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بسمه تعالی

نام درس: آواشناسی انگلیسی

تعداد واحد: 2

منبع: English Phonetics and Phonology

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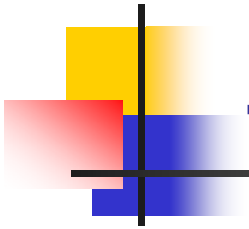
هدف درس آواشناسی زبان انگلیسی که جزء دروس اصلی رشته مترجمی زبان انگلیسی است آموزش اصول و قواعد کلی آواشناسی و واج شناسی به منظور تولید و تلفظ بهتر واژه‌های زبان انگلیسی می‌باشد. آواشناسی مطالعه آواهای زبان انگلیسی و واج‌شناسی مطالعهٔ قواعد تلفظ درست واژه‌ها است. در این درس به تعریف اندامهای فراگویی، واج‌ها، همخوانها، هجا، استرس، آهنگ پرداخته می‌شود و نیز ساختار و قواعد مربوط به آنها بررسی می‌شود.



1 Introduction

In any language we can indentify a small number of regularly used sounds (vowels and consonants) that we call phonemes;

The rest of the course goes on to look at larger units of speech such as the syllable and at aspects of speech such as stress and intonation

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 indentified by the name Received Pronunciation (usually abbreviated to its initials. RP), but this name is old-fashioned and misleading.

Since it is most familiar as the accent used by most announcers and newsreaders on BBC and British independent television broadcasting channels, a preferable name is BBC pronunciation.

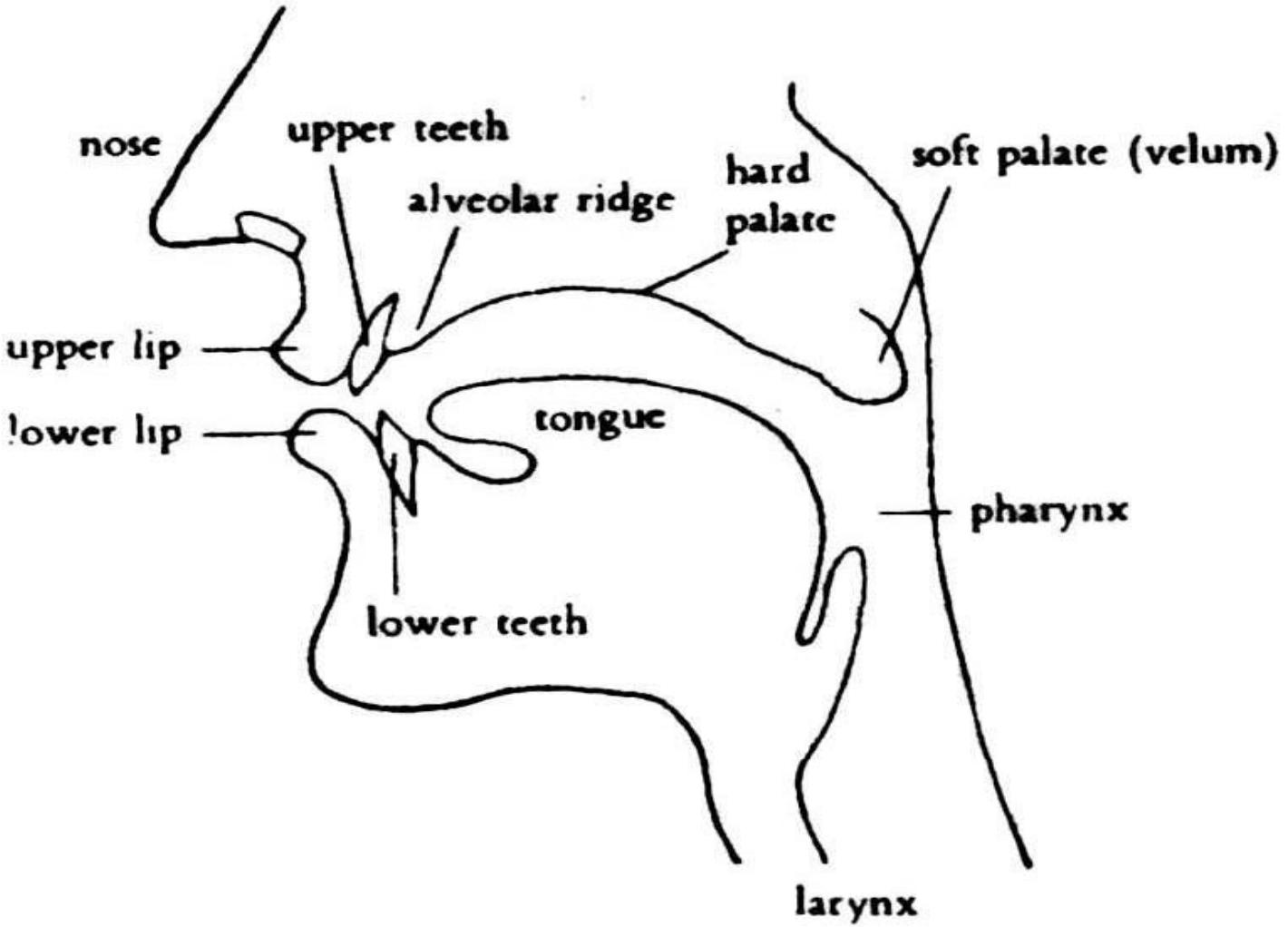
2 The production of speech sounds

2.1 Articulators above the larynx

After passing through the larynx, the air goes through the vocal tract, which ends at the mouth and nostrils.

We have a large and complex set of muscles that can produce changes in the shape of the vocal tract

These different parts are called articulators and the study of them is called ariculatory phonetics.


nose
upper teeth
alveolar ridge
hard palate
soft palate (velum)
upper lip
lower lip
tongue
pharynx
lower teeth
larynx

Articulators are as followings

i) The pharynx is a tube which begins just above the larynx. It is about 7 cm long in women and about 8 cm in men,

and at its top end it is divided into two, one part being the back of the mouth and the other being the beginning of the way through the nasal cavity.

ii) The velum or soft palate is seen in the diagram in a position that allows air to pass through the nose and through the mouth.

iii) The hard palate is often called the “roof of the mouth”. You can feel its smooth curved surface with your tongue.

iv) The alveolar ridge is between the top

front teeth and the hard palate. You can feel its shape with your tongue. Its surface is really much rougher than it feels and is covered with little ridges.

Sounds made with the tongue touching here (such as t and d) are called alveolar

v) The tongue is, of course, a very important articulator and it can

be moved into many different places and different shapes.

tongue on a larger scale with these parts shown: tip, blade, front, back and root.

vi) The teeth (upper and lower) are usually shown in diagrams like fig.1 only at the front of the mouth, immediately behind the lips.

Sounds made with the tongue touching the front teeth are called dental.

vii) The lips are important in speech. They can be pressed together (when we produce the sounds p, b),

brought into contact with the teeth (as in f, v) or rounded to produce the lip-shape for vowels like u:. Sounds in which the lips are in contact

With each other are called bilabial, while those with lip-to-teeth contact are called labiodental.

The seven articulators described above are the main ones used in speech,

but there are three other things to remember firstly, the larynx could also be described as an articulator

Secondly, the jaw are sometimes called articulators

Finally, although there is practically nothing that we can do with the nose and the nasal cavity, they are a very important part of our equipment for making sounds

2.2 Vowel and consonant

Vowels are sounds in which there is no obstruction to the flow of air as it passes from the larynx to the lips.

Looking at the different contexts and positions in which particular sounds can occur; this is the study of the distribution of the sounds, and is of great importance in phonology.

Study of the sounds found at the beginning and end of English words has shown that two groups of sounds with quite different patterns of distribution can be identified

and these two groups are those of vowel and consonant.

We must say that the most important difference between vowel and consonant is not the way, but their different distributions.

We need to know in what ways vowels differ from each other. The first matter to consider is the shape and position of the tongue.

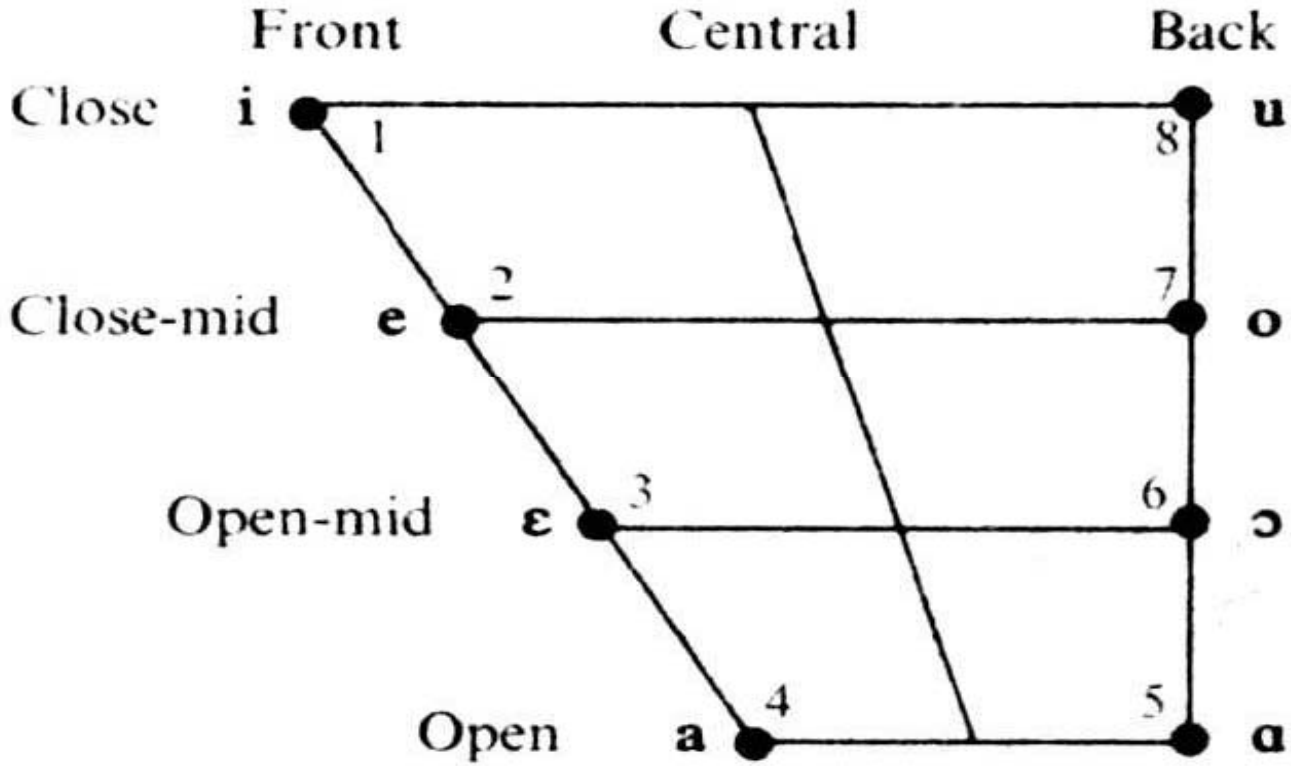
It is usual to simplify the very complex possibilities by describing just two things: firstly, the vertical distance between the upper surface of the tongue and the palate and

secondly, the part of the tongue, between front and back, which is raised highest.

We have seen how four vowels differ from each other

	Front	Back
Close	i:	u:
Open	æ:	*ɑ:*

These cardinal vowels are a standard reference system.



Altough the lips can have many different shapes and positions. We will at this stage consider only three possibilities. These are:

i) Rounded, where the corners or the lips

are brought towards each other and the lips pushed forwards. This is most clearly seen in cardinal vowel no.8 [u].

ii) Spread, with the corners of the lips

moved away from each other, as for a smile. This is most clearly seen in cardinal vowel no.1 [i].

iii) Neutral, where the lips are not noticeably rounded or spread.

2.3 English short vowels

The symbols for these short vowels are: ɪ, e, æ, ʌ, ɒ, ʊ. Short vowels are only relatively short; Each vowel is described in relation to the cardinal vowels.

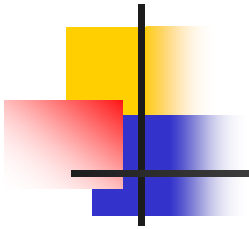
ɪ (example words: ‘bit’, ‘pin’, ‘fish’)

e (example words: ‘bet’, ‘men’, ‘yes’)

æ (example words: ‘bat’, ‘man’, ‘gas’)

ʌ (example words: ‘but’, ‘some’, ‘rush’)

ɒ (example words: ‘pot’, ‘gone’, ‘cross’)



ʊ (example words: ‘put’, ‘pull’, ‘push’)

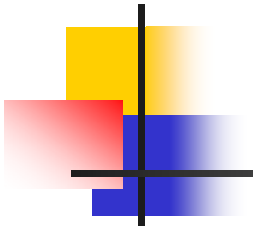
There is one other short vowel. For which the symbol is ə. This central vowel – which is called shwa – is a very familiar sound in English.

3 long vowels, diphthongs

3.1 Long and short vowels

To remind you that these vowels tend to be long, the symbols consist of one vowel symbol.

Plus a length mark made of two dots :. Thus we have: i:, ɜ:, *ɑ*:, o:, u:, will now look at each of these long vowels individually



i: (example words: ‘beat’, ‘mean’, ‘peace’)

ɜ: (example words: ‘bird’, ‘fern’, purse’)

ɑ: (example words: ‘card’, ‘half’, ‘pass’)

o: (example words: ‘board’, ‘torn’, ‘horse’)

u: (example words: ‘food’, ‘soon’, ‘loose’)

3.2 Diphthongs

BBC pronunciation has a large number of diphthongs, sounds which consist of a movement or glide from one vowel to another. A vowel which remains constant and does

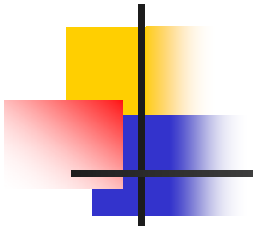
not glide is called a pure vowel

ɪə (example words: ‘beard’, ‘Ian’, ‘fierce’)

eə (example words: ‘aired’, ‘cairn’, ‘scarce’)

ʊə (example words: ‘moored’, ‘tour’)

eɪ (example words: ‘paid’, ‘pain’, ‘face’)



aɪ (example words: ‘tide’, ‘time’, ‘nice’)

oɪ (example words: ‘void’, ‘loin’, ‘voice’)

əʊ (example words: ‘load’, ‘home’, ‘most’)

aʊ (example words: ‘loud’, ‘gown’, ‘house’)

3.3 Triphthongs

A triphthong is a glide from one vowel to another and then to a third, all produced rapidly and without interruption.

The triphthongs can be looked on

as being composed of the five closing diphthongs described in the last section, with ə added on the end. Thus we get:

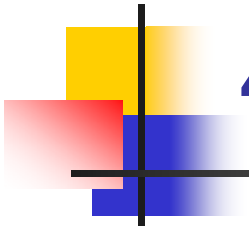
eɪ + ə = eɪə

aɪ + ə = aɪə

ɔɪ + ə = ɔɪə

əʊ + ə = əʊə

aʊ + ə = aʊə



4 voicing and consonants

4.1 The larynx

We begin this chapter by studying the larynx. The larynx has several very important functions in speech.

Its main structure is made of cartilage.

Inside the “box” made by these two cartilages are the vocal folds, which are two thick flaps of muscle rather like a pair of lips; an older is vocal cords.

We use the word glottis to refer to the opening between the vocal folds. If the vocal folds are apart we say that the glottis is open.

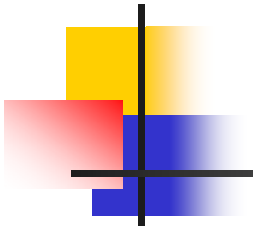
If they are pressed together we say that the glottis is closed.

i) Wide apart: The vocal folds are wide apart for normal breathing and usually during voiceless consonants like p, f, s

ii) Narrow glottis: If air is passed through the glottis when it is narrowed, the result is a fricative sound for which the symbol is h: a voiceless glottal fricative.

iii) Position for vocal fold vibration: When the edges of the vocal folds are touching each other, air passing through the glottis will usually cause vibration

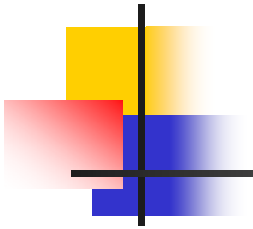
iv) Vocal folds tightly closed: The vocal folds can be firmly pressed together so that air cannot pass between them. When this happens in speech we call it a glottal stop



or glottal plosive, for which we use the symbol?

4.2 Respiration and voicing

When air is made to move out of the lungs that there is an egressive pulmonic airstream.



If the vocal folds vibrate we will hear the sound that we call voicing or phonation.

The pressure of the air below the vocal folds (the subglottal pressure) can also

be varied. Three main differences are found:

i) Variations in intensity, ii) Variations in frequency, iii) Variations in quality

4.3 Plosives

A plosive is a consonant articulation with

the following characteristics:

One articulator is moved against another to form a stricture

After this stricture has been formed and air has been compressed behind it; it is released.

The escape of air will produce noise loud enough to be heard. This noise is called plosion.

There may be voicing during part or all of the plosive articulation.

i) The first phase is when the articulator or articulators move to form the stricture for the plosive. We call this the closing phase.

ii) The second phase is when the compressed air is stopped from escaping. We call this the compression phase.

iii) The third phase is when the articulators used

To form the stricture are moved so as to allow air to escape. This is the release phase.

iv) The fourth phase is what happens immediately after (iii).

4.4 English plosives

English has six plosive consonants: p, t, k, b, d, g.

All six plosives can occur at the beginning of a word (initial position), between other sounds (medial position) and at the end of a word (final position).

4.5 Fortis and lenis

The voiceless plosives p, t, k are sometimes called fortis (meaning ‘strong’) and b, d, g are then called lenis (meaning ‘weak’).

5 The phoneme

When we speak, we produce a continuous stream of sounds. In studying speech we divide this stream into small pieces that we call segments.

There is an abstract set of units as the basis of our speech. These units are called phonemes, and the complete set of these units is phonemic system of the language.

The b at the beginning of a word such as ‘bad’ will usually be pronounced with practically no voicing. Sometimes, a speaker may produce the b with full voicing, in speaking emphatically.

If this is done, the sound is still identified as the phoneme b, even though we can hear that it is different in some way. We have in this example two

Different ways of making b – two different realisations of the phoneme. One can be substituted for the other without changing the meaning.

When we find this strict separation of places

Where particular realisations can occur, we say that the realisations are in complementary distribution.

When we talk about different realisations of phonemes, we sometimes call these realisations allophones.

Basically the symbols are for one of two puposes: either they are symbols for phonemes (phonemic or phoneme symbols) or they are phonetic symbols

One of the traditional exercises in pronunciation teaching by phonetic methods is that of

Phonemic transcription, where every speech sound must be indentified as one of the phonemes and written with the appropriate symbol. There are two different kinds of transcription exercise:

in one, transcription from dictation, the student must listen to a person – or a tape – recording – and write down what they hear; in the other, transcription from a written text.

The student is given a passage of dialogue written in orthography and must use phonemic symbols to represent how she or he thinks it would be pronounced by a speaker of a particular accent

Diacritics, marks which modify the symbol in some way; for example, the symbol for cardinal vowel no. 4 [a] may be modified by putting two dots above it.

Such a transcription would be called a phonetic transcription; a phonetic transcription containing a lot of information about the exact quality of the sounds would be called a narrow phonetic transcription,

While one which only included a little more information than a phonemic transcription would be called a broad phonetic transcription.

When, we study the abstract side of the sounds of language

we are studying a related but different subject that we call phonology.

6 Fricatives and affricates

6.1 Production of fricatives and affricates

Fricatives are consonants with the characteristic that, when they are produced, air escapes through a small passage and makes a hissing sound.

Affricates are rather complex consonants. They begin as plosives and end as fricatives.

The fortis fricatives have the effect of shortening a preceding vowel, as do fortis plosives.

Phonologically, h is a consonant. It is usually found before vowels. When hoccurs between voiced sounds, it is pronounced with voicing called breathy voice.

Most American and Scottish speakers, produce a voiceless fricative with the same lip, tongue and jaw position as w.

The phonetic symbol for this voiceless fricative is ʃ.

tʃ, dʒ are the only two affricate phonemes in English.

p, t, k may be followed not by a vowel

but by one of l, r, j, w. these voiced continuant aonsonants undergo a similar process: they lose their voicing. So words like ‘play’ plel, ‘tray’ trel, ‘quick’ kwlk contain devoiced l, r, w,

7 Nasals and other consonants

7.1 Nasals

The basic characteristic of a nasal consonant is that the air escapes through the nose.

We will now look at some ways in

which the distribution of ŋ is usual.

i) In initial position we find m and n occurring freely, but ŋ never occurs in this position.

ii) Medially, ŋ occurs quite frequently

iii) A third way in which the distribution of ŋ is unusual is the small number of vowels it is found to follow,

It never occurs after a diphthong or long vowel, and in fact there are only five vowels ever found preceding this consonant: I, e, æ, Λ and D.

7.2 The consonant 1

A lateral consonant is one in which the passage of air through the mouth does not go in the usual way along the centre of the tongue;

7.3 The consonant r

This consonant is a post-alveolar approximant.

The tongue is slightly curled backwards with the tip raised; consonants with this tongue shape are called retroflex.

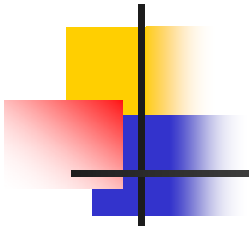
7.4 The consonants j and w

The most important thing to remember about these phonemes is that they are phonetically like vowels but phonologically like consonants

		Place of articulation							
		Bilabial	Labiodental	Dental	Alveolar	Palato-alveolar (Post-alveolar)	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Manner of articulation	Plosive	p b			t d			k g	
	Fricative		f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ			h
	Affricate					tʃ dʒ			
	Nasal	m			n			ŋ	
	Lateral				l				
	Approximant	w				r	j		

8 The syllable

Phonetically 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 there will be greater obstruction to airflow and/or less loud sound.

i) What we might call a minimum syllable would be a single vowel in isolation

The study of the possible phoneme combinations of a language is called phonotactics.

If the first syllable of the word in question begins with a vowel we say that this

Initial syllable has a zero onset.

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’ stI ŋ, ‘sway’ swel, ‘smoke’ sməυk.

These clusters are shown in table

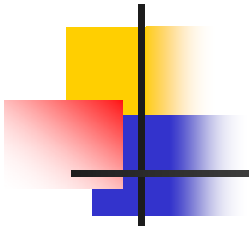
Pre-initial		Initial																	
s *plus*	p	t	k	b	d	g	f	θ	s	ʃ	h	v	ð	z	ʒ	m	n	ŋ
	spɪn	stɪk	skɪn	–	–	–	sfrə	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	smel	snəʊ	–

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:.

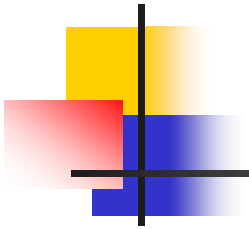
We call the first consonant of these clusters the initial consonant and the second the post-initial.

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, r, w, j. there are two sorts of two-consonant final cluster,

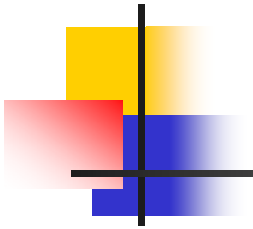


One being a final consonant preceded by a pre-final consonant and the other a consonants form a small set: m, n, ŋ, l, s. we can see these in ‘bump’



bʌmp, ‘bent’ bent, ‘bank’ bæ ŋk, ‘belt’ belt, ‘ask’ a:sk. The post-final consonants also form a small set: s, z, t, d, θ; example words are: ‘belts’ bets.

There are two types of final three-consonant cluster; the first is prefinal plus final plus post-final, as set out in the following table:



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

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

9 Strong and weak syllables

When we compare weak syllables with strong, syllables, we find the vowel in a weak syllable tends to be shorter, of lower intensity and different in quality.

Any strong syllable will have as its peak one of the vowel phonemes (or possibly a triphthong) listed in chapter 3, but not ə, i or u

It the vowel is short, then the strong syllable will always have a coda as well

At the end of a word, we may have a weak syllable ending

with a vowel (i.e. with no coda):

i) The vowel ə

ii) A close front unrounded vowel in the general area of i: and I (symbolised i);

iii) A close back rounded vowel in the general area of u: and ʊ (symbolised u).

We also find weak syllables in word-final position with a coda if the vowel is ə.

We have ə in following cases:

i) Spelt with ‘a’; strong pronunciation would have æ ‘attend’ ətend

ii) Spelt with ‘ar’; strong pronunciation would have *ɑ*: ‘particular’ pətIkjələ

iii) Adjectival endings spelt ‘ate’; strong pronunciation would have eI

‘intimate’ intitImət

iv) Spelt with ‘o’; strong pronunciation would have D or əʊ ‘tomorrow’ təmDrəʊ

v) Spelt with ‘or’; strong pronunciation would have o: ‘forget’ fəget

vi) Spelt with ‘e’; strong pronunciation would have e ‘settlement’ setlmənt

vii) Spelt with ‘er’; strong pronunciation would have ɜ: ‘perhaps’ pəhæps

viii) Spelt with ‘u’; strong pronunciation would have ʌ ‘Autumn’ o:təm

ix) Spelt with ‘ough’ ‘through’ θʌrə

ix) Splet with ‘ou’; strong pronunciation might have aʊ ‘gracious’ greɪʃəs

Syllabic consonants:

In this case, a consonant, either l, r or a nasal, stands as the peak of the syllable instead of the vowel.

Syllabic l is perhaps the most noticeable

Example of the English syllabic consonants

The l is a “dark l”

The most obvious case is where we have a word ending with one or more consonant letters

followed by ‘le’. Example are:

i) With alveolar consonant preceding

‘cattle’ kætl

ii) With non-alveolar consonant preceding

‘couple’ kʌpl

Syllabic n is most common after alveolar plosives and fricatives

Syllabics m, ŋ:

Both can occur as syllabic, but only as a result of processes such as assimilation and elision

In words like ‘happens’, which can be pronounced hæpm.

10 stress in simple words

From the perceptual point of view, all stressed syllables have one characteristic in common, and that is prominence.

At least four different factors are important:

Length, loudness, quality, pitch

We have four levels of stress: primary, secondary, tertiary and fourth level.

Stress of two-syllable words

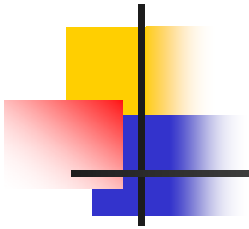
Here the choice is still simple:

either the first or the second syllable will be stressed – not both. We will look first at verbs. The basic rule is that if the second syllable of the verb is

a strong syllable, then that second syllable is stressed.

‘apply’ ə’plaɪ

If the final syllable is weak, then the first syllable is stressed. Thus: ‘enter’ ‘entə



Two-syllable simple adjectives are stressed according to the same rule, giving: ‘lovely’ ‘lʌvli

Nouns require a different rule: if the second syllable contains a short vowel, then the stress will usually

Come on the first syllable. Otherwise it will be on the second syllable.

‘money’ ‘mʌni

Other two-syllable words such as adverbs and prepositions seem to behave like verbs and adjectives.

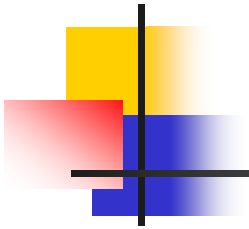
Three-syllable words:

Here we find a more complicated picture, In verbs, if the final syllable is strong, then it will be stressed. Thus: ‘entertain’ entə’tein. If the last syllable is weak

then it will be unstressed, and stress will be placed on the preceding (penultimate) syllable if that syllable is strong. Thus:

‘encounter’ ɪŋkaʊntə

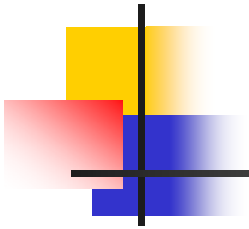
If both the second and third syllable are weak,



then the stress falls on the initial syllable:

‘parody’ pærədi

Nouns require a slightly different rule. Here, if the final syllable is weak, or ends with əʊ, then it is unstressed;



if the syllable preceding this final syllable is strong, then that middle syllable will be stressed. Thus: ‘mimosa’ mɪ’məʊzə

If the second and third syllables are both weak,

then the first syllable is stressed:

‘quantity’ ‘kwɒntəti

However, three-syllable simple nouns are different. Even if the final syllable is strong, the stress will usually be placed on the first syllable.

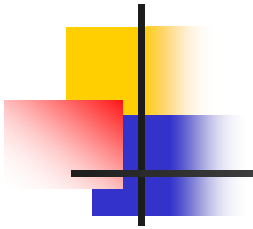
11 complex word stress

Affixes have one of three possible effects on word stress:

i) The affix itself receives the primary stress (e.g. ‘semi-’ + ‘circle’ ‘sɜ:kl → ‘semicircle’ ‘semɪsɜ:kl;

ii) The word is stressed just as if the affix were not there (e.g. ‘pleasant’ ‘plezn t, ‘unpleasant’ ʌn’plezn t;

iii) The stress remains on the stem, not the affix



but is shifted to a different syllable (e.g. ‘magnet’ ‘mægnət, ‘magnetic’ mæg’netɪk).

11.4 Compound words:

The most familiar type of compound is the one which combines two nouns and

Which normally has the stress on the first element, as in: ‘typewriter’ ‘taɪpraɪtə

Compounds with an adjectival first element and the –ed morpheme at the end have this pattern

bad-’tempered

Compound in which the first element is a number in some form also tend to have final stress: three-’wheeler

Compounds functioning as adverbs are usually final-stressed: head-’first

Finally, compounds which function as verbs and have an adverbial first element take final stress: down-’grade

12 weak forms

Almost all the words which have both a strong and weak form belong to a category that may be called function words

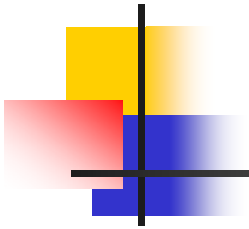
There are some fairly simple rules; we can say that the strong form is used in the following cases:

i) For many weak-form words, when they occur

at the end of a sentence; for example, the word ‘of’ has the weak form əv in the following sentence:

‘I’m fond of chips’ aɪm ‘fɒnd əv ‘tʃɪps

When it

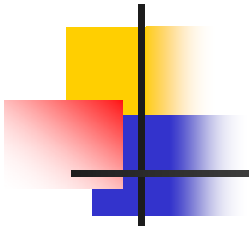


comes at the end of the sentence, as in the following example, it has the strong form DV:

‘chips are what I’m fond of’ ‘tʃɪps ə ‘wDt aɪm ‘fDnd DV

ii) When a weak-form word is being contrasted with another word; for example:

‘the letter’s from him, not to him’ ðə ‘letəz ‘frDm Im nDt ‘tu: Im



A similar case is what we might call a co-ordinated use of prepositions:

‘I travel to and from London a lot’ aI ‘trævl ‘tu: ən ‘frɒm ‘lʌndən ə ‘lɒt

iii) When a weak-form word is given stress for the purpose of emphasis; for example:

‘You must give me more money’ ju ‘mʌst ‘gɪv mi ‘mo: ‘mʌni

iv) When a weak-form word is being “cited” or “quoted”; for example:

You shouldn’t put “and” at the end of a sentence

Ju ‘ʃʊdnt pʊt ‘ænd ət ði ‘end əv ə ‘sentəns

Common weak-form words will be introduced.

1 ‘the’

Weak forms: ðə (before consonants)

ði (before vowels)

2 ‘a’, ‘an’

Weak forms: ə (before consonants)

ən (before vowels)

3 ‘and’

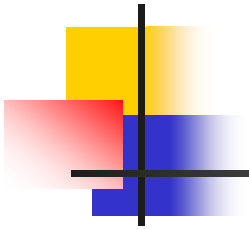
Weak form: ən (sometimes n after t, d, s, z, ʃ)

4 ‘but’

Weak form: bət

5 ‘that’

This word only has a weak form when used in a relative clause;



6 ‘than’

Weak form: ðən

7 ‘his’ (when it occurs before a noun)

Weak form: ɪz (hɪz at the beginning of a sentence)

8 ‘her’

When used with possessive sense, preceding a noun;

Weak forms: ə (before consonants)

ər (before vowels)

9 ‘your’

Weak forms: jə (before consonants)

jər (before vowels)

10 ‘she’, ‘he’, ‘we’, ‘you’

Weak forms:

a) ‘she’ ʃI b) ‘he’ i

c) ‘we’ wi

d) ‘you’ ju

11 ‘him’. Weak form: ɪm

12 ‘her’. Weak form: ə

13 ‘them’. Weak form: ðəm

14 ‘us’. Weak form: əs

15 ‘at’. Weak form: ət

In final position: æt

16 ‘for’. Weak form: fə (before consonants)

fər (before vowels)

In final position: fo:

17 ‘from’. Weak form: frəm

In final position: frɒm

18 ‘of’. Weak form: əv

In final position: DV

19 ‘to’. Weak forms: tə (before consonants), tu (before vowels)

In final position: tu

20 ‘as’. Weak form: əz. In final position: æz

21 ‘there’

Weak forms: ðə (before consonants)

22 ‘can’, ‘could’

Weak forms: kən, kəd

In final position: kæn, kʊd

23 ‘have’, ‘has’, ‘had’

Weak forms: əv, əz, əd

In final position: hæv, hæz, hæd

24 ‘shall’, ‘should’

Weak forms: ʃəl or ʃl; ʃəd

In final position: ʃæl, ʃʊd

25 ‘must’

Weak forms: məs (before consonants)

məst (before vowels)

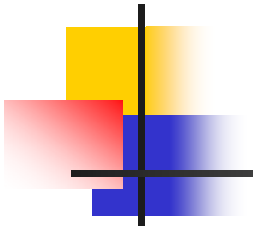
In final position: mʌst

13 Problems in phonemic analysis

13.1 It is possible that we consider affricates as one-phoneme or two phonemes.

13.2 The English vowel system

There are different ways of doing



this: one way is to treat long vowels and diphthongs as composed of two vowel phonemes.

ıı(i:) ææ (*a*:) DD (o:) ʊʊ (u:) əə (3:)

Another way of doing this kind of analysis is to treat long

Vowels and diphthongs as composed of a vowel plus a consonant;

ej (eɪ) əw (əʊ) ɪh (ɪə) æj (aɪ) æw (aʊ) eh (eə)

ɒj (oɪ) ʊh (ʊə)

Long vowels:

ɪj (i:) æh (*a*:) ɒh (o:) əh (3:) ʊw(u:)

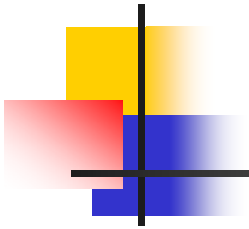
13.3 Clusters of s plus plosives

Contrasts between p and b, between t and d and between k and g are neutralised in this context.

13.4 Schwa (ə)

It has been suggested that here is not really a contrast between ə and ʌ, since ə only occurs in weak syllables and

no minimal pairs can be found to show a clear contrast between ʌ and ə in unstressed syllables



13.5 Distinctive features

One approach that has been given a lot of importance is distinctive feature analysis, which is based on the principle that phonemes should be regarded not

As independent and indivisible units, but instead as combinations of different features.

14 Aspects of connected speech

14.1 Rhythm

The notion of rhythm involves some noticeable event happening at regular intervals of time. The theory that English has stress-timed rhythm implies

That stressed syllables will tend to occur at relatively regular intervals whether they are separated by unstressed syllables or not; Some languages have a different rhythmical structure

Called syllable-timed rhythm; in these languages, all syllables, whether stressed or unstressed, tend to occur at regular time-intervals and the time between stressed syllables will be shorter or longer

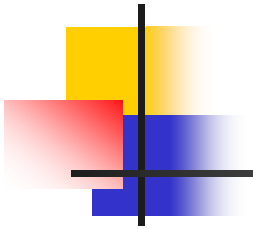
a unit of rhythm, is foot.

Foot begins with a stressed syllable and includes all following unstressed syllables up to the following stressed syllable.

A diagram of its rhythmical structure

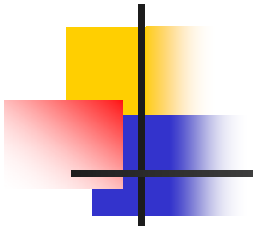
Can be made, where s stands for “strong” and w stands for “weak”.

In cases where we find a phoneme realised differently as a result of being near



some other phoneme belonging to a neighbouring word we call this an instance of assimilation.

If C^f changes to become like C^i in some way, then the assimilation is called regressive



if C^i changes to become like C^f in some way, then the assimilation is called progressive.

Assimilation of place-meat pie → mi: p pal

Asssimilation of manner: good night → gunnalt

Assimilation of voice: cats → kætz

The nature of elision may be stated quite simply: under certain circumstances sounds disppear; in more technical language by saying that in certain circumstances a phoneme

May be realised as zero, or have zero realisation or be deleted

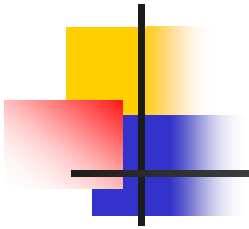
i) Loss of weak vowel after p, t, k. ‘potato’

ii) Weak vowel + n, l or r becomes syllabic. ‘tonight’

Linking:

The most familiar case is the use of linking r;

BBC speakers often use r in a similar way to link words ending with a vowel,



Even when there is no “justification” from the spelling, as in:

‘Formula A’ fo:mjələr eɪ

“Linking” and “intrusive r” are special cases of juncture; If we take the two words ‘my turn’ maɪ t3:n,

The relationship between m and aɪ, between t and ɜ: and between ɜ: and n is said to be one of close juncture. The sound m is preceded by silence

And n is followed by silence, and so m and n are said to be in a position of external open juncture.

15 Intonation 1

What is intonation? No definition is completely satisfactory, but any attempt at a difinition must recognise that the pitch of the voice plays the most important part.

The word we use for the overall behaviour of the pitch is tone; a one-syllable word can be said with either a level tone or a moving tone.

If English speakers want to say ‘yes’ or ‘no’ in a difinite, final manner they will probably use a falling tone one which descends from a higher to a lower pitch.

If they want to say ‘yes?’ or ‘no?’ in a questioning manner they may say it with a rising tone- a movement from a lower pitch to a higher one.

Some functions of English tones

Fall, yes, no:

This is the tone about which least needs to be said, and which is usually regarded as more or less “neutral”

Rise, yes, no:

In a variety of ways, this tone conveys an impression that something more is to follow;

A (wishing to attract B’s attention): Excuse me.

B yes

Fall-rise, yes, no:

We will only consider one fairly simple one, which could perhaps be described as “limited agreement” or “response with reservations”.

A: I’ve heard that it’s a good school.

B: yes

Rise-fall yes, no:

This is used to convey rather strong feelings of approval, disapproval or surprise.

A: You wouldn’t do an awful thing like that, would you?

B: no

Level yes, no:

It almost always conveys (on single-syllable utterances) a feeling of saying something routine, uninteresting or boring.

16 Intonation 2

In ‘tone languages”, substituting one distinctive tone for another on a particular word or morpheme can cause a change in the dictionary (“lexical”) meaning of that word

or morpheme, or in some aspect of its grammatical categorisation.

A syllable which carries a tone will be called a tonic syllable.

A tonic syllable not only carries a tone

but also a type of stress that will be called tonic stress. (some writers use the terms nucleus and nuclear stress for tonic syllable and tonic stress).

Consider the folloing one-syllable utterance:

Those

We can find the same tonic syllable in a long utterance (still of one tone-unit):

Give me those

The rest of the tone-unit in this example is called the head.

The pre-head is composed of all the unstressed syllables in a tone-unit preceding the first stressed syllable.

Any syllable between the tonic syllable and the end of the tone-unit are called the tail.

We can summarise tone-unit structure as follows:

(pre-head) (head) tonic syllable (tail)

or, more briefly, as:

(PH) (H) TS (T)

17 Intonation 3

17.1 Fall-rise and rise-fall tones followed by a tail

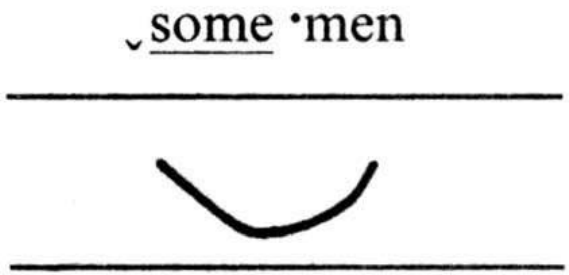
Fall-rise and rise-fall tones, however, can be quite difficult to recognise when

they are extended ver tails since their characteristic pitch movements are often broken up or distorted by the structure of the syllables they occur on.

For example, the pitch movement on ‘some’ will be something like this:

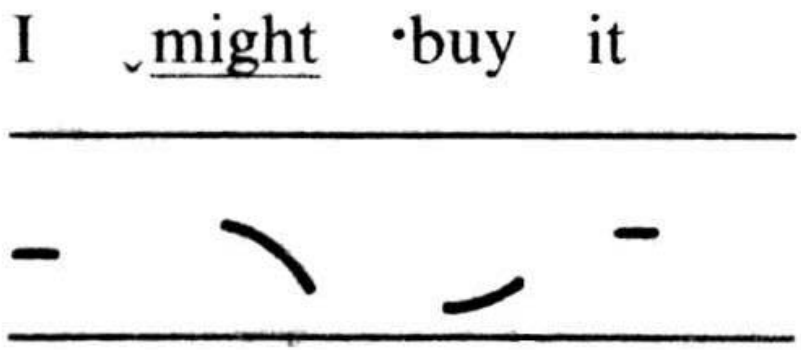
If we add a syllable, the “fall” part of the fall-rise is usually carried by the first syllable and

The “rise” part by the second.

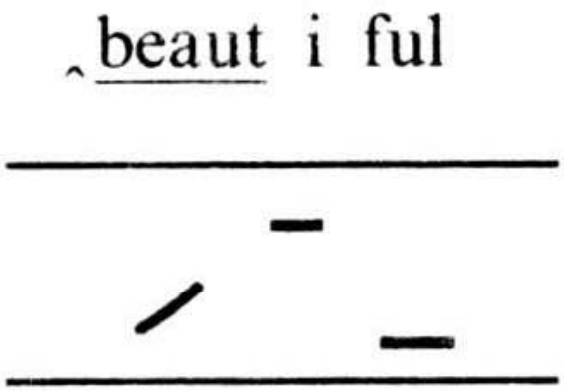


If there is a tail of two or more syllables, the normal pitch movement is for the pitch to fall on the tonic syllable.

and to remain low until the last stressed syllable in the tail the pitch then rises from that point up to the end of the tone-unit.



When there are two or more syllables in the tail, the syllable immediately following the tonic syllable is always higher and any following syllables are low.

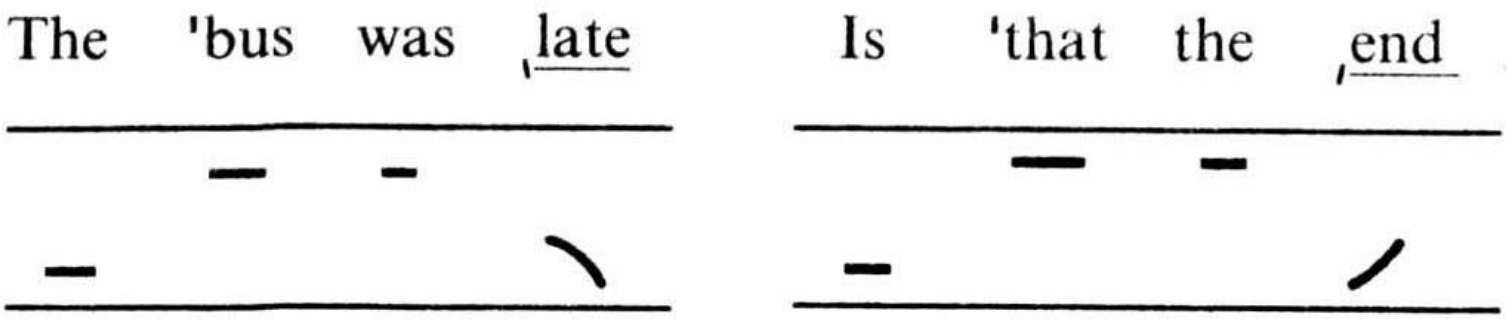


17.2 High and low heads

We can identify different pitch possibilities in the head, although these are limited to two which we will call high head and low head.

In the case of the high head, the stressed syllable which begins the head is high in pitch; usually it is higher than the beginning pitch of the tone on the tonic syllable.

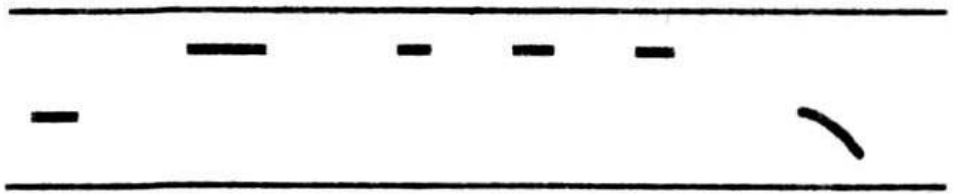
For example:



It is usual for unstressed syllables to continue the pitch of the stressed syllable that precedes them

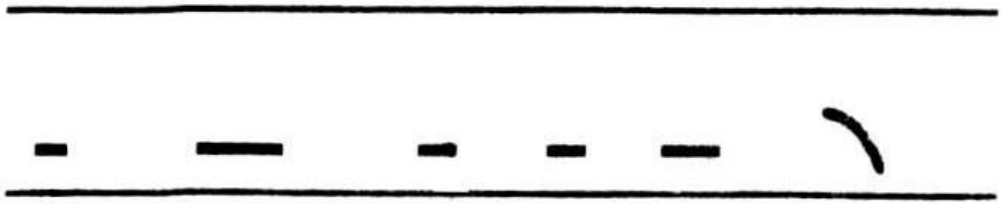
with high head

We 'asked if it had ˌcome

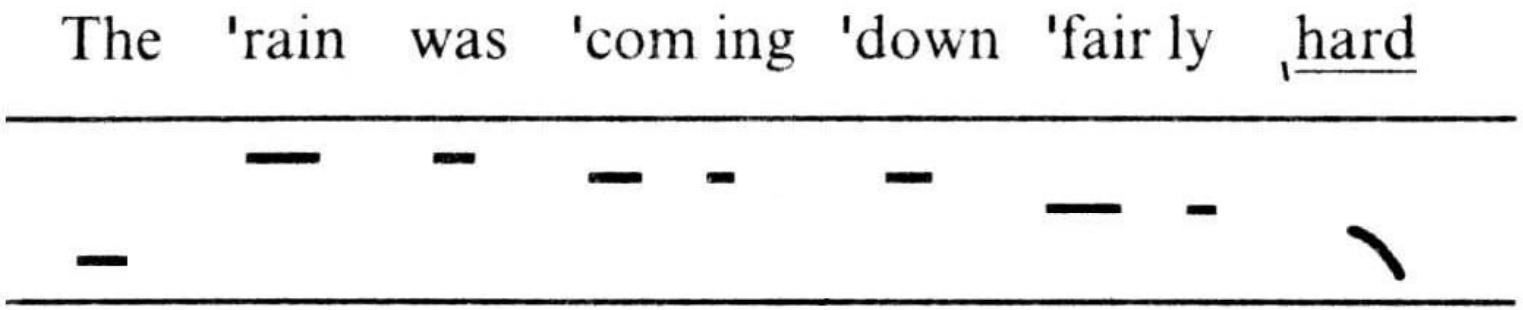


with low head

We ˌasked if it had ˌcome



In the first example the stressed syllables in the high head step downwards progressively to approach the beginning to the tone:


The 'rain was 'com ing 'down 'fair ly ˌhard

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