O`ZBEKISTON RESPUBLIKASI
OLIY VA O`RTA MAXSUS TA'LIM VAZIRLIGI
BUXORO DAVLAT UNIVERSITETI

O`RGANILAYOTGAN TIL NAZARIY ASPEKTLARI
(Nazariy fonetika)

O'QUV QO`LLANMA

BUXORO - 2022

Buxoro davlat universiteti
o‘quv-metodik kengash 10-sonli
yig‘ilishining bayonnomasidan

KO‘CHIRMA

27.05.2022 **Buxoro shahri**

KUN TARTIBI:

1. Turli masalalar.

Ingliz tilshunosligi kafedrasi dotsenti N.S. Qobilovaning 5111400-Xorijiy til va adabiyoti (ingliz tili) ta'lim yo’nalishi uchun “Theoretical phonetics” deb nomlangan uslubiy qo’llanma tavsiya etish.

ESHITILDI:

M.Y. Farmanova (kengash kotibasi) - Ingliz tilshunosligi kafedrasi dotsenti N.S. Qobilovaning 5111400-Xorijiy til va adabiyoti (ingliz tili) ta'lim yo’nalishi uchun “Theoretical phonetics” deb nomlangan uslubiy qo’llanmani nashrga tavsiya etishni ma'lum qildi. Uslubiy qo’llanmaga: BuxMTI Xorijiy tillar kafedrasi mudiri PhD M.B. Barotova va Ingliz tilshunosligi kafedrasi dotsenti Z.I. Rasulovlar tomonidan ijobiy taqriz berilgani ta'kidlandi. Uslubiy qo’llanma muhokamasi haqidagi Xorijiy tillar fakulteti (2022-yil 27-may) va Ingliz tilshunosligi kafedrasi (2022-yil 25-may) yig‘ilish qarori bilan tanishtirdi.

Yuqoridagilarni inobatga olib o‘quv-metodik kengash

QAROR QILADI:

1. Ingliz tilshunosligi kafedrasi dotsenti N.S. Qobilovaning 5111400-Xorijiy til va adabiyoti (ingliz tili) ta'lim yo’nalishi uchun “Theoretical phonetics” deb nomlangan uslubiy qo’llanma tavsiya etilsin.

O‘quv-metodik kengash raisi **R.G’. Jumayev**

O‘quv-metodik kengash kotibasi **M.Y. Farmanova**

ANNOTATSIYA

Ushbu o’quv qo’llanma 60 230 100 – Filologiya va tillarni o’qitish (roman-german filologiyasi), 60 230 200 – Tarjima nazariyasi va amaliyoti (ingliz) ta’lim yo’nalishi talabalari uchun mo’ljallangan bo’lib, unda talabalarning til modellari va strukturalari haqidagi bilimlarini oshirish bilan birga ingliz tili fonetikasini muloqotda to’g’ri qo’llashni, muloqot jarayonida Fonetik formalarni to’g’ri ishlatishni o’rgatish orqali lingvistik kompetensiyani rivojlantirishga qaratilgan. Barcha mavzular kommunikativ yondashuvni qo’llash orqali taqdim etilishi muhim ahamiyatga ega.

O’quv qo’llanmadan o’qituvchilar va filologiya ve tillarni o’qitish (ingliz tili) ta’lim yo’nalishi talabalari ham foydalanishlari mumkin.

Muallif:
QOBILOVA NARGISA

Taqrizchilar:
BAQOYEV N.B., dotsent, pedagogika fanlari nomzodi.
RASULOV Z.I., filologiya fanlari nomzodi, dotsent.

O’quv qo’llanma Buxoro davlat universiteti kengashi yig’ilishida ko’rib chiqildi va ma’qullandi (kengashning 2022 yil “ __ ” _____ № __ -yig’ilishi bayonnomasi).

MUNDARIJA

KIRISH

O`rganilayotgan til nazariy aspektlari fani uch moduldan iborat bo'lib ular "Ingliz tilli nazariy fonetikasi", "Ingliz tili nazariy grammatikasi" hamda "Leksikologiya" fanlarini o'z ichiga oladi. Ushbu fanlar bir-biri bilan chambarchas bog'liq bo'lganligi uchun tizimlashtirilgan holda "O`rganilayotgan til nazariy aspektlari" nomi bilan umumiy ataladi hamda modullarga bo'lingan holda o'rgatiladi. Ingliz tili nazariy fonetikasi tovush strukturasi, talaffuz normalari, bo'g'in yasalish qoidalari, urg'u, intonatsiya kabi fonetik birliklarni o'rgatadi. Leksikologiya so'z ma'nosi xususiyatlari, til lug'at tarkibining asosiy birliklari, so'zning morphologik, leksik, semantik tuzilishi so'zlarning yasalishi, frazeologik birikmalar, so'zlarning kelib chiqishi haqidagi bilimlarni o'rgatadi. Ingliz tili tovush strukturasini o'rganadigan nazariy grammatika lingvistik nazariy fanlarning ajralmas qismi bo'lib, ingliz filologiyasi bo'limlarida alohida fan sifatida o'qitiladi. **Nazariy Fonetikaning** asosiy maqsadi talabalarga ingliz tilining tovush strukturasini o'rgatish, ularni ilmiy maktablar, oqimlar hamda lingvistik konsepsiyalar hamda tilshunoslikning munozarali muammolari bilan tanishtirishdan iborat.

THEME 1: INTRODUCTION. PHONETICS AS A BRANCH OF LINGUISTICS

Plan

1. Phonetics and its aspects.
2. Types of phonetics.
3. Phonetic elements and its functions.

Key Words

Phonetic substance - human speech, Physical media - sounds, syllables, stress, intonation, Phonetics - a special science of phonic substance, Phoneme - the smallest meaningless unit of the language

By the term language we mean the typically human ability to encode introaudible, or otherwise, meaning signal. Human speech is called the "Phonetic substance" in which linguistic forms are manifested. The speech maybe either oral or written. Phonetics (from the Greek word "phone" - meaning sound, voice and "-tika" a science) is a special science which studies the phonic substance and the expressions area of the language, or otherwise the physical media of a language (sounds, syllables, stress and intonation). The linguistic form and content are described by other branches of linguistics, namely grammar (morphology and syntax), lexicology (lexicon or vocabulary, the formation and the meaning of the words) and stylistics (expressive -emotional meanings).

Phonetics has four aspects.

1. Articulatory aspect - it studies the movement of organs of speech, during pronunciation.

2. Methods of articulatory1st - method is called the method of direct of observation. 2nd - method is X - ray photography. 3rd - method is Palatagraphy. This method is used in investigation of consonant sounds.

3. Acoustic system - there is a science which is call physics. (In this aspect phonetics -calls acoustical phonetics). They have there own names. Methods of acoustic:

Spectography - used in modern phonetics. Here used viserable speech.

Intonography.

Oscilography.

Subjective methods - to put that what we thinking. Objective methods - include all aspects.

4. Perceptual aspect or auditory aspect - each of them has 3-4 names. The human' speech is perceive in different may. Ex, ice - cream - мороженое, I scream - я кричу, a name - an aim.

5. Phonological and functional aspect. Language functions with its own function. Language is a social phenomena.

The articulatory & acoustic features, which served to distinguish one phoneme from another is called -*a* phonological or a distinctive feature of phoneme.

The phoneme is the smallest meaningless unit of the language - which serve to distinguish~words arid morphemes. The contrasts, which distinguish two phonemes, are called phonological oppositions. Ex, [k. - g], [p -1], [t - s], [1 - r] etc.

The words, which are used to illustrate ph - cal words.

Take - make, hat - cat.

There are 4 types of phonetics exist in English language.

2. Historical phonetics - (anachronical, evolutional) studies all the type of ph - tic changes in the course of the development of the science "the history of the language".

3. Comparative typological phonetics - studies similar and different features of two or ' [1] more languages, which compares two or more phonetic structure of the languages.

4. Descriptive phonetics. This type of ph - tics describes the theory of the English or other phonetics. According to its aim ph - tics maybe: 1. Practical (normative course); 2. Theoretical.

Theoretical phonetics gives the theory of the ph - tic system. Now this type of phonetics, which we are studying, is called theoretical course of phonetics. It gives the whole system, explanation how the system organized.

The functions of phonetic elements

The phoneme, syllable, stress, intonation are phonetic elements.

1. Constitutive functions means, all ph - tic elements is used as material carries of words. W. C - s and phrases. Ex, take - has phonemes. This word is constituted from 3 phonemes. This word "take" - taking is formed from the combination of 5 phonemes and two syllables. May I take your book? - a phrase - stressed - intonation.

2. Distinctive function. .Ex.. take - mistake, a name - an aim syllables maybe distinctive from each other.

a. Distinctive features of stress of words: Pres'ent - "present

Infport - "import

b. Intonation: she came - she came? Intonation is used in human speech.

3. Precognitive function: this function is used not to mix the syllables, the pronunciation of the sounds instead of aspirated without aspiration.

4. Phono - stylistic function - when two parts sciences in a very close contact, all these phonetic elements stress, syllable, phoneme used in stylistic, in order to pronounce the word we use them as sounds. Oh, she сатеУ

Phonetics as a branch of linguistics

Phonetics is concerned with the physical properties of speech sounds **(phones):** their physiological production, acoustic properties, auditory perception, and neurophysiological status. **Phonology,** on the other hand, is concerned with abstract, grammatical characterization of systems of sounds.

The difference between phonetics and phonemes

Phonemes include all significant differences of sound, including features of voicing, place and manner of articulation, accents, and secondary features of nasalization and labialization. Whereas phonetics refers to the study of the production, perception, and physical nature of speech sounds.

Phonetics as a branch of linguistics structure and functions of the speech sounds. - This branch of linguistics is called phonetics. Phonetics is an independent branch of linguistics like lexicology or grammar. These linguistic sciences study language from three different points of view. Lexicology deals with the vocabulary of language, with the origin and development of words, with their meaning and word building. Grammar defines the rules governing the modification of words and the combination of words into sentences. Phonetics studies the outer form of language; its sound matter. Phonetics occupies itself with the study of the ways in which the sounds are organi-zed into a system of units and the variation of the units in all types and styles of spoken language.

Investigations show that there are **4 aspects of a speech sound**:

- **articulatory aspect;**
- **auditory aspect;**
- **acoustic aspect;**
- **functional aspect (linguistic, social).**

Fom the point of view of the aspects of speech, four traditional branches of theoretical phonetics are generally recognized:

Articulatory phonetics is the study of the way speech sounds are made ('articulated') by the vocal organs, i.e. it studies the way in which the air is set in motion, the movements of the speech organs and the coordination of these movements in the production of single sounds and trains of sounds. These refer to the human **vocal tract** (or to the speech organs) and are used to describe and classify sounds. This branch of phonetics refers to **speech production**, giving the

basic understanding of speech anatomy. Articulatory phonetics employs experimental methods.

Auditory phonetics studies the perceptual response to speech sounds, as mediated by ear, auditory nerve and brain, i.e. its interests lie more in the sensation of hearing, which is brain activity, than in the psychological working of the ear or the nervous activity between the ear and the brain. The means by which we discriminate sounds – quality, sensations of pitch, loudness, length, are relevant here. This branch of phonetics refers to **speech perception**. Auditory phonetics also employs experimental methods.

Articulatory and auditory phonetics are sometimes combined into one branch called ***physiological phonetics***. The reason lies in the fact that sound production and sound perception are physiological processes.

Acoustic phonetics studies the physical properties of speech sound, as transmitted between the speaker's mouth and the listener's ear with the help of spectrograms (quality, length, intensity, pitch, and others). This branch of phonetics refers to **speech physics**, it is interdisciplinary. It also employs experimental methods.

Functional phonetics – is concerned with the range and function of sounds in specific languages. It is a purely linguistic branch, typically referred to as **phonology.** The human vocal apparatus can produce a wide range of sounds; but only a small number of them are used in a language to construct all of its words and utterances. **Phonology** is the study of those **segmental** (speech sound types) and **prosodic** (intonation) features which have a differential value in the language. This branch of phonetics studies the units serving people for communicative purposes. It studies the way in which speakers systematically use a selection of units – **phonemes** or **intonemes** – in order to express meaning. It investigates the phonetic phenomena from the point of view of their use.

The primary aim of phonology is to discover the principles that govern the way that sounds are organized in languages, to determine which phonemes are used and how they pattern – the **phonological structure** of a language. The properties of different sound systems are then compared, and hypotheses developed about the rules underlying the use of sounds in particular groups of languages, and in all the languages – *phonological universals.*

Phonology also solves:

1) the problem of the identification of the phonemes of a language;
2) the problem of the identification of the phoneme in a particular word, utterance. It establishes the system of phonemes and determines the frequency of occurrence in syllables, words, utterances. The distribution and grouping of phonemes and syllables in words are dealt with an area of phonology which is

called **phonotactics.** People engaged in the study of phonetics are known as *phoneticians* (фонетисти). People engaged in the study of phonology are known as *phonologists* (фонологи) [Врабель 2009, p. 6].

Phonology was originated in the 30s of the 20th century by a group of linguists belonging to the Prague school of linguistics – Vilem Matesius, Nickolai Trubetskoy, Roman Jakobson. The theoretical background of phonology is the phoneme theory whose foundations were first laid down by
I. O. Baudouin de Courtenay (1845–1929) in the last quarter of the 19th century (between the years of 1868–1881) [Врабель 2009, p. 5]. The theory was developed by his pupils, such as
L. V. Sherba, M. S. Grushevskiy, and some others.

The most important work in phonology is *"The groundwork of phonology"* [1939] by Nickolai Trubetskoy. He claimed that phonology should be separated from phonetics as it studies the functional aspect of phonic components of language. According to him, phonetics is a biological science which is concerned with physical and physiological characteristics of speech sounds, while phonology is a linguistic science and it is concerned with the social function of phonetic phenomena.

Nevertheless, contemporary phoneticians hold the view that form and function cannot be separated and treat phonology as a linguistic branch of phonetics. All the above branches of phonetics are closely connected since the object of their study, that is speech sounds, is the close unity of acoustic, articulatory, auditory, and linguistic aspects [Паращук 2009,p. 18].

All the branches of phonetics are closely connected with each other as well as with some other branches of linguistics such as lexicology, grammar, and stylistics.

The connection of phonetics with **lexicology** lies in the fact that distinction of words is realized by the variety of their appearances. The phonetic course of a given language determines the sound composition of words. For example, Turkish languages do not admit two or more consonants at the beginning of words while in some Slavonic languages such a phenomenon is widely spread (вкрасти, спритний). Only due to the presence of stress in the right place certain nouns can be distinguished from verbs. (e. g. *'object – to ob'ject)* Homographs can be differentiated only due to pronunciation, because they are identical in spelling (e. g. *lead* [lɪ:d], [led], *wind* [wɪnd], [waɪnd]*)*.

Sound interchange is a very vivid manifestation of a close connection of phonetics with **morphology and grammar**. It can be observed in the category of number (*man – men; goose - geese; foot – feet*). Sound interchange also helps to distinguish basic forms of irregular verbs (*sing-sang-sung*), adjectives and nouns

(*strong-strength*), verbs and nouns (*to extend-extent*). Through the system of reading rules phonetics helps to pronounce correctly singular and plural forms of nouns, the past tense forms and past participle of English regular verbs. (e. g. *begged* [d], *stopped* [t], *wanted* [id]). The connection is also seen through intonation. Sometimes intonation alone serves to single out the communicative centre of the sentence (e. g. *He came home)*. In affirmative sentences, the rising nuclear tone may show that this is a question.

Phonetics is closely connected with **syntax**. Any partition of a sentence is realized with the help of pauses, sentence stresses, melody. Changes in pausation can alter the meaning of an utterance. For example: *One of the travelers / said Mr. Parker / was likeable* (direct speech). If the pause is after "said", then we have another meaning of this sentence: *One of the travelers said / Mr. Parker was likeable.* The rising/falling nuclear tone determines the communicative type of the sentence: *You know him – statement / You know him? – general question.*

Phonetics is also connected with **stylistics** through repetition of sounds, words and phrases. Repetition of this kind creates the basis of rhythm, rhyme and alliteration (sound repetition). Repetition of consonants, which is alliteration, together with the words to which the repeated sounds belong, helps to create a melodic effect and to express particular emotions. It is mostly used in poems, e. g.:
There are twelve months in all the year… As I hear many men say…
But the merriest month in all the year… Is the merry month of May.

The repetition of sound [m] creates the effect of merriment. It should be noted that rhythm may be used as a special device not only in poetry but in prose as well.

Investigations in **historical aspects of languages** and the field of **dialectology** would be impossible without an understanding of phonetics. The practical aspect of phonetics is no less important. Teaching of reading and writing is possible only when one clearly understands the difference between the sounds and written forms of the language and the connection between them. Phonetics is also widely used in teaching **correct pronunciation** and **allocution** of actors, singers, TV announcers on the basis of established orthoepical norms.

Orthoepy is a correct pronunciation of the words of a language. Phonetics is important for eliminating dialectical features from the pronunciation of dialect speakers; in logopedics (in curing various speech defects); in surdopedagogics (in teaching normal aural speech to deaf and dumb people). Acoustic phonetics and phonology are of great use in technical acoustics or sound technology that is the branch of science and technology which is concerned with the study and design of techniques for the recording, transmission, reproduction, analysis and synthesis of

sound by means of various devices such as microphone, loud-speaker, radio and television sets, speech synthesizers etc.

Phonetics is also connected with non-linguistic sciences: **acoustics, biophysics, physiology, psychology, cybernetics**, **etc.**

Nowadays we can also see the development of quite distinct interdisciplinary subjects, such as sociolinguistics (sociophonetics), psycholinguistics, phonostylistics, mathematical linguistics, and others.

Sociolinguistics (sociophonetics) studies the ways in which pronunciation interacts with society. It is the study of the way in which phonetic structures change in response to different social functions and the deviations of what these functions are. Society here is used in its broadest sense, to cover a spectrum of phenomena to do with nationality, more restricted regional and social groups, and the specific interactions of individuals within them. Here there are innumerable facts to be discovered, even about a language as well investigated as English, concerning, for instance, the nature of the different kinds of English pronunciation we use in different situations – when we are talking to equals, superiors or subordinates; when we are "on the job", when we are old or young; male or female; when we are trying to persuade, inform, agree or disagree and so on. We may hope that very soon sociophonetics may supply Elementary information about: "who can say, what, how, using what phonetic means, to whom, when, and why?" In teaching phonetics, we would consider the study of sociolinguistics to be an essential part of the explanation in the functional area of phonetic units.

Psycholinguistics as a distinct area of interest developed in the early sixties, and in its early form covered the psychological implications of an extremely broad area, from acoustic phonetics to language pathology. Nowadays no one would want to deny the existence of strong mutual bonds of interest operating between linguistics, phonetics in our case and psychology. The acquisition of language by children, the extent to which language mediates or structures thinking; the extent to which language is influenced and itself influences such things as memory, attention, recall and constraints onperception; and the extent to which language has a certain role to play in the understanding of human development; the problems of speech production are broad illustrations of such bounds.

Phonostylistics studies the way phonetic means are used in this or that particular situation. The aim of phonostylistics is to analyse all possible kinds of spoken utterances with the purpose of identifying the phonetic features, both segmentaland suprasegmental, which are restricted to certain kinds of contexts, to explain why such features have been used and to classify them according to their function.

Mathematical linguistics is a field of scientific linguistic inquiry applying mathematical methods and concepts to linguistic systems, to phenomena observed in natural languages, or to the metatheory of models of grammars.

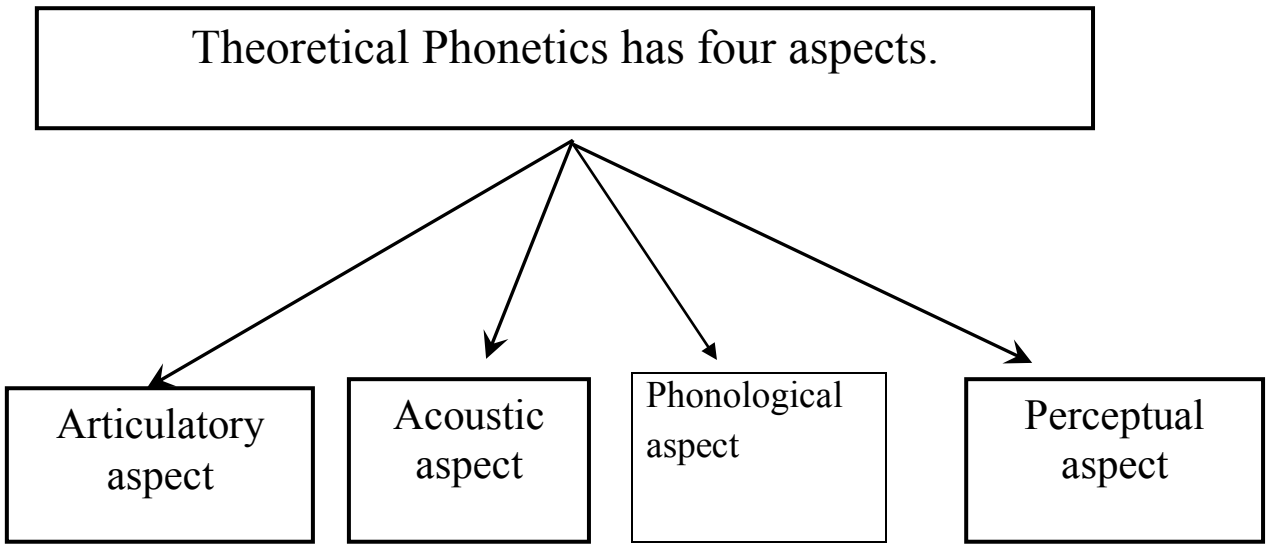
Foreign language teaching. A study of phonetics has educational value for almost everyone realizing the importance of language in human communication. The study of the complex of various communication techniques is definitely relevant to teaching a foreign language. Pronunciation in the past occupied a central position in theories of oral language proficiency. But it was largely identified with accurate pronunciation of isolated sounds or words. The most neglected aspect of the teaching of pronunciation was the relationship between phoneme articulation and other features of connected speech. Traditional classroom techniques included the use of a phonetic alphabet (transcription), transcription practice, recognition/discrimination tasks, focused production tasks, tongue twisters, games, and the like.

When **the Communicative Approach** to language teaching began to take over in the mid- late 1970s, most of the above- mentioned techniques and materials for teaching pronunciation at the segmental level were rejected on the grounds as being incompatible with teaching language as communication. Pronunciation has come to be regarded as of limited importance in a communicatively-oriented curriculum. Most of the efforts were directed to teaching supra-segmental features of the language – rhythm, stress and intonation, because they have the greatest impact on the comprehensibility of the learner's English [Celce-Murcia et al 1996, p. 10]. Later pronunciation instruction moved away from the segmental/supra-segmental debate and toward a more balanced view [Morley 1994]. This view recognizes that both an inability to distinguish sounds that carry a high functional load (e. g. *list – least*) and an inability to distinguish supra- segmental features (such as intonation and stress differences) can have a negative impact on the oral communication and the listening comprehension abilities of normative speakers of English. Pronunciation curriculum should identify the most important aspects of both the segmentals and supra-segmentals, and integrate them appropriately in the teaching process that meets the needs of any given group of learners.

The ability to produce English with an English-like pattern of stress and rhythm involves stress-timing (the placement of stress on selected syllables), which in turn requires speakers to take short cuts in how they pronounce words. Natural-sounding pronunciation in conversational English is achieved through blends and omissions of sounds to accommodate its stress- timed rhythmic pattern. Syllables or words which are articulated precisely are those high in information content, while those which are weakened, shortened, or dropped are predictable and can be guessed from context. In sum, the acquisition of pronunciation of a foreign

language involves learning how to produce a wide range of complex and subtle distinctions which relate sound to meaning at several different levels. Articulatory, interactional, and cognitive processes are equally involved.

The field of phonetics is thus becoming wider and tending to extend over the limits originally set by its purely linguistic applications. On the other hand, the growing interest in phonetics is doubtless partly due to increasing recognition of the central position of language in every line of social activity. It is important, however, that the phonetician should remain a linguist and look upon his/her science as a study of the spoken form of language. It is its application to linguistic phenomena that makes phonetics a social science in the proper sense of the word, notwithstanding its increasing need of technical methods, and in spite of its practical applications.



Test for Practice

1. What types of phonetics do you know?

A) General, descriptive, historical or diachronically, comparative
B) General, acoustic, phonological, descriptive
C) Descriptive, general, phonological, comparative
D) Historical or diachronically, descriptive, general, acoustic

2. What kind of principle methods are of investigation?

A) Direct observation, definition, and the linguistic
B) Definitions, observation, linguistic
C) Direct observation, the linguistic, and experimental
D) The linguistic, direct observation, experimental

3. What does lexicology deal with?

A) With their meaning B) With word building

C) With consonants D) A & B

4. What is used in experimental methods of investigation?

A) It analyses in observing actual fact of language

B) It is based up on the use of special apparatuses or instruments

C) It analyses by ear, by sight

D)A&B

5. What does Descriptive phonetics study?

A) history of the language B) discussion of phonetics

C) one certain language D) phonetical figures

6. Where did derive from the word " phonetic " ?

A) from Latin word B) from Greek word

C) from Russian D) from German word

7. Find the main terms of phonetics

A) sounds ,stress, flower B) name, language, syllable

C) object, subject, vowel D) stress, consonant, intonation

8. How many branches in phonetics ?

A)6 B)7 C)5 D)3

9. Find the third method of investigation , first is the direct observativation, the second is the linguistic and the third -?

A) phonetical B) articular C) experimental D) perceptual

10. What does Perceptual aspect study ?

A) The voice producing mechanism B) The way of the hearing speech utterances

C) The way of the pronouncing D) The way of the transcription

Comprehension questions

1.What types of phonetics do you know?

2.What is object of phonetics?

3. What does Descriptive phonetics study?

4. Where did derive from the word " phonetic " ?

5. Find the main terms of phonetics

6.Find the best answer .....comprises three important modes of phonetics analyses.

7.The functions of phonetic elements.

8. Phonetics is:

9. What does Perceptual aspect study?

10. Where did derive from the word " phonetic"?

Scope (сфера, область действия)

Phonetics

- What are the sounds?
- How are they made in the mouth?

Phonology

- How are sounds systematically organized in a language?
- How do sounds combine to form words?
- How are they categorized by, memorized and interpreted in the mind of speakers?

Theoretical phonetics of a particular language applies the theories formulated by general phonetics (the phoneme theory, the theory of syllable formation, theories of stress, intonation).

By ***practical (applied) phonetics*** we mean all the practical applications of phonetics (in teaching for eign languages, logopedics, telephony, etc.

THEME 2: TRANSCRIPTION. PHONETIC AND PHONOLOGICAL TRANSCRIPTION

Plan

1. Transcription.
2. Phonological theories.
3. The phonological schools**.**

Key Words

The symbol of a phonetic transcription - [ ]

The symbol of a phonological transcription - / /.

Transcription - a special phonetic alphabet of the sound system

Transcription is a great theoretical and practical value.

It is used in the scientific - theoretical investigation of the phonetic systems and teaching foreign language pronunciation.

Transcription is a special phonetic alphabet by meaning of which the sound system or a system of phonemes of a particular language is represented. Usually two principal types of transcription are distinguished: phonetic and phonological.

Phonetic transcription - represents a system of sounds and changes their pronunciation undergo. The symbols of a phonetic transcription are enclosed in square brackets [ ].

Phonological transcription - denotes the system of segmental phonemes of the languages. Its symbols are denoted between two slanting bars / /. The phonetic symbols used in the broad of transcription are as followings.

Vowel sounds are 20 Consonant sounds 24

Besides, there is a narrow form of phonetic t - tion used in some text - books and dictionaries. Ex, in Oxford students dictionary of current English by A. C. Hornby the diphthongs are used [i, i, e, a, p, v, u, ov, av,]

There is no difference between the phonetic symbols of the broad and the narrow forms of transcription for the consonants.

There are two ways in which we can transcribe speech. Phonemic transcription, also sometimes known as ‘broad’ transcription, involves representing speech using just a unique symbol for each phoneme of the language. Using the Mitchell and Delbridge symbols, we might transcribe the following three words phonemically like this:

‘strewn’ /strun/

‘tenth’ /tɛnθ/

‘clean’ /klin/

Here you can see that ‘strewn’ has 5 sounds and ‘tenth’ and ‘clean’ have 4 sounds, and every sound is represented uniquely. Note that phonemic transcription is placed between /forward slash brackets/. When we transcribe phonemically, we are representing not actual sounds, but abstract mental constructs. These are the categories of sound that speakers understand to be ‘sounds of their language’. In the case of Australian English, phonemic transcription requires using 44 phoneme symbols. The other way we can transcribe speech is using phonetic transcription, also sometimes known as ‘narrow’ transcription. This involves representing additional details about the contextual variations in pronunciation that occur in normal speech. Again, using the Mitchell and Delbridge symbols, we might transcribe the same three words phonetically like this:

‘strewn’ [stru:n]

‘tenth’ [tʰɛ̃n̪θ]

‘clean’ [kl̥i:n]

Here you can see that:

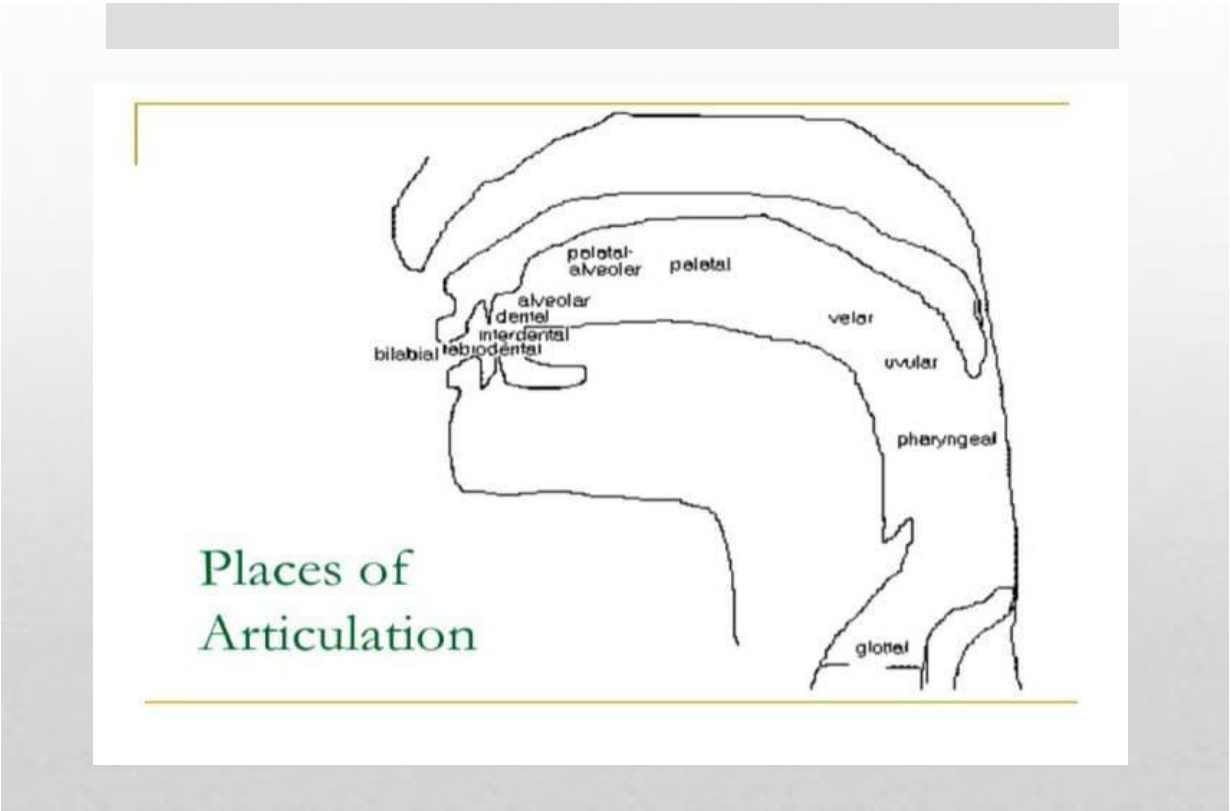
- ‘strewn’ has a long vowel, represented by the colon diacritic [:].
- ‘tenth’ has an aspirated initial [tʰ] shown by the superscript [ʰ]; and the vowel is nasalised, represented by the tilde diacritic above the vowel [ɛ̃], because it immediately precedes a nasal; and the nasal is actually articulated at the interdental place of articulation, represented by the diacritic [n̪], because it immediately precedes an interdental fricative.
- ‘clean’ has a long vowel, represented by the diacritic [:]; and a voiceless [l̥], represented by the small subscript circle diacritic, because the normal voiced quality of [l] is suppressed by the aspiration of the [k] before it.

Note that phonetic transcription is placed between [square brackets]. When we transcribe phonetically, we are representing not abstract mental constructs, but rather the actual sounds in terms of their acoustic and articulatory properties. Note that speakers of a language are deaf to these kinds of contextual variations in pronunciation. For example from these phonetic transcriptions you can see that the ‘t’ sounds are phonetically different – the ‘t’ in ‘strewn’ is not aspirated, while the ‘t’ in ‘tenth’ is aspirated. Likewise the ‘n’ in ‘strewn’ is alveolar, while the ‘n’ in ‘tenth’ is interdental. Speakers of English hear both [tʰ] and [t] as instances of the phoneme /t/, and they hear both [n̪] and [n] as instances of the phoneme /n/. Phonemic and phonetic transcription both have their purposes. The goal of a phonemic transcription is to record the ‘phonemes as mental categories’ that a speaker uses, rather than the actual spoken variants of those

phonemes that are produced in the context of a particular word. An English speaker has internalised a rule that says 'sounds like /t/ are always aspirated when word-initial', so they'll automatically make the /t/ in 'tenth' aspirated. Phonetic transcription on the other hand specifies the finer details of how sounds are actually made. So a non-English speaker trained in the IPA could look at a phonetic transcription like [$t^h\tilde{\varepsilon}\underline{n}\theta$], and know how to pronounce it accurately without knowing the rules about English phonemes. So phonemes are abstract mental categories in people's minds, and these /categories/ are realised as [actual sounds] from people's mouths. The spoken variants of each phoneme are known as its allophones. Now we can say things like: The phoneme /t/ has two allophones [t] and [t^h].

The symbols of TRANSCRIPTION

The symbol of Phonetic transcription (A square brackets) [ ]	The symbol of phonological transcription (two slanting bars) / /



Tests for practice

1. £, 8, ¥, E, b - what are they meant?

A) £ - the vocal, parts, B - the tongue, ¥ - the lip, E - uvular, b - soft palate

B) £ - the tongue, B - soft palate, ¥ - vocal parts, E - the lip, b - uvular

C) £ - soft palate, B - the lip, ¥ - the tongue, E - the vocal parts, b- uvular

D) £ - the lip, B - the tongue, ¥ - the tongue, E - the vocal parts, b- the soft palate & uvular

2. Find the best answer .....comprises three important modes of phonetics analyses by ear ,by sight and muscular sensation.

A) the linguistic B) experimental C) perceptual D) direct observation

3. Choose the line in which letter "g" is pronounced like [dʒ]

A)Longing, giraffe B)Dialogue, badge

C)Liege, encourage D)Singer, bridge

4. Which ending is appropriate for the following verb COOKED

A)[t] B)[d]

C)[id] D)[ed]

5. Which ending is appropriate for the following verb PLAYED

A)[d] B)t]

C)[id] D)[ed]

6. What is the phoneme?

A)A unit of a language

B)The biggest unit of a language

C)The smallest undivided unit of a language

D)The middle unit of a language

7. Which ending is appropriate for the following verb STAYED

A) [id] B) [t]

C) [d] D) no right answer

8. What phoneme does the stressed vowel letter refer to in the word WIFE?

A) [i] B) [ə:]

C) [aiə] D) [ai]

THEME 3: THEORY OF PHONEMES

Plan

1. English pronunciation in Great Britain.
2. The pronunciation types of English in the USA as compared with General British.
3. The pronunciation of English in other countries.

Key Words: Pronunciation, Southern English, Standard English, description, accentuation

A.BAUDOUIN DE COURTENAY'S THEORY OF PHONOLOGY

The formation of the phonological theory may be divided into two periods:

1. The «prephoneme» period, i. e. when there was no distinction between «speech sound» and «phoneme» until 1870;

2. The «phonemic»'period, which began in 1870 and includes the twentieth century. In this period the basic phonetic and phonological terms and concepts were proposed, and the distinction between the actually pronounced speech sounds and the phonemes as functional units of the language was recognized.

The first linguist to point out this distinction was I. A. Baudouin de Courtenay (1845 — 1929), an outstanding Russian and Polish scholar. I. A. Baudouin de Courtenay defined the phoneme as the «psychological» equivalent of the speech sound». But he was aware of the fact that acoustic and motor images of the speech sound do not correspond to each other. I. A. Baudouin de Courtenay also tried to analyse phonemes on the bases of phonetic alternations in morphemes. Besides psychological and morphological definitions of the phoneme, he could propose the distinctive function of the speech sound in notions as he considered that words may be realized in notions. I. A. Baudouin de Courtenay repeatedly stated that semantically the utterance breaks up into sentences, sentences into significative words, words into morphological components or morphemes and morphemes into phonemes. As a morpheme is only divided into components of the same nature as it self: these components — phonemes must also be significative. He admitted the division of morphemes into physical or physiological elements to be unjustified in linguistic analysis. He criticized N. V. Krushevsky's conception of this problem. Incidently, N. V. Krushevsky, was one of his students who introduced the term «phoneme» at the same time as F. de Saussure, an eminent Swiss linguist did. I. A. Baudouin de Courtenay's fundamental ideas had a great influence on the development of later phonological

theories both in our country and abroad. In early phonological works many linguists defined the phoneme as «sound image», «conscious sound image», «sound intent» (N. S. Trubetzkoy), and also as the sum of acoustic impressions and of articulatory movements (F. de Saussure) but none of them suggested any other to substitute the term «phoneme».

THE LENINGRAD PHONOLOGICAL SCHOOL. L. V. SHCHERBA'S PHONEMIC CONCEPT

The Leningrad Phonological School's theory is closely connected with the name of academician Lev Vladimirovich Shcherba (1880— 1944), a talanted student of I. A. Baudouin de Courtenay. L. V. Shcherba developed the phonemic concept represented by his research advisor. L. V. Shcherba re peated ly stressed the differential function of the phoneme. He gave the following definition of the phoneme: «The shortest general sound image of a given language, which is capable of associating with images of meaning differentiating words, ..., is called phoneme». In this definition besides the term «sound image», which shows the influence of psychology, everything is clear from the phonological view point. Although L.V.Shcherba realized that phonemes are not general images in the logical sense, he considered phonemes as concrete sound images which are the result of different perceptions. LV.Shcherba illustrated his phonemic theory with examples from various languages. The quantitative and qualitative variations in the pronunciations of languages may depend on their phonetic structures and linguistic habits the sum of which L.V.Shcherba called the articulation basis. Shcherba emphasized the practical value of sound types in the pronunciation of a given language. He explained th at in concrete speech we pronounce a number of speech sounds which may be summed up in a comparatively small number of sound types capable of distinguish ing words and word forms. Such sound types are called phonemes. Actually pronounced speech sounds, in which phonemes may be realized, would be called the phoneme shades (allophones or variants of the phoneme). But among those shades of the phoneme usually there may be one that is the typical representative of the phoneme which can be pronounced isolately, actually, this is what is perceived by us consciously as an element of speech. All other shades can not be understood consciously and it is difficult to perceive them all by ear normally. These explanations make it clear to understand the distinction between general sound types and concrete speech sounds, which can prove the distinction between a phoneme and allophone (speech sound). Shcherba invented his own system of transcription. He wrote about different pronunciation styles and advanced very interesting ideas on the subjective and objective methods of scientific investigation. L. V. Shcherba's phonological theory was developed and

improved by many Soviet and foreign linguists. His followers and pupils L. R. Zinder, M. I. Matusevich, L. V. Bondarko, A. N. Gvozdev, V. I. Litkin, Y. S. Maslov, O. I. Dickushina are representatives of the Leningrad phonological school.

THE MOSCOW PHONOLOGICAL SCHOOL

Another scientific approach to the phoneme concept in the USSR is known as the Moscow phonological school. This school is represented by R. I. Avanesov, V. N. Sidorov, A. A. Reformatsky (1901— 1978), P. S. Kuznetzov (1899— 1968), A. M. Sukhotin, M. V. P anov, N. F. Jakovlev. One of the first linguists to give a definition: of phoneme void of psychologic elements was N.F.Jakovlev: «Phonemes are understood those phonic properties that can be analysed from the speech flow as the shortest elements serving to differentiate units of meaning. The representatives of the Moscow phonological school based their definition of a phoneme on the concept of the morpheme. A. A. Refor matsky gave the following definition of the phoneme: «Phonemes are minimal units of the sound structure of a language, serving to form and differentiate meaningful units: morphemes and words». Phonemes are meaningless units of a language but they are capable of distinguishing meaningful units as their sequences may form morphemes and words. Analysing the sound changes in the morphemic structure of a language, it is possible to establish two different positions: stressed and unstressed. In a stressed position phonemes can preserve their phonetic characteristics, while in an unstressed position they change their articulatory and acoustic features. This fact is very important in the phonetic analysis of Russian vowels. The Moscow phonologists described the supersegmental features of syl lables, stress and intonation.

THE PRAGUE PHONOLOGICAL SCHOOL

The fundamental scientific works have been done by the representatives of the Prague phonological school— well-known linguists W.Matezius (1882— 1945), B. Havranek (1893— 1978), N. S. Trubetzkoy (1890— 1938) and others. Among them very important phonological ideas were advanced by the Russian scholar N.S. Trubetzkoy. In his book «Principles of Phonology» first published in German in 1939, N. S. Tru betzkoy discussed the relation of phonology to other studies, the nature of phonemes and their variants, how to determine the phonemes of a language, relations between phonemes in general analysis and in particular languages, the classification of phonological and non-phonological oppositions, neutralization, mono- and biphonemic combinations, phonological statistics, boundary-markers (junctures) and prosodic elements (syllables, stress and intonation). Trubetzkoy presented the classification of phonological oppositions in terms of logic. Two things which have no features in common cannot be

contrasted, likewise two phonemes which have no common features cannot be opposed. Firstly, oppositions are classified in relation to the entire system of oppositions. According to this principle oppositions may be unidimensional and pluridimensional (or bilateral and multilateral). Two phonemes possesing a common feature, which no other phoneme has, are in unidimensional opposition. For example, in English /t — d /, /p — Ь/, /к — g /, /b — m/, /d — n/, /g — rj/, / f — V /, /s — z/,/s — .(/, / z — 5 /, / t — tj'/, Id — d ?/, /г — 1/ are unidimensional (bilateral) oppositions. Two phonemes, whose feature is common to some other phoneme, are in pluridimensional (multilateral) opposition. For example, the opposition l b — d l in English is pluridimensional as the common features of the members of this opposition (plosive + voiced — lenis) are characteristic of the phoneme /g/.

THE LONDON PHONOLOGICAL SCHOOL

There is a long tradition of phonetic and phonological studies in England. One of the first linguists who made a serious study in English phonetics was Henry Sweet. He distinguished broad and narrow transcriptions and gave the classification of English vowels and consonants in his «Handbook of Phonetics» (Oxford, 1877). Under «The London Phonological School» we mean the theory and methods of phonetic and phonological analysis proposed by the British linguists. This school is represented by J.R.Firth, D.Jones, I.Ward, L.Armstrong, H.Kingdon, A.C.Gimson. The British linguists presented original ideas on phonemic and prosodic analysis. Well - known British linguists D. Jones and J.R. Firth gave brief explanations of the phoneme concept. D. Jones admits the fact that the idea of the phoneme was first introduced to him by Leningrad professor LV.Shcherba in 1911, but both the theory and the term itself had existed for more than thirty years even then. D. Jones wrote: «According to J.R. Firth the term «phoneme» was invented as distinct from «phone» in 1879 by Krushevsky». Thus, both outstanding English linguists were familiar with the theory and term «phoneme» used by Russian linguists. D. Jones prefers to speak about an «explanation» of phoneme rather then a «definition», the latter is impossible with out making use of terms such as «language», «speech sounds» and «words». He gave the following explanation of a phoneme: « . . . a phoneme is a family of sounds in a given language which are related in character and are used in such a way that no one member ever occurs in a word in the same phonetic context as many other members». D. J o n e s ’ explanation of a phoneme is a physical (acoustic) one, since the phoneme is treated as a «family of sounds». His physical interpretation is distinct from the articulatory approach to the phoneme. J.R.Firth purposely avoided the term «phoneme» in his work as «sound» is sufficient for his analysis.

PHONOLOGICAL TRENDS IN THE USA

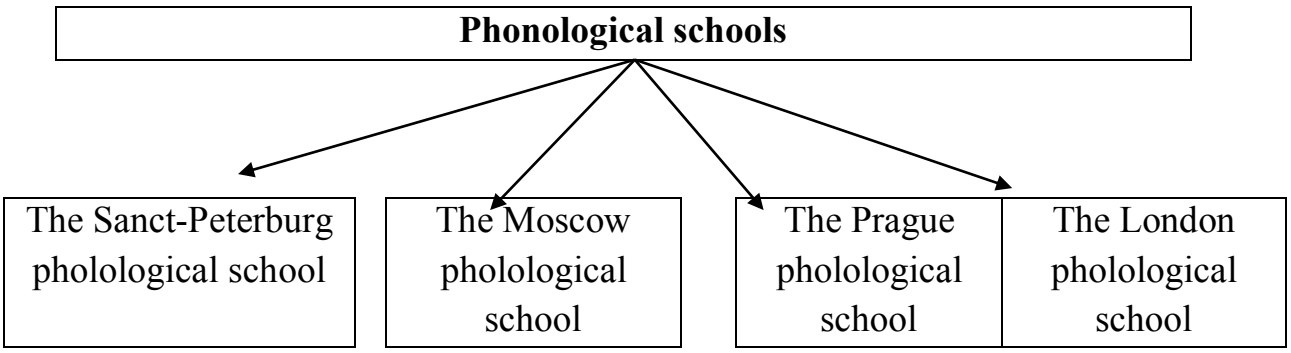
There are several phonological trends in th e USA. The head of the American descriptive linguistics L. Bloomfield was one of the first phonologists whose ideas were very fruitful in the further development of phonological theories in the USA. Another well- known American linguist E.Sapir also formulated his own approach to phonemic solutions. Below we give a short review of phonological trends in the U SA. Bloomfieldian descriptive phonology is also called the relative — acoustic theory, as it is based on the analyses of structural functions and acoustic features of phonemes. According to L.Bloomfield, a phoneme is a minimal distinctive unit of a language, which has no meaning itself but may be determined as a special unit, owing to its physical and structural contrasts in relation to all other sound types of a particular language. His other definition of the phoneme as a minimal unit of the phonetic feature is purely a phonetic one. He sometimes mixed up the notions of a «speech sound» and a «phoneme». His idea on the primary and secondary phonemes was very important in the further classification of segmental and suprasegmental phonemes. He also gave a description of the phoneme combinations in initial, medial and final positions of the words. L. Bloomfield's theory was developed and improved by a number of linguists and is called the post-Bloomfieldian theory of descriptive phonology. The representatives of this trend are Z. Harris, Ch.F.Hockett, H.A. Gleason. According to this theory a phoneme is a class of sounds or a class of allophones (phones) which have both phonetic similarity and functional identity, in the sense that the substitution of one for another in the same context does not change the phonological structure of an utterance, and consequently does not change its syntactic or semantic function, makes no change in its meaning. This theory defines a phoneme on the basis of the distributional method. Almost all phonological theories in the USA regard variations in phonological format or across morphological boundaries as them orphophonemics of a language. N. Chomsky and M. Halle suggest the principle of cycle to predict accent elements in their work «The Sound Pattern of English» (N. Y., 1968). Discussions on the problems of adequacy and predicative power in recent phonological theories are still going on among American linguists.

A.BAUDOUIN DE COURTENAY'S THEORY OF PHONOLOGY

The formation of the phonological theory may be divided into two periods:
1. The «prephoneme» period, i. e. when there was no distinction between «speech sound» and «phoneme» until 1870;
2. The «phonemic»'period, which began in 1870 and includes the twentieth century. In this period the basic phonetic and phonological terms and concepts were proposed, and the distinction between the actually pronounced speech sounds and the phonemes as functional units of the language was recognized.

THE LENINGRAD PHONOLOGICAI SCHOOL. L. V. SHCHERBA'S PHONEMIC CONCEPT

The Leningrad Phonological School's theory is closely connected with the name of academician Lev Vladimirovich Shcherba (1880— 1944), a talanted student of I. A. Baudouin de Courtenay. L. V. Shcherba developed the phonemic concept represented by his research advisor. L. V. Shcherba re peated ly stressed the differential function of the phoneme. He gave the following definition of the phoneme: «The shortest general sound image of a given language, which is capable of associat-ing with images of meaning differentiating words, ..., is called pho-neme». In this definition besides the term «sound image», which shows the influence of psychology, everything is clear from the phonological view point.



Tests for practice

1. Who were the representatives of the Moscow Phonological School?

A) L.R. Zinder, L.V. Shcherba, V.N. Sidorov, M.V. Panov, A.A. Reformatsky
B) R.I. Avanesov, V.N. Sidorov, A.A. Reformatsky, M.V. Panov
C) L.R. Zinder, V.N. Sidorov, G.P. Torsuyev, L.V. Shcherba
D) L.V. Shcherba, LA. Badouin de Courtenay, V.N. Sidorov

2. We know that the formation of the phonological theory may be divided into 2 periods. What are they?

A) The phenomena period; the phonemic period
B) The phonemic period; the centurial period
C) The centurial period; the phenomena period
D) The phenomena period; the phonological period

3. Whom the London. School of Phonology is headed by?

A) Daniel Tones B) L.R. Zinder
C) Edward Sapir D) Leonard Bloomfield

4. Who is the one of the representative of the Leningrad phonological school?

A)L.V.Shcherba B) A.A. Reformatsky C) N.S. Trubetzkoy D) D.B.Fry

5. J.R.Firth, D.Jones, D. Abercrombie, I.Ward, L.Armstrong from what phonological school they were?

A) from Prague B) from London C) from USA D)from Russian

6. Who used the terra phoneme in the meaning of the speech sounds ?

A) L.V.Shcherba B) Ferdinan de Saussure C) M.V.Panov D) N.V.Sidorov

7. Which School's representatives based their definition of a phoneme on the concept of the morpheme ?

A) Moscow B) Prague C) London D) The USA

8. Who's theoty may be called "atomistic " ?

A) L.V.Shcherba B) D.Jones C) F .De Saussure D) S.Edwerd

9. Find the bets answer. Bloomfieldian descriptive phonology is a called the relative ... .

A) syllabic theory B) phonetical theory C) acoustic theory D) perceptual theory

10. Baundonin de Courtenay defined the phoneme as the:

A)“psychological” B)“psychology” C)“psychologically” D)“psycho lingual”

THEME 4: THE PRINCIPAL TYPES OF ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION

Plan

1. English pronunciation in Great Britain.
2. The pronunciation types of English in the USA as compared with General British.
3. The pronunciation of English in other countries.
4. Accents and Dialects

Key Words

Pronunciation, Southern English, Standard English, description, accentuation

One of the vital features of literary language, which distinguish it from its dialects, is the act ors of more or less uniformed norms. A literary language has its own lexical, grammatical, orthographic and pronunciation or phonematic norms. Every national language possesses two forms: the written form, which is the literary uniform of a language, and spoken form, which is not uniform and characterized by the ind vidual features of the speaker. English is represented in writing and printing by the twenty-six letters of the alphabet, a dozen of punctuation marks, and such devices as capitals and italics. In the spoken form of English we evidently use about a hundred sounds and variations in pitch , stress, pause etc. Each sound is used with some modifications in actual speech; for example, some people have a full /r/ and others a very slight indication of the sound. The pronunciation of words varies considerably among the different regions in which English is spoken, so that we can easily distinguish speakers according to their pronunciation. However, there is no strict boundary between written and spoken forms of a language because some elements of the spoken form may be found in the written form. As to the dialects they are the linguistic varieties of the language used by some group of speech com m unity only in th e oral or spoken form and differ from the spoken literary form of a language in more or less degree. Dialects may be distinguished from each o th e r by their pronunciation , grammar, lexicon and stylistics. A special branch of linguistics which studies the variability of a given language is called dialectology. Dialectology has a close relationship to history, geography and other sciences as dialects may be important in the formation of nations and any change in the process of migration and urbanization.

ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION IN GREAT BRITAIN

Usually, owing to the political, economic, social and cultural act ors, one of the regional dialects becomes literary, as it constitutes the orthoepic norm. At present there are the following regional pronunciation types exist in Great Britain:

1. Southern English pronunciation;
2. Northern English pronunciation;

3. Scottish pronunciation;
4. Irish pronunciation;

Among which the Southern English pronunciation is chosen as the orthoepic standard for Modern English. This type of pronunciation is often called Standard English or Uniform English. D. Jones calledjflt) Received Pronunciation (RP) by which he meant "… merely widely understood pronunciation… in the English – speaking world…". It should be mentioned that definite the fact there are some differences between GB and Australian English (abbreviation AuE) as well as New Zealand English (abbreviation NZE) pronunciations tfky are very close to each other

As we have already started that GB'rsa literary type of pronunciation in most countries where English is spoken and taught at schools and colleges there is an essential need to give a theoretical description of GB pronunciation, i.e. its phonemic, prosodic and morphological systems in this book.

…But in order to give a general idea about the literary and regional (also local) types of English pronunciation we should give a short description of them.

Northern English pronunciation is used in the region between Birmingham and the border of Scotland. The following basic differences between GB and the Northern English pronunciation maybe observed, which cause the inventory of phonemes and their distribution

In the Scottish type of pronunciation some phonetic features of old English the Northubrian dialect of the Anglo – Saxon language, were preserved. In the seventh century the German tribe angles and Saxes migrated to Scotland.

There is no difference between the written forms of Scottish and British English. But there are a number of marked differences between British and Scottish speech which maybe noticed in the inventory and distribution of phonemes, as well as in word accentuation and intonation.

Instead of GB /æ / the vowel /ai/ is used in words bad /bad/, man /man/. /a: / For GB in such words as path / /, ask / /, glass / /etc.

The pronunciation types of English in the USA as compared with General British. The English colonists in the first half of the 16th century brought English to the America continent. There are at least three major speech areas in the USA:

1. The Eastern type of pronunciation.
2. The Southern type.
3. The Western General American types

The Eastern type of pronunciation is spoken m New England (Maine), New Hampshire, the eastern parts of Vermont. Rhode *and* in a part of the Atlantic sea – boards, *i.e*\ part of the New York state. This type is also called Eastern New England speech, In New England and in the Boston State has some common

features with GB pronunciation. Found in such words like dock / /, hot / /, dance / /, sir / /, far / /_etc.

The southern types of American pronunciation is used in Pennsylvania, in the eastern area of Texas State, Arkansas, Maryland, Virginia, North and South Caroline, Georgia, Florida, Mississippi. One of the specific phonetic features of this type of pronunciation is the so – called "Southern drawl" which is characterized by the diphthongization both.

…Both long-and short vowels in certain positions (in stressed position, before voiced consonants and fricatives).

The distinction between long and short vowels is not perceived in word pairs like pot /- part /pad'/, cut /- caught *1*.

The Western types of American English are accepted as the literary pronunciation in the USA, It is also called Standard American English. /We, do not use the latter term in order to have analogical terms GB and GA. General American in spoken in Mid – Atlantic States: New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, Michigan and etc.

The pronunciation of English in other countries

The Canadian English came to Canada in type of pronunciation the 17th century When the British colonists arrived the English is one of the national official languages (about 14 million speakers) together with French (about 4 million speakers) in Canada.

Canadian English (CaE) has common phonetic features both with GB and GA English which is spoken in Ontario region, is more similar to GA than other parts of Canada as this region is situated very close to the USA. The Australian English is one of the types of pronciation literary national types used since the end of the 18th century.

Accents and Dialects

Languages have different **accents:** they are pronounced differently by people from different geographical places, from different social classes, of different ages and different educational backgrounds. The word *accent* is often confused with **dialect.** The word *dialect* refers to a variety of a language which is different from others not just in pronunciation but also in such matters as vocabulary, grammar and word order. Differences of accent, on the other hand, are pronunciation differences only [Roach 2009, p. 3]. The accent that we concentrate on and use as our model is the one that is most often recommended for foreign learners studying British English. It has for a long time been identified by the name Received Pronunciation.

Received Pronunciation (RP) is the accent of Standard English in the United Kingdom, with a relationship to regional accents. RP enjoys high social prestige in

Britain. It has been seen as the accent of those with power, money, and influence. However, since the 1960s, a greater permissiveness towards regional English varieties has taken hold in education and mass media. The introduction of the term "Received Pronunciation" is usually credited to **Daniel Jones**. In the first edition of the "English Pronouncing Dictionary" (1917), he named the accent "Public School Pronunciation", but for the second edition in 1926, he wrote, "In what follows I call it Received Pronunciation (RP)".

RP is an **accent**, not a **dialect**, since all RP speakers speak Standard English. In other words, they avoid non-standard grammatical constructions and localised vocabulary characteristic of regional dialects. RP is also regionally non- specific, that is it does not contain any clues about a speaker's geographic background. But it does reveal a great deal about their social and/or educational background.

We are to study the "norm" of English, as a whole, and the "norm" of English pronunciation in particular. There is no much agreement, however, as far as the term "norm" is concerned. This term is interpreted in different ways. Some scholars, for instance, associate "norm" with the so-called "neutral" style. According to this conception stylistically marked parameters do not belong to the norm. More suitable, however, seems to be the conception which looks upon the norm as a complex of all functional styles. It is clearly not possible to look upon the pronunciation norm as something ideal which does not, in fact, exist in objective speech. We shall look upon the norm as a complex unity of phonetic styles realized in the process of communication in accordance with varying extralinguistic and social factors.

In talking about accents of English, the foreigner should be careful about the difference between **England** and **Britain;** there are many different accents in England, but the rangebecomes very much wider if the accents of Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland are taken into account (Scotland and Wales are included in Britain, and together with Northern Ireland form the **United Kingdom)**. Within the accents of England, the distinction that is most frequently made by the majority of English people is between **northern** and **southern.** This is a very rough division, and there can be endless argument over where the boundaries lie, but most people on hearing a pronunciation typical of someone from Lancashire, Yorkshire or other counties further north would identify it as "Northern" [Roach 2009, p. 4]. This course deals almost entirely with RP (or BBC pronunciation). There is no implication that other accents are inferior or less pleasant- sounding; the reason is simply that BBC is the accent that has usually been chosen by British teachers to teach to foreign learners, it is the accent that has been most fully described, and it has been used as the basis for textbooks and pronunciation dictionaries.

A term which is widely found nowadays is **Estuary English,** and many people have been given the impression that this is a new (or newly-discovered) accent of English. In reality there is no such accent, and the term should be used with care. The idea originates from the sociolinguistic observation that some people in public life who would previously have been expected to speak with a BBC (or RP) accent now find it acceptable to speak with some characteristics of the accents of the London area (the estuary referred to is the Thames estuary), such as glottal stops, which would in earlier times have caused comment or disapproval. If you are a native speaker of English and your accent is different from BBC you should try, as you work through the course, to note what your main differences are for purposes of comparison. If you are a learner of English you are recommended to concentrate on BBC pronunciation initially, though as you work through the course and become familiar with this you will probably find it an interesting exercise to listen analytically to other accents of English, to see if you can identify the ways in which they differ from BBC and even to learn to pronounce some different accents yourself.

Test for practice

1. What is a biological science and is concerned with physical and physiological characteristics of speech sounds .

A) Physiology B) Phonetics C) Phonology D) Sound

2. Where does the Southern type of a pronunciation is used ?

A) In Florida, Texas, North and South Carolina, Georgia Virginia

B) in USA, Holland, Ireland C) In Russia, Japan, South Korea, India

D) In Texas , Virginia, Netherlands

3. How many Pronouncing types exist in Great Britain ?

A) 5 B) 3 C) 4 D) 7

4. Where does Northern English pronouncing is used ?

A) In Northern Ireland B) In Wales

C) In London D) In the region between Birmingham & Scotland

5. Speech sounds have:

A) 4 aspects, B) 5 aspects, C) 3 aspects D) 6 aspects.

6.How are the speech sounds produced?

A) When the air passes into the lungs through the mouth cavity

B) When the vocal cords vibrate

C) When the air coming from the lungs passes out through the mouth or the nasal cavity

D) When the air passes through the nose

7. Find the wrong answer. Passive organs of speech are

A) The teeth, the teeth ridge

B) The hard palate, the walls of the resonators

C) The teeth, the lips

D) The hard palate, the teeth ridge

8.According to the direction of assimilation we distinguish:

A) regressive assimilation, elision

B) elision, progressive assimilation, quantitative assimilation

C) qualitative assimilation, reciprocal assimilation quantitative

D) regressive, progressive, reciprocal assimilation

9. Progressive, regressive and double are

A) Types of accommodation

B) Types of assimilation

C) Types of reduction

D) Types of palatalization

10. Try to find progressive assimilation in the following words

A) sandwich, bags, grandfather

B) speech, meet, pencil

C) know, light, blackboard

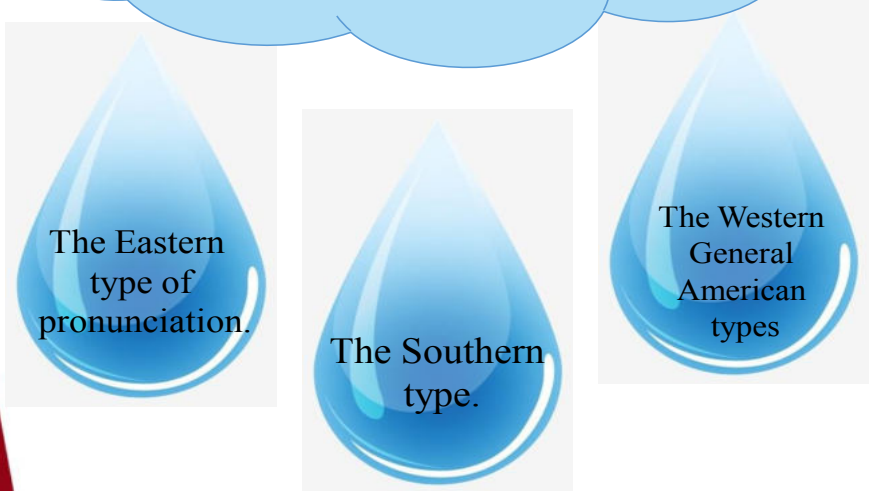
D) honey, dirty, parent

ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION IN GREAT BRITAIN

Usually, owing to the political, economic, social and cultural fac- tors, one of the regional dialects becomes literary, as it constitutes the orthoepic norm. At present there are the following regional pronunciation types exist in Great Britain:

1. Southern English pronunciation;
2. Northern English pronunciation;
3. Scottish pronunciation;
4. Irish pronunciation;

The pronunciation types of English in the USA as compared with General British. The English colonists in the first half of the 16th century brought English to the America continent. There are at least three major speech areas in the USA:



British v American English

- **American English** (**AmE**) is the form of English used in the United States. It includes all English dialects used within the United States of America.
- **General American** (GA) is considered to be "standard" or "accentless"
- **British English** (**BrE**) is the form of English used in the United Kingdom. It includes all English dialects used within the United Kingdom.
- In the United Kingdom, Received Pronunciation (RP) is considered "standard"
- also called the **Queen's English** and **BBC English**

kaviarasu.kk@gmail.com

Spelling.

AMERICAN – "-or"	BRITISH – "-our"
Color	Colour
Honor	Honour
Favorite	favourite

AMERICAN – "-ze"	BRITISH – "-se"
Analyze	Analyse
Criticize	Criticise
Memorize	Memorise

AMERICAN – "-ll"	BRITISH – "-l"
Enrollment	Enrolment
Fulfill	Fulfil
Skillful	skilful

THEME 5: THE SYSTEM OF CONSONANT PHONEMES IN ENGLISH

Plan

1. Vowel consonant distinction.

2. The articulatory and acoustic classification of English consonants (in comparison with Uzbek).

3. The system of the English consonant phonemes.

Key Words

Dichotomic classification - division into 2 parts. Allophonic variations of consonant phonemes - distribution in words, syllables, junction and also phonotactic rules (combinations of sound or sound sequences).

Usually the distinction between a vowel and a consonant is regarded to be not phonetic, but phonemic. From the phonetic point of view the distribution between a vowel and a consonant is based on their articulatory - acoustic characteristics, i.e. a vowel is produced as a pure musical tone without any obstruction of air - stream in the mouth cavity will in the production of a consonant there is an obstruction of air stream in the speech tract.

There are other criteria to distinguish a vowel from a consonant as well. Another distinction of vowel - consonant dichotomy is made due to the criteria that the vowels have the syllabic function forming its peak while consonants are marginal in the syllable forming its sloper. This criteria is, perhaps, universal as to vowel - consonant distinction. Therefore some linguists use the terms syllabic and non-syllabic phonemes. But the existence of the consonants and sonants, which may be syllabic, contradicts this criterion. Ex, in English [r], Ш> [^{w}] ^{ora}l sonants and [m], [n], nasal sonants may have a syllabic function: little [litl], hundred [handrid].

In the description of the phonemic system of English we use articulatory terms in the main, which are understandable and important for practical use than the accoustic terms, as to the terminology used in the dichotomic classification of distinctive features, such terms are often called mixed as articulatory, accoustic and even musical terms are used. Ex, the terms vocalic -non-vocalic, oral - noral, voiceless - voiced, tense - lax are articulatory terms, compact -diffuse, grove - acute are accoustic terms; the terms - flat and sharp plain are borrowed from the theory of music.

Analyses of English phonemes is made in the following way:

1. The phonetic (articulatory and accoustic) classification.

2. The phonemic classification, which makes clear the distinction between phonemes and their allophomic variants.
3. The distribution of phonemes and some sound clusters. More often we compare, the phonemic system of English and Uzbek.
The articulatory and accoustic classification of English consonants (in comparison with Uzbek). The general phonetic principles of the classification of consonant sounds are as follows:
1. The place of articulation;
2. The manner of production;
3. The presence or absence of voice;
4. The position of the soft palate.

According to the place of articulation the consonants maybe labial and pharyngal (ihi). Labial consonants are divided into bilabial (as English [p], [b], [m], [j], [w]) and labiodentals English [fj, [v].
The lingual consonants may be fore lingual English ([t], [d], [s], [z], [1], [n]) inter lingual and back lingual ([k], [q]).

The manner of articulation makes it possible to distinguish occlusive [p, b, t, d, k, q], constrictive [f, v, s, z] consonants and affricates.

The next principle of the classification of consonants is based on the presence or absence of voice, according to which voiced and voiceless consonants may be distinguished. This distinction is closely connected by the degree of breath and muscular effort, involved in the articulation. This distinction indicated by the feature fortis - lenis (from Latin words which means "tense - lax"), is very important phonologically. There are eight pairs of voiceless -voiced, resp. fortis - lenis consonants in English, [p-b, t-d, f-v, s-z, к-q]. The general principles of the consonant classification exclaimed here are obtained in the comparative table of English and Uzbek consonant phonemes given below.

Comparative - typological analyses of the English and Uzbek consonant phonemes. In comparing consonant systems of two languages; it is suitable to begin with the inventories of phonemes set up in both languages. The inventory of the English consonant phonemes comprises the following 25 phonemes, [p], [b], [t], [s], [k], [q], [n], [t], [m], [n] and also consists of among the fricatives the Uzbek [с, з, ш, ж], maybe produced in a more frontal position of the mouth cavity than the English counter parts [s, z, з]. The Uzbek [с, з] are dorsa [in, ж] are palato - alveolar consonants. The English [s, z] have apical, alveolar articulation with round narrowing and being also palato - alveolar, have two in articulation. Besides, the consonants [x, r] are specific for Uzbek and cannot be found in English. The class of affricates is similar except the Uzbek [tc], which is borrowed from Russian, (book pp. 72 - 73.).

The system of the English consonant phonemes.

As stated, a phoneme is a member of phonological opposition. Thanks to this definition of the phoneme, the system of the English consonant phonemes is arranged from various phonological oppositions. According to the place of articulation the following oppositions (mainly single) exist in English. 1. Labial (bilabial or labio - dental – fore lingual: between plosives [p-t], [b-d], between fricatives, between nasals [m-n], between constrictive sonant [w-1], [w-r] in which the features bicentral - unicentral and round narrowing - flat narrowing are not distinctive [book pp. 75-80].

Dichotomic, classification of the acoustic distinctive features of the English consonant phonemes and its articulatory correlates. The theory of distinctive features, which was suggested by Jacobson - Fant - Halle, is known as the acoustic classification. We fact, this theory represented the act of communication and shows the steps involved in inducing the hearer to select the same phonological element the speaker has selected. This theory is based on the results of the spectrographic (acoustic) and X - ray (articulatory) investigation, (book pp. 82 - 85).

Allophonic variations of the English consonant phonemes. G. P. Torsuyev distinguished two types of variations of the English phonemes.

a. Diaphonic variations which does not depend on the position, i.e. the consonant quality and quantity of the. phonemes.

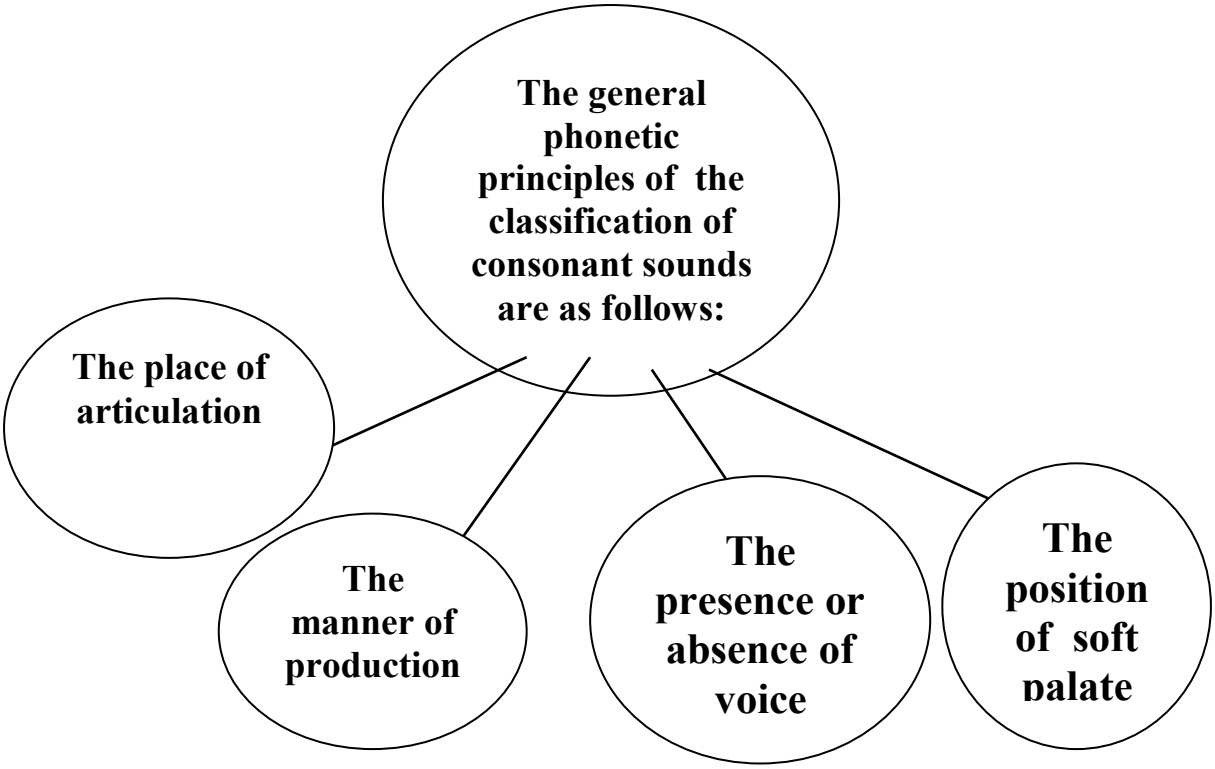
b. Allophonic variations which depends on the position and changes its quality and quantity. He also gives a complete description of these variations in English. Торсуев Г. П. Стр.оение слога и аллофоны в английском языке. М. Изд. Наука. 1975. Стр. 104-213.

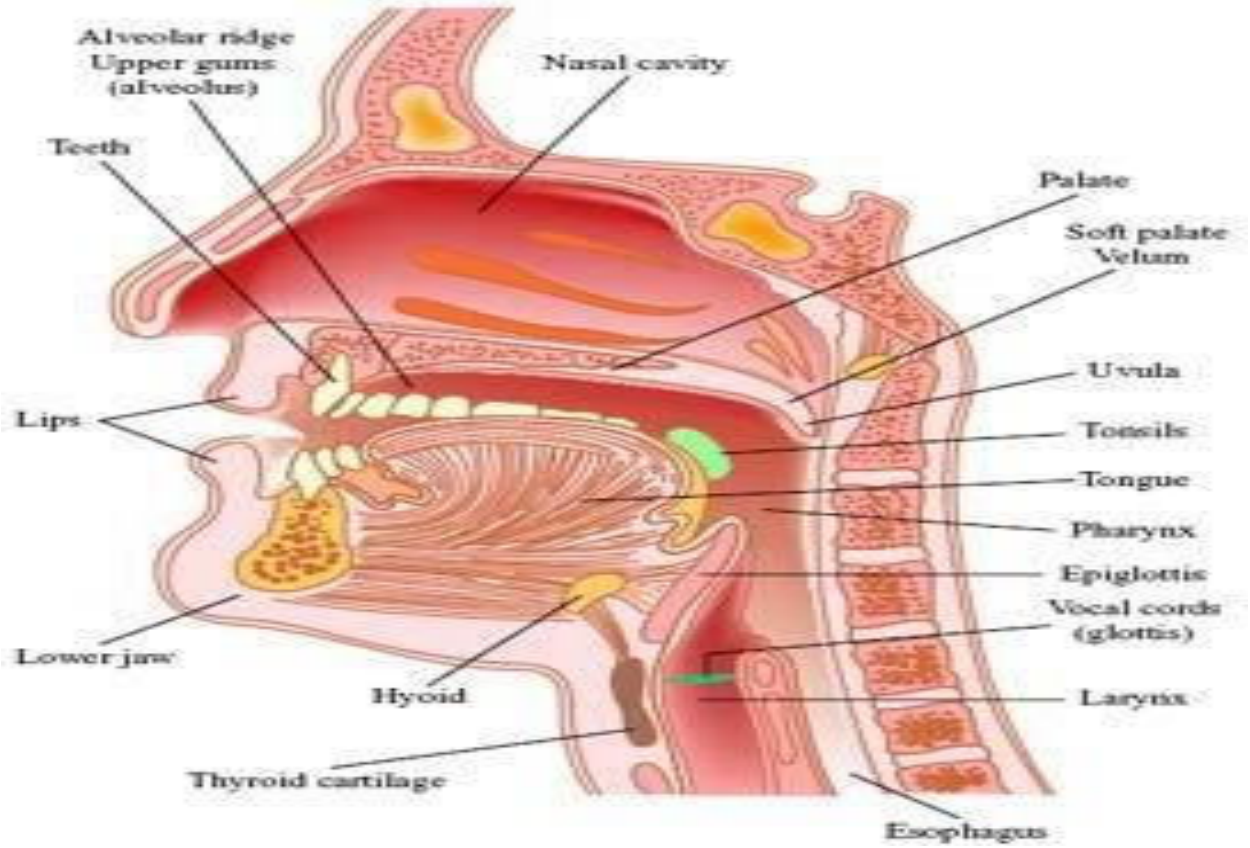
The allophomic variations of the English and Uzbek consonant phonemes depend on their distribution in words, syllables, and also on the phonotactic rules (combinations of sounds or sound sequences). The allophones of a phoneme may be established on the basis of the complementary distribution. The pronunciation of the allophones may very in different positions of words, syllables, and also in neighbourhood positions, in stressed complicated to describe all the allophomic varianty of the consonant phonemes. There for, we give the general rules of the occurrence of the allophones.

Diaphone variation may be observed when [n] is pronounced instead of [ng] in words like strength, length. The prefaces con-, in-, syn-, when stressed have [ng] besides [n] before a following [k], as in conquest, concord, income syncope etc.

The vowel - like allophone of the phoneme [j] ^{m}ay occur in such words as curious, Indian, Genius etc.

Many other allophones of the English consonant phonemes may occur in the various sound combinations, English is rich in initial, medial and final combinations of consonants. Many of them do not occur in Uzbek.





Test for practice

1. How many consonants are there in English?

A) 22 B) 12 C) 20 D) 10

2. How many types of obstruction do you know?

A) 2 complete & incomplete B) I complete

C) 1 bilabial D) 2 voiced & voiceless

3. In the following words come across occlusive, bilabial plosive consonants

A) Idea, sentence, notice

B) Graduate, farm, classroom

C) Blackboard, Peter, bag

D) Magazine, teacher, comrade

4. In what words do we pronounce inter-dental consonants

A) Phonetics, practice grammar

B) Nouns, adjectives, verbs

C) There, through, think, mother

D)Sister, uncle, aunt, daughter

5. Number of English consonant phonemes:

A) 10 B) 24

C) 20 D) 12

6. According to the manner of the production of noise and according to the type of obstruction consonants are divided into ….. groups.

A) 2 B) 4

C) 3 D) 5

7. Try to find bilabial, constrictive, voiced consonant in the following words

A) Table, chair, sofa, radio

B) Room, kitchen, nursery

C) Library, dining-room, laboratory

D) a wardrobe, wall, window, why

8. English consonants are classified according to the ... principles.

A) 4 principles

B) 5 principles

C) 6 principles

D) 3 principles

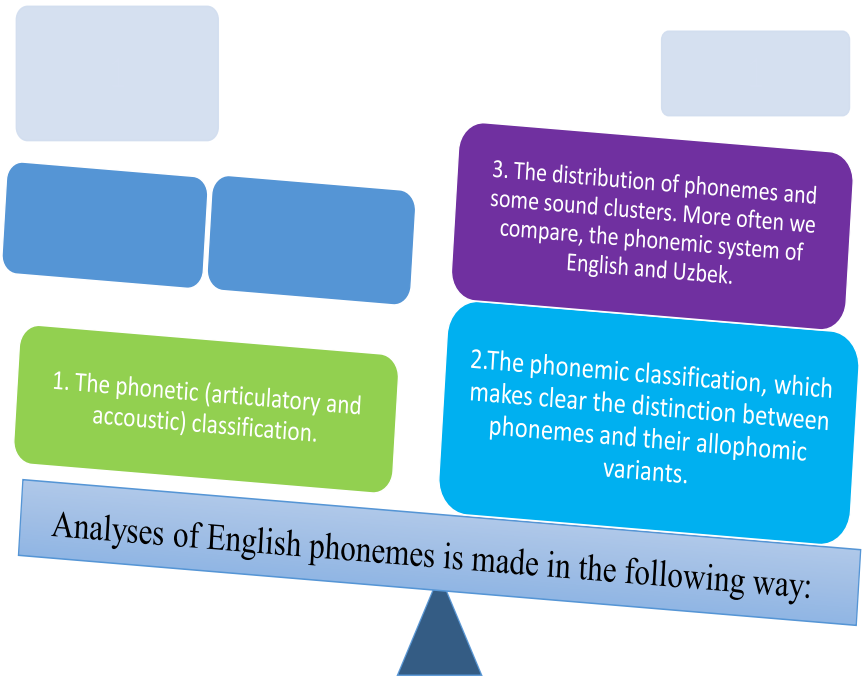
The articulatory and accoustic classification of English consonants (in comparison with Uzbek). The general phonetic principles of the classification of consonant sounds are as follows:

1. The place of articulation;
2. The manner of production;
3. The presence or absence of voice;
4. The position of the soft palate.

According to the place of articulation the consonants maybe labial and pharyngal (ihi). Labial consonants are divided into bilabial (as English [p], [b], [m], [j], [w]) and labiodentals English [fj, [v].

The lingual consonants may be fore lingual English ([t], [d], [s], [z], [1], [n]) inter lingual and back lingual ([k], [q]).

The manner of articulation makes it possible to distinguish occlusive [p, b, t, d, k, q], constrictive [f, v, s, z] consonants and affricates.



THEME 6: THE SYSTEM OF THE ENGLISH VOWEL PHONEMES

Plan

1. Phonological analysis of English vowels.
2. Unstressed vowels English. The phonetic approach.
3. The prosodic system of the English language. General remarks.

Key Words

Monophthong, Diphthong, Diphthongoid, Prosodic system studies by the division of phonetics.

A vowel is a voiced sound produced in the mouth with no obstruction to the air stream. The English vowel phonemes are divided into two large groups: monophthongs and diphthongs.

A monophthong **is a pure (unchanging) vowel sound. There are 12 monophthongs in English. They are as follows: [i:], [ɪ], [e], [æ], [ɑ:], [>], [>:], [u], [u:], [ʌ], [ə:], [ə].**

Two of them [i:] and [u:] are diphthongised (diphthongoids).

A diphthong **is a complex sound consisting of two vowel elements pronounced so as to form a single syllable. The first element of an English diphthong is called the nucleus. The second element is called the glide (it is weak). There are eight diphthongs in English. They are: [eɪ], [uə], [aɪ], [au], [>ɪ], [ɪə], [eə], [əu].**

The English monophthongs may be classified according to the following principles:

According to the tongue position
According to the lip position
According to the length of the vowel
According to the degree of tenseness

According to the position of the bulk of the tongue vowels are divided into 5 groups:

(A)	front	[ɪ:], [e], [æ] and the nucleus of [**e**ə]
(B)	front – retracted	[ɪ] and the nuclei of the diphthongs [**a**ɪ] and [**au**]
(C)	central	[Ǝ], [ə:], [ə] and the nucleus of [**ə**u]
(D)	back	[>I], [>:], [u:] and the nucleus of the diphthong [>ɪ]
(E)	back – advanced	[ɑ:], [u]

According to the height of the raised part of the tongue vowels are divided into 3 groups:

(A) Close or High [ɪ**:**], [ɪ], [u:], [u]

(B) Open or Low [æ], [ɑ:], [>], [∃], and the nuclei of [aɪ], [au]

(C) Mid – Open or Mid [e], [ə:]**,** [ə], [>:] and the nuclei of [eə], [əu]

According to the lip position vowels may be rounded and unrounded.

Rounded vowels are [>], [>:], [u], [u:] and nuclei of [əu], [>ɪ].

Unrounded vowels are [**i**:], [ɪ], [e], [æ], [ɑ:], [∃], [ə:], [ə].

According to the length vowels may be long and short.

Long vowels are [i**:**], [a:], [>:], [u:], [ə:]

Short vowels are [ɪ], [e], [æ], [u], [>], [∃], [ə]

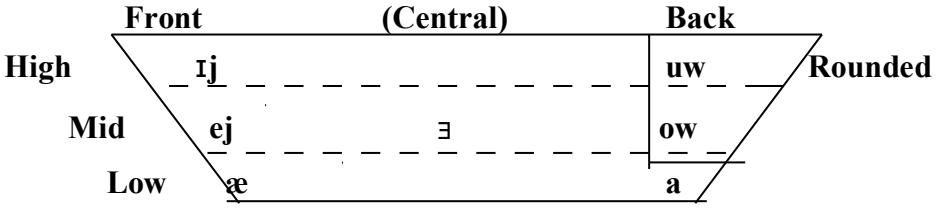
According to the degree of tenseness vowels are divided into tense and lax.

All the English long vowels are tense [i:], [ɑ:], [>:], [u:], [ə:]

All the English short vowels are lax [ɪ], [e], [æ], [>], [u], [∃], [ə]

As the American and British vowel systems are not identical, two separate tables are provided to illustrate the difference.

Basic Tongue Position for English Vowels.



American English Vowels
(tense vowels are underlined)

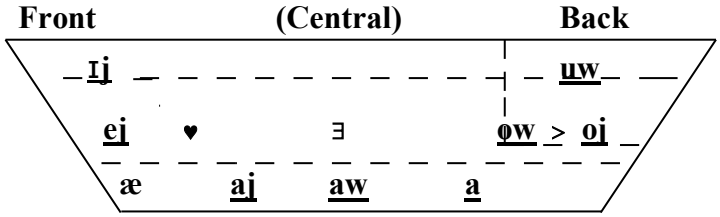
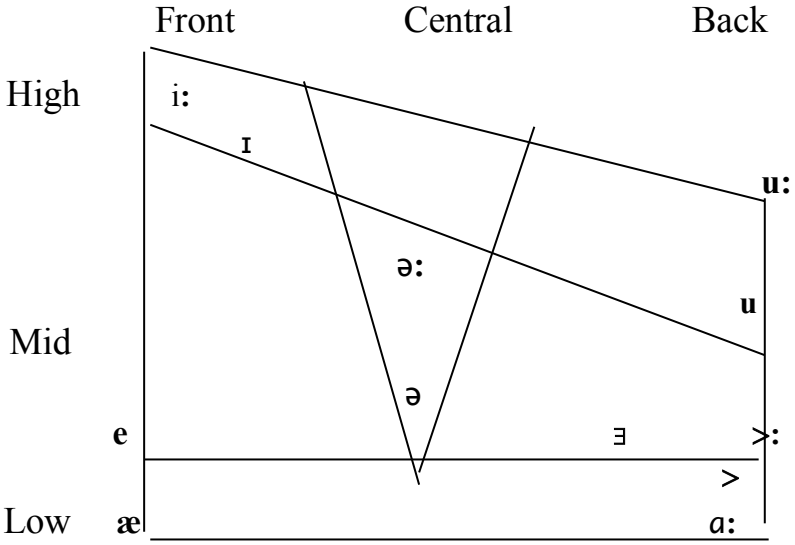


Table of English Vowels.



Sounds and their numbers

1. [ɪ:] A friend in need is a friend indeed
2. [ɪ] As fit as a fiddle
3. [e] All is well, that ends well
4. [æ] One man is no man
5. [a:] He laughs best who laughs last
6. [ɔ] Honesty is the best policy
7. [ɔ:] New lords – new laws
8. [u] By hook or by crook
9. [u:] Soon learnt, soon forgotten
10. [ɜ] Every country has its customs
11. [ə:] It's an early bird that catches the worm
12. [ə] As like as two peas
13. [eɪ] No pains no gains
14. [əu] There's no place like home
15. [aɪ] Out of sight out of mind
16. [au] From mouth to mouth
17. [ɔɪ] The voice of one man is the voice of no one
18. [ɪə] Near and dear
19. [eə] Neither here not there
20. [uə] What can't be cured must be endured

Phonological analyses of English vowels. The phonetic criterion used in distinguishing the vowel phonemes is not sufficient theoretically, as it cannot

clarity the relation between the phonemes in the entire system and characters of existing phonological oppositions, their quality and quantity. The unstressed vocalism is more.

The unstressed vocalism is more rich than the stressed vocalism, in which the vowel and unstressed do not take part. English has a complex system of vowel phonemes among which we distinguish ten short and long monophthongs, two diphthongoids and nine diphthongs.

All these vowel phonemes may be established using the commutation test. However, first we should discuss the phonemic status of the diphthongs and the vowel and the phonetic features long - short, tense - lax, checked - free, which are closely connected with each other.

Unstressed vowels of English. The phonetic approach. As stated above the unstressed vocalism of English includes all vowel phonemes and the neutral phoneme, which appears as a result of weakening of the vowels in the unstressed position. The vowel articulated by weak articulatory effect, has an indefinite tamper and changes its quality under the influence of neighboring sounds depending on its positions and in certain positions maybe omitted.

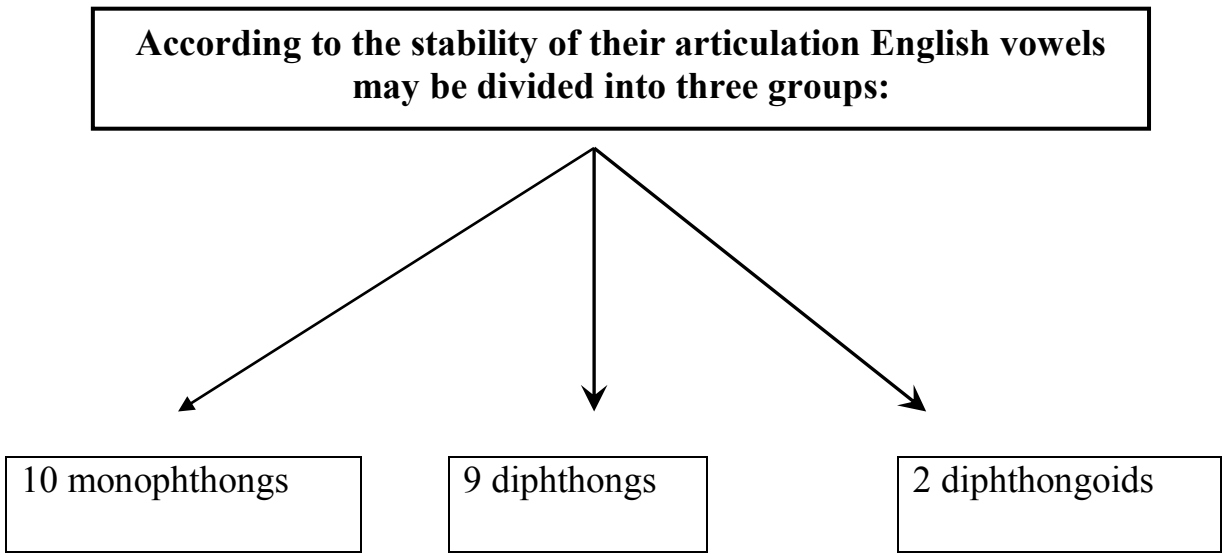
Therefore, it may have different variations distinct from each other, especially, by the height of the tongue and duration.

The vowels of constantly full formation have a relatively stable quality and may preserve their less clear tamper in an unstressed position: apple - tree, architect, objective, artistic, programmer, English, idea etc.

The prosodic system of the English language. General Remarks. The structure of the segments longer than segmental phonemes requires adequate principles of phonetic and phonological analyses, such longer segments constitute the syllabic structure, the accentual structure of words and intonation structure. They are studied by the division of phonetics or phonology named prosody /or suprasegmental phonetics or phonology/. The phonetic structure of a word comprises four types of structure interdependent of each other:

1. The phonemic structure;
2. The structure of the combination of phonemes;
3. The syllabic structure;
4. The accentual - rhythmic structure.

Inside the phonological word the signaling of syllable boundaries is option all as the syllable boundary does not always coincide with the "meaningful segments". Thus, the syllable becomes very significant was it functions as a "bridge" between phonemes and prosodies.



Tests for practice

1. What is the bulk of the English words are ?

A) A German origin B) a Latin origin C) a Romanic origin D) a, c

2**. Find front, unrounded, short vowels in the following words**

A) Follow, cut, form, park

B) News, girl, boy, dear

C) Water, wine, oil, butter

D) Difficult, fellow, apple, apricot

3. In what words can we pronounce mixed, central, mid-open, unrounded vowels?

A) Mother, father, girl, early

B) Nephew, niece, aunt, uncle

C) River, lake, sea, ocean

4. What phonemes does the stressed vowel letter refer to in the word FIRM?

A) [i] B) [ə:]

C) [aiə] D) [a]

5.Try to find diphthongs in the following words

A) field, tool, forest, car

B) told, town, boy, find, fine, here

C) kitten, dog, bird, sheep, goat

D) body, court, hockey, April

6.In what words are there long monophthongs?

A)Cinema, theatre, museum

B) Father, mother, sister, brother

C) Feel, arm, tall, bird

D) Film, picture, scene

7.English monophthongs are classified according to the ... principles.

A) 6 principles B) 7 principles

C) 5 principles D) 4 principles

8.According to position of the bulk of the tongue vowels are divided into….. groups.

A) 3 B) 6

C) 5 D) 2

9.According to the height of the raised part of the tongue vowels are divided into ….. groups:

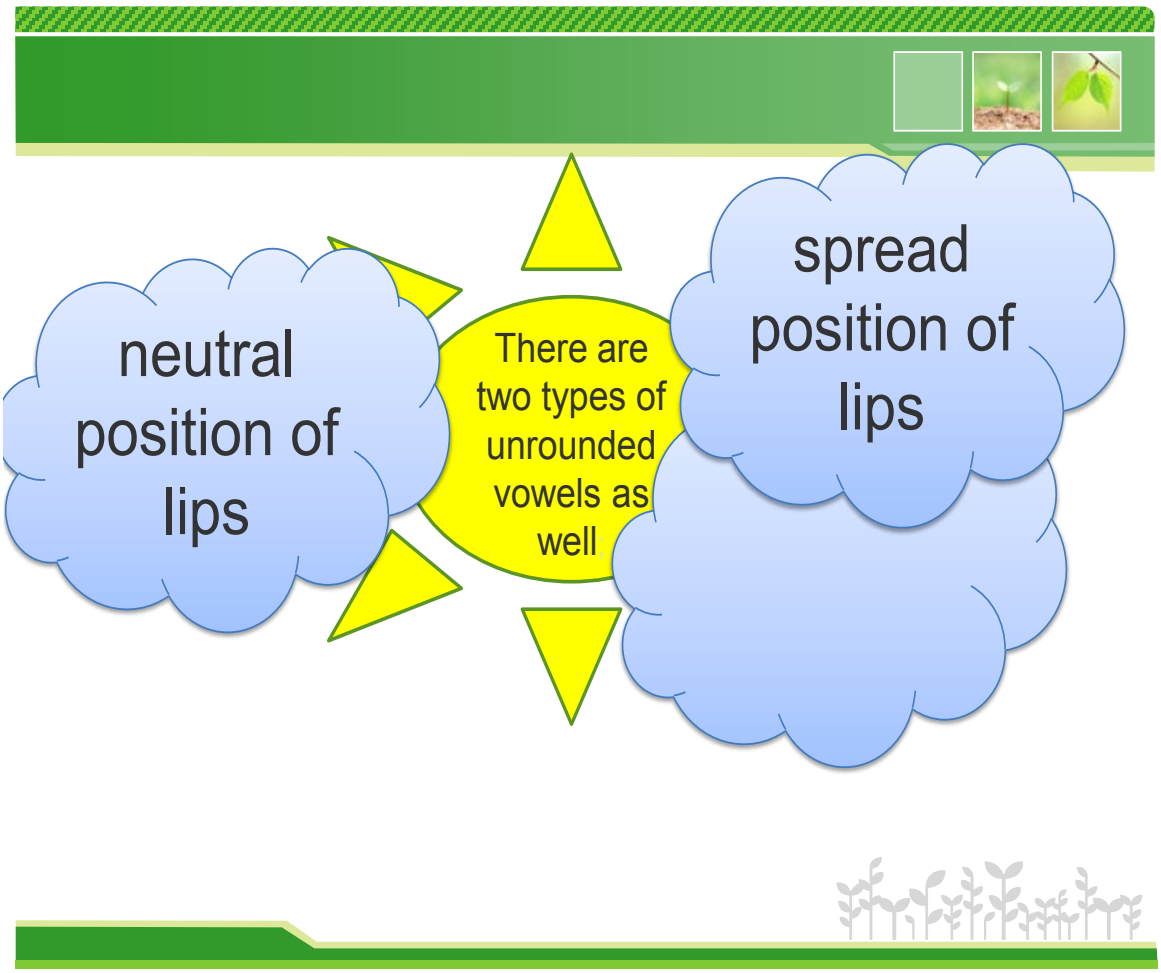
A) 3 B) 5

C) 7 D) 4

10.Number of English vowel phonemes:

A) 6 B) 12

C) 24 D) 20



The prosodic system of the English language. General Remarks. The structure of the segments longer than segmental phonemes requires adequate principles of phonetic and phonological analyses, such longer segments constitute the syllabic structure, the accentual structure of words and intonation structure. They are studied by the division of phonetics or phonology named prosody /or suprasegmental phonetics or phonology/. The phonetic structure of a word comprises four types of structure interdependent of each other:

1. The phonemic structure;
2. The structure of the combination of phonemes;
3. The syllabic structure;
4. The accentual - rhythmic structure.

Theme 7. The Articulatory Processes

Plan

1. Assimilation
2. Aspiration
3. Accommodation.
4. Elision.
5. Palatalization.
6. Flapping.
7. Deletion. Dissimilation.
8. Reduction

Assimilation.

Two adjacent consonants within a word or at word boundaries often influence each other in such a way that the articulation of one sound becomes similar to or even identical with the articulation of the other one. This phenomenon is called **assimilation.**

In assimilation the consonant whose articulation is modified under the influence of a neighbouring consonant is called the **assimilated sound;** the consonant which influences the articulation of a neighbouring consonant is called the **assimilating sound.**

While by assimilation we mean a modification in the articulation of a consonant under the influence of a neighbouring consonant, the modification in the articulation of a vowel under the influence of an adjacent consonant, or, vice versa, the modification in the articulation of a consonant under the influence of an adjacent vowel is called **adaptation, or accommodation**.

Assimilation may be of three degrees: **complete, partial and intermediate.**

Assimilation is said to be **complete** when the articulation of the assimilated consonant fully coincides with that of the assimilating one.

For example, in the word *horse–shoe* **[**h>**:**σσu**:]** which is a compound of the words horse [h>:s] and [σu:], [s] in the word [h>:s] was changed to [σ] under the influence of [σ] in the word [σu:]. In rapid speech *does she* is pronounced ['dʌσσi˙]. Here [z] in *does* [dʌz] is completely assimilated to [σ] in the word *she* [σi:]

Assimilation is said to be **partial** when the assimilated consonant retains its main phonemic features and becomes only partly similar in some feature of its articulation to the assimilating sound.

In *twice* **[**twaɪs**],** *please* **[**plɪ:z**],** *try* **[**traɪ**]**, the principal variants of the phonemes **[w], [l], [r]** are replaced by their partly devoiced variants, while their main phonemic features are retained.

The degree of assimilation is said to be **intermediate** between complete and partial when the assimilated consonant changes into a different sound, but does not coincide with the assimilating consonant. Examples of intermediate assimilation are: *gooseberry* [ˈg**uzbə**rɪ], where [**s**] in *goose* [g**u:s**] is replaced by [**z**] under the influence of [**b**] in *berry***,** *congress* [ˈ**k**>ŋg**res**], where [**n**] is replaced by [**ŋ**] under the influence of [**g**].

In *That's all right* ['ðæ**ts**ˏ'ɔ**:l ra**ɪ**t**] [**s**] has replaced [**z**] under the influence of preceding [t]. In *handkerchief* ['**hæŋkə**ʧɪ**f**] there are two assimilations: complete and intermediate. The change of [**d**] into [**n**] is an instance of complete assimilation, the subsequent change of [n] into [**ŋ**] under the influence of [k] is an instance of intermediate assimilation.

Assimilation may be of three types as far as its direction is concerned: **progressive, regressive** and **double.**

In **progressive assimilation** the assimilated consonant is influenced by the preceding consonant. This can be represented by the formula A→B, where A is the assimilating consonant, and B the assimilated consonant.

For example, in the word *"place"* the fully voiced variant of the consonant phoneme [l] is assimilated to [p] and is replaced by a partly devoiced variant of the same phoneme. In *"What's this?"* [w>ts ˈðɪs] [z] is replaced by **[s]** under the influence of **[t].**

In **regressive assimilation** the preceding consonant is influenced by the one following it A ← B.

For example, the voiced consonant **[z]** in *"news"* [nju:z] is replaced by the voiceless consonant [**s**] in the compound *"newspaper"* [ˈnju:speɪpϴ] under the influence of the voiceless sound [p]. In *horse–shoe* [ˈ**h>:**σσu:]**, [s]** in *horse* [**h>:s**] was replaced by [**σ**] and thus become fully assimilated to [**σ**] in *shoe* [**σu**:].

In **reciprocal,** or **double assimilation** two adjacent consonants influence each other A√B

For example, in *"twenty"* **[**ˈ**twentɪ]**, *quick* **[kwɪk]** the sonorant **[w]** is assimilated to the voiceless plosive consonants **[t]** and **[k]** respectively by becoming partly devoiced. In their turn, [**t**] and [**k**] are assimilated to **[w]** and are represented by their labialized variants.

Aspiration.

The English voiceless plosive consonants [p], [t], [k] are pronounced with aspiration before a stressed vowel.

Aspiration is a slight puff of breath that is heard after the plosion of a voiceless plosive consonant before the beginning of the vowel immediately following.

When a voiceless plosive aspirated consonant is pronounced before a stressed vowel in English, the pressure of the air against the obstruction is rather strong as the glottis is open.

In the pronunciation of the English consonants [p], [t], [k] there can be distinguished 3 degrees of aspiration.

a) it is strongest when [p], [t], [k] are followed either by a long vowel or by a diphthong.

pass [pa:s]	*tall* [t>:l]	*cause* [k>:z]
pair [peə]	*tear* [teə]	*care* [keə]

b) aspiration becomes weaker when [p], [t], [k] are followed by short vowels

pull [pul]	*took* [tuk]	*cut* [k∃t]
pot [p>t]	*top* [t>p]	*cot* [k>t]

c) when [p], [t], [k] are preceded by the consonant [s] they are pronounced with no aspiration.

park [pa:k]	*spark* [spa:k]
tie [taɪ]	*sty* [staɪ]
cool [ku:l]	*school* [sku:l]

Accommodation

In **accommodation** the accommodated sound does not change its main phonemic features and is pronounced as a variant of the same phoneme slightly modified under the influence of a neighbouring sound.

In modern English there are three main types of accommodation.

(1) An **unrounded** variant of a consonant phoneme is replaced by its **rounded** variant under the influence of a following rounded vowel phoneme, as at the beginning of the following words:

Unrounded variants of **consonant phonemes**	***Rounded variants of*** **consonant phonemes**
[tɪ:] *tea*	[tu:] *too*
[les] *less*	[lu:s] *loose*

[nʌn] *none* [nu:n] *noon*

(2) A **fully back** variant of a back vowel phoneme is replaced by its lightly *advanced* (fronted) variant under the influence of the preceding mediolingual phoneme [j]

Fully back variant of [u:]		**Fronted variant of [u:]**	
['bu:tɪ]	*booty*	['bju:tɪ]	*beauty*
[mu:n]	*moon*	['mju:zɪk]	*music*

(3) A vowel phoneme is represented by its *slightly more open* variant before the dark [ł] under the influence of the latter's back secondary focus. Thus the vowel sound in *bell, tell* is slightly more open than the vowel in *bed, ten* ([beł] – [bed], [teł] – [ten]).

Elision

In rapid colloquial speech certain notional words may lose some of their sounds (vowels and consonants). This phenomenon is called **elision.** Elision occurs both within words and at word boundaries.

phonetics	[fəu'netɪks]	[f 'netɪks]
mostly	['məustlɪ]	['məuslɪ]
all right	['>:l 'raɪt]	['>:raɪt]
next day	['nekst 'deɪ]	['neks 'deɪ]

Some effects of [d] and [t] elision.

1. You hear the final [**d**] or [**t**] in the root of some words, but not when a suffix is added. For example:

Without elision	**With elision**
It was perfect	*It was perfec(t)ly marvelous*
That's exact	*That's exac(t)ly right*
She's full of tact	*She's very tac(t)ful*
What does she want?	*She wan(t)s some butter*
One pound of butter	*Ten poun(d)s of butter*

2. Elision can also affect the <ed> for simple past and past participle. This means that, at speed, there may be no difference between present and past simple.

Slow version	**Fast version**

I watch television every day.	*I watch television every day.*
I watched television last night.	*I watch(ed) television last night.*
They crash the car regularly.	*They crash the car regularly.*
They crashed the car yesterday.	*They crash(ed) the car yesterday.*
I wash my hands before I have lunch.	*I wash my hands before I have lunch.*
I washed my hands before I had lunch.	*I wash(ed) my hands before I had lunch.*
They usually finish their work at six.	*They usually finish their work at six.*
They finished work early yesterday.	*They finish(ed) work early yesterday.*

Elision giving rise to assimilation

In sequences such as *ten boys* and *ten girls* assimilation takes place because the sounds involved are already next to each other.

By contrast in others such as *the second boy* and *the second girl* assimilation only takes place because the intervening sound – the [d] in this case – has been elided.

There are hundreds of set expressions involving this combination of [**d**] or [**t**]

Palatalization

Palatalization is a secondary articulation in which the front of the tongue is raised toward the hard palate. Palatalization of consonant is not a phonemic feature in English though the consonants [ʃ], [ʒ], [**ʧ**], [**ʤ**] are slightly palatalized.

Flapping

Flapping is a process in which a dental or alveolar stop articulation changes to a flap (r) articulation. In English this process applies to both [t] and [d] and occurs between vowels, the first of which is generally stressed. Flaps are heard in the casual speech pronunciation of words such as *butter, writer, fatter, wader and waiter,* and even in phrases such as *I bought it* [aɪb´>rɪt]. The alveolar flap is always voiced. Flapping is considered a type of assimilation since it changes a non-continuant segment (a stop) to a continuant segment in the environment of other continuants (vowels).

Dissimilation

Dissimilation, the opposite of assimilation, results in two sounds becoming less alike in articulatory or acoustic terms. The resulting sequence of sounds is easier to articulate and distinguish. It is a much rarer process than dissimilation. One commonly heard example of assimilation in English occurs in words ending with three consecutive fricatives, such as "fifth". Many speakers dissimilate the final [fθs] sequence to [fts], apparently to break up the sequence of three fricatives with a stop.

Deletion

Deletion is a process that removes a segment from certain phonetic contexts. Deletion occurs in everyday rapid speech in many languages. In English, a schwa [ə] is often deleted when the next vowel in the word is stressed.

Deletion of [ə] in English.

Slow speech	**Rapid speech**
[pəˈreId]	[preId] parade
[kəˈrəud]	
[səˈpəuz]	[krəud] corrode
	[spəuz] suppose

Comparative Study

Compare the careful speech and rapid speech pronunciation of the following English words and phrases. Then name the process or processes that make the rapid speech pronunciation different from the careful speech.

	Careful Speech	**Rapid Speech**
a) *in my room*	[ɪn maɪ ˈrum]	[ɪmmaɪ rum]
b) I see them	[aɪ ˈsɪː ðəm]	[aɪˈsɪːəm]
c) within	[wɪðˈɪn]	[wðɪn]
d) balloons	[bəˈluːnz]	[bluːnz]
e) sit down	[ˈsɪt ˈdaun]	[sɪ ˈdaun]
f) Pam will miss you	[ˈpæm wɪl ˈmɪs juː]	[ˈpæmlˈmɪ□□u]

Strong and Weak Forms. Reduction

In English there are certain words, which have two forms of pronunciation:

(1) Strong or full form

(2) Weak or reduced form

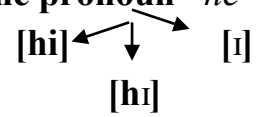
These words include form-words and the following pronouns: personal, possessive, reflexive and the indefinite pronoun “some” denoting indefinite quantity.

These words have strong or full forms when they are stressed.

He will do it. (and nobody else) [`hi: l ˌdu: ɪt]

Each of these words usually has more than one reduced form used in unstressed positions.

E.g. reduced forms of the pronoun *he*



as in the following sentences

He will do it.

[hi l `du: ɪt] or [hɪ l `du: ɪt]

There are three degrees of full forms of reduction.

1. The reduction of the length of a vowel without changing its quality (the so-called **quantitative reduction**)

Full forms	**Reduced forms with quantitative reduction**
you [ju:]	[juˑ], [ju]
he [hi:]	[hɪˑ], [hɪ]
your [j>:]	[j>ˑ], [j>]

Compare the length of the vowel [i:] in the pronoun *she* in the following two sentences.

She looked for it.	*She looked for her.*
[`□i: ˌlukt ˌf>:r ɪt]	[□i`lukt f>ˑ hə]

2. The second degree of reduction consists in changing the quality of a vowel (the so-called **qualitative reduction**)

Strong forms	**Weak forms with qualitative reduction**
for [f>:]	[fə]
her [hə:]	[hə]
he [hi:]	[hɪ]
at [æt]	[ət]
can [kæn]	[kən]

was	[w>z]	[wəz]
but	[b∃t]	[bət]

Compare the quality of the vowels in the preposition *for* also in the following two sentences:

I'll do it for him ***I'll do it for Ann.***

[aıl `du: ıt f>:r ım ] [aıl 'du: ıt fər `æn]

Most vowels in weak forms are reduced to the neutral vowel **[ə],** although the long vowels **[i:]** and **[u:]** are usually reduced to **[ı]** and **[u]** respectively.

Full forms		**Reduced forms with qualitative reduction**
he	[hi:]	[hı]
do	[du:]	[du]

Compare also the following sentences.

He will go there.

[`hi: l ˌgəu ðeə] [ hı l `gəu ðeə]

3. The omission of a vowel or consonant sound (the so-called **zero reduction**)

Strong forms		**Weak forms with zero reduction (the vowels are omitted)**
am	[æm]	[m]
of	[>v]	[v]
can	[kæn]	[kn], [kŋ] before [k], [g]
do	[du:]	[d]
is	[ız]	[s], [z]
us	[∃s]	[s]
shall	[□æl]	[□l]

(the consonants are omitted)

he	[hi:]	[i:], [ı]
him	[hım]	[ım]
his	[hız]	[ız]
must	[m∃st]	[məs]
had	[hæd]	[əd]
have	[hæv]	[əv]
and	[ænd]	[ən], [n]
has	[hæz]	[əz], [z], [s]

(both the vowels and the consonants are omitted)

have	[hæv]	[v]
ha	[hæd]	[d]
wil	[wıl]	[l]
shall	[□æl]	[l]
would	[wud]	[d]

The following form – words in certain positions are used in their strong forms, even when they are unstressed.

1. Prepositions have their strong forms:

(a) When they are final, e.g.

Do you know where I come from?

[dju 'nəu weər ˌaı k∃m ˌ fr>m]

(b) When they are followed by an unstressed personal pronoun at the end of a sense–group or a sentence. However in this position the weak form may also be used, e.g.

She was not listening to them.

[□i wəz 'n>t `lısnıŋ ˌ tu: (tə) ðəm]

2. Auxiliary and modal verbs, as well as the link – verb *to be*, have their strong forms at the end of a sense – group or a sentence, e.g.

Who is on duty today? I am.

['hu: ız `dju:tı ţə deı | `aı æm]

Who is absent today? Ann is.

['hu: ız `æbsənt ˌ tə deı | `æn ız]

What is hanging on the wall? Pictures are.

['w>t ız 'hæŋıŋ >n ðə `w>:l | `pıkʧəz ɑ:]

I don't know where Tom was.

[aı 'dəunt 'nəu weə `t>m w>z]

There are some form – words which are never reduced. They are: *which, what, where, on, in, with, then, when, how, some* in the meaning of "certain".

Well, then go and do as you're told.

[ˌwel | ðen 'gəu ənd 'du: əz juə `təuld]

I stand on my right here.
[aɪ 'stænd >n maɪ `raɪt hɪə]

For some reason he hasn't come to the party.
[fə sƎm ˌrɪ:zn ˪ hɪ 'hæznt 'kƎm tə ðə ˌpɑ:tɪ]

Reduction

In English, vowels in unstressed syllables are usually reduced.

Reduction is a historical process of weakening, shortening or disappearance of vowel sounds in unstressed positions. This phonetic phenomenon, as well as assimilation, is closely connected with the general development of the language system. Reduction reflects the process of lexical and grammatical changes.

Reduction may be of the following types:

1) qualitative, which is divided into reduction Type A and Type B.

Type A (when the vowels *i, e, y* are in an unstressed position). Subjecting to this type of reduction these vowels are pronounced [ɪ]

'*busy* [' bɪzɪ] *de*'*cay* [dɪ ' keɪ] *di* '*vide* [dɪ 'vaɪd]

Type B (when the vowels *a, o, u* are in an unstressed position). Subjecting to this type of reduction these vowels are pronounced [ə]

po '*lite* [pə'laɪt] '*lyrical* ['lɪrɪkəl]

2) quantitative. It is shortening of the length of a long vowel sound.

me [mi˙] *he* [hi˙]

3) complete. It is the disappearance of a vowel sound. It occurs when an unstressed vowel occupies the position after the stressed one and it is between a noiseless sound and a sonorant one.

'*cotton* ['k>tn] '*lesson* ['lesn]

In this case the sonorant forms a syllable.

Besides the mentioned above types of reduction, there are special cases of reduction which include all the vowels. They are:

1) the vowel ***a*** if it precedes the combinations "-ate", "-ade" is subjected to the reduction Type A in adjectives and nouns and is not reduced in verbs.

'*regulate* ['regjuleɪt] '*climate* ['klaɪmɪt]

2) the vowel ***e*** is subjected to the reduction Type B before "-nt", "-nce", "-n", "-m".
'*silence* ['saɪləns] '*student* ['stju:dənt] '*solemn* ['s>ləm] '*sullen* ['s∃lən]

3) the vowel ***o*** in the first type of syllable is not reduced at the end of the word
po'*tato* [pə'teɪtəu] '*photo* ['fəutəu]

4) the vowel ***i*** when preceding the combination "–ble" is subjected to the reduction
ˌ *inac*'*cessible* [ˌ ɪnək'səsəbl], but '*possible* ['p>sɪbl]

5) the vowel ***u*** in the first type of syllable at the beginning and at the end of the word is not reduced and in the middle of the word is subjected to the quantitative reduction.
'*institute* ['ɪnstɪtju:t] *u*'*nite* [ju:'naɪt]
ˌ*edu*'*cation* [ˌedju:'keɪ□n] **Note**: [ˌedju'keɪ□n]

6) the vowels are subjected only to the reduction Type B in the third and fourth types of syllables or are not reduced at all.
'*summer* ['s∃mə] *fore*' *see* [f>:'sɪ:] '*writer* ['raɪtə]

7) the digraphs ***ei, ey, ai, ay, ee, ea*** are subjected to the reduction Type A.
'*mountain* ['mauntɪn] '*always* ['>:lwɪz]
'*forehead* ['f>rɪd], **but** '*vengeance* ['venʤəns]

8) the digraph ***ou*** is subjected to the reduction Type B
er' *roneous* [ɪ 'rəunɪəs] '*various* ['veərɪəs]

9) the digraph ***ow*** is not reduced and is pronounced **[əu]** in an unstressed position.
'*window* ['wɪndəu]

10) the digraph ***oa*** is not reduced either.
'*cocoa* ['kəukəu]

Questions for Discussion

1. What is assimilation?
2. What are assimilated and assimilating sounds?
3. How many degrees of assimilation are there in English?
4. What is a complete assimilation?
5. Give the definition of partial, intermediate and complete assimilation.
6. How many types of assimilation do you know? Explain each type of assimilation and give your own examples.
7. What is aspiration? Give your own example.
8. What is accommodation?
9. How many types of accommodation do you know? Give your own example.
10. What phenomenon is called "Elision"? Give an example of it.
11. What is deletion?
12. What phenomenon is called dissimilation?
13. Which process is called flapping?
14. What phenomenon is called "reduction"?
15. Name the sounds which are commonly found in the unstressed syllables.
16. How many types of reduction do you know?
17. What degrees of the reduction do you know? Give an example.
18. Read the following sentence: 'I can read it alone'. What type of reduction is observed in the word *can*?
19. Are the personal and possessive pronouns generally stressed in connected speech?
20. Are the auxiliary and modal verbs generally stressed in connected speech?
21. In what positions are prepositions generally stressed in a sentence?
22. Which form-words have no weak forms?

THEME 8: THE STRUCTURE OF THE ENGLISH SYLLABLE

Plan

1. The structure of the syllable.
2. Theories of syllable formation and syllable division.
3. Phonetic and phonological definitions of the syllable.

Key Words

Syllable - the natural segmentation of speech continuum, complex and complicated unit of utterance.

Speech is a continuum. However, it can be broken into minimal pronounceable units into which sounds show a tendency to cluster or group themselves. These smallest phonetic groups are generally given the name of **syllables.** The syllable is a very important unit. Most people seem to believe that, even if they cannot define what a syllable is, they can count how many syllables there are in a given word or sentence. If they are asked to do this they often tap their finger as they count, which illustrates the syllable's importance in the rhythm of speech. As a matter of fact, if one tries the experiment of asking English speakers to count the syllables in, say, a recorded sentence, there is often a considerable amount of disagreement.

The syllable is one or more speech sounds forming a single uninterrupted unit of utterance which may be a commonly recognized subdivision of a word or the whole of a word. Being the smallest pronounceable units, the syllables form language units of greater magnitude that is morphemes, words and phrases. Each of these units is characterized by a certain syllabic structure.

Phonetically, (i. e. in relation to the way we produce them and the way they sound), syllables are usually described as consisting of a centre which has little or no obstruction to airflow and which sounds comparatively loud; before and after this centre (i.e. at the beginning and end of the syllable), there will be greater obstruction to airflow and/or less loud sound.

Articulatorily, the syllable is the minimal articulatory unit of the utterance.

Auditorily, the syllable is the smallest unit of perception: the listener identifies the whole of the syllable and after that thesounds which it contains.

Phonologically it is a structural unit which consists of a sequence of one or some phonemes of a language in numbers and arrangements permitted by the given language. Looking at syllables from the phonological point of view is quite different. What this involves is looking at the possible combinations of English

phonemes; the study of the possible phoneme combinations of a language is called **phonotactics.** It is simplest to start by looking at what can occur in initial position –in other words, what can occur at the beginning of the first word when we begin to speak after a pause. We find that the word can begin with a vowel, or with one, two or three consonants. No word begins with more than three consonants. In the same way, we can look at how a word ends when it is the last word spoken before a pause; it can end with a vowel, or with one, two, three or (in a small number of cases) four consonants. No current word ends with more than four consonants.

A meaningful language unit has two aspects: syllable formation and syllable division which form a dialectical unity.

Syllable formation in English is based on the phonological opposition vowel – consonant.

In English the syllable is formed:

1) by any vowel alone or in combination with one or more consonants – not more than 3 preceding and not more than 4 following it, e.g. *are* [a:], *we* [wi:], *it* [it], *sixths* [siksθs];

2) by a word final sonorants [n], [l], [m] immediately preceded by a consonant: e. g. *rhythm* ['rIðᵊm], *garden* ['ga:*d*ᵊn].

The English sonorants [w], [j] are never syllabic as they are always syllable-initial.

Thus vowels and sonorants are syllable-forming elements and every word, phrase or sentence has as many syllables as it has syllabic elements.

Every English syllable has a center or **peak** – a vowel or a sonorant. What we will call a **minimum syllable** is a single vowel in isolation (e.g. the words '*are*' [ɑ:], '*or*' [ɔ:], '*err*' [ɜ:]. These are preceded and followed by silence. Isolated sounds such as [m], which we sometimes produce to indicate agreement, or [ʃ], to ask for silence, must also be regarded as syllables.

The peak may be preceded by one or more non-syllabic elements which constitute the **onset** of the syllable, that is, instead of silence, they have one or more consonants preceding the centre of the syllable: '*bar*' [bɑ:] '*key*' [ki]: '*more*' [mɔ:]. The peak may be followed by one or more non-syllabic elements which constitute the **coda** – that is, they end with one or more consonants: '*am*' [æm], '*ought*' [ɔ:t], '*ease*' [i:z]. Some syllables have both **onset** and *coda*: '*ran*' [ræn], '*sat*' [sæt], '*fill*' [fil].

Let us now look in more detail at syllable onsets. If the first syllable of the word in question begins with a vowel (any vowel may occur, though [ʊ] is rare) we say that this initial syllable has a **zero onset.** If the syllable begins with one

consonant, that initial consonant may be any consonant phoneme except [ŋ]; [ʒ] is rare.

We now look at syllables beginning with two consonants. When we have two or more consonants together we call them a **consonant cluster.** Initial two-consonant clusters are of two sorts in English. One sort is composed of [s] followed by one of a small set of consonants; examples of such clusters are found in words such as '*sting*' [stiŋ], '*sway*' [swei], '*smoke*' [sməʊk]. The [s] in these clusters is called the **pre-initial** consonant and the other consonant ([t], [w], [m] in the above examples) – the **initial** consonant.

The other sort begins with one of a set of about fifteen consonants, followed by one of the set [1], [r], [w], [j] as in, for example, '*play*' [plei], '*try*' [trai], '*quick*' [kwik], '*few*' [fju:]. We call the first consonant of these clusters the **initial consonant** and the second – the **post-initial.** When we look at three- consonant clusters we can recognise a clear relationship between them and the two sorts of two-consonant cluster described above; examples of three-consonant initial clusters are: '*split*' [split], '*stream*' [stri:m], '*square*' [skweə]. The [s] is the pre-initial consonant, the [p], [t], [k] that follow [s] in the three example words are the initial consonant, and the [1], [r],

[w] are post-initial.

We now have a similar task to do in studying final consonant clusters. Here we find the possibility of up to four consonants at the end of a word. If there is no final consonant we say that there is a **zero coda.** When there is one consonant only, this is called the **final** consonant. Any consonant may be a final consonant except [h], [w], [j]. The consonant [r] is a special case: it doesn't occur as a final consonant in BBC pronunciation, but there are many rhotic accents of English in which syllables may end with this consonant.

There are two sorts of two-consonant final cluster, one being a final consonant preceded by a **pre-final** consonant and the other – a final consonant followed by a **post-final** consonant. The pre-final consonants form a small set: [m], [n], [ŋ], [1], [s]. We can see these in '*bump*' [bʌmp], '*bent*' [bent], '*bank*' [bæŋk], '*belt*' [belt], '*ask*' [ɑ:sk]. The post-final consonants also form a small set: [s], [z], [t], [d], [θ]; example words are: '*bets*' [bets],

'*beds*' [bedz], '*backed*' [bækt], '*bagged*' [bægd], '*eighth*' [eitθ]. These post-final consonants can often be identified as separate morphemes (although not always – '*axe*' [æks], for example, is a single morpheme and its final [s] has no separate meaning). A point of pronunciation can be pointed out here: the release of the first plosive of a plosive-plus-plosive cluster such as the [g]

(of [gd]) in [bægd] or the [k] (of [kt]) in [bækt] is usually without plosion and is therefore practically inaudible.

There are two types of final three-consonant cluster: the first is pre-final plus final plus post final:

		Pre-final	Final	Post-final
'helped'	he	l	p	t
'banks'	bæ	ŋ	k	s
'bonds'	bɒ	n	d	z
'twelfth'	twe	l	f	θ

The second type shows how more than one post-final consonant can occur in a final cluster: final plus post-final 1 plus post-final 2. Post-final 2 is again one of [s], [z], [t], [d], [θ].

		Pre-final	Final	Post-final 1	Post-final 2
'fifths'	fɪ	–	f	θ	s
'next'	ne	–	k	s	t
'lapsed'	læ	–	p	s	t

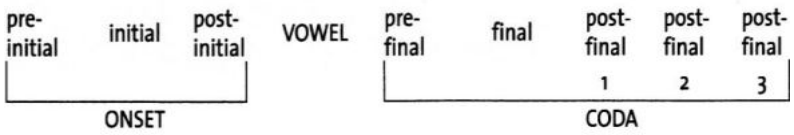
Most four-consonant clusters can be analysed as consisting of a final consonant preceded by a pre-final and followed by post-final 1 and post-final 2, as shown below:

		Pre-final	Final	Post-final 1	Post-final 2
'twelfths'	twe	l	f	θ	s
'prompts'	prɒ	m	p	t	s

A small number of cases seem to require a different analysis, as consisting of a final consonant with no pre-final but three post-final consonants:

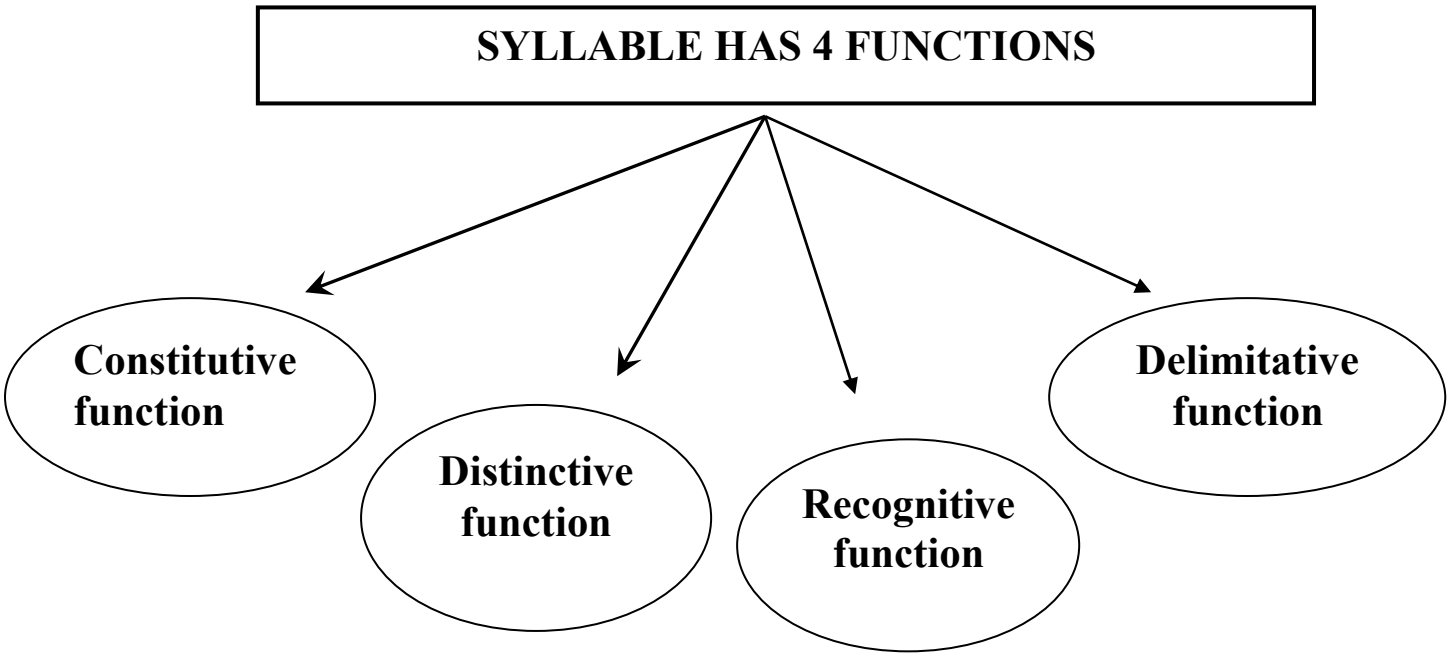
		Pre-final	Final	Post-final 1	Post-final 2	Post-final 3
'sixths'	sɪ	–	k	s	θ	s
'texts'	te	–	k	s	t	s

To sum up, we may describe the English syllable as having the following maximum phonological structure:



In the above structure there must be a vowel in the centre of the syllable. There is, however, a special case, that of **syllabic consonants**; we do not, for example, analyse the word '*students*' [stju:dnts] as consisting of one syllable with the three-consonant cluster [stj] for its onset and a four-consonant final cluster [dnts]. To fit in with what English speakers feel, we say that the word contains two syllables, with the second syllable ending with the cluster [nts]; in other

words, we treat the word as though there was a vowel between d and n, although a vowel only occurs here in very slow, careful pronunciation



1. What origins words consist of two syllables ?

A) Latin origin B) Roman origin C) German origin D) English origin

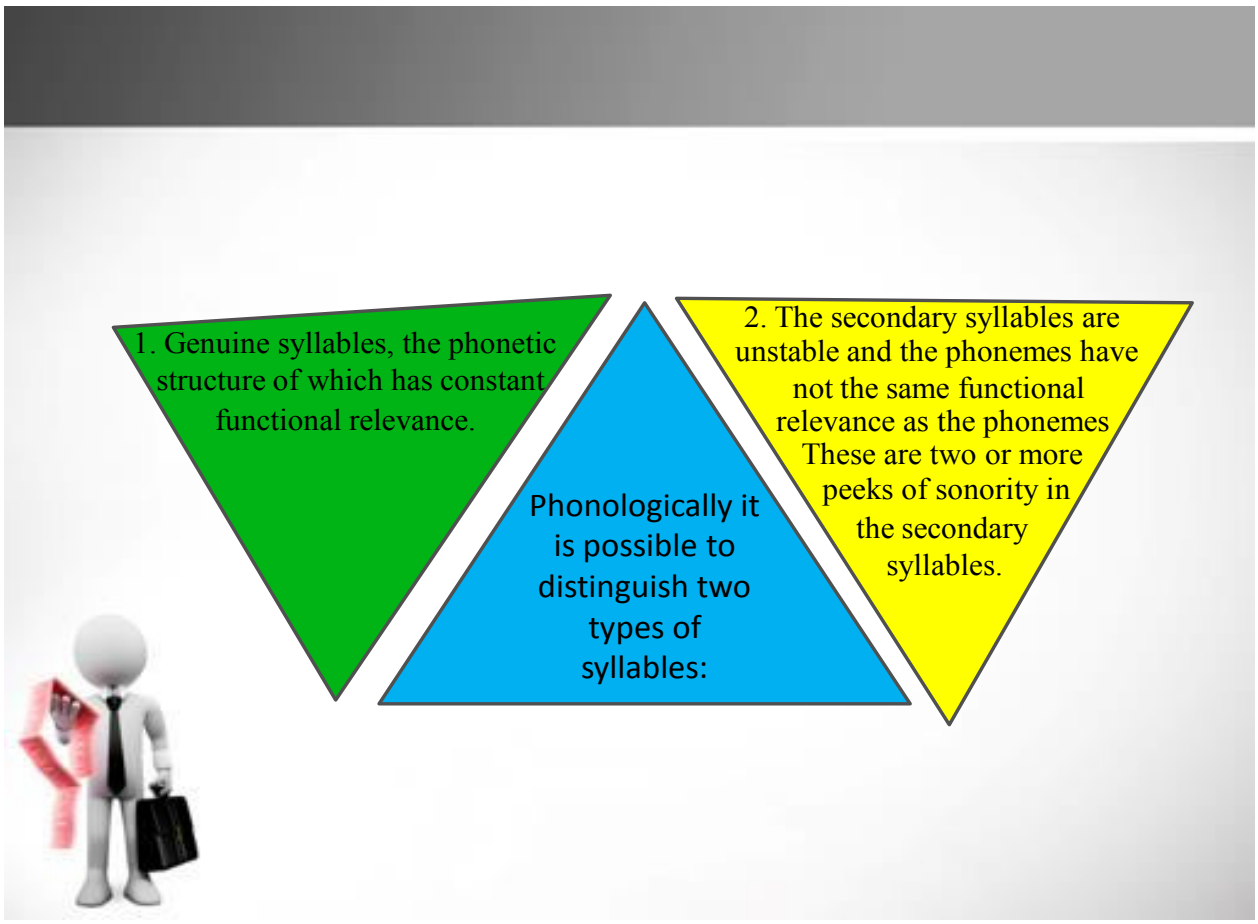
2. Try to find words pronouncing according to the II type of syllable

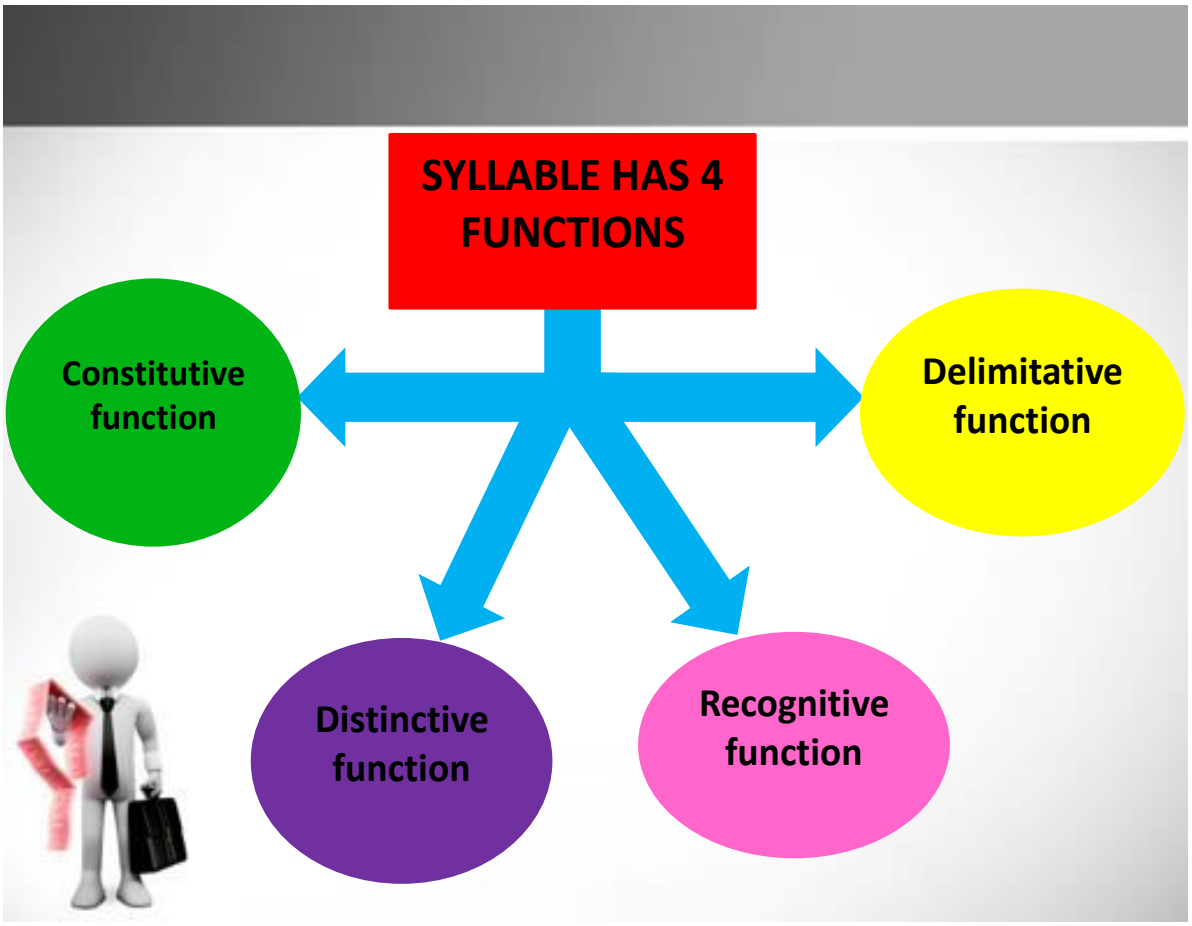
A) such, fat, not, big, man

B) pale, gun, can, must my

C) pencil, full, but, care, sun

D) put, note, name, my, ice


1. Genuine syllables, the phonetic structure of which has constant functional relevance.
Phonologically it is possible to distinguish two types of syllables:
2. The secondary syllables are unstable and the phonemes have not the same functional relevance as the phonemes These are two or more peeks of sonority in the secondary syllables.


SYLLABLE HAS 4 FUNCTIONS
Constitutive function
Delimitative function
Distinctive function
Recognitive function

THEME 9: TYPES OF SYLLABLE

Plan

1. The definition of the syllable. The functions of the syllable.
2. Theories of syllable formation and syllable division.
3. Phonetic and phonological definitions of the syllable.

Key Words

Syllable - the natural segmentation of speech continuum, complex and complicated unit of utterance.

There are the various generally accepted classifications of syllables. (1) According to the syllable division whether a syllable begins and ends with a vowel or a consonant sound, syllables are classified into open, closed, covered, uncovered.

V. A. Vassilyev distinguished the following types of syllables:

V — uncovered, open;

VC — closed, uncovered;

CVC — closed, covered;

CV — covered, open

1. G. P. Torsuyev gives the following types of syllables:

V — fully open;

CVC — fully closed;

CV — initially covered;

VC — finally covered.

Besides he distinguishes the sub-types of syllables. A fully open syllable consists of a vowel or a diphthong and there fore it has no other sub-types.

A fully closed (CVC) syllable may be of the following twelve sub-types depending on th e num ber of con sonants:

1) CVC — fat,
2) CVCC — fact,
3) CVCCC — facts,
4) CCVC — place,
5) CCCVC— street,
6) CCVCC— speaks,
7) C C V Q X — spinx,
8) CCCVCC — streets,
9) CCCVCCC— (con) — s tru c ts ,
10) CVCCCC — sixths,
11) CCVCCCC — twelfth,

12) CVCCCCC — six th s /siksG/ (with optional til).

The initial covered syllable has three sub- types;

1) CV — sea,

2) CCV — play,

3) CCCV — straw .

The finally covered syllable also has three sub-types:

1) VC — at,

2) VCC — apt,

3) VCCC — a c ts .

Thus, there are nineteen structural sub-types of syllables in modern English and their peak is formed by a vowel or sonorant when it follows or precedes constrictiv e consonants. For example, CS (S — indicates a sonorant); /(ri) — tn / written; CSC /('lai — sns/ license; CCSC: /('saerj) — kjnz/ sanctions; CSCC:/('skee) — fldz/ scaffolds; CCSCC: /('en) — trnts/ entrants

The above given classification represents the phonemic, to be more strict, the allophonic structure of syllables. An English syllable is the minimum unit of the phonetic structure of a monosyllabic word (e. g. /ai/, I, /it/ it, /buk/ book etc). Nevertheless it can also explain the allophonic structure of polysyllabic English words, i. e. words with two or more syllables. The English word may contain from one to eight syllables. There are more than eight syllables in U zbek word as agglu tination tendency is strong (it is possible to add a n um ber of suffixes) in it. Typologically the following types of syllables exist in English, Russian and Uzbek (including borrowings): The universal type of syllable for English is CVC — closed and covered, which is the most frequently used in it.

1. G. P. Torsuyev gave the statistic data of sound combinations used in initial, m edial and final positions of words and syllables. All the consonants except /r)/ may be used in the initial positions of syllables preceding vowels. The same may be observed in Uzbek in which the consonant It}/ cannot occur in initial syllables of words, while in R us sian all 36 consonant phonemes m ay appear in the initial syllables which precede vowels. More than 50 combinations of two consonants may occur in th e initial syllables of words in which affricates and two s i miliar consonants (geminates) cannot take part. There are 230 combinations of two consonants occuring in the initial syllables of a Russian w ord1. T h eir n um ber is very small in Uzbek as there are no combina tions of consonants used in the in itia l position of the words of turkic origin. In m odern Uzbek as the result of linguistic contacts some combi nations of consonants began to be used in the initial syllables of words (e. g. стакан , стадион, бригада, шнур, старт, прораб, слесарь, тр ак тор etc.). Many words of this type have been borrowed from Russian and other languages th ro ugh Russian into U zbek. There are also a great

number of com binations of three and four consonants in the medial and final positions of the Russian and English words which do not exist in Uzbek a t all or in a very small num ber used only in borrowings. According to the n um ber of phonemes co nstitu ting syllables they may be classified into sim ple and complex. (2) As we have stated above a syllable is a constructive unit of pro sodies, i . e . it can be characterized by a certain degree of stress, i. e. by the force of utterance, pitch and duration. On the basis of these proper ties syllables may be classified into: a) stressed and unstressed; b) short and long; c) high, mid, low etc. tones in tone languages such as Chi nese, T h ai, Japanese etc. in which the change of pitch is a distinctive prosodic feature. English, Russian and Uzbek are languages with dynamic stress, i. e. the changes in the force (acoustically intensity) of utterance is the prim ary p ro perty in them. But duration and pitch are secondary pro perties of th e English, Russian and Uzbek accent. The stressed syllab les of an English word may be pronounced by high tone and become longer, while unstressed syllables are shorter and have a low tone of voice. Besides fully open syllable is longer than a closed syllable, e. g. bee / b i :/ — longer, bead /b i:d / — long, beat /b i:t/ — shorter. Eng lish, R ussian and Uzbek are regarded as languages of syllable-count ing. In L a tin , Greek and Czech d u ra tio n is regarded as a prim ary property and the syllable length is a distin ctive prosodic feature which is usually known as th e mora. Such languages are called mora — counting lan guages as contrary to the s y lla b le — counting languages2. In tone languages (also called languages of musical stress) various levels of pitch (tone of voice) may serve to distinguish the meanings of words, w h ile th e force of utteran ce and duration is not very im port ant. For exam ple: In Thai m aa w ith high tone means «horse», with a mid tone — «come», w ith a rising to ne — «dog».

The term «syllabeme» is used to indicate the phonological function of syllables in mora-counting l a n guages, while the term «toneme» characterizes the phonological f u nction of tones. V. A. Vassilyev distinguishes «word-accenteme», «phrase accenteme» and «syntagm-accenteme» used to describe the distinctive function of stress at different levels. He also uses the term «syllabeme» to indicate the phonological unit which has th e only distinctive featu re based on syllabicity. E. g. lightening /'laitam rj/ — lightning / 'la ltn ig /, finely /'fainli/ — fin ally /'fam ali / 1 etc. The above given syllables are called phonetic syllables which are used in utterances. There are orthographic «syllables» used in w ritin g and printing for the purpose of application of reading rules. They are also termed syllabographs. For example, m a k -in g , chang-ing, ta l-k in g etc.

Placement of VOWELS	Placement of CONSONANTS
open: the V is at the end, such a S is articulated with the opening of the mouth by the end: e. g. *they, wri-ter*	**covered at the beginning:** the C is at the beginning of the syllable: e. g. *tie*
closed: which end in C, at the end of such a S the mouth is closed: e. g. *hun-* *dred, hat*	**covered at the end:** the C is at the end of a S: e. g. *on*

1. Fully open	V *are, or*
2. Fully closed (V between C)	CVC *'fat'* CCVC *'place'* CVCC *'fact'* CCCVC *'street'*CVCCC *'facts'* CVCCCC *'sixths'* [siksθs]
3. Covered at the beginning (one C or a sequence of Cprecede a vowel)	CV *'too'* CCV *'spy'* CCCV *'straw'*
4. Covered at the end (one C or more complete the syllable)	VC *'on'* VCC *'act'* VCCC *'acts'*

Test for practice

1. Try to find words pronouncing according to the III type of syllable

A) coal, told, mine

B) fare, chair, fire, girl

C) good, got, give, garden

D) care, more, fire, here

2.Try to find words pronouncing according to the I type of syllable

A) bit, bite, cut, net

B) full, but, care, sun
C) gun, can, must my
D) note, name, my, ice

3.Try to find words pronouncing according to the IV type of syllable

A) more, like, have, top
B) such, fat, not, big, man
C) car, form, turn, first
D) fare, chair, fire, girl

4. How many affricates are there in English?

A) 3 C) 2
B) 5 D) 4

5.What phoneme does the stressed vowel letter refer to in the word SPEECH?

A) [i] C) [ə:]
B) [i:] D) [ai]

6.Try to find qualitative reduction in the following words

A) cotton, garden, suddenly
B) can, have, beautiful
C) he, she, we
D) fast, letter, paper

THEME 10: WORD STRESS IN ENGLISH. DEFINITION OF WORD STRESS. IT'S TYPES AND COMPONENTS

1. Word stress.
2. The accentual structure of words.
3. Placement and degrees of word stress.
4. The functions of word stress.

Key Words

Stress - degree of force or prominence with which a sound or syllable is uttered. Phonological stress - degrees of accent can distinguish words and their grammatical forms. Democrative stress - common for the Second syllable from the end to be stressed.

The nature of stress is simple enough: practically everyone would agree that the first syllable of words like *'father', 'open', 'camera'* is stressed, that the middle syllable is stressed in *'potato', 'apartment', 'relation'*, and that the final syllable is stressed in *'about', 'receive', 'perhaps'*. Also, most people feel they have some sort of idea of what the difference is between stressed and unstressed syllables, although they might explainit in different ways.

We will mark a stressed syllable in transcription by placing a small vertical line (') high up, just before the syllable it relates to; the words quoted above will thus be transcribed as follows:

['fɑ:ðə] [pə'teitəʊ] [ə'baʊt]
['əʊpən] [ə'pɑ:tmənt] [ri'si:v]
['kæmrə] [ri'leiʃn] [pə'hæps]

What are the characteristics of stressed syllables that enable us to identify them? It is important to understand that there are two different ways of approaching this question. One is to consider what the speaker does in producing stressed syllables and the other is to consider what characteristics of sound makea syllable seem to a listener to be stressed. In other words, we can study stress from the points of view of **production** and of **perception;** the two are obviously closely related, but are not identical. The production of stress is generally believed to depend on the speaker using more muscular energy than is used for unstressed syllables. Measuring muscular effort is difficult, but it seems possible, according to experimental studies, that when we produce stressed syllables, the muscles that we use to expel air from the lungs are often more active, producing

higher subglottal pressure. It seems probable that similar things happen with muscles in other parts of our vocal apparatus.

Many experiments have been carried out on the perception of stress, and it is clear that many different sound characteristics are important in making a syllable recognizably stressed. From the perceptual point of view, all stressed syllables have one characteristic in common, and that is prominence. Stressed syllables are recognised as stressed because they are more prominent than unstressed syllables. What makes a syllable prominent? At least four different factors are important:

1) most people seem to feel that stressed syllables are **louder** than unstressed syllables; in other words, loudness is a component of prominence. In a sequence of identical syllables, if one syllable is made louder than the others, it will be heard as stressed. However, it is important to realise that it is very difficult for a speaker to make a syllable louder without changing other characteristics of the syllable such as those explained below (2-4); if one literally changes *only* the loudness, the perceptual effect is not very strong;

2) the **length** of syllables has an important part to play in prominence. If one of the syllables is made longer than the others, there is quite a strong tendency for that syllable to be heard as stressed;

3) every voiced syllable is said on some pitch; pitch in speech is closely related to the frequency of vibration of the vocal folds and to the musical notion of low- and high-pitched notes. It is essentially a *perceptual* characteristic of speech. If one syllable is said with a pitch that is noticeably different from that of the others, this will have a strong tendency to produce the effect of prominence. For example, if all syllables are said with low pitch except for one said with high pitch, then the high-pitched syllable will be heard as stressed and the others as unstressed. To place some movement of pitch (e. g. rising or falling) on a syllable is even more effective in making it sound prominent;

4) a syllable will tend to be prominent if it contains a vowel that is different in **quality** from neighbouring vowels. This effect is not very powerful, but there is one particular way in which it is relevant in English: the previous unit explained that the most frequently encountered vowels in weak syllables are [ə], [i], [u] (syllabic consonants are also common). We can look on stressed syllables as occurring against a "background" of these weak syllables, so that their prominence is increased by contrast with these background qualities.

Prominence, then, is produced by four main factors: **(1) loudness, (2) length, (3) pitch and (4) quality**. Generally, these four factors work together in combination, although syllables may sometimes be made prominent by means of only one or two of them. Experimental work has shown that these factors are not equally important; the strongest effect is produced by pitch, and length is also a powerful factor. Loudness and quality have much less effect.

Up to this point we have talked about stress as though there were a simple distinction between "stressed" and "unstressed" syllables with no intermediate levels; such a treatment would be a **two-level** analysis of stress. Usually, however, we have to recognise one or more intermediate levels. It should be remembered that in this unit we are dealing only with stress *within the word.* This means that we are looking at words as they are said in isolation, which is a rather artificial situation: we do not often say words in isolation, except for a few such as *'yes', 'no', 'possibly', 'please'* and interrogative words such as *'what', 'who'*, etc. However, looking at words in isolation does help us to see stress placement and stress levels more clearly than studying them in the context of continuous speech.

Let us begin by looking at the word *'around'* [ə'raʊnd], where the stress always falls clearly on the last syllable and the first syllable is weak. From the point of view of stress, the most important fact about the way we pronounce this word is that on the second syllable the pitch of the voice does not remain level, but usually falls from a higher to a lower pitch. We can diagram the pitch movement as shown below, where the two parallel lines represent the speaker's highest and lowest pitch level. The prominence that results from this pitch movement, or tone, gives the strongest type of stress; this is called **primary stress**.

In some words, we can observe a type of stress that is weaker than primary stress but stronger than that of the first syllable of *'around'*; for example, consider the first syllables of the words *'photographic'* [fəʊtogræfik], *'anthropology'* [ænθrəpɒlədʒi]. The stress in these words is called **secondary stress**. It is usually represented in transcription with a low

mark (ˌ) so that the examples could be transcribed as

[ˌfəʊto'græfik], [ˌænθrə'pɒlədʒi].

We have now identified two levels of stress: primary and secondary; this also implies a third level which can be called unstressed and is regarded as being the absence of any recognisable amount of prominence. These are the three levels that we will use in describing English stress. However, it is worth noting that unstressed syllables containing [o], [i], [u], or a syllabic consonant, will sound less prominent than an unstressed syllable containing some other vowel. For example, the first syllable of *'poetic'* [pəʊ 'etik] is more prominent than the first syllable of *'pathetic'* [pə 'θetik]. This *could* be used as a basis for a further division of stress levels, giving us a third ("tertiary") level. It is also possible to suggest a tertiary level of stress in some polysyllabic words. To take an example, it has been suggested that the word *'indivisibility'* shows four different levels: the syllable [bil] is the strongest (carrying primary stress), the initial syllable [in] has secondary stress, while the third syllable [viz] has a level of stress which is weaker than those

two but stronger than the second, fourth, sixth and seventh syllable (which are all unstressed).

Word stress or accent is usually defined as the degree of force or pronounce with, which a sound or syllable is uttered. Incidentally, the syllabic structure of a word is closely connected with its accentual structure as in disyllabic (a word consisting of two syllables) and polysyllabic (a word consisting of more than three syllables) words, there may be different degrees of pronounce in syllables of initial, medial or final positions.

The classification of words according to the place and degree of stress is known as the accentual structure (type, pattern) of words. Traditionally word accent has the following phonetic components

a. In articulatory aspect stress is realized by the great force of resryngeal activity, duration of articulation (a stressed syllable may be long and tense) high frequency of the vibration of vocal chords.

b. Acoustically, a stressed syllable has greater intensity, duration and pitch or tone of voice than an unstressed syllable.

c. Perceptually, a stressed syllable is characterized by more loudness, duration and high tone of a sound in comparison with an unstressed syllable. It should be emphasized that word stress and sentence stress are different, as the terms indicate, word stress forms a word and singles out one or more of its syllables.

Sentence stress deals with the formation of a sentence or phrase and singles out one or more words in the structure of a phrase.

Thus, sentence stress is regarded as one of the components of intonation. These two types of stress, which are used in different levels of investigation, are sometimes mixed, though they differ with their components and degrees and also with their factors and functions. For ex, the word can often unstressed, but it may receive stress in such a sentence as, now you can see it. Can you see it? I can.

3. Placements and degrees of word stress if we take a separate word, it is noticeable that stress replacement in it is fixed and cannot be shifted to any other syllable of a monosyllabic, disyllabic and polysyllabic word. E. g. about, a'bility, up - to - date, uni - versal, con - tain etc.

Word - stress in Russian is both free and shifting as it falls on any syllable of words and word forms and may shift from one syllable to another in different grammatical forms of words. E. g. голова, голову, письмо, письма, высокий, высок, выше, ноги.

In Uzbek word stress is free as it may fall on any syllable. Word stress in Uzbek has become free as a result of language contacts, which is observed in the cited examples. In the Turkish languages are regarded as agglutinative, i.e. word forms

may take from one to six suffixes. For example, the word бола "a child" may have four suffixes as бола-лар-и-миз-га "for our children", in the form иш-ки-боз-ли-ги-миз-дан "as we like" there are six different suffixes. In these examples word stress tends to be at the end of the word - form and very often the last syllable receive stress.

4. The functions of word stress

We have emphasized that stress is one of the constitutive features of a word. Only, word, no matter whether it is monosyllabic, disyllabic or polysyllabic, has its own stress.

The constitutive function of word stress shapes the word phonetically, join the sound sequences by articulatory means, combines its stressed and unstressed syllables with the help of intensity (loudness), pitch, quantity and quality.

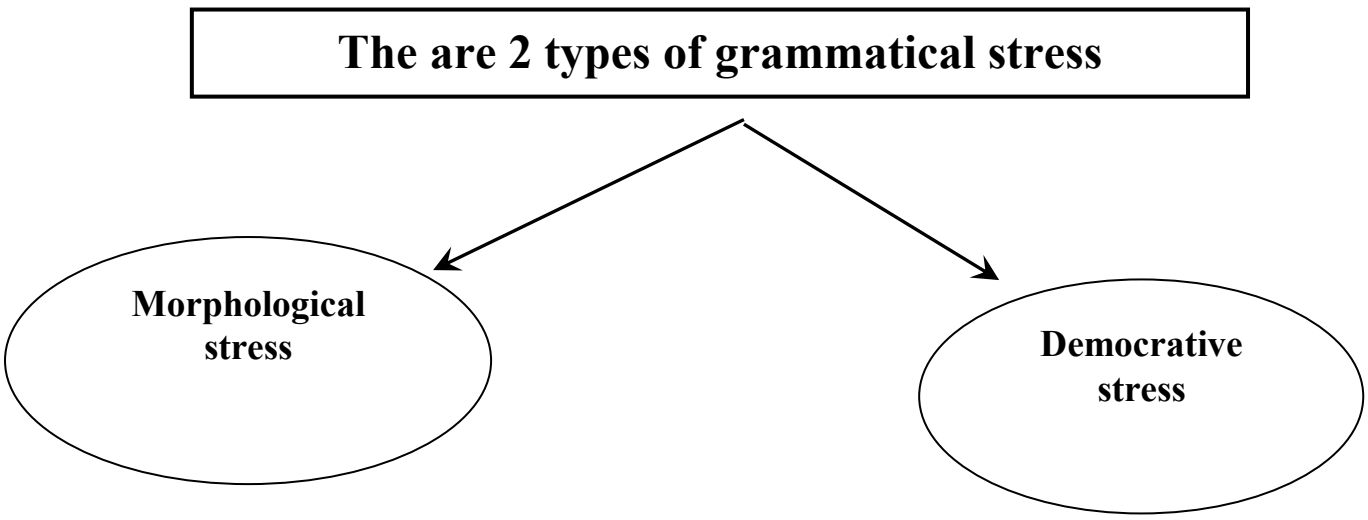
Word stress as a prosodic or suprasegmental unit has a phonological or distinctive function, which means that the stress placement and degrees of accept, can distinguish words and their grammatical forms. The distinctive functions of word accent are closely connected with lexical and morphological aspects.

5. There are two types of grammatical stress:

1. Morphological.
2. Democrative.

The morphological stress exists in English, Russian and Uzbek languages in which the morphological categories (morphemes and parts of speech) may be distinguished by the position of accent. E. g. 'present (a verb) - present (a noun).

The democrative stress serves as a boundary or a signal, for the example, in Polish it is common for the second syllable from the end of is stressed. Thus, the distinctive function of word accent performs both lexical and grammatical functions simultaneously.



Tests for practice

1. Flow many stress are in English?

A) primary B) Secondary C) Unstressed #D) A, B & C

2. Who did distinguish two sub types of recessive stress in words with prefix which have lost their referential meaning unrestricted and restricted .

A) V.A.Vassilyev B) Otto Jesperson C) D. Jones D) G .P.Torsuyev

3.What phoneme does the stressed vowel letter refer to in the word behind?

A) [i] B) [ə:]

C) [aiə] D) [ai]

4.Define the type of stressed syllable in the following word: FACIAL

A) I B) II

C) III D) IV

5.What phoneme does the stressed vowel letter refer to in the ICE?

A) [i] B) [ə:]

C) [aiə] D) [ai]

6. Define the type of stressed syllable in the following word: KETCHUP

A) I B) II

C) III D) IV

7. Define the type of stressed syllable in the following word: KIDDY

A)I B) II

C)III D) IV

8. Choose the line of words in which all stressed vowels are pronounced like [/\]

A) Must, does, won,

B) Oven, what, come

C) Funny, upon, soda

D) Monday, alike, suppose

THEME 11: SENTENCE STRESS

Plan

1. The definition of Sentence-stress.
2. The main principles of Sentence-stress.
3. The function of Sentence-stress.
4. Sentence-stress in English and Uzbek.

In a sentence or an intonation group some words are of greater importance than the others. Words which provide most of the information are called **content/notional words,** and those words which do not carry so much information are called **function/structure/form words.** Content words are brought out in speech by means of **sentence-stress (or utterance-level stress).**

Sentence stress/utterance-level stress is a special prominence given to one or more words according to their

relative importance in a sentence/utterance. The general rule in all languages is that the most important information in a phrase or longer utterance will be highlighted, that is will receiveprominence through some kind of accentuation of a particular word or a group of words.

Under normal, or unmarked, conditions, it is the **content words** (nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs) that are accentuated by pitch, length, loudness or a combination of the prosodic features. **Function words** (prepositions, articles, pronouns) andaffixes (suffixes and prefixes) are **deemphasized** or **backgrounded** informationally by destressing them. When anyword receiving stress has more than one syllable, it is only the word's most strongly stressed syllable that carries the sentence stress.

Function words usually have strong forms when they are:

a) at the end of the sentence, e. g. *What are you looking **at?***

*Where are you **from**?*

b) used for emphasis, e. g. *Do you want this one? No. Well, which one **do** you want? **That** one.*

c) used for contrast, *He is working so hard. **She** is but not*

he.

In ordinary, rapid speech such words can occur much more frequently in their weak form than in their strong form.

The main function of sentence stress is to single out **the focus/the communicative centre** of the sentence whichintroduces new information.

Sentence Focus. Within a sentence/an intonation unit, there may be several words receiving sentence stress but only one main idea or prominent element.

Speakers choose what information they want to highlight in an utterance/sentence. The stressed word in a given sentence which the speaker wishes to highlight receives prominence and is referred to as the (information) focus/the semantic center.

When a conversation begins, **the focus/the semantic center** is usually **on the** last **content** word, e. g. *Give me a HELP. What's the MATTER? What are you DOING?*

Words in a sentence can express **new information** (i. e. something mentioned for the first time (**rheme**)) or **old information** (i. e. something mentioned or referred to before (**theme**)). Within an intonation unit, words expressing old or given information (i. e. semantically predictable information) are unstressed and are spoken with lower pitch, whereas words expressing new information are spoken with strong stress and higher pitch. Here is an example of how prominence marks **new** versus **old** information. Capital letters signal new information (strong stress and high pitch):

A. *I've lost my HAT.*
B. *What KIND of hat?*
A. *It was a SUN hat.*
B. *What COLOR sun hat?*
A. *It was YELLOW. Yellow with STRIPES.*
B. *There was a yellow hat with stripes in the CAR.*
A. *WHICH car?*

In sum, sentence stress **stress** helps the speaker emphasize the most significant information in his or her message.

Prof. D. Jones writes: "The relative stress of the words in a sentence depends on their relative impotence'[1]. Rojer Kingdom gives the following definition: "Sentences stress is a relative degree of force given to the various words in a sentence". G.P. Torseeyuw makes an attempt to draw a demarcation between word-stress and sentence stress. He stases that sentence stress are based on the following four principles: musical, dynamic, quantitative and qualitative.

K.P.Quintovt considers sentence- stress as one of the most important factors of intonation in languages. She analyses sentence stress into three main functional types:

1. Syntactic (or sentence-stress)
2. Logical stress
3. Emphatic stress.

I. Syntactic stress is more important functional type. Its function is to organize the sentence phonetically, to render the meaning clear, to make speech articulate. Syntactic stress emphasizes all the notional elements of speech, because they are more important semantically.

II. Logical stress brings into prominence the most important element in a syntagm.

III. Emphatic stress makes the meaning of the whole sentence more prominent; to arose the listener's interest.

In comparing word-stress with sentence stress we see that their function is different. The function of word- stress is to mould the word by indicating the strongest syllable in a word.

The function of sentence stress is different and more complicated.

• Sentence stress indicates the end of the syntagm by means of strengthening the last stress, by a definite pitch-pattern and frequently also by a pause

• Sentence-stress is used to indicate the important words in a syntagm (from the point of view of grammar, meaning or the speakers attitude)

• In accordance with these functions of sentence-stress, we may distinguish three types of it:

1. Syntagm stress (unemphatic or normal sentence-stress)
2. Logical sentence stress
3. Emphatic sentence stress

- The lengthening of vowels in Russia is used for the purpose of creating emphasis.

Какой большой [како:й бал'шой]

Да ну! Не может быть [да ну: не может быт]

- Russians are alt to introduce this method of creating emphasis into their English speech, as for example:
- *How big he is*
- *How late you are*

This produces the effect of a strong Russian accent, and should be avoided In English the number of form words and other auxiliary elements is greater, they group themselves as proctitics and around the stressed notional words in syntagm. Thus in English syntagm, stress mostly marks group of words and less frequently-words. These groups have been aptly termed by linguist's "stress-groups". They give to an English syntagm, and consequently, to English speech in general, a peculiar rhythmical pattern.

Following examples are of typical English stress-groups: It was the most extraordinary looking little gentleman he had ever seen in his life.

Thus an English syntagm consists of a number of "stress-group" a stress group in its turn, consists of a number stressed one It was the most extraordinary looking Little gentleman he had ever seen in his life. An English are stressed:

a) The nouns
b) Adjectives
c) Notional verbs
d) Adverbs
e) Numerals
f) Pronouns : demonstrative, indefinite, negative, reciprocal, interrogative and emphasizing

1. Auxiliary and modal verbs are stressed in the following cases: I, When introducing a question

Can you lend me this book?

II. When preceding a negative form word especially in the contracted form / *can* 7 *do it tomorrow*

III. When used to substitute a notional verb. *Shall I tell her? No, you need not*

IV. In emphatic constructions: *Do sit down*

2. Prepositions and conjunction are stressed in initial position:

I. *If he comes tell him to do it*

II. *On the table there were no letters*

3. Absolute forms of possessive pronouns are stressed

These books are mine.

Tests for practice

1. Who did make attempt to draw and sentence-stress and said that the sentence-stress was based on 4 principles?

A) LA. Badouin de Courtenay B) L.V. Shcherba
C) L.R. Zinder D) G.P. Torsuyev

2. In what principles sentence-stress based on?

A) Descriptive, general, phonological, syntactic
B) General, descriptive, historical or diachronically, comparative
C) Musical, dynamic, quantities, qualitative
D) Dynamic, quantities, Descriptive, general

3. What kind of stress is it?

“"Brings into prominence the most important element in a syntagma?”

A) Syntactic stress B) Logical stress C) Emphatic stress D) Word stress

THEME 12: INTONATION STRUCTURE OF ENGLISH. THE SPECIFYING OF INTONATION. IT'S COMPONENTS AND FUNCTION

Plan

1. Intonation.
2. Intonation and its components and functions.
3. Methods of indicating and describing Intonation.
4. The Linguistic functions of Intonation components.
5. The functions of sentence - stress.
6. The functions of other Intonation Components.
7. Emphatic Intonation.

Key Words

Intonation - an essential prosodic element of human speech. Sentence - stress - the second primary components of Intonation. Timbre determines the quality of voice. Rhythm - the regular alternation of stressed and unstressed syllables in a sentence or a word.

Intonation may be defined as such a unity of speech melody, sentence–stress (accent), voice quality (timbre) and speech tempo which enables the speaker to adequately communicate in speech his thoughts, will, emotions and attitude towards reality and the contents of the utterance.

Speech melody, or the pitch component of intonation, is the variation in the pitch of the voice which takes place when voiced sounds, especially vowels and sonorants, are pronounced in connected speech. The pitch of speech sounds is produced by the vibrations of the vocal cords.

Stress in speech is the greater prominence which is given to one or more words in a sentence as compared with the other words of the same sentence.

The voice quality (timbre) is a special colouring of the voice in pronouncing sentences which is superimposed on speech melody and shows the speaker's emotions such as joy, sadness, irony, anger, indignation, etc.

The tempo of speech is the speed with which sentences or their parts are pronounced. Closely connected with the tempo of speech is its **rhythm**: the recurrence of stressed syllables at more or less equal intervals of time.

Intonation serves to form sentences and intonation groups, to define their communicative type, to express the speaker's thoughts, to convey the attitudinal meaning. One and the same grammatical structure and lexical composition of the

sentence may express different meaning when pronounced with different intonation.

→ *Isn't it ri˛diculous? (general question)*

→ *Isn't it ri˛diculous! (exclamation)*

The sentence is the basic unit of language. It may either be a single intonational unit or consist of two or more intonational units. This intonational unit is called the **intonation group.** If considered not only from the purely intonational point of view, but also from the semantic and grammatical points of view this unit is known as the **sense-group.**

An intonation group may consist of a whole sentence or a part of it. In either case it may consist of a single word or a number of words.

An intonation group has the following characteristics:

a) It has at least one accented word carrying a marked change in pitch (a rise, a fall, etc)

b) It is pronounced at a certain rate and without any pause within it.

c) It has some kind of voice quality.

The number of intonation groups in the same sentence may be different.

In ˛June | ˛Ju ly | and ˛August | our 'children 'don't 'go to ˛school.

In 'June, 'July and ˛August | our 'children 'don't 'go to ˛school.

The end of each sentence is characterized by relatively long pause. The pauses between intonation groups are shorter. They vary in length. There may be no pauses between intonation groups at all.

Each intonation group is characterized by a certain intonation pattern, i.e. each syllable of an intonation group has a certain pitch and bears a larger or smaller degree of prominence.

Intonation patterns containing a number of syllables consist of the following parts: **the pre-head, the head, the nucleus and the tail**.

The pre-head includes unstressed and half-stressed syllables preceding the first stressed syllable.

The head includes the stressed and unstressed syllables beginning with the first stressed syllable up to the last stressed syllable.

The last stressed syllable is called **the nucleus.**

The unstressed and half-stressed syllables that follow the nucleus are called **the tail**.

It was a very sunny day yesterday.

It was a …. – the pre-head

…'very 'sunny – the head

… ˛day … – the nucleus

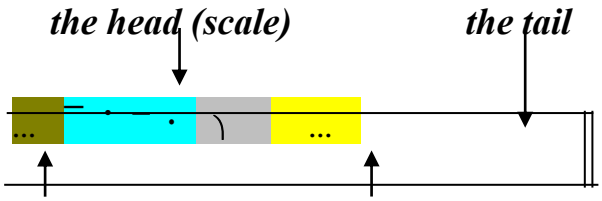
…yesterday – the tail

The first stressed syllable up to the last stressed syllable is called either **the head** or a **scale.**

As for the last stressed syllable it may either be called **the nucleus** or a **tone.**

Graphically these intonation parts can be shown as following:

It was a 'very 'sunny ˌday yesterday.



the pre-head ***the nucleus (tone)***

The rises and falls that take place in the nucleus or start with it are called **nuclear tones.**

The nucleus is the most important part of the intonation pattern as it defines the communicative type of the sentence, determines the semantic value of the intonation group, indicates the communicative center of the intonation group or of the whole sentence.

The communicative center is associated with the most important word or words of the intonation group or of the sentence.

The nuclear tone of the final intonation group is determined by the communicative type of the whole sentence.

The communicative types of sentences are differentiated in speech according to the aim of the utterance from the point of view of communication, i.e. in order to show if the sentence expresses a statement of fact, a question, a command or an exclamation.

1. Intonation is an essential prosodic element of human speech. It shapes human speech phonetically and helps to express grammatical, semantic and emotional meanings of phrases or sentences. Intonation is a very complicated phenomenon and three - force its definition varies widely among linguists. The following definitions of intonation have been given by British linguists: "Intonation maybe defined as the variations which take place in the pitch of the musical note produced by the vibration of the vocal cords". (D. Jones).

"By Intonation we mean the rise and fall of the pitch of the voice when we speak (L. Armstrong and I. Ward).

The American linguists D. L. Bollinger defines intonation as "... the melodic line of speech, the rising and following of the "fundamental" or singing pitch of the voice..." P. Ladefoged defines intonation as "the pattern of pitch changes". P. Lieberman regards intonation as "... the entire ensemble of pitch contours, pitch levels and stress levels, that occurs when a sentence is spoken".
From given definitions we can notice that intonation is regarded as pitch changes or speech melody and also stress levels, which accompany an utterance. Speech melody perceived as pitch changes is one of the main components of intonation, but it is not equal to intonation may be studied in four aspects:
1. Articulatory (physiologically). 2. Acoustic (physically).
3. Perceptually (audiotorially). 4. Functionally (linguistically).

Intonation and its components perform four functions like other phonological units.
1. A constitutive function of intonation is expressed by its existence in an utterance through which intonation shapes a sentence phonetically. For example, Come! As a word and sense group has its own grammatical form and intonation. The phrases Come here! Or He will come tomorrow-constitutive different grammatical (syntactic) structures and intonation.
2. A delmitative function of intonation is very closely connected with its constitutive function. By sense group we mean a word or a group of words forming the shortest possible unit in a sentence from the point of view of meaning, grammatical structure and intonation.
3. A distinctive (phonological) function of intonation serves to distinguish the communicative types of sentences e.g. he is a student, may be pronounced by four different pitch contrasts.
4. A recognitive function (identificatory) of intonation may be proved by the fact that every language or dialect has a characteristic pattern of intonation which is manifested in all utterance of speakers, though there may be some individual prosodic features in their pronunciation.

Intonation, its components and junctions exist not only in oral speech. But in the written form of a language as well. In a written text the punctuation marks make the meaning of sentences clear to the reader.

Methods of indicating and describing intonation. There are different methods of indicating intonation which depend on theoretical and practical approaches of linguists. Generally, there are three principles of describing intonation.
1. The narrow phonetic description if intonation, which belongs to British phoneticians: /D. Jones, H. E. Palmer, L. E. Armstrong and I. C. Ward, A. C. Gimson/.

2. The phonological description used by American linguists of both the descriptive and tagmemic schools: (K. L. Pike, H. A. Gleason, R. Nash and etc).
3. The broad phonetic and phonological description of English intonation is given by the soviet phoneticians of English G. P. Torsuyev, V. A. Vassilyev, O. I. Dickushine, M. A. Antipova, by their followers.

The linguistic functions of intonation components. Speech melody or pitch level is regarded one of the primary or main components of intonation. Its chief function is to distinguish communicative types of sentence and to divide a sentence into sense group or intonation groups.

R. Nash distinguishes the following five basic functions of speech melody:
1. The identify function, i.e. the ability of listeners to recognize a language without understanding what he said and to pronounce utterances with a foreign accent;
2. The presentation function, i.e. in every language any utterance is pronounced with some degree of pitch inflection;
3. The structural function, i.e. the speech melody is used to signal structure boundaries and relationship across boundaries;
4. The deictic function, i.e. a certain degree of speech melody; intentionally altered by the speaker is used to emphasize a particular lexical item of an utterance;
5. The expressive function of speech melody signal the presence of a speaker's emotion. If the emotion is strong, other prosodic elements such as tempo, loudness and voice quality are added. This shows a close relationship of all prosodic elements and intonation.

The functions of sentence - stress. Sentence - stress is the second primary components of intonation: its main functions are to single out words in a sentence according to their relative semantic importance, and to provide an adequate rhythmical structure of a sentence, e.g. 1 go home.

The given sentence is formed by one sense group and one sentence - stress which operate together with speech melody determining the degree of position of stress in a sentence.

Phonologically, phrase - accenteme performs word - distinctive, syntactive - distinctive, (it is called «syntagmo - accenteme» and emotional distinctive functions in a sentence e.g.).
Is there any Miss Take here? (word distinctive function).
Is there any Miss Take here? This is my brother John (oppositio).
This is my father, John (direct address). What's that? (different emotional meanings). What's that?

The functions of other intonation components. The other components of intonation are rhythm, pause, timbre of voice and tempo of speech which have their specific functions.

Timbre determines the quality of voice: it may be emotional and normal and helps to shape the meaning of a sentence. The sentence I saw my friend yesterday. May be pronounced in different timbre of voice to express different meanings.

Rhythm does not exist independently, but is connected with all other components of intonation. Rhythm is defined as the regular alternation of stressed and unstressed syllables in a sentence or a word.

Tempo (or rate) of speech which may be normal, slow and quick functions together with rhythm and other components of intonation. Tempo and rhythm are inseparable and function together to express a speaker's emotions, and underline the semantic importance of different parts of a sentence and sense groups.

Sometimes the meaning of a sentence may defend on different pausation, e.g.

You know it all right. You know it all right.

Emphatic intonation. Emotional means of intonation express a speaker's attitude towards the facts in question his feelings, emotions and moods. Sentence pronounced with emphatic intonation besides the general meaning, have an implication. The emotional meaning is super - imposed on the general meaning of the sentence, through intonation.

Emotional means of intonation are variable. They include different variations of melody, sentence stress, tempo, especially timbre.

In emotional coloring of a phrase some of these components of intonation become phonologically relevant and others - non - relevant. Thus, the distinctive function of intonation contributes to its phono stylistic function.

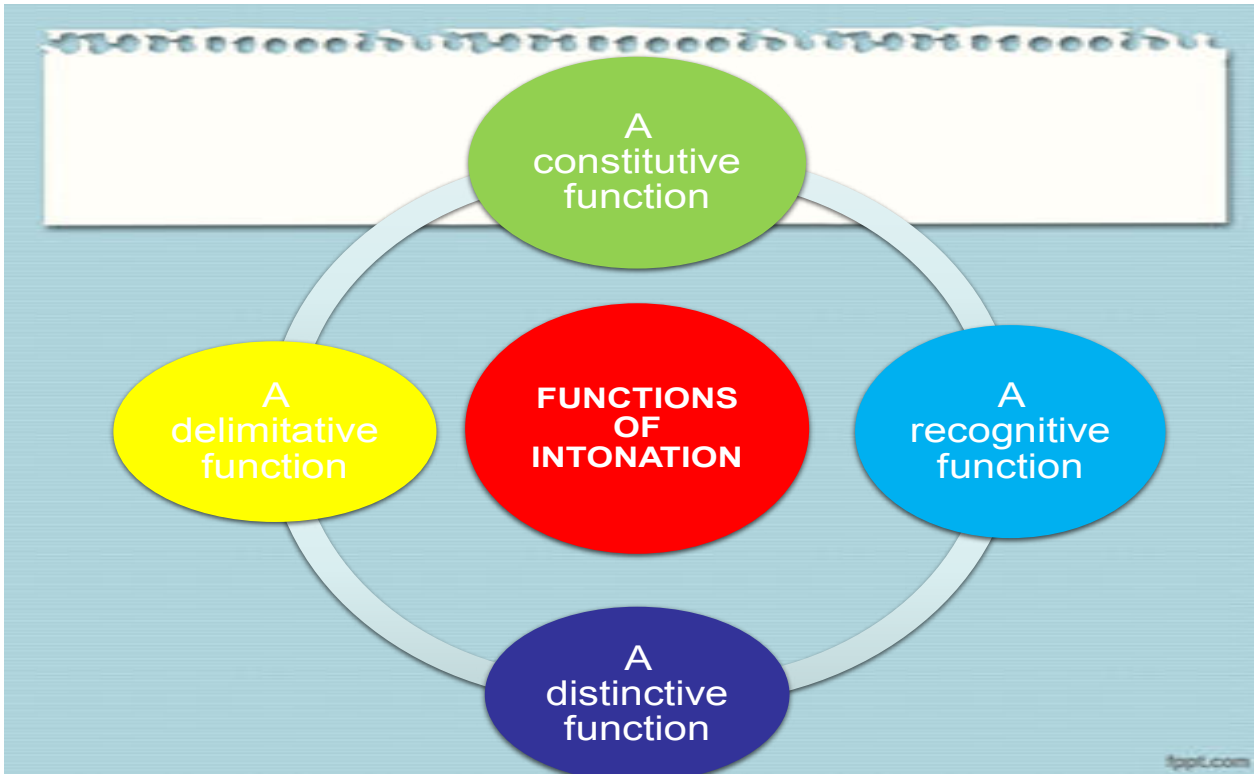
The tones used in emphatic speech are: emphatic falling tone, fall rise, rise - fall, rise - fall - rise. Their usage depends on the communicative types of sentence in which they occur. The ascending and scendent scales are also used in emphatic intonation. Higher or lower pitch levels of sense groups and wider or narrower pitch ranges are often used in emphatic intonation, i.e.

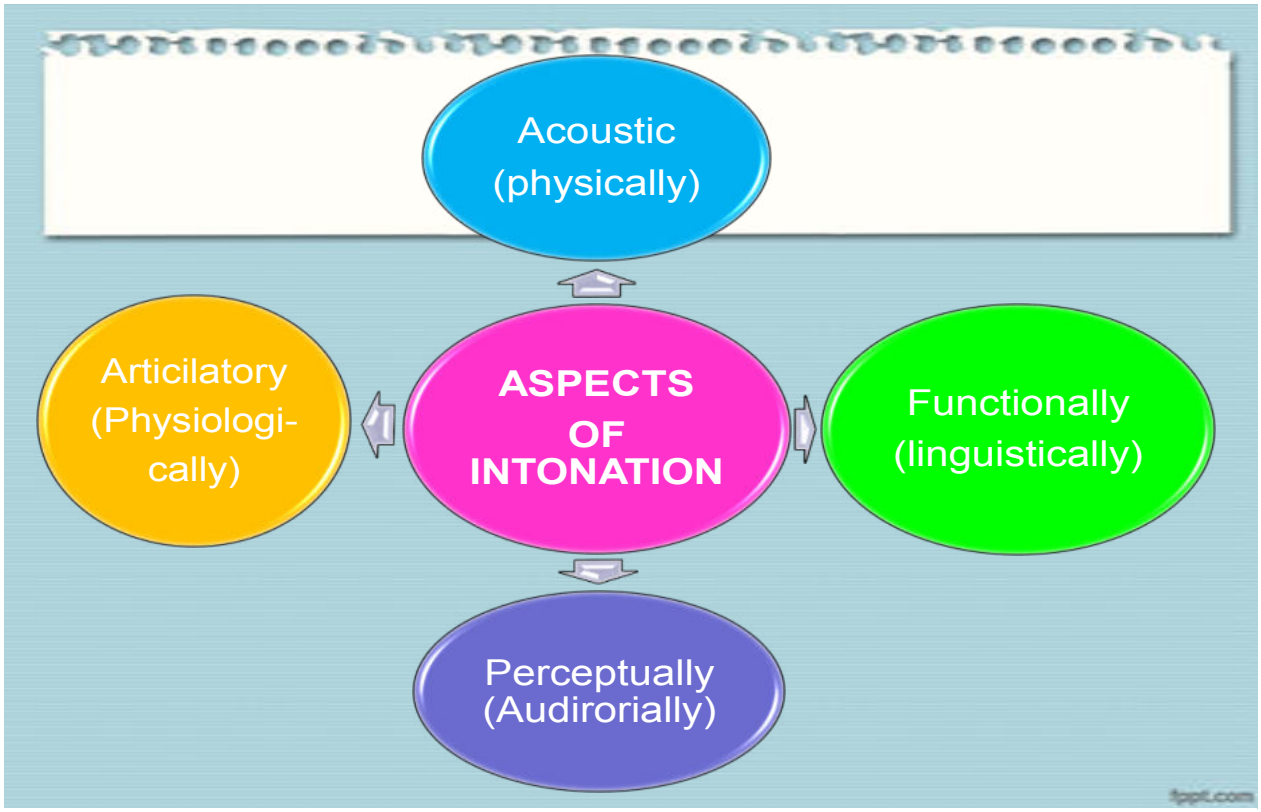
What a wonderful day!

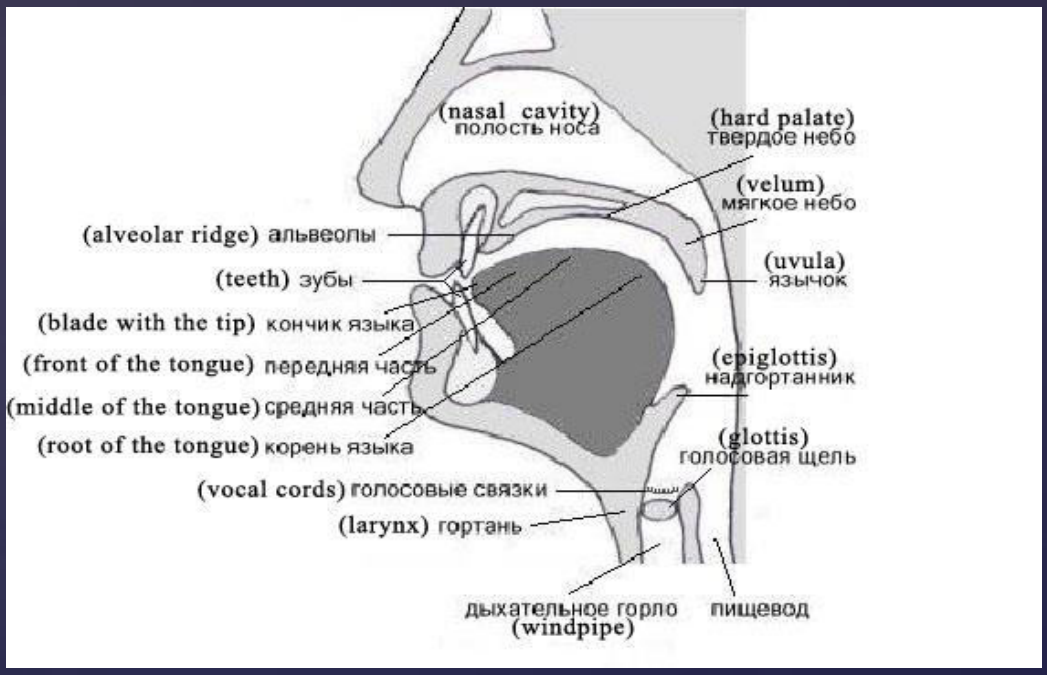
Emphatic intonation may be used when special and general questions are repeated. The unstressed syllables start rising immediately after the fall When does she live?

Lowering the pitch - level often serves to express hopelessness, disappointment, sadness, aversion etc., but it may express admiration as well It froze and froze.

There may be some other extra linguistic factors relevant in emotional speech. Thus, emphatic intonation is regarded one of the features existing in emotional speech.

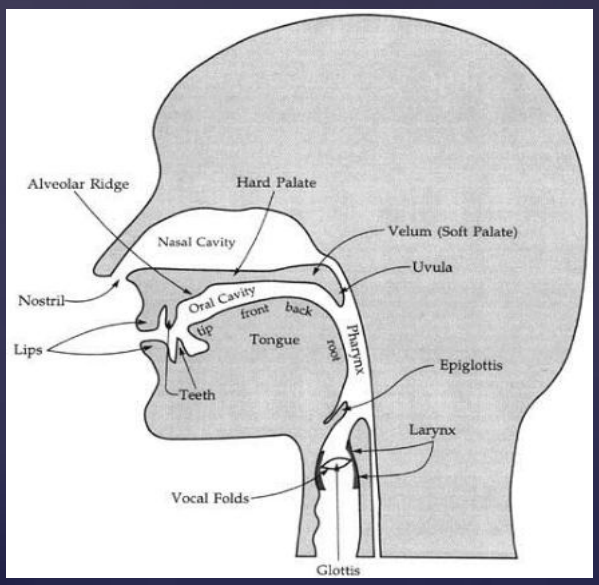






Some extra help =)

Articulatory Apparatus



Active Organs of Speech
(movable articulators)

Passive Organs of Speech
(fixed articulators)

Cavities (= Spaces)
- Nasal
- Oral (mouth)
- Pharynx
- larynx

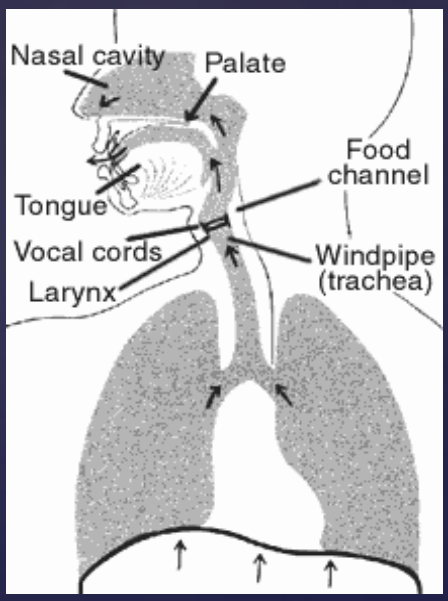
How Speech Sounds are Made

Air comes up from the lungs…

… goes through oral and/or nasal cavity…

… vocal cords either vibrate or do not vibrate as air comes our

…as air goes out, various articulators assume different positions to make different vowel and consonant sounds



Questions for Discussion

1. Intonation.
2. What is speech melody?
3. What is stress in speech?
4. What is timbre?
5. What is called the tempo of speech?
6. The main function of intonation.
7. What are the pre-head, head, nucleus and tail? Illustrate with your own example.
8. How many degrees of sentence-stress do you know?
9. What is rhythm?
10. Rhythmic group. Give an example.

TESTS

1. In any language people … using their organs of speech.
A. speak
B. breathe
C. smile
D. walk

2. The palate has
A. 1 part B. 2 parts
C. 3 parts D. 4 parts

3. Find the line with bilabial consonants
A. [t, d] B. [p, b]
C. [q, s] D.[a, b]

4. The most important organ of speech is
A. The soft palate
B. The nasal cavity
C. The hard palate
D. The tongue

5. What phoneme does the stressed vowel letter refer to in the word behind?
A. [i] B. [ə:]
C. [aiə] D. [ai]

6. The movable speech organs are called
A. Passive organs of speech
B. Active organs of speech
C. Fixed organs of speech
D. a,c

7. Active organs of speech
A. Take an active part in the articulation of speech-sounds
B. Are movable
C. Serve as points
D. a, b

8. Find the wrong answer. Passive organs of speech are
A. The teeth, the teeth ridge
B. The hard palate, the walls of the resonators
C. The teeth, the lips
D. The hard palate, the teeth ridge

9. Find the word with French origin
A. Champagne B. Hair
C. House D. b, c

10. What phoneme does the stressed vowel letter refer to in the word speech?
A. [i] B. [ə:]
C. [i:] D. [ai]

11. How many consonant phonemes are there in English?
A. 20 B. 24
C. 21 D. a, b

12. Choose the right spelling to the given transcription (pay attention to the consonant phoneme) [kof]
A. Couf B. Cough
C. Café D. a, b

13. Define the type of stressed syllable in the following word: FACIAL
A. I B. II
C. III D. IV

14. What is the phoneme?
A. A unit of a language
B. The biggest unit of a language
C. The smallest undivided unit of a language
D. b, c

15. How many types of articulatory obstruction are there in English?
A. 3 B. 2
C. 4 D. 5

16. Find the word with Greek origin
A. Scholastic
B. Shore
C. Story
D. a, b

17. How many vowel phonemes are there in English?
A. 24 B. 30
C. 20 D. 22

18. Bilabial consonants are articulated by
A. The two lips
B. The blade of the tongue
C. The lower lip and upper teeth

D. a, b

19. Consonants may be voiced and voiceless according to
A. The place of articulation
B. The work of vocal cords
C. The degree of force of articulation
D. b, c

20. English voiceless consonants are
A. Lenis B. fortis
C. Labial D. a, b

21. How many plosive consonants are there in English?
A. 7 B. 8
C. 6 D. 9

22. How many affricates are there in English?
A. 3 B. 2
C. 5 D. 4

23. Choose the line in which letter "g" is pronounced like [dʒ]
A. Longing, giraffe
B. Dialogue, badge
C. Liege, encourage
D. Singer, bridge

24. Find the line with nasal sonorants
A. [ʃ, f] B. [m, n]
C. [g, k] D. b, c

25. The parts of the palate are called
A. The front palate and the back palate
B. The front palate and the central palate
C. The hard palate and the soft palate with the uvula
D. The soft palate and the central palate

26. Find the line with plosive consonants
A. [p, b] B. [tʃ, dʒ]
C. [m, n] D. a,b

27.Choose the line in which letter combination "n+consonant" is pronounced like [ŋk]
A. Ink, uncle
B. Thank, lodgings
C. Tank, younger

D. Blink, livings

28. What phoneme does the stressed vowel letter refer to in the ice?
A. [i] B. [ə:]
C. [aiə] D. [ai]

29. Define the type of stressed syllable in the following word: COPIOUS
A. I B. II
C. III D. IV

30. Choose the word in which consonant "c" is pronounced [k]
A. Scent
B. Science
C. Scene
D. Scat

31. Choose the word that doesn't have 2 variants of pronunciation
A. Neither
B. Schedule
C. Either
D. Scheme

32. Which ending is appropriate for the following verb cooked
A. [t] B. [d]
C. [id] D. a, b

33. Choose the right spelling to the given transcription (pay attention to the consonant phoneme) [fəun]
A. phone B. fone
C. found D. fauna

34. How many vowel letters are there in the English alphabet?
A. 20 B. 6
C. 15 D. 22

35. According to the character of their end vowels may be
A. short and long
B. checked and unchecked
C. tense and lax
D. short and lax

36. Choose the right spelling to the given transcription (pay attention to the consonant phoneme) [hu:m]
A. Home B. Whom
C. Who D. b, c

TESTS

1. According to their length vowels are divided into
A. Long and short B. Close and open
C. Front and back D. Front and short

2. What kind of vowels are called tense?
A. All the long vowels
B. All the short vowels
C. Those which are produced with lesser tenseness of the speech organs
D. b, c

3.Checked vowels may occur in
A. A closed syllable
B. An open syllable
C. Both in open and in closed syllables
D. a, c

4. Unchecked vowels may occur in
A. An open syllable
B. A closed syllable
C. Both in open and in closed syllables
D. No right answer

5. Choose the line in which letter "a" is pronounced like [a:]
A. Lass, calf, path B. Hath, mass, ant
C. Rather, grass, mast D. Class, sand, dance

6. Choose the line in which all the words are not subjected to common rules and they are exceptions
A. Face, age, myth B. Cyder, pity, zed
C. Said, neither, key D. Vein, cite, cake

7. What phonemes does the stressed vowel letter refer to in the word firm?
A. [i] B. [ə:]
C. [aiə] D. [a]

8. Soft reduction is when the letters … are read as [i]
A. e, i, y B. a, o, u
C. l, m, n D. a, o, y

9. Find the word with French origin
A. Genre B. Clock

C. Wise D. a, b

10. Choose the right spelling to the given transcription (pay attention to the consonant phoneme) [wail]
A. While B. Vile
C. Wine D. b, c

11. Define the type of stressed syllable in the following word: KETCHUP
A. I B. II
C. III D. IV

12. How many consonant letters are there in the English alphabet?
A. 21 B. 20
C. 24 D. 22

13. Two adjacent consonants within a word or at boundaries often influence each other in such a way that the articulation of one sound becomes similar to or even identical with the articulation of the other one. This phenomenon is called
A. Assimilation
B. Accommodation
C. Elision
D. Reduction

14. Which ending is appropriate for the following verb played
A [d] B. [t]
C. [id] D. [b, c]

15. According to the type of obstruction English consonants are divided into
A. 2 types B. 3 types
C. 4 types D. 6 types

16. Find the word with Greek origin
A. Allophone B. Box
C. Rose D. Hone

17. Choose the word in which consonant “c” is not pronounced
A. Scythe B. Scan
C. Accent D. Screen

18. What words are never reduced?
A. Modal verbs B. Demonstrative pronouns
C. Negatives D. a, c

19. Choose the right spelling to the given transcription (pay attention to the consonant phoneme) [fæt]

A. Fat B. Phat
C. Fate D. a, b

20. According to the degree of noise English consonants are divided into
A. Noise consonants and sonorants
B. Voiced and voiceless
C. Occlusive and constrictive
D. a, b

21. Define the type of stressed syllable in the following word: KIDDY
A. I B. II
C. III D. IV

22. What teeth are not very important for making speech sounds?
A. The lower teeth
B. The upper teeth
C. Both the lower and upper teeth
D. The tongue and upper teeth

23. Find the sentence where the preposition is stressed
A. What are you thinking of?
B. He is waiting for you.
C. He is standing on his head.
D. b, c

24. Choose the line of words in which all stressed vowels are pronounced like [/\]
A. Must, does, won,
B. Oven, what, come
C. Funny, upon, soda
D. Monday, alike, suppose

25. What phoneme does the stressed vowel letter refer to in the word wife?
A. [i] B. [ə:]
C. [aiə] D. [ai]

26. Choose the right spelling to the given transcription (pay attention to the consonant phoneme) [wain]
A. Wine B. Vine
C. Vein D. a, b

27. What is a diphthong?
A. A complex sound consisting of two vowel elements
B. A complex sound consisting of two consonant elements
C. A complex sound consisting of one vowel element and one consonant element
D. A complex sound consisting of three vowel elements

28. Choose the line in which the letter combination “th” is pronounced like [ð]
A. Mother, bath, father
B. These, that, mother
C. Thick, thin, with
D. Truth, depth, death

29. Find the word with French origin
A. Buffer B. Manhood
C. Phone D. a, b

30.What phoneme does the stressed vowel letter refer to in the word pilot?
A. [i] B. [ai]
C. [ə:] D. [i:]

31. Choose the line in which letter “o” is pronounced like [əu]
A. Board, could
B. Won, color
C. Both don’t
D. Roar, won’t

32. Most of the palate is
A. Hard B. Soft
C. Fixed D. a, c

33. Which ending is appropriate for the following verb stayed
A. [id] B. [t]
C. [d] D. no right answer

34. Vowels may be rounded and unrounded according to
A. The lip position
B. The degree of tenseness
C. Their length
D. no right answer

35. Assimilation may be
A. Of five degrees B. Of four degrees
C. Of three degrees D. Of two degrees

36. Progressive, regressive and double are
A. Types of accommodation
B. Degrees of assimilation
C. Types of assimilation
D. a, b

ADABIYOTLAR RO`YXATI

1. Абдуазизов А.А. Theoretical phonetics of modern English.-T., 2007
4. Васильев В.А. English phonetics. A Theoretical course.-M., 1970.
5. Веренинова Ж.Б. Фонетическая база английского языка.- М., 1996.
6. Зиндер Л.Р. Общая фонетика. -М., 1980.
7. Кантер Л.А. Системный анализ речевой интонации. м., 1988.
8. Меркулова Е.М. Introduction to phonetics.- Санкт-Петербург, 2002.
9. Соколова М.А. English phonetics. A Theoretical course.-M., 1997.
10. Торсуев Г.П. Проблемы теоретической фонетики и фонологии.—М., 1969.
11. Торсуев Г.П. Строение слога и аллофоны в английском языке. М., 1976
12. Трубецкой А.С. Основы фонологии.- М., 2002.
13. ШвейцерА.Д. Literary English in America and England.- м.,1971
14. Ходжиев Л. Лингвистик терминларниигизохлилуғатн. Т., 2-нашр, 2002,
15. Jimson A.C. An Introduction to the Pronunciation of English.-Lnd., 2001.
16. Leonteva S.F. A Theoretical Course of English,- M., 2004.
17. Jones D. An Outline of English Phonetics Cambridge. 1976.
18. Jones D Everyman's English Pronouncing Dictionary- Lnd., New. edition. 2001.
19. Shakhbagova D.A. Variety of English Pronunciation.- M., 1982.