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Faculty of Arts

2nd YEAR ENGLISH Program

English Phonetics II

AY 2024-2025

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ENGLISH PHONETICS II

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ENGLISH PHONETICS II

(A COMPILED COURSE-BOOK FOR TEACHING AND EDUCATIONAL PURPOSES ONLY)

2nd YEAR Arts- English Program

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A Y (2024-2025)

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English Phonetics II

Introduction

International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA)

Contains symbols to represent all sounds from all languages 1-to-1
correspondence between sounds and symbols Includes diacritics to indicate
tone, stress, etc. Many symbols from or based on Latin and Greek alphabets
Not the only phonetic alphabet in use.

Type of Sound	Sound	Example 1	Example 2
<p>plosive</p> <p>(complete block of air followed by explosion)</p>	p	pin	cap
	b	bag	robe
	t	time	late
	d	door	feed
	k	cash	sock
	g	girl	flag
	?	-	football

fricative (constant flow of air "squeezed" through a block, sounds like friction)	f	full	knife
	v	vest	cave
	θ	think	earth
	ð	those	bathe
	s	sight	kiss
	z	zoo	nose
	ʃ	shirt	crash
	ʒ	-	pleasure
h	high	-	

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affricate (plosive followed by fricative)	tʃ	chose	catch
	dʒ	joy	stage
nasal (air is released through the nose)	m	mood	calm
	n	now	turn
	ŋ	-	bang
approximant (vowel-like consonant, no full block of air occurs)	w	wall	-
	j	yellow	-
	r	room	-
	l/ɫ	law	pill

This

poses.

Vowels

A neutral English accent has 19 vowel sounds.

Type of Sound	Sound	Spellings	Examples
short (single mouth position)	ə	a, e, o, u	alive, the, today, supply
	ɪ	i	thin, sit, rich
	ʊ	u, oo, ou	put, look, should
	e	e, ea, ie	went, bread, friend
	ʌ	u, o	fun, love, money
	æ	a	cat, hand, fan
	ɒ	o, a	rob, top, watch

long (single mouth position)	i:	ee, ea	need, beat, team
	u:	ew, oo, o_e	few, boot, lose
	ɜ:	ir, ur, wor	third, turn, worse
	ɔ:	al, aw, or, our, oor	talk, law, port
	ɑ:	a, al, ar	glass, half, car

diphthong (double mouth position)	eɪ	ay, ea, ae, ai	pay, great, maid
	ɔɪ	oi, oy	noise, toy, choice
	aɪ	ie, i_e, i, y	fine, like, might
	əʊ	o, o_e, oa	no, stone, road
	aʊ	ou, ow	round, how, brown
	ɪə	eer, ear	beer, hear, steer
	eə	are, ere, ea, ai	care, there, bear

Schwa

Word	IPA Transcription
around	'mæənə
manner	'seɪlə
sailor	'kæktəs
cactus	ə'raʊnd

The schwa sound /ə/ can be spelt as < a >, < e >, < o > and < u >.

The schwa is the most common vowel sound in English.

The schwa is weak - it can never be stressed.

The production of the schwa is neutral: lips, jaw and tongue are relaxed

Consonants

Consonant sounds are produced by blocking air as it leaves the mouth.

This course shows you how to pronounce all 25 consonant sounds of English.

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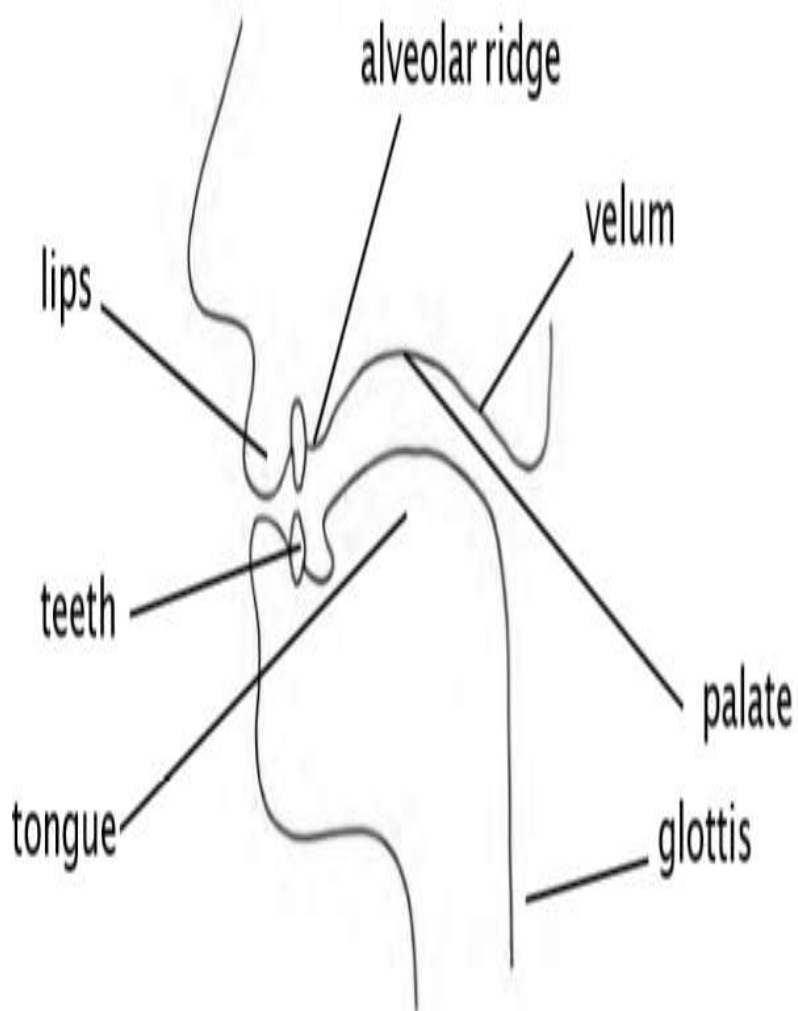
Type of Sound	Sound	Example 1	Example 2
<p>plosive</p> <p>(complete block of air followed by explosion)</p>	<p>p</p> <p>b</p> <p>t</p> <p>d</p> <p>k</p> <p>g</p> <p>ʔ</p>	<p>pin</p> <p>bag</p> <p>time</p> <p>door</p> <p>cash</p> <p>girl</p> <p>-</p>	<p>cap</p> <p>robe</p> <p>late</p> <p>feed</p> <p>sock</p> <p>flag</p> <p>football</p>
<p>fricative</p> <p>(constant flow of air “squeezed” through a block, sounds like friction)</p>	<p>f</p> <p>v</p> <p>θ</p> <p>ð</p> <p>s</p> <p>z</p> <p>ʃ</p> <p>ʒ</p> <p>h</p>	<p>full</p> <p>vest</p> <p>think</p> <p>those</p> <p>sight</p> <p>zoo</p> <p>shirt</p> <p>-</p> <p>high</p>	<p>knife</p> <p>cave</p> <p>earth</p> <p>bathe</p> <p>kiss</p> <p>nose</p> <p>crash</p> <p>pleasure</p> <p>-</p>
<p>affricate</p> <p>(plosive followed by fricative)</p>	<p>tʃ</p> <p>dʒ</p>	<p>chose</p> <p>joy</p>	<p>catch</p> <p>stage</p>
<p>nasal</p> <p>(air is released through the nose)</p>	<p>m</p> <p>n</p> <p>ŋ</p>	<p>mood</p> <p>now</p> <p>-</p>	<p>calm</p> <p>turn</p> <p>bang</p>
<p>approximant</p> <p>(vowel-like consonant, no full block of air occurs)</p>	<p>w</p> <p>j</p> <p>r</p> <p>l / ɫ</p>	<p>wall</p> <p>yellow</p> <p>room</p> <p>law</p>	<p>-</p> <p>-</p> <p>-</p> <p>pill</p>

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Consonants Articulation

- ✦ We use the articulators: **tongue, lips & teeth**, to block air.
- ✦ The **places** where we block air in English are shown below.



Vowels

A neutral English accent has 19 vowel sounds. There are 3 types of English vowel sound - short, long and diphthong. English spelling does not always show us which sound to pronounce. We will learn how to pronounce each individual vowel sound on this course

Type of Sound	Sound	Spellings	Examples
short (single mouth position)	ə	a, e, o, u	alive, the, today, supply
	ɪ	i	thin, sit, rich
	ʊ	u, oo, ou	put, look, should
	e	e, ea, ie	went, bread, friend
	ʌ	u, o	fun, love, money
	æ	a	cat, hand, fan
	ɒ	o, a	rob, top, watch
long (single mouth position)	i:	ee, ea	need, beat, team
	u:	ew, oo, o_e	few, boot, lose
	ɜ:	ir, ur, wor	third, turn, worse
	ɔ:	al, aw, or, our, oor	talk, law, port
	ɑ:	a, al, ar	glass, half, car

diphthong

(double mouth position)

eɪ

ay, ea, ae, ai

pay, great, maid

ɔɪ

oi, oy

noise, toy, choice

aɪ

ie, i_e, i, y

fine, like, might

əʊ

o, o_e, oa

no, stone, road

aʊ

ou, ow

round, how, brown

ɪə

eer, ear

beer, hear, steer

eə

are, ere, ea, ai

care, there, bear

Vowel Articulation

A vowel sound is made by shaping the mouth as air flows out.

Articulators used to shape the mouth are: tongue, lips and jaw.

The chart below shows examples of mouth positions in English.

International phonetic alphabet symbols

Vowels

/ɪ/ pin, English, business

/e/ bed, head, bury, exit

/æ/ cat, bag, apple, black

/ə/ the, a, woman, banana

/ʊ/ look, put, could, cushion

/ɒ/ clock, what, because

/ʌ/ cut, come, mother

/ɜ:/ girl, burn, word, he

ard

/ɑ:/ car, art, heart, half

/ɔ:/ or, board, door, small

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/ɪ:/ sea, bee, people, receive

/u:/ too, blue, fruit, fool

Diphthongs

/eɪ/ take, pay, wait, ballet

/aɪ/ five, sigh, height, buy

/ɔɪ/ noise, boy, lawyer

/əʊ/ no, road, sew, broken










/aʊ/ round, renown, doubt

/ɪə/ here, deer, dear, fierce

/eə/ care, air, mayor, prayer

/ʊə/ poor, insure, tour, moor



				Position		
Example	tongue	lips	jaw			
i: (keep)	front 	spread 	close 			
ɜ: (bird)	centre 	relaxed 	mid 			
ɒ (watch)	back 	rounded 	open 			

Consonants

/p/ play, stop, speak, power

/b/ bad, baby, big, object

/t/ ten, later, little, pot

/d/ day, advice, bed

/k/ character, quick, taxi

/g/ got, exam, ignore, finger

/f/ food, laugh, telephone

/v/ vain, over, Stephen

/θ/ thin, earth, method, both

/ð/ they, father, breathe, with

/s/ small, since, scene, psalm

/z/ zoo, goes, xenophobe

/ʃ/ shell, nation, machine

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/ʒ/ genre, measure, vision

/h/ hot, hair, whole, whose

/m/ moon, lamp, lamb

/n/ can, snow, pneumonia

/ŋ/ string, singer, tongue

/tʃ/ chair, match, future

/dʒ/ just, general, age, soldier

/l/ look, small, bottle, isle

/r/ real, train, wrong, write

/j/ yes, Europe, university

/w/ window, twin, quick, why

Connected speech

Assimilation

ASSIMILATION is an everyday occurrence in every human language, and it is particularly common for nasal sounds (McMahon, 2002, p. 4). Thus, sounds in the environment of other sounds, across morpheme and word boundaries tend to undergo various phonological changes referred to as phonological processes (Ofulue et al, 2010, p. 49). Making a sound more like another in the same or next word in continuous utterance is called assimilation (Oxford Dictionary, 2008). Assimilation usually occurs because two sounds share common features in place or manner. Thus, assimilation of consonants occurs when a consonant takes on features of another one. For instance, the sound /n/ becomes /m/ in certain environments; this is going to be discussed in detail later. It is, however, believed that assimilation

varies in extent according to speaking rate and style; it is more likely to be found in rapid, casual speech and less likely in slow, careful speech (Roach, 1998, p.124). Moreover, it occurs either across word boundaries or within a word. If it occurs within a word, the resultant pronunciation is the only possible standard, as in pens /penz/ (Burleigh, 2011, p.89). However, this paper is going to discuss the manners, types, forms and the importance of assimilation.

II. MANNER OF ASSIMILATION

After generally introducing the term assimilation, it is time to see how many manners of assimilation there are. Assimilation is of many manners. It includes progressive, regressive and coalescent assimilation (Gimson 2001, p.281), cited in (Jolayemi, 2010, p.100).

2.1. Progressive Assimilation

The first manner of assimilation is called progressive. Progressive assimilation is also known as Preservative assimilation. The assimilation is said to be preservative “when the features of a phoneme are modified by the features of the phoneme immediately before it” (Forel &

Puskás,2005, p.50). In other words, the conditioned sound is preceded by the assimilated sound. Such as simulation is dealt with from left to right.

Examples of preservative assimilation of voicelessness from English (RP) can be seen in the following pronunciations of *is* and *has* (Laver, 1994, p.383): In the word level, progressive assimilation can occur, as well. For instance, for the plural –s ending, the voiced /g/ of *bags* conditions the voiced form of the –s ending, causing it to be pronounced /z/ (CelceMurcia et al, 1996, p.160)

2.2. Regressive Assimilation

The second manner of assimilation is regressive. Regressive assimilation is the opposite of progressive and can be called anticipatory. It can be defined as “the change in phoneme characteristics due to influence of a sound occurring later in the word.” (Garn-Nunn & Lynn, 2004, p.111). Therefore, regressive assimilation occurs when the features of a phoneme are modified by those of the phoneme immediately following it (Forel & Puskás, 2005, p.50). To

illustrate, the sound /n/ becomes /ŋ/ under the influence of the voiceless velar plosive /k/. This occurs in words such as tank/tæŋk/, think/θɪŋk/, bank /bæŋk/. These words show the changes from/n/ to /ŋ/ because of the anticipatory articulation of /k/, which indeed, precedes /n/ (Jolayemi, 2010, p.101). To examine more examples, see Appendix A.

2.3. Coalescent Assimilation

The third type of assimilation is the coalescent assimilation which occurs when there is a fusion. This process causes a sound to change by merging two contiguous phonemes into another phoneme different from the two coalesced sounds. In English coalescence occurs when a morpheme final alveolar plosive or fricative /t, d/ or /s, z/ is followed by [j], a palato – alveolar fricative results, mostly when the segment is followed by the suffix“-ion”(Eka et al. 2010, p.66). A typical example is televise + ion. In the interaction between /s/ and /ɪ/, that occurs while turning the verb to the noun form, results in /ʒ/, which gives /tɛlɪvɪʒn/ (Jolayemi, 2010, p.101). See Appendix B for more examples.

III. FORMS OF

ASSIMILATION Although assimilation can be progressive, regressive or coalescent, it has two forms: full assimilation and partial assimilation (Ofulue et al, 2010). When the sound totally adopts another sound, it is called full or complete assimilation. When the sound partially adopts the properties of other sounds, it is called partial or contact assimilation.

3.1. Full Assimilation Full assimilation is also known as complete assimilation. As mentioned previously, a sound may change and become like another. This conversion might be partial or complete. What is meant by complete assimilation is that a sound is totally affected by a neighboring sound in which both sounds become one, or become identical. For example, the phrase / ðæt pleɪs/ becomes / ðæp pleɪs/ (Ladefoged, 2006). It is clear that the /t/ sound is totally, or completely, assimilated to the /p/ sound and becomes identical to the one in the next word.

Partial Assimilation

Assimilation of sounds doesn't always occur completely. Sometimes, sound partially assimilates with the surrounding sounds that the influenced sound acquires some properties from other sounds. In other words, partial assimilation involves just one feature of a segment (Ofulue et al., 2010, p.50). It is noticed by A.Ali (2012, pp. 151-152) that "most assimilations are partial assimilations in which the assimilated sound becomes only more similar, but not identical, to the influencing sound. Partial assimilation can also refer to another assimilation which is called contact assimilation in which the two sounds involved are directly adjacent. For example, the phrase 'ten pikes' is pronounced as /tembaiks/ instead of /ten baiks/ in colloquial speech. Here, the

alveolar sound /n/ changes to /m/ which is a bilabial sound under the influence of /b/ which is also a bilabial sound.

TYPES OF ASSIMILATION

It is noticed that the differences between consonants are of three types: differences in place of articulation, differences in manner of articulation and differences in voicing. Therefore, when a sound assimilates with another sound, the place, manner and voicing of the resulted new sound change depending on the features of the surrounding sounds.

.1. Assimilation of Place First, when a sound changes its place of articulation to another place, it is called assimilation of place. This change of place depends on the place of articulation of the neighboring sounds. Assimilation of place is of three types: alveolar

stops, alveolar fricatives and alveolar syllabic nasals (Lecumberri & Maidment 2000, p.55). Let's discuss the main details.

1.1. Alveolar Stops Assimilation Assimilation of this kind is a regressive assimilation (Roach, 1998). Hence, /t/, /d/ and /n/ tend to change their place of articulation to a position nearer to that of the following sound. In other words, alveolar stops /t, d, n/ may become bilabial if followed by bilabial consonants /p, b, m/, or they may become velar stops /k, g/ if they are followed by velars /k, g/. Though they assimilate, they don't change the voicing (Lecumberri & Maidment 2000). The following table shows how alveolar sounds become bilabials and velar stops.

1.2. Alveolar Fricatives Assimilation

The alveolar stop /s/ may become post alveolar fricative /ʃ/ as in this shoe (ðɪs ʃu: ðɪʃ ʃu:) and /z/ may become /ʒ/ if followed by the palatal

approximant /j/ as in those years (ðəʊz jɪəz □ ðəʊz jɪəz) (Roach, 1998, p.125; Lecumberri & Maidment, 2000).

1.3. Alveolar Syllabic Nasal Assimilation

Assimilation of this kind is a progressive assimilation. Thus, /n/ could become bilabial /m/ when preceded by a bilabial or could become velar /ŋ/ if preceded by a velar plosive in the same word and followed by a consonant in the same or next word or by a pause (Lecumberri & Maidment 2000, p.56). Examples of which are:

open /'əʊpən / /'əʊpn/ /'əʊpm/.

bacon /'beɪkən 'beɪk /'beɪkŋ/

The symbol /p/ represents the first sound in the word pin.

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/b/ A voiced bilabial stop. The sound represented by /b/ has the same place of articulation as /p/ but is accompanied by voicing.

The symbol /b/ represents the first and last sounds in the name Bob.

/t/ A voiceless alveolar stop. The alveolar consonants of English are produced when the tongue tip or blade approaches or—in the case of /t/ and /d/—touches the roof of the mouth at or near the alveolar ridge behind the upper teeth. The English sound represented by the symbol /t/ thus differs from the t's of many European languages in which the tongue tip touches the upper teeth.

A Spanish /t/, for example, is a voiceless dental stop.

The symbol /t/ represents the initial sound in the English word tin.

/d/ A voiced alveolar stop. The sound represented by the symbol /d/ has the same place of articulation as /t/ but is accompanied by voicing. The symbol /d/ represents the first and last sounds in the word Dad.

/k/ A voiceless velar stop. Velar consonants are formed when the body of the tongue approaches or—in the case of /k/ and /g/—touches the roof of the mouth on the palate (the soft palate is called the velum).

The symbol /k/ represents the first sound in the word kite. /g/ A voiced velar stop. The sound represented by the symbol /g/ has the same place of articulation as /k/ but is accompanied by voicing. The symbol /g/ represents the first and last sounds in the word gag.

Assimilation = one sound made similar to another, “spodoba” in Czech - sounds belonging to one word can cause changes in sounds belonging to neighbouring words - it is the natural result of the various speech

organs 'cutting corners' as they perform their complex sequence of movements, and this occurs mostly at word boundaries and affects mainly consonant sounds - however we must not think that 1 consonant is the 'attacker' and the other the 'victim' – it is rather a case of MUTUAL influence - although it follows fairly regular patterns, assimilation is different in different languages; we cannot therefore simply apply the assimilations from eg Czech to English - learners who do not assimilate at all may sound over-precise, too careful, and this can inhibit the use of English rhythm and intonation patterns, resulting in a loss of both fluency and clarity of meaning!

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column).

	<u>said in isolation</u>	<u>as connected speech</u>	<u>assimilation in con. speech</u>
		you try	
ten pin bowling	/ten pɪn bæʊlɪŋ/	/	/tem pɪm bæʊlɪŋ/
in bed	/ɪn bed/	/	/ɪm bed/
good bye	/gʊd baɪ/	/	/gʊb baɪ/
hit man	/hɪt mæn/	/	/hɪp mæn/
tin man	/tɪn mæn/	/	/tɪm mæn/
good girl	/gʊd ɡɜ:l/	/	/gʊɡ ɡɜ:l/
this shop	/ðɪs ʃɒp/	/	/ðɪʃ ʃɒp/
these shops	/ði:z ʃɒps/	/	/ði:z ʃɒps/
have to go	/hæv tə ɡəʊ/	/	/hæf tə ɡəʊ/
how d'you do	/haʊ dʒu du:/	/	/haʊ dʒu du:/
don't you know	/dəʊnt ju nəʊ/	/	/dəʊntʃə nəʊ/

Types of assimilation

We have two basic types are distinguished according to the direction of influence between neighbouring sounds :

1) regressive assimilation : one sound influences the preceding sound

(C1 ← C2)

2) progressive assimilation: one sound influences the following sound

(C1 → C2)

Assimilation affects consonants and their three distinctive features: a) assimilation of place of articulation b) assimilation of manner of articulation c) assimilation of voicing

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1. Place of articulation

o alveolar consonant ← non-alveolar C
 /t,d,n/ /p,b,m,k,g/
 ↓
 non-alveolar C

/t/ that person, that bag, that man

↓

/p/ /ðæp pɜ:sn/ /ðæp bæɡ/ /ðæp mæn/

/d/ good person, good bye, good man

↓

/b/ /ɡʊb pɜ:sn/ /ɡʊb baɪ/ /ɡʊb mæn/

/n/ ten people, ten bags, ten minutes

↓

/m/ /tem pi:pl/ /tem bæɡz/ /tem mɪnɪts/

/t/ that colour, that garden

↓

/k/ /ðæk kʌlə/ /ðæk ɡɑ:dən/

/d/ good girl, red colour

↓

/g/ /ɡʊɡ ɡɜ:tl/ /reg kʌlə/

/n/ in case, ten couples, ten girls

↓

/ŋ/ /ɪŋ keɪs/ /ten kʌplz/ /ten ɡɜ:tlz/

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/s/ this year, this ship, this young man

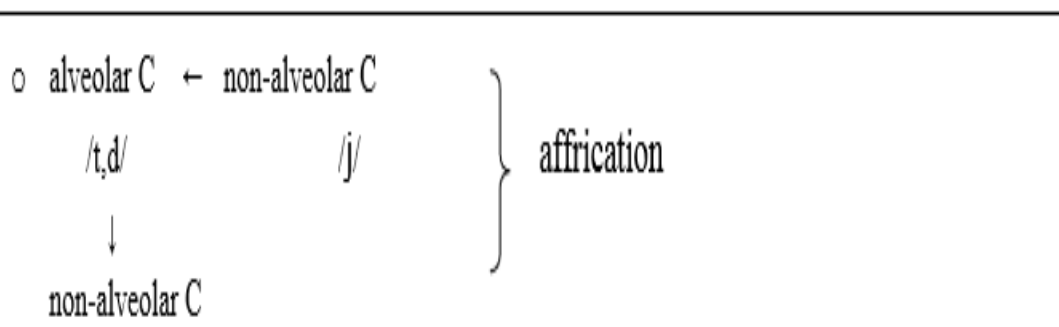
↓

/ʃ/ /ðɪʃ jɜ:/ /ðɪʃ ʃɪp/ /ðɪʃ jʌŋ mæn/

/z/ those years, those ships, as you know

↓

/z/ /ðəʊz jɜ:z/ /ðəʊz ʃɪps/ /əz ju nəʊ/



/t/ don't you, won't you

↓

/tʃ/ /dəʊntʃ ju/ /wəʊntʃ ju/

/d/ would you, could you

↓

/dʒ/ /wʊdʒ ju/ /kʊdʒ ju/

Alveolar Fricatives Assimilation

The alveolar stop /s/ may become post alveolar fricative /ʃ/ as in this shoe (ðɪs ʃu: □ ðɪʃ ʃu:) and /z/ may become /ʒ/ if followed by the palatal approximant /j/ as in those years (ðəʊz jɪəz □ ðəʊʒ jɪəz) (Roach, 1998, p.125; Lecumberri & Maidment, 2000). 4.1.3. Alveolar Syllabic Nasal Assimilation Assimilation of this kind is a progressive assimilation. Thus, /n/ could become bilabial /m/ when preceded by a bilabial or could become velar /ŋ/ if preceded by a velar plosive in the same word and followed by a consonant in the same or next word or by a pause (Lecumberri & Maidment 2000, p.56).

Examples of which are: open /'əʊpən/ □ /'əʊpŋ/ □ /'əʊpm/. bacon /'beɪkən/ □ /'beɪk n/ □ /'beɪkŋ/

.2. Assimilation of Manner

Second, like assimilation of place, assimilation of manner refers to two neighboring sounds becoming similar in their manner of articulation. This happens in coalescence when, in connected speech, two adjacent sounds are merged to form a new sound (Gut, 2009, p.35). Additionally, it is usually heard in very rapid speech, or very informal situation and it can be either progressive or regressive (Burleigh, 2011). Clear examples of this type are difficult to seek since it involves a change from a stronger consonant (one making a more substantial obstruction to the flow of air) to a weaker one (Roach, 2001, p.55). Examples of progressive and regressive assimilation are found in Burleigh (2011, p.93). An example the progressive could be in shut your mouth when pronounced rapidly. Here, the approximant /j/ can be

articulated with a narrow gap between the speech organs under the influence of the preceding /t/. An example of the regressive could be in that side /ðæs saɪd/ and in good night /gʊn naɪt/. In /ðæs saɪd/, the plosive

/t/ becomes fricative /s/, and in /gʊn naɪt/, the plosive /d/ becomes nasal /n/. Generally, according to Burleigh, assimilation of manner tends to be regressive with less obstruction of air.

.3. Assimilation of Voice

Finally, it is difficult to produce a consonant cluster, in many languages including English, with different voicing values for the consonants, particularly if the consonants are obstruent"s (fricatives or plosives) (Nathan, 2008, p.78). When two consonants are in the coda, they have to agree in voicing either voiced or voiceless. In other words, in a

cluster of two consonants differing in voicing, the second consonant has to agree in voicing with the preceding one (Fortson, 2005, p.63). Assimilation of voice is of two forms: across morpheme boundaries and across word boundaries.

.3.1. Assimilation of Voice across Morpheme Boundaries

This type of assimilation is represented in noun plural marker, the possessive and the singular present tense which always agree in voicing with the preceding obstruent consonant (regressive). Recall that the voiced /z/ of the English regular plural suffix is changed to [s] after a voiceless sound. Similarly, the voiced /d/ of the English regular past-tense suffix is changed to [t] after a voiceless sound. In these

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cases, the value of the voicing feature goes from [+voice] to [-voice] or from [-voice] to [+voice] because of assimilation to the [-+voice] feature of the final consonant of the stem (Fromkin et al., 2011, p.287). Examples of such assimilation are: 8 dogs /d gz/: /s/ becomes /z/ to agree in voicing with /g/. cats / kæts/: /s/ becomes /s/ to agree in voicing with /t/. killed / kɪld/: /d/ agrees in voicing with /l/. voiced / vɔɪst/: /t/ agrees in voicing with /s/. The following table shows the alternation of the plural suffix [s] depending on the surrounding sounds.

/h/ A voiceless “glottal” fricative.

The /h/ sound is often called a glottal fricative because the vocal cords are positioned so that a small amount of turbulent airflow is produced across the glottis. However, the primary noise source for this speech sound is turbulence created at different points along the vocal tract

where the tongue body (or blade) approaches the roof of the mouth. The point where the friction is created is determined by the vowel that follows the /h/.

In the articulation of the English word heap, for example, the tongue body is positioned high and forward, and the fricative noise is produced in the palatal region. The symbol /h/ represents the first sound in the words how and here.

Affricates

An affricate is a single but complex sound, beginning as a stop but releasing secondarily into a fricative. /tʃ/ A voiceless alveopalatal affricate. The symbol /tʃ/ represents the first sound in the word chip (/tʃ/ is usually spelled as ch). In articulating this sound, the tongue makes contact at the same point on the roof of the mouth as in the articulation

of the sound represented by /ʃ/. Unlike /ʃ/, though, tʃ begins with a complete blockage of the vocal tract (a stop), but then is immediately released into a fricative sound like /ʃ/.

/dʒ/ A voiced alveopalatal affricate. The sounds represented by the symbols /tʃ/ and /dʒ/ differ only in voicing, /dʒ/ being voiced. The symbol /dʒ/ represents the first and last sounds of the word judge (/dʒ/ being spelled as both j and dge, in this case).

Nasals

/m/ A bilabial nasal.

The sounds represented by the symbols /m/ and /b/ are articulated in the same manner, except that for /m/ the velum is lowered to allow airflow and sound energy into the nasal passages. The symbol /m/ represents the first sound in the word mice.

/n/ An alveolar nasal.

The sound represented by the symbol /n/ is articulated in the same position as /d/, with the velum lowered. The symbol /n/ represents the first sound in the word nice.

/ŋ/ A velar nasal.

The symbol / ŋ / is called eng (or even engma or engwa) and represents the final sound in the word sing. The normal English spelling for this single sound is ng.

Liquids

Liquid sounds are found in the overwhelming majority of the world's languages, and English has one: /l/. The term liquid is a nontechnical, impressionistic expression indicating that the sound is “smooth” and “flows easily.”

Liquids share properties of both consonants and vowels: as in the articulation of certain consonants, the tongue blade is raised toward the alveolar ridge; as in the articulation of vowels, air is allowed to pass through the oral cavity without great friction. // An alveolar liquid. In the articulation of English //, the tongue blade is raised and the apex makes contact with the alveolar ridge. The sides of the tongue are lowered, permitting the air and sound energy to flow outward. The symbol // represents the first sound in the word life.

Glides

Glides are vowel-like articulations that precede and follow true vowels. The term glide is based on the observation that the sequence of a glide and a vowel is a smooth, continuous gesture.

Because the tongue position in articulating the glides /j/ and /w/ is similar to the tongue position of the vowels in beet and boot,

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respectively, these glides are sometimes referred to as semivowels.

/w/ A bilabial (velarized) glide.

The sound represented by the symbol /w/ is formed with the body of the tongue arched in a high, back position, toward the soft palate (velum). Lip rounding also accompanies the production of this sound.

The symbol /w/ represents the first sound in the word wood.

/w/ A bilabial (velarized) glide (with a voiceless beginning). Some speakers of English have different initial sounds in the words which and witch. For these speakers the initial sound in which begins as a

voiceless sound, followed immediately by the glide /w/. Some linguists write this initial sound as the digraph /hw/.

/ɹ/ An alveolar glide.

American English /ɹ/ is produced with a tongue blade that is raised toward the alveolar ridge. Many speakers also curl the apex into a retroflexed position (curled upward and backward). Others press the tongue tip against the lower gum (below the teeth) and raise the blade of the tongue toward the roof of the mouth. This sound is also produced with lip rounding (a pursing of the lips) and a retraction of the tongue root.

The symbol /ɹ/ represents the first sound in the word red. We are following IPA conventions in using the “upside-down r” symbol for this English phoneme. The “right-side-up r” symbol is reserved for trilled r, a sound found in dialects of Scottish English.

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/j/ (/y/) An alveopalatal glide.

The sound represented by the symbol */j/* is formed with the body and the blade of the tongue arched in a high, front position, toward the hard palate. The symbol */j/* represents the first sound in the word yes.

Phonetic Variations on a Phonemic Theme

So far we have assumed that the sounds represented by the phonemic transcription system of English are articulated the same way each time they are produced. This assumption ignores an important aspect of the pronunciation of some phonemes. We discuss below several examples of variation in the pronunciation of certain American English consonants, variations that are common to most speakers of American English.

Aspirated t.

When the sound /t/ occurs at the beginning of a syllable, its pronunciation is accompanied by a puff of air called aspiration. You can observe the presence of aspiration if you hold a thin, flexible piece of paper close to the front of your mouth when you say the word tin. The paper will flutter immediately after the /t/ is pronounced. You can also place your hand in front of your mouth to feel this puff of air.

In contrast, the pronunciation of the /t/'s in the word stint is unaspirated; pronouncing these /t/'s will not cause the piece of paper to flutter. Later we will discuss the general conditions under which some English phonemes are aspirated. In order to represent more detailed aspects of pronunciation (such as aspiration), linguists use a system called (close) phonetic transcription. By convention, phonetic

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symbols are enclosed in square brackets []; the symbols of the more general transcription system we have been using— which, when it satisfies conditions to be discussed below, is called a phonemic transcription—are enclosed in slant lines / /.

For example, in phonetic transcription tin and stint are represented as [t^hɪn] and [stɪnt], respectively (where a superscripted h indicates an aspirated sound and its absence indicates an unaspirated sound). In phonemic transcription they are represented as /tɪn/ and /stɪnt/. We will discuss the difference between phonetic and phonemic transcriptions after we have discussed some of the finer phonetic details of American English speech.

Unreleased t

Final /t/ in words such as kit is frequently unreleased in the pronunciation of many speakers of American English: the tongue touches the alveolar ridge but does not immediately drop away to “release” the sound. (In contrast, in most American English dialects the pronunciation of the final stop /t/ in words such as fast is in fact released). For most speakers of American English, in the pronunciation of the word kit, the voicing ends and the airflow stops before the tongue reaches the alveolar ridge in articulating the final /t/. Where and how is the airflow stopped in this case? The primary stop articulation in the pronunciation of final /t/ in words such as kit occurs in the larynx, rather than in the region of the alveolar ridge, even though the tongue tip does indeed make contact with the alveolar ridge

immediately after the closure of the vocal cords. Recall that the glottis is the space between the vocal cords, and a stop created by closure at the glottis is called a glottal stop, represented as the symbol [ʔ].

Glottal stop replacement of t

In certain words the tendency to have a glottal closure with the articulation of /t/ in certain environments reaches such an extreme that the glottal stop actually replaces /t/. In many speakers' pronunciation of words such as button and kitten, the stop articulation is actually carried out at the glottis, and the tongue does not, in fact, move toward the alveolar ridge until the /n/ of the final syllable is articulated. The /t/ is generally replaced by the glottal stop if the following syllable contains a syllabic /n/. The term syllabic here refers to the fact that nasal consonants (such as /n/) can function as syllables by themselves, without an accompanying vowel. In the word button, for

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example, the only sound in the second syllable is the nasal [n]—there is no true vowel at all in that syllable.

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Phonetic variants of the phoneme /t/ in American English

Articulatory description	Phonetic symbol	Conditioning environments	Example words
Released, aspirated	[t ^h]	when syllable-initial	tin [t ^h ɪn]
Unreleased, preglottalized	[ʔt]	word-final, after a vowel	kit [kʰɪʔt]
Glottal stop	[ʔ]	before a syllabic <i>n</i>	kitten [kʰɪʔŋ]
Flap	[ɾ]	between vowels, when the first vowel is stressed (approximate environment)	pitted [pʰɪɾɪd]
Alveopalatal stop	[t̪]	syllable-initial before <i>r</i>	truck [t̪ɹʌk]
Released, unaspirated	[t]	when the above conditions are not met first	stint [stɪnt]

Contractions in Casual Spoken English

In discussing the phonetic properties of English, we have so far focused our attention on phonetic details within single words. Now we must note that in casual spoken forms of American English there are a number of phonological contraction processes in which a sequence of words is contracted, or reduced, to a shorter sequence.

Table 3.5

Phonetic form of contractions of the verb *to be* with personal pronouns in American English: Bisyllabic forms

Formal written	Formal spoken	Casual spoken bisyllabic forms
I am	/aɪ æm/	/áɪə̃m/ (or /aɪm̃/)
you are	/ju aɪ/	/júə̃/
she is	/ʃi ɪz/	/ʃíiz/
he is	/hi ɪz/	/híiz/
it is	/ɪt ɪz/	/íɪiz/
we are	/wi aɪ/	/wíə̃/
they are	/ðeɪ aɪ/	/ðéiə̃/

Table 3.6

Phonetic form of contractions of the verb *to be* with personal pronouns in American English: Monosyllabic forms

Casual written	Casual spoken monosyllabic forms
I'm	[aɪm] or [ɑm]
you're	[juɪ] or [jɜ̃]
she's	[ʃiz]
he's	[hiz]
it's	[ɪts]
we're	[wɪɪ]
they're	[ðeɪɪ]

Some difficult sounds for speakers of English

/ə/

This is the most frequent vowel sound in spoken English, which can also represent several letters or syllables. It can be found in unstressed function words such as a, am, an, but, can, of; in prefixes and suffixes such as in-, suc-, to-, ad-, -ible, -able, -ment; in words such as according, lemon, minute, purpose, second etc.

Exercise

Underline the /ə/ sound in the following sentences.

1. We went to the theatre yesterday.
2. He can speak Russian and German.
3. Susan is famous for her Christmas cake.
4. The pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary are difficult.
5. We could ask them if they have reached a decision.
6. A man and a woman were waiting at the station.
7. They're going to the mountains on Saturday.
8. The private sector is all economic activity other than government.
9. Where are the spoons and forks?
10. There were seven or eight hundred people present at the conference.

A difficult sound to reproduce for Italian speakers: world - /wɜ:ld/, third -
/θɜ:d/.

Exercise

Tick the words that contain the /ɜ:/ sound.

- | | | | |
|-------------|------------|-------------|-----------|
| 1. Thursday | 5. Tuesday | 9. birthday | 13. ball |
| 2. does | 6. Work | 10. turn | 14. hurt |
| 3. skirt | 7. ear | 11. bun | 15. early |
| 4. short | 8. nurse | 12. weren't | 16. Ward |

/ʌ/

There are several letter combinations that produce this sound: mother -
/mʌðə/, country - /kʌntri:/, flood - /flʌd/

Exercise

Underline the alternative that you hear.

1. Which county/country did you say he lived in?
2. She rubbed/robbed the silver to make it shinier.
3. There are a lot of colourful rags/rugs on the floor.

/ɪ/

Italian does not have this sound: fill - /fɪl/, ship - /ʃɪp/.

/w/

This sound tends to be pronounced by Italian speakers as /v/.

Exercise

Underline the alternative that you hear.

1. There was only a little vine / wine left.
2. Where is the vest / west?
3. I saw a long whale / veil in the distance.
4. What was under the wheel / veal?
5. Her poetry has become worse / verse

/dʒ/

When written with a „J“, Italian speakers tend to pronounce this sound as /j/. The letter „G“ can also produce this sound: general, storage, as can the combination
–dge and –age: edge, storage.

Exercise

Underline the words that contain the /dʒ/ sound.

- | | | | |
|-----------|------------|----------|-------------|
| 1. gin | 5. Yam | 9. jet | 13. damage |
| 2. large | 6. soldier | 10. gear | 14. mayor |
| 3. goat | 7. guilty | 11. just | 15. collage |
| 4. injury | 8. gum | 12. get | 16. College |

/s/

Apart from the letter „S“, the /s/ sound can be represented by a number of consonant combinations, which differ in pronunciation from the Italian: psyche, cellar, science, listen.

Exercise

Underline the words that contain the /s/ sound.

1. song 5. face 9. issue 13. disciple
2. Islam 6. city 10. months 14. sugar
3. vision 7. message 11. castle 15. mix
4. science 8. houses 12. fascism 16. Psychology

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-s suffix

The morpheme -s of the 3rd person singular (he works), of the noun plural (books), of the genitive (John's) and of the contraction of is or has (he's) is pronounced in three different ways depending on the sound of the preceding consonant:

ɪz after sibilant consonants: s [tʃ dʒ

slices /slaɪsɪz/ brushes /brʌʃɪz/

churches /tʃɜːtʃɪz/ wages /weɪdʒɪz/

s after unvoiced consonants: /f/ /k/ /p/ /t/

packs /pæks/ rates /reɪts/

laughs /lɑːfs/ taps /tæps/

z in other cases

boys /bɔɪz/ girls /gɜ:lz/

clothes /kləʊðz/ John's /dʒɒnz/

Some unvoiced sounds, θ and f, become voiced when the -s suffix is added.

Compare:

bath /bɑ:θ/ baths /bɑ:ðz/

knife /naɪf/ knives /naɪvz/

-ed suffix

The morpheme -ed of the past tense (or past participle) is also pronounced in three different ways depending on the preceding consonant:

ɪd after t and d

painted /peɪntɪd/ founded /faʊndɪd/

wanted /wɒntɪd/ rounded /raʊndɪd/

t after unvoiced consonants: /f/ /k/ /p/ /s/ tʃ /ʃ

clapped /klæpt/ brushed /brʌʃt/

laughed /lɑːft/ wished /wɪʃt/

d in other cases

earned /ɜːnd/ carried /kærɪd/

changed /tʃeɪndʒd/ harmed /hɑːmd/

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-e suffix

Sometimes the addition of the –e suffix to a noun to form a verb changes the quality both of the vowels sound and of the final –th:

a bath /bɑ:θ/ to bathe /beɪð/

a breath /breθ/ to breathe /bri:ð/

Exercise

Use both words in suitable contexts.

1. whose / who's

2. there / their

3. sale / sail

4. rode / road

5. steel / steal

6. right / write

7. hear / here

8. rain / reign

9. bare / bear

10. by / buy

Silent letters

cz – czar

kn – knock, knee, knight, knife

gn – gnat, gnaw, gnome

pn – pneumonia

ps – psychology, psychiatry, pseudo

pt – Ptolemy

wr – write, wrong, wring, wrist

wh – who, whom, whose, whole

Final position

-mb – lamb, climb, thumb

-ng – king, thing, song, wing

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-gm – paradigm, diaphragm

-gn – sign, reign, foreign, resign (but signature, resignation)

-mn – condemn, autumn, column

-pt – receipt (but reception)

Other positions

doubt muscle castle whistle isle viscount sword Norwich

a) Sometimes vowels are written but not pronounced. Some
examples:

Government family chocolate

garden reason evil

Exercise

Mark the silent letters in the following words.

- | | | | |
|---------------|----------------|---------------|---------------|
| 1. answer | 6. castle | 11. subtle | 16. island |
| 2. Greenwich | 7. design | 12. vegetable | 17. mustn't |
| 3. interest | 8. know | 13. generous | 18. Wednesday |
| 4. restaurant | 9. comfortable | 14. psychosis | 19. bomb |
| 5. written | 10. honest | 15. cupboard | 20. Hoped |

STRESS PATTERNS IN WORDS

In Italian, a syllable-timed language, uniform stress is given to different syllables. English, on the contrary, is a stress-timed language in which there exists a distinction between strong (toniche) and weak (atone) syllables.

Syllable division

A syllable consists of a vowel sound or a vowel sound + consonant(s).

The system for syllable division is generally a phonetic one. Most words have the same number of syllables in the written form as in the pronunciation. However, there are a few rules to help divide words up into syllables.

- a) Each syllable has only one vowel sound. When a consonant separates two vowels, divide the word after the first vowel and before the consonant:

stu-dent re-sult ex-a-mine

- b) When the vowel is at the end of a syllable, it has a long sound, called an open syllable:

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May be-low an-ec-dote

- c) When the vowel is not at the end of a syllable, it has a short sound,
called a closed syllable:

Mad sub-ject con-vent

- d) Syllables are divided between doubled consonants, unless the
doubled consonant is part of a syllable that is a base word:

din-ner swim-ming tell-er

- e) Monosyllabic prefixes and suffixes are not divided:

il-le-gal un-com-mon

gov-ern-ment cou -ra-geous

- f) Plurisyllabic prefixes and suffixes are divided:

an-ti-war un-der-take

vel-o-ci-ty hy-po-the-ti-cal

Exercise

Divide the following words into syllables.

1. mirror
2. sunshine
3. poem
4. wonderful
5. calendar
6. global
7. fitness
8. December

Stress Patterns

The strong or primary stress on one syllable has the effect of weakening the pronunciation of the secondary syllables. It is therefore important to be able to determine the stress pattern of words.

Symbols used to indicate stress:

- ' the following syllable has primary stress
- , the following syllable has secondary stress

Suffixes

Suffixes do not generally have primary stress.

Compare:

'age /eɪdʒ/ 'courage /kʌrɪdʒ /

to be 'able /eɪbl/ 'capable /keɪpəbl/

'ate /eɪt/ 'graduate (n)/grædʒʊət /

'full /fʊl/ 'beautiful /bju:tɪfl/

'less /les/ 'hopeless /həʊpləs/

In only a few cases the main stress falls on the suffix, generally with suffixes of foreign, especially French, origin.

Some examples are:

-oo kangar'oo -elle gaz'elle

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-ee employ'ee -ette cigar'ette

-eer engine'eer -ese Chin'ese

Some suffixes determine the position of the primary stress.

The following suffixes determine the primary stress on the syllable
preceding the suffix:

Nouns

-ity, -ety cap'acity oppor'tunity

Note the shift in stress: 'public pub'licity

'social soc'iety

to 'vary var'iety

-ion dis'cussion at'tention

Note the shift in stress: to pre'pare prepar'ation

to pro'nonce pronunci'ation

to 'realise realis'ation

-ian am'phibian phy'sician

Note the shift in stress: hu'manity humani'tarian

'library lib'rarian

'history his'torian

-ics 'physics 'ethics mathe'matics

Verbs

-ify, -ish to 'magnify to a'bolish

Note the shift in stress: 'person to pers'onify

Exercise 23 Mark the primary stress in the following words.

- | | |
|--------------|--------------|
| 1. village | 6. passion |
| 2. society | 7. anxiety |
| 3. talkative | 8. universal |

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4. suffragette 9. career

5. classify 10. economics

Adjectives

-ic, -ible, -igible his'toric in'visible 'eligible

Note the shift in stress: e'conomy eco'nomie

to ne'glect 'negligible

-ious, -eous, -uous 'glorious ar'boreous con'tinuous

-ial, -ual 'social 'usual

Other suffixes do not alter the stress pattern of the word.

-able 'comfort 'comfortable

-cy 'vacant 'vacancy

-dom 'king 'kingdom

-er/-or 'visit 'visitor

-ful 'wonder 'wonderful

-ish (adj.) 'baby 'babyish

-ism to 'criticise 'criticism

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-ize/-ise (v.) e'conomy to e'conomize

-less 'care 'careless

-ly (adv.) 'rapid 'rapidly

-man (n.) po'lice po'liceman

-ment to 'govern 'government

-ship 'owner 'ownership

-ty 'unit 'unity

-y to in'quire in'quiry

Exercise

Mark the shift in stress in the following pairs of words.

1. economy economics
2. experiment experimental
3. history historian
4. nation nationality
5. philosophy philosophical
6. psychiatry psychiatric
7. science scientific
8. examine examination
9. idiot idiotic
10. demonstrate demonstration

Prefixes

Two-syllable words with no prefix usually have the primary stress on the first syllable: 'follow 'carry 'govern 'cancel

Two-syllable words with a separable prefix (often written with a hyphen) have equal stress on the prefix and the main word:

'ex-'wife 'pre-'book 're-'write 'self-'help

Two-syllable VERBS with an inseparable prefix generally have the primary stress on the second syllable:

to ex'plain to pre'sent to de'ny to pro'duce

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Two-syllable NOUNS with an inseparable prefix generally have the primary stress on the first syllable: 'expert 'present 'deluge 'proverb

Some exceptions to this are:

ad'vice de'fence ex'cuse re'lief

The stress in three-syllable words can vary from word to word.

Compare:

'telegraph re'moval 'vegetable de'cision

If the prefix - separable or inseparable - is bisyllabic, there is secondary stress on the first syllable of the prefix and primary stress on the third syllable:

,under'stand ,inter'vene ,super'sede ,over'ride

Exercise

Mark the primary stress in the following pairs of nouns and verbs.

1. to conduct conduct
2. to desert desert
3. to present present
4. to subject subject
5. to conflict conflict
6. to decrease decrease
7. to object object
8. to produce produce
9. to suspect suspect
10. to rebel rebel

Exercise

Find the word in each group that the primary stress located on the different syllable from the other three.

1. a) con-fi-dent

b) del-i-cate

c) po-et-ic

d) sen-si-tive

2. a) ad-mi-ra-ble

b) app-ro-priate

c) com-pli-cated

d) nec-es-sar-y

3. a) or-i-gin

b) oc-cur

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c) lim-it

d) of-fer

4. a) in-stru-ment

b) cal-en-dar

c) at-mos-phere

Compound nouns

Most compound nouns have the primary stress on the first element.

Compare this to the equal stress of adjective and noun:

'dining-room 'textbook 'blackbird

'dark 'room 'library 'book 'black 'bird

Compound adjectives

The stress generally falls on the second element with the –ed participle and -ing participle: bad-'tempered old-'fashioned good-'looking

However, if one of the elements of the compound adjective is a noun, stress will fall on the noun, even if it is the first element: 'law-abiding
'record-breaking

Compound verbs

The stress generally falls on the second element:

out'run over'rate under'line

Exercise

Mark the stress on the following words.

- | | |
|------------------|-------------------|
| 1. blackboard | 6. train-spotting |
| 2. mobile phone | 7. football |
| 3. well-dressed | 8. bus stop |
| 4. highlight | 9. out-dated |
| 5. swimming pool | 10. over-ripe |

Exercise

Rewrite the sentences forming compound adjectives and mark the primary stress.

1. The letter was written by hand The letter was
2. We grew the vegetables at home. The vegetables are
3. We went on holiday at the last minute. It was a
.....holiday.
4. Jane works very hard. Jane is

5. Tom looks really good. Tom is

STRESS PATTERNS IN PHRASES

Function words such as prepositions, conjunctions, pronouns, determiners, and auxiliary verbs are generally weaker in stress within a sentence.

at /ət/ that ðæt

for fə as əz

from frəm than ðən

of əv and ən, n

to tə but bət

per pə or ə, ər

he hi	his ɪz
him ɪm/, /əm	her hə, /ə/
her hə	our a:
us əs	your jə
them ðəm	a, an ə, ən
some səm	the ðə, ðɪ:/

Exercise

Underline the weak function words in the following sentences.

1. I'd love a cup of tea.
2. When are you going to Spain?
3. He goes to the cinema three or four times a month.
4. I'll have some bread and butter, please.

5. We'd rather stay at home than go to the restaurant.
6. You'll have to study harder if you want to pass the exam.
7. They drove at 50 kilometres per hour.
8. Did you give him the books?
9. He said that he'd go home as soon as possible.
10. I told them they were going to fall.

Articles

a, an –

The indefinite article a is reduced to /ə/ before consonants (or
consonant sounds): a book a table a university a one-year plan

It becomes an ən before vowels (or vowel sounds):

an apple an event an hour an heir

the - The definite article the is reduced to /ðə/ before consonants (or
consonant sounds): the mother the table the university the one-year
plan

It is pronounced /ði:/ before vowels (or vowel sounds):

the apple the event the hour the heir

Exercise

Write a or an in the following sentences.

1. It took me _____ hour to write the letter.

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2. Would you like _____ orange?
3. She is _____ Anglo-Italian.
4. It is _____ European law.
5. Jane is _____ university student.
6. I hope to study for _____ M.A. degree next year.
7. It was _____ one-hour lesson.
8. The concert was _____ extraordinary event.
9. You'll have to have _____ X-ray for that leg.
10. It was _____ enjoyable evening.

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Exercise

Say whether the following pronunciation of the definite article is

/ðə/ or /ði:/ .

1. _____ heir.
2. _____ universe.
3. _____ apple.
4. _____ ugly house.
5. _____ U.S.A.
6. _____ hotel.
7. _____ historian.
8. _____ jewels.
9. _____ hour-glass
10. _____ one-man band.

Modal auxiliary verbs

Modal auxiliary verbs have

weak pronunciation in the affirmative and interrogative:

I can /kn/ 'go.

They could /kəd/ 'come.

Should/fəd/ he 'leave?

They have a strong form:

(a) in the negative with the contracted not:

I 'can't /kɑ:nt/ go.

They 'won't / wəʊnt / come.

(b) in tag questions and short answers:

He can't swim, 'can /kæn/ he? Yes he 'can /kæn/.

Exercise

Underline the weak function words in the following sentences.

1. He could have told you if you had asked.
2. Don't you want to know?
3. I should have known he was joking.
4. She can apply for the job, can't she?
5. Who does she think she is?
6. He was at school when the fire broke out.

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Exercise

Mark the stressed syllables in the following passages.

Practise reading them with attention to the weak forms

(auxiliaries, articles, pronouns, prepositions etc).

TEXT 1

Of all the changes that swept over Europe in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, the most widely influential was an epistemological transformation that we call the “scientific revolution”. In the popular mind, this revolution is associated with natural science and technological change, but the scientific revolution was, in reality, a series of changes in the structure of

European thought itself: systematic doubt, empirical and sensory verification, the abstraction of human knowledge into separate sciences, and the view that the world functions like a machine. These changes greatly altered the human experience of every other aspect of life. This modification in world view can also be charted in painting, sculpture and architecture, where it can be seen that people are looking at the world very differently.

Connected Speech

When people talk normally, their words blend together and change in predictable ways. This is not sloppy, uneducated, or bad. It's just normal. It happens when people speak casually, but

also when they speak formally. In short, *all* speech is connected speech.

Here are some changes that happen in connected speech:

Contractions and blends:

Both of these are actually the same thing—a two-word sequence that blends together into one unit. If the two-word combination is not normally *written* as one word, we just call it a blend. But if the two-word combination has a special written form with an apostrophe, we call it a contraction:

• is + not ----isn't

I + am -----I'm

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that + will -----that'll

there + would -----there'd

Linking: In normal speech, words are not pronounced as separate, individual units. The last sound of one word is often linked to or blended with the first sound of the next word.

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What sounds?	What happens?	Examples
/iy/ + V → /ey/ + V → /ay/ + V → /oy/ + V →	Add a /y/ glide between the words as a link to the following vowel.	I'll <u>be</u> <u>able</u> to <u>create</u> <u>my</u> <u>own</u> <u>toy</u> <u>airplane</u> .
/uw/ + V → /ow/ + V → /aw/ + V →	Add a /w/ glide between the words as a link to the following vowel.	<u>Stuart</u> is <u>now</u> <u>in</u> <u>New</u> <u>Orleans</u> .
VC + V →	Word-final consonant links to the following vowel.	That <u>dog</u> <u>is</u> <u>black</u> <u>and</u> <u>white</u> .
VCC + V →	The last consonant in a cluster links to the following vowel.	I <u>found</u> <u>out</u> that Bob broke his <u>left</u> <u>arm</u> .
C + C →	Two identical consonants blend into one longer consonant.	The doctors found a <u>quick</u> <u>cure</u> in a <u>short</u> <u>time</u> .
C ₁ + C ₂ →	A stop followed by a stop or affricate: The first stop is not released and the two blend.	My <u>pet</u> <u>cat</u> is sitting by the <u>blackboard</u> .

Assimilation

Sometimes a sound becomes more similar to a sound that comes before or after it.

This makes the words easier to pronounce. Every language has some kind of assimilation, although not all languages use assimilation in exactly the same way.

- **Progressive assimilation:** The first sound causes the second sound to change.
- **-s and -ed endings:** The endings are voiced after a voiced sound, voiceless after a voiceless sound. (See Chapter 11 for more details.)
- **Regressive assimilation:** The second sound causes the first sound to change.
- have to “hafta” has to “hasta” used to “usta”

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- good boy at peace pet kitten in pain in May in California in good health

- **Coalescent assimilation:** Two sounds blend together to make a new sound.

- **Palatalization:** Don't you think so? I'll miss you. Does your mother know?

Is that your dog? Did you study? She needs your help.

- **Deletion:**

In normal speech, a sound may disappear or not be clearly pronounced *in certain contexts*.

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(Not just anyplace—only in these environments.) This is also called “omission.”

- Loss of /t/: V + nt + V □□VnV winter /wln´r/ Toronto /t´rAnow/
- Simplification of consonant clusters: In final clusters of three or four consonants, a *middle* consonant is sometimes dropped.

(Never the first or last consonant.)

- The desks sit side by side. five-sixths facts months

/ss/ /ks/ /ks/ /ns/

- East side blind man old boyfriend

/ss/ /nm/ /lb/

- Sounds are deleted in some very common words and expressions:

- going to gonna want to wanna should have shoulda
- because ‘cause about ‘bout around ‘round

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• February /fEbyuwEriy/ governor /g√v´n´r/

surprise /s´prayz/

• Sometimes entire unstressed syllables are omitted (but only in particular words--not just anyplace.) This is called “syncope” by people who like big words.

chocolate vegetable restaurant family

• **Epenthesis:** In very few cases, an extra syllable is added to make a word easier to pronounce. The most common example is when an extra vowel // is added before an -ed or -s word ending.

• **Word Stress:** The syllable in a word that is longer, louder, and higher in pitch than others. If a word has more than one syllable, one of them is stressed the most. It’s very important to get the

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stress in the right place. Without correct stress, words may not be understood.

- The syllables of a word may have one of three degrees of stress:

- **Strongly stressed** (also called primary stress)

- **Lightly stressed** (also called secondary stress)

- **Unstressed** (also called tertiary stress)

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Mark the primary and secondary stress (if any) in these words:

ten nis

re li a ble

pro nounce

or gan i za tion

re pre sen ta tive

pro nun ci a tion

There are rules that can often predict where the stress will fall in a word. They take into account the historical origin of a word, affixation, and the word's grammatical function in a sentence. Sometimes a change in word stress indicates a change in the part of speech:

Noun

Verb

REcord

reCORD

PROgress

proGRESS

EXploit

exPLOIT

PREsent

preSENT

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PERvert perVERT
PERmit permit

- Compound nouns are usually stressed on the first part of the compound.

BLACKbird OVERflow

- Compound verbs are usually stressed on the last part of the compound.
- Vowel sounds are often changed (reduced) in unstressed syllables.

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- It's important for unstressed syllables to be *much* weaker than stressed syllables. This helps the listener recognize the whole pattern of the word.

Sentence Stress: The syllable in a sentence or clause that receives the most emphasis or prominence.

- Sentence stress is often used to emphasize a word to emphasize it or to show that it is new information.
- **Content words:** Words that carry information. They have meaning in themselves.

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- **Function words:** Words that show the grammatical relationships between other words, but don't have much meaning in themselves.
- In a sentence, content words tend to be stressed, and function words tend not to be stressed.

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Content Words	Function Words
Nouns	Articles
Main verbs	Auxiliary verbs
Adjectives	Personal pronouns
Possessive pronouns	Possessive adjectives
Demonstrative pronouns	Demonstrative adjectives
Interrogatives (question words)	Prepositions
Not and negative contractions	conjunctions
Adverbs	
Adverbial particles	

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Rhythm: The regular, patterned beat of stressed and unstressed syllables and pauses in an utterance.

- English is a stress-timed language. This means that the time between stressed syllables remains fairly steady, and extra syllables have to crowd in between the stressed syllables. Each syllable does *not* last the same length of time. English has a rhythm like this:



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- Many other languages are syllable-timed. This means that each syllable takes about the same amount of time. These languages have a very regular rhythm, like this:

NNNN NNN

- Listen to the rhythm of these sentences. They all have three main stressed syllables and take about the same amount of time to say, even though some have many more syllables.

MICE EAT CHEESE.

The MICE EAT the CHEESE.

The MICE will have EATen the CHEESE.

The MICE might have been EATing the CHEESE.

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- For the rhythm of English to sound natural, the pattern of stressed and unstressed syllables must be right.

All the things we've read about in this chapter work together to promote the regularity of English rhythm.

Stressed syllables stand out. Unstressed syllables squeeze in between the stressed syllables, and sound changes make their articulation easier so that regular timing can be maintained. This produces the “music” of English.

Clusters

Consonant clusters are groups of two or more consonant sounds in a row.

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stop strong desk desks explain cluster

Consonant clusters can be difficult for learners from many language backgrounds. They often cope by:

- Simplifying the consonant clusters by omitting some sounds:

desk /dEs/

- Adding extra vowels to separate the consonants: sport /sUport/

or /Espoort/

These errors can cause problems in being understood.

Vowel sounds are sometimes changed by the sounds around them.

• **Length:**

Vowels are usually shorter in duration before voiceless sounds and longer before voiced sounds. They're longest of all when they come at the end of a word.

Compare:

bed / bet bead / beat man / mast hill / hit

• **/r/ coloring:**

Some vowel contrasts are neutralized before /r/. Look at these words:

bead / bid / beer "Bead" /biyd/ and "bid" /bld/ are separate words with different vowel sounds.

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But we could pronounce “beer” either /blr/ or /biyr/ without changing its meaning.

load / laud / lord In the same way, “load” /lowd/ and “laud” /lɔd/ have contrasting vowels, but with “lord,” we could say /lɔrd/ or /lowrd/ without changing the meaning.

• // coloring:

To a lesser extent, vowel contrasts before // are also sometimes weaker. Examples:

heal / hill / he'll she'll we'll I'll you'll they'll

- **Nasal coloring:**

Vowels followed by a nasal sound also tend to be nasalized.

Examples:

seem seen sing can can't

- The contrast between the words **“can”** and **“can't”** is often especially troublesome.

- “Can't” is usually stressed. It sounds like /kɑnt/ or /kɑn/, with a clear /ɑ/ sound.

I can't go with you. Who can't afford a new car?

- “Can” is usually unstressed. It often sounds like /kʌn/ or /kn/, with a reduced vowel.

I can go with you. Who can afford a new car?

- But when “can” is alone, with no verb after it, it’s usually stressed.

Yes, I can. I can tomorrow, but not right now.

Phonetic Rules:

I. Here are the most commonly used rules:

1. Every syllable in every word must contain a vowel. The vowels are: a, e, i, o, u, and y (although y is a consonant when at the beginning of a word).

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2. When "c" is followed by "e, i, or y," it usually has the soft sound of "s." Example: city.
3. When "g" is followed by "e, i, or y," it usually has the soft sound of "j." Example: gem.
4. A consonant digraph is two or more consonants that are grouped together and represent a single sound. Here are consonant digraphs you should know: wh (what), sh (shout), wr (write), kn (know), th (that), ch (watch), ph (laugh), tch (watch), gh (laugh), ng (ring).
5. When a syllable ends in a consonant and has only one vowel, that vowel is short. Examples: tap, bed, wish, lock, bug.

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6. When a syllable ends in a silent "e," the vowel that comes before the silent "e" is long. Examples: take, gene, bite, hope, fuse.
7. When a syllable has two vowels together, the first vowel is usually long and the second vowel is silent. Example: stain.
8. When a syllable ends in a vowel and is the only vowel, that vowel is usually long. Examples: ba/ker, be/come, bi/sect, go/ing, fu/ture, my/self.
9. When a vowel is followed by "r" in the same syllable, the vowel is neither long nor short. Examples: charm, term, shirt, corn, surf.

Voiced Consonants?

VS

Unvoiced Consonants?

A consonant is a sound that causes two points of your mouth to come into contact, in three locations—the lips, the tip of the tongue, and the throat. A consonant can either be unvoiced (whispered) or voiced (spoken), and it can appear at the

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beginning, middle, or end of a word. You'll notice that for some categories, a particular sound doesn't exist in English.

Initial		Medial		Final	
Unvoiced	Voiced	Unvoiced	Voiced	Unvoiced	Voiced

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pa <u>r</u> ry	bu <u>r</u> y	ap <u>p</u> le	ab <u>l</u> e	mo <u>p</u>	mo <u>b</u>
fe <u>r</u> ry	ve <u>r</u> y	af <u>r</u> aid	av <u>o</u> id	off	of
ste <u>w</u>	zo <u>o</u>	ra <u>c</u> es	rai <u>s</u> es	fa <u>c</u> e	ph <u>a</u> se
she <u>t</u>		pre <u>s</u> sure	plea <u>s</u> ure	cr <u>u</u> sh	gar <u>a</u> ge
tw <u>o</u>	do	pet <u>a</u> l	ped <u>a</u> l	no <u>t</u>	no <u>d</u>
cho <u>k</u> e	jo <u>k</u> e	gau <u>ch</u> o	gou <u>g</u> er	ri <u>ch</u>	ri <u>d</u> ge
th <u>i</u> nk	th <u>a</u> t	eth <u>e</u> r	eth <u>e</u> r	tooth	smoo <u>th</u>
co <u>m</u> e	g <u>u</u> m	bick <u>e</u> r	bigg <u>e</u> r	pick	pi <u>g</u>
		acc <u>e</u> nt	ex <u>i</u> t	tax	tag <u>s</u>
	ye <u>s</u>		play <u>e</u> r		day
	wo <u>o</u> l		sho <u>w</u> er		no <u>w</u>
h <u>i</u> s		ah <u>e</u> ad			
	late		col <u>l</u> ect		tow <u>e</u> l
	ra <u>t</u> e		cor <u>r</u> ect		to <u>w</u> er
	me		swim <u>m</u> er		sa <u>m</u> e
	ne <u>x</u> t		con <u>n</u> ect		ma <u>n</u>
			fi <u>n</u> ger		ri <u>n</u> g

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Rules:

1- [t] and [n] are so close in the mouth that the [t] can simply disappear.

1. interview innerview

2. interface innerface

3. Internet innernet

4. interstate innerstate

5. interrupt innerrupt

6. interfere innerfere

1. interactive inneractive

8. international innernational

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9. advantage ədvæn'j
10. percentage persen'j
11. twenty twenny
12. printout prinnout or prindout
13. printer prinner or prinder
14. winter winner or winder
15. enter enner or ender

2- Read the following sentences out loud.

1.He had a great interview.

Try to enter the information

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1. Turn the printer on.
2. Finish the printing
3. She's at the international center.

Presidential Candidates' Debate

The prezədənt təmārrou naidiz ɛpɛktədiniz staidəv thə yoonyən mesəj tə prəpouz fedrəl səbzədəez tə help lou(w)inkəm fæmleez ouvrkəm thə sou-käld dijədəl dəväid. Izidə n əpropree(y)ət yusəv gəvrmt fənz tə həndæot kəmpyudrz ən prəväid innernet æksɛs tə thouz hu cæn(d)əford it; ənd if nāt, why nāt. Will bəgin with Mr. Keez. I think this iz ənəthər keis

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whær pälätishänz try dæ jämpän thæ bændwægən əv səmthing thæt's going än in thee(y) əcänəmee, sou evreebædeez gənnə think thæt they ækchølee hæv səmthing tæ do with thæ ræzəlt when they dont. Thærz nou need fr this. Wiräl reddy seeing æot thær prəpouzəlz fr thæ distrəbyushən əv free PeeCees, nät beis dän səm pälätishən meiking ə judgment ən spending tæxpeiyer mənee, bæt beis dän thæ self-intrst əv thouz hu(w)är involvd inə nyu world, ə nyu world ən which p'rtisəpeishən iz thæ kee dæ präfit— ənd in which thær iz ækchølee ə sträng insentiv əmæng thouz hu prtisəpeidin thæ präivət sektər tæ giv æksɛss tæ indəvijəls sou thæt they c'n impruv their äpərtynədəez fr präfit, fr infərmeishn shəring. Thæts whəts älredde bin going än—it will kəntinyu. Thær iz nou need fr thæ gəvərmənt tæ prətend thæt it

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needs tō teik leedership hir. I think thæts jæt pælidækəl
päsjuring.

Senædər Mə(k)kein.

I bæleev th't wee du hæv ə præbləm. æn thædiz thət thærizə
growing gæp bætween thə hævz ənd hæv-näts in əmærikə,
thouz thædr eibl də teik pærdin this infərmeishn teknäləjee ən
thouz th't hævnt. Wee took ə məijər step forwərd when wee
dəsaidəd də wäi(y)r evree skool ən lybrɛree in əmerikə tō
thee(y)innənet. Thætsə güd prougrəm. Wee hæv tō hæv step
tu, three, ən four, which meenz güd əkwipmənt, güd teeçərz
ənd güd clæssroomz. No, I wüdn du(w)it d'rektle. Bət thærz läts
əv weiz th'chyu kən inkerəj korpəreishnz, who in their own self-
intrest, wüd wänt tō prævoid... wüd rəseev tæks benəfits, wüd

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ræseev kredit, ænd mæny æthær weiz fr beeing invælvd in thæ skoolz, in æpgreiding thæ kwälædee æv ækwipmænt th't thei hæv, thæ kwälædee æv thæ styudænts ænd thærby prævaiding æ mæch-needed well-treind wærkfors.

Thæng kyu. Mr. Forbz.

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Key:

The president tomorrow night is expected in his State of the Union message to propose federal subsidies to help low- income families overcome the so-called digital divide. Is it an appropriate use of government funds to hand out computers and provide Internet access to those who can't afford it, and if not, why not? We'll begin with Mr. Keyes. "I think this is another case where politicians try to jump on the bandwagon of something that's going on in the economy, so everybody's gonna think that they actually have something to do with the result when they don't. There's no need for this. We're already seeing out there proposals for the distribution of free PCs, not based on some politician making a judgment and spending taxpayer money, but based on the self-interest of those who are involved in a new world, a new world in which participation is the key to profit—and in which there is actually a strong incentive among those who participate on the private sector to give access to individuals so that they can improve their opportunities for profit, for information

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sharing. That's what's already been going on—it will continue. There is no need for the government to pretend that it needs to take leadership here. I think that's just political posturing." Senator McCain. "I believe that we do have a problem. And that is that there is a growing gap between the haves and have-nots in America, those that are able to take part in this information technology and those that haven't. We took a major step forward when we decided to wire every school and library in

America to the Internet. That's a good program. We have to have step two, three, and four, which means good equipment, good teachers, and good classrooms. No, I wouldn't do it directly. But there's lots of ways that you can encourage corporations, who in their own self-interest, would want to provide ... would receive tax benefits, would receive credit, and many other ways for being involved in the schools, in

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upgrading the quality of equipment that they have, the quality of the students, and thereby providing a much-needed well-trained workforce." Thank you. Mr. Forbes.

Assimilation

The adjustment of the articulation of words as a consequence of their immediate spoken environment can happen in various ways. When an adjustment is made to accommodate an actual phonetic feature in the immediate environment, that process of simplification is known as assimilation. The adjustment makes the phoneme more similar to its environment. The adjustment of the / n / in ten to the velar articulation of the / g / in green is a

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case of assimilation: the / n / becomes velar / N / which shares an identical feature with the velar articulation of / g /. Similarly, the / n / of green becomes bilabial / m / in anticipation of the bilabial articulation of / b / in bottles.

/ n / in word-final position regularly adjusts itself in English to the anticipated point of articulation of the consonant at the beginning of the next word. You might have noticed what also happens to the / n / of one and nine in the song. Think of common phrases with the prepositions on and in which are followed by words beginning with bilabial / p, b, m / and you will

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notice that the / n / easily adjusts itself to / m / in anticipation. on

purpose Qm "p3:p@s in person Im "p3:sn

Now listen to and transcribe

on paper _____ in print _____ on principle _____ in prison

on behalf _____ in between _____ on balance _____ in

Bristol _____

on Monday _____ in March _____ on my behalf _____ in

medicine _____

Notice that in cases like on Monday and in March, there is a 'double' / m / - a single articulation of double length to account for the final / m / of on and in and the initial / m / of the following

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word. Otherwise it would sound like om unday im arch which does not sound typical of native English speech.

In a parallel way, word-final / n / easily adjusts to a velar / N / in anticipation of following velar consonants / k, g /. on call QN "kO:l in case IN "kels

Listen and transcribe

on course _____ in keeping _____ on guard _____ in
Gloucester _____ on grass _____ in goal _____

Assimilation of final / n / is common in many other languages, including Latin, where the bilabial assimilation was actually expressed in the orthography: in + possibilis > impossibilis. As a result we have spellings like impossible, improper, impress, imbalance, imbecile, immense, immeasurable in English.

* **Assimilation of final / d /** in English is almost parallel to that of / n /, but this is not matched in many other languages. The / d / becomes bilabial / b / - retaining its voicing – before bilabial / p, b, m /, and becomes velar / g / before velar / k, g /. (This is true of most English accents, though West Walian English is an exception.)

Notice the process in bad penny "bab peni red kite reg "kait

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good boy _____ bad girl _____ red meat _____

good gracious _____

Notice it too in the greetings: good morning "gub "mo:nin goodbye
"gub "bai

Notice that in cases like good boy, goodbye, there is a 'double' / b
/ - a single articulation of double length to account for the final /

b / in / gub / and the initial / b / of the following word, likewise, a
'double' / g / in bad girl.

But final / d / also becomes post-alveolar / d³ / before palatal / j /.

Notice the process in a bad year

Assimilation of final / t /

In English used to be exactly parallel to assimilation of final / d /,
producing / p / and / k / - retaining voicelessness – before
bilabial / b, d, m / and velar / k, g /. As in hot potato and white
cross

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But a new tendency has developed and that is to articulate final / t / as a glottal stop [ʔ]. This produces hot as ["hoʔ] and white as ["waiʔ], which eliminates any possibility of assimilation.

Listen to the two possibilities in the following phrases:

hot [ʔ] potato

hot / p / potato

white [ʔ] cross

white / k / cross

not [ʔ] bad

not / p / bad

eight [ʔ] goals

eight / k / goals

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Final / s / and / z / assimilate to post-alveolar / ʃ / and / Z / in the face of post-alveolar / ʃ, tʃ, dʒ / and palatal / j /, Consider phrases with this / Dɪs / and these / di:z /

this chair _____ these chairs _____ this job _____
these jobs _____ this year _____ these years
_____ Notice that in cases like this shop, bus shelter, there

is a 'double' / ʃ / to account for the /ʃ/ assimilation at the end of the first word and the /ʃ/ at the beginning of the following word.

Historically, this post-alveolar assimilation of / s, z / before / j / accounts for the /ʃ, Z / in words like pressure, mission and pleasure, vision and, more recently, in issue, usual. It also accounts for the /ʃ/ at the beginning of words like sure, sugar.

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Notice also how / s / readily assimilates to /ʒ/ before the / tʃ / in words like mischief.

Elision

A second type of simplification involves not an adjustment to a sound, but its complete removal. This is known as elision; the missing sound is said to have been elided.

Take the name Christmas as an example; it used to be a compound consisting of Christ and mass, but in the course of time, the / t / of the first word has been elided, and nowadays nobody would normally pronounce the name with a / t /. Similarly, the word handkerchief used to be a compound consisting of hand and kerchief, but again in the course of time the / d / of the first word has been elided.

As it happens, elision mainly affects final / t, d / if they are preceded by a consonant – as in the cases above – and also

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followed by a word beginning with a consonant – again, as in the cases above.

First of all, we will consider the elision of final /d/. Notice what has happened to the / d / in these other (formerly compound) words: handsome, sandwich, grandfather, grandchildren.

Notice too that as / d / is elided in grandparents, the preceding / n / is adjacent to a bilabial consonant and assimilates to / p / by becoming / m /:

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Transcribe:

grandpa _____

grandmother _____

grandma _____

keeping a 'double' / m / for the assimilating / n / and the / m / of
the second part of the compound.

Transcribe

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windmill

windbag

handset "hanset

landscape _____

bandstand _____

friendship _____

bend them _____

Now cases where / d / is preceded by / l /

old men _____

child protection _____

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goldfish _____

fold them-----

Thus, / d / elision takes place if it is word-final, preceded by a consonant and followed immediately by a word beginning with a consonant (but with the above exceptions). It also takes place if a suffix follows which begins with the right kind of consonant. Thus / d / is elided in friends, and may optionally be elided in friendly.

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What about these words?

friendship _____ blindness _____ childless _____

worldly _____ handful _____ child's play _____

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