OK
(d)	na. tsu (LH)	na.tsu.ma.tsu.ri (HHLL)	-	-

3.3. Results and discussion

The subjects’ ages are from eighteen up to thirty-nine years old. Subjects are divided into four groups based on Sugito’s groupings as is shown in Table 2. Table 4 indicates the number of people in each group.

Table 4 Number of participants based on parental origins (M/F)

		Father		Total
		From the region	From outside of the region	
Mother	From the region	Group A 21(0/21)	Group B 16 (1/15)	37 (1/36)
	From outside of the region	Group C 15 (1/14)	Group D 21 (10/11)	36 (11/25)
Total		36 (1/35)	37 (11/26)	73 (12/61)

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Now we will see how much KJ lexical accent and KJ TPR are preserved in their speech. First, we will examine the result of the lexical accentuation survey. Table 5 shows the preservation of KJ lexical accent. The answers are divided into three categories. In the top category named KJ, how much each group of participants use the traditional KJ lexical accent is indicated. In the second category named TJ, how many participants exhibit TJ accentuation is shown. Lastly, in the third category named “other than the above,” other accentuations are indicated which do not correspond with either KJ or TJ accentuation.

People from Group A exhibit the highest preservation rate and those in Group D have the lowest preservation rate for KJ lexical accent. Also, Group B and Group C show a preservation rate of more than 90%, which is a much higher rate compared to Group D. We have now observed the differences among four groups, however, we should statistically attest these differences. Table 6 shows the statistical comparison between groups by ANOVA. According to Table 6, the performance of Group D differs from the other three groups. Thus, people with non-local parents could have acquired a different lexical accent. However, if either parent is locally born and raised no differences can be observed in the statistical analysis. Now we see why lexical accent is hard to acquire for people in Group D.

Table 5 Preservation of KJ lexical accent

	Examples with tones <i>mi.zu</i> (water) <i>i.nu</i> (dog) <i>u.mi</i> (sea)	Group A (80wds) ₁ ×21people)	Group B (80wds) ×16people)	Group C (80wds) ×15people)	Group D (80wds) ×21people)
KJ	<i>mi.zu</i> [HH] <i>i.nu</i> [HL] <i>u.mi</i> [LH]	1637/1680 (97.4%)	1177/1280 (92.0%)	1130/1200 (94.2%)	1115/1680 (66.4%)
TJ	<i>mi.zu</i> [LH] <i>i.nu</i> [LH] <i>u.mi</i> [HL]	17/1680 (1.0%)	70/1280 (5.5%)	70/1200 (5.8%)	474/1680 (28.2%)
Other than the above	It is supposed to read <i>Kita</i> (North) [HL] in KJ and [LH] in TJ, but it is read as [HH]	26/1680 (1.5%)	33/1280 (2.6%)	35/1200 (2.9%)	91/1680 (5.4%)

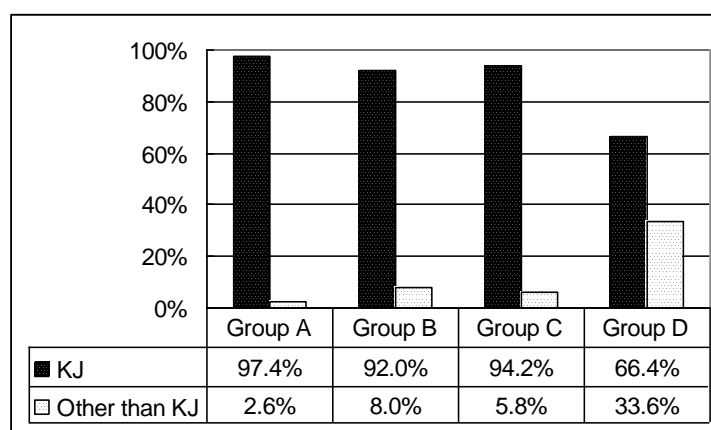


Figure 2 Preservation of KJ lexical accent

Table 6 Statistical comparison of lexical accent between groups by ANOVA (*: $p < .05$)

	A	B	C	D
A	—	n.s.	n.s.	*
B	—	—	n.s.	*
C	—	—	—	*

What about novel compound words (NCW)? Can we observe the same differences as well as the lexical accent? Now we turn to the performance of TPR to NCW. Table 7 indicates the preservation of TPR in NCW and Figure 3 shows the bar chart of Table 7. The upper rows in Table 7 show how much each group preserve TPR and the lower rows show the deviation from TPR. Here we can also see the difference depending on groups, but is the difference truly statistically significant? As we have statistically compared to each groups with regards to lexical accent, we will also compare the four groups here. Table 8 exhibits statistical analysis of TPR preservation. Group D here also shows statistical difference from the other groups. Therefore, it should be said that people in Group D have not acquired the same dialect as those in the other groups.

Table 7 Preservation of TPR in KJ

	Group A (100wds ×21people)	Group B (100wds ×16people)	Group C (100wds ×15people)	Group D (100wds ×21people)
KJ – w/ TPR	1992/2100 (94.9%)	1303/1600 (81.4%)	1199/1500 (80.6%)	969/2100 (46.1%)
The other	110/2100 (5.2%)	297/1600 (18.6%)	301/1500 (20.1%)	1131/2100 (53.9%)

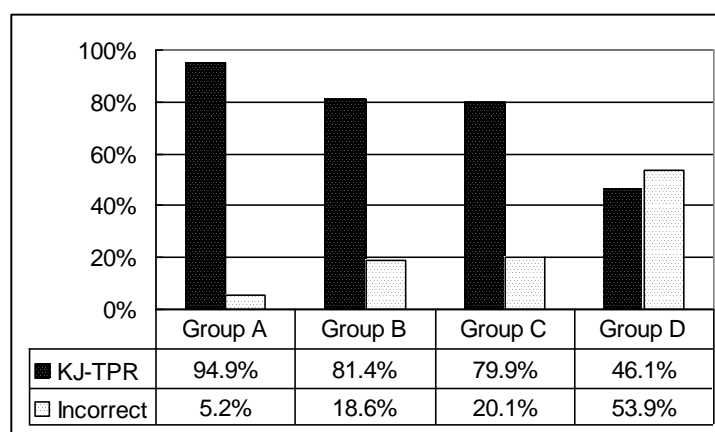


Figure 3 Preservation of KJ TPR in NCW

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Table 8 Statistical comparison of TPR between groups by ANOVA (*: p < .05)

	A	B	C	D
A	—	n.s.	n.s.	*
B	—	—	n.s.	*
C	—	—	—	*

We know that people in Group D do not preserve TPR. Their error rate in NCW is about fifty percent. Now we might wonder what kind of errors people in Group D make. We will look into the errors and determine the tendencies of their errors. To investigate each error, we will categorize them based on three criteria: whether or not it has tones, whether or not it follows TPR, and whether or not it has pitch fall. The conditions on tones and pitch fall are the keys to characterize KJ as we have seen in Table 1. If s/he pronounces the NCW with the opposite tone and accent, namely High tone turning to Low tone or vice versa, the error sounds like KJ. The error still follows the KJ tone and pitch criteria, but the minor difference is the preservation of TPR. Based on these criteria, we set five categories for NCW accent shown in Table 9. The upper row marked as “1. KJ w/ TPR” is the category which meets all three criteria, so it could be said this is the authentic KJ. The second row marked as “2. KJ w/o TPR” is the category which does not meet TPR criterion. The third category is called “TJ”, which is an abbreviation of Tokyo Japanese, with its main characteristic being the pitch rise found between the initial mora and the second mora. This pitch rise distinguishes TJ from the other errors. The fourth and fifth categories are not categorised as either KJ or TJ. Therefore, the error categories numbered 2 to 5 are all TPR errors in KJ.

Table 9 Breakdowns of NCW with examples

		Tone		Pitch fall	Examples
		Does it have tones?	Does it meet with TPR?	Does it have pitch fall?	
In the form of KJ	1. KJ w/ TPR	Yes	Yes	Yes	na.tsu(HL) ⇒ na.tsu.ya.su.mi(HHHLL) a.ki(LH) ⇒ a.ki.ya.su.mi(LLHLL)
	2. KJ w/o TPR	Yes	-	Yes	na.tsu(HL) ⇒ na.tsu.ya.su.mi(LLHLL) a.ki(LH) ⇒ a.ki.ya.su.mi(HHHLL)
3. TJ		-	-	Yes	na.tsu(LH/HL) ⇒ na.tsu.ya.su.mi(LHHLL)
4. Multiple tones	-	Yes	Yes	-	ha.ko(HH) ⇒ ha.ko.bi.ra.ki(HHHHH)
					ya.ma(HL) ⇒ ya.ma.ga.ka.ri(HHHHH)
					fu.ne.(LH) ⇒ fu.ne.ma.tsu.ri(LLLLLH)
5. No tones / No pitch falls	-	-	-	-	ha.ko(HH) ⇒ ha.ko.bi.ra.ki(LLLLLH)
					ya.ma(HL) ⇒ ya.ma.ga.ka.ri(LLLLLH)
					fu.ne(LH) ⇒ fu.ne.ma.tsu.ri(HHHHH)

Table 10 Breakdowns of NCW with examples

Error category	Tone		Pitch fall	A (21 people)	B (16 people)	C (15 people)	D (21 people)	
	Does it have tones?	Does it meet with TPR? (o/x)	Does it have pitch fall?(o/x)					
KJ	1. KJ w/ TPR	Yes	Yes	Yes	1990/2100 (94.8%)	1303/1600 (81.4%)	1199/1500 (79.9%)	969/2100 (46.1%)
	2.KJ w/o TPR	Yes	-	Yes	94/2100 (4.5%)	167/1600 (10.4%)	247/1500 (16.5%)	644/2100 (30.7%)
	3. TJ	-	-	Yes	15/2100 (0.7%)	125/1600 (7.8%)	41/1500 (2.7%)	475/2100 (22.6%)
4. Multiple tones	Yes	Yes	-	-	1/2100 (0.05%)	5/1600 (0.3%)	13/1500 (0.9%)	4/2100 (0.2%)
	Yes	-	-	-				
5. No tones / No pitch falls	-	-	-	-	0/2100 (0%)	0/1600 (0%)	0/1500 (0%)	8/2100 (0.4%)

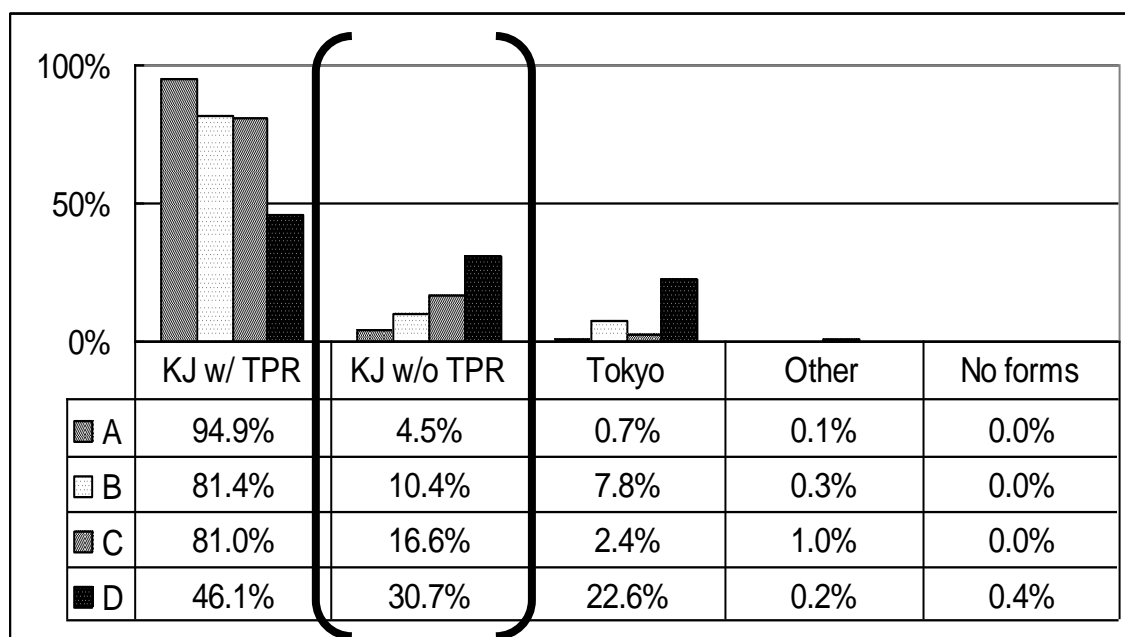


Figure 4 Breakdowns of the NCW

Based on these five error categories, NCW accent is sorted out and is shown in Table 10 and Figure 4. The errors other than the upper row show an interesting tendency. The most of the errors are concentrated in the second row, namely, KJ without TPR. The bars in brackets shown in Figure 4 indicate these errors. This error, as explained above, sounds like KJ but does not preserve TPR. Group A marks the lowest rate in this error category. As expected, the error rate increases toward Group D.

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Therefore, the majority of the errors are still in the form of KJ, but they deviate from TPR. If we do not regard this error as an error and count it as KJ, their performance rate increases dramatically. On the other hand, if we look at the other sets of errors, TJ errors are the second most common after “KJ w/o TPR”. Here, Group D also marks the highest TJ error rate compared to the other groups. The rest of the other two errors are nearly absent here. Now we can see that the errors are concentrated in KJ w/o TPR type or TJ type. There should be two reasons why the errors do not go beyond the KJ type or TJ type. One reason is that TJ is commonly heard in daily life through TV. Thus, even speakers of KJ are accustomed to hearing TJ. The second reason is that the other two error types, fourth and fifth categories, are far removed from KJ and TJ because of their tones and no pitch falls. Hence, they cannot conform to these two error types.

To sum up the error analysis, errors can be found mostly in the form of KJ but they are not related to TPR. Superficially, this kind of error, “KJ w/o TPR”, sounds similar to KJ, but it is not truly KJ. The least likely errors are the ones which do not conform to either KJ or TJ because they are completely separate from KJ or TJ. Therefore, we have found that most of the errors are confined to the form of KJ or TJ and do not go beyond KJ or TJ.

4. GENERAL DISCUSSION

This study looked into whether or not parental influence can be observed in dialect acquisition. Furthermore, if there is a parental influence in dialect acquisition, the differences that appear among the speakers is also of interest.

It has been shown that people in Group D, i.e. those whose parents are not from the target dialect area, cannot perform the target dialect as well as the other groups. This tendency is observed both in lexical items and novel compound words (NCW). Even though the participants were born and raised in the same area, their dialect performance is different.

Payne’s (1976) research indicated that children who were born in Philadelphia were not able to master the “short-*a*” phonological rule. Those who could master the rule were the ones whose parents were originally from Philadelphia. Along with Payne’s findings, this study shows a similar trend. Specifically, that the performance rate of TPR in NCW between Group A, B, C and D is statistically different. Thus, it could be said that parental origin, or parental dialect influence to be precise, exists in dialect acquisition.

However, the error analysis in NCW indicates an interesting tendency. The errors in NCW are confined in the form of KJ or TJ no matter which group they belong to. The errors found in KJ w/o TPR sound like KJ because they are still equipped with tones and pitch fall, but they still are not authentic KJ. These sound-like KJ errors increase in accordance with the alphabetical group order A, B, C and D. Therefore, no matter what kind of parental origins the participants has, these participants acquired the dialectal forms, namely KJ. This tendency conforms to Kerswill and Williams’s findings; the children in newly developed towns acquired the creole-like dialect, which is neither the local indigenous one nor the parental one.

Back to the initial discussion, the informants in a dialect survey are of particular interest. Based on the results obtained in this study, it is clear that people whose parents are both from the target dialect area are eligible to be a dialect consultant since they

show the highest performance rates in both lexical items and phonological rules. On the other hand, people in Group D whose parents are not from the target dialect area should not be included in a dialect survey, since their performance rates for both lexical items and the phonological rule are not as high as the other three groups. Also, the performance rates in both lexical accent and phonological rule, i.e. preservation of TPR, indicate a statistical difference. The rest of the two groups, Group B and Group C, show lower performance rates compared to Group A, but their performance rates are still much better than Group D. Also, no statistical significance is observed between Group B and C in this study. Therefore, it may be acceptable to include informants from Group B and C in a dialect survey, but further research is still needed to confirm whether or not there is any difference among other dialects. If there are no differences among the three groups (Group A, B and C) in other dialect, it should be possible to reach this conclusion.

5. SUMMARY

This study attempted to investigate whether or not parental accentual influence exists, and also the kind of differences that emerge if such an influence indeed exists. What was found in this study is that there is a clear difference in the participants' dialect performance even though they were raised in the same area. The difference we controlled in the study is parental origin. It could be said that the different performance rates observed in this study are partially caused by parental accentual influence. However, it should be noted that parental origin is not the sole attribution to accent acquisition. There must be other factors to be considered.

Also, what we found in this study may be found in only KJ. Whether or not this trend is a ubiquitous one should be attested in other dialects. That is the next research question.

NOTES

1. Although the number of standalone words used in the survey is one hundred two-mora words, the twenty words in Class 5 are excluded in this calculation because these words are in a state of accentual change in KJ. Most of the participants used the new accentuation, though, some used the very traditional accentuation. To avoid an inconsistency in correct accentuation in KJ, these ambiguous words in Class 5 were not included in the analysis.

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