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Авраменко Б. В.

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Рецензенти: О.Ю. Карпенко – доктор філологічних наук, професор,
завідувач кафедри граматики англійської
мови Одеського національного
університету імені І.І.Мечникова;

Н.О. Бачинська – кандидат педагогічних наук, доцент
кафедри іноземних мов Військової
академії (м. Одеса)

Даний навчальний посібник містить у собі вивчення звукового складу сучасної англійської мови та фонемної структури англійського слова, розгляд співвідношень звукових і графічних засобів, докладний опис складових структур, англійської просодії, а також фонетичних процесів, що протікають в потоці мовлення, що звучить.

Основною метою нашого посібника є послідовне і всебічне вивчення особливостей англійської вимови в його комунікативних і територіальних різновидах, розгляд фонетичного ладу сучасної англійської мови як системи різнорівневих функціональних одиниць, які використовуються в різних комунікативних цілях.

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ПЕРЕДМОВА

Теоретична фонетика, що вивчає звуковий склад мови, звукові засоби та їх функції, а також особливості різноманітних вимовних стилів мовлення, входить в цикл теоретичних дисциплін загально-професійної підготовки фахівців з англійської мови.

У процесі вивчення англійської мови студенти знайомляться з двома курсами фонетики: практичної та теоретичної. Практична фонетика вивчає матеріальну форму фонетичних явищ по відношенню до сенсу. Теоретична фонетика англійської мови пов'язана з функціонуванням фонетичних одиниць у мові, розглядає роль фонетичних засобів в акті комунікації. Тому основою для даного навчального посібника буде слугувати саме практична фонетика.

Теоретичний курс фонетики англійської мови розкриває наступні теми: фонетика як наука; фоностилістика; фонема як одиниця мови; система англійських фонем: органи мовлення і їх робота, класифікація голосних і приголосних звуків; алітерація і модифікація фонем у мовленні; функціонально-стилістичний аспект вимови; наголос; інтонація; регіональні варіанти вимови в англійській мові.

Основними завданнями курсу є:

- подача систематичної класифікації функціональних фонетичних одиниць;
- пояснення використання цих одиниць в процесі комунікації;
- подача наукових основ фонетичних одиниць і процесів в мові, що вивчається;
- надання учням знання про варіанти англійської мови.

Головна мета даного навчального посібника - дати студентам можливість дізнатися про особливості фонетичної системи, які можуть допомогти їм використовувати лінгвістичні знання в процесі вивчення англійської мови. Відповідно до поставленої мети посібник містить такі частини, як: лекції, практичні завдання, екзаменаційні питання, рекомендована навчально-методична література та англо-російський глосарій фонетичних термінів.

У процесі вивчення лексичного матеріалу студенти отримують інформацію про норми мови, що вивчається, її звукову систему, акцентуацію та інтонацію. Так як теоретична фонетика тісно пов'язана з практикою, то в посібнику представлені практичні завдання у вигляді скоромовок, прислів'їв та приказок, перевірочних питань в кінці кожної лекції та екзаменаційні питання з метою перевірки закріплення вивченого матеріалу.

У списку рекомендованої навчально-методичної літератури подано основні джерела, які можуть знадобитися студентам, що вивчають курс теоретичної фонетики.

Глосарій англо-російських фонетичних термінів дозволяє студентам засвоювати термінологію по темі.

Даний навчальний посібник призначений для студентів, які вивчають англійську мову, в групах або самостійно. Також може бути використаний при написанні курсових і дипломних робіт.

LECTURE PART

Lecture №1

Phonetics as a branch of linguistics

Phonetics as a science is concerned with the human noises by which the thought is actualized or given audible shape: the nature of these noises, their combinations, and their functions in relation to the meaning. The term «phonetics» comes from the Greek word «*phone*» translated as «sounds».

Phonetics studies the sound system of the language, that is segmental phonemes, word-stress, syllabic structure and intonation. Phonetics is a basic branch of linguistics; neither linguistic theory nor linguistic practice can do without phonetics and no language description is complete without phonetics, the science concerned with the spoken medium of language. That is why phonetics claims to be of equal importance with grammar or lexicology.

Phonetics has two main divisions: on the one hand «*phonology*», the study of the sound patterns of languages, of how a spoken language functions as a «*code*», and on the other – the study of *substance*, that carries the code.

Phonology is the branch of phonetics that studies the linguistic function of consonant and vowel sounds, syllabic structure, word accent and prosodic features, such as pitch, stress and tempo. The phoneticians are interested in the way in which sound phenomena function in a particular language, how they are utilized in that language and what part they play in manifesting the meaningful distinctions of the language.

There are three branches of phonetics each corresponding to a different stage in the communication process. The branch of phonetics that studies the way in which the air is set in motion, the movements of the speech organs and the

coordination of these movements in the pronunciation of single sounds and trains of sounds is called *articulatory phonetics*.

Acoustic phonetics studies the way in which the air vibrates between the speaker's mouth and the listener's ear. The means by which we discriminate sounds-quality, sensations of pitch, loudness, length are relevant here. This branch of phonetics is of great interest to anyone who teaches or studies pronunciation.

The branch of phonetics investigating the hearing process is known as *auditory phonetics*. Its interests lie more in the sensation of hearing, which is brain activity, than in the physiological working of the ear or the nervous activity between the ear and the brain.

Phonetics is in itself divided into two major components: *segmental phonetics*, which is concerned with individual sounds («*segments*» of speech) and *suprasegmental phonetics* whose domain is the larger units of connected speech: syllables, words, phrases and texts.

Another subdivision of phonetics: a) general phonetics – studies general laws, formulates general theories (theory of intonation, syllable formation, phoneme); b) special phonetics – based on general phonetics, it deals with phonetical peculiarities of a certain language; c) some linguists distinguish historical phonetics – it traces the development of the phonetic system in the course of time finding out the basic laws of the system.

Language is not an isolated phenomenon; it is a part of society and a part of ourselves. It is a prerequisite for the development of any society. No branch of linguistics can be studied without presupposing at least the study of other aspects of society.

We see the development of quite distinct interdisciplinary subjects such as *sociolinguistics* (*sociophonetics*), *psycholinguistics*, *phonostylistics*, *mathematical linguistics* and others.

Sociolinguistics (*sociophonetics*) studies the way in which pronunciation interacts with society. It is the study of the way in which phonetic structures

change in response to different social functions and the deviations of what these functions are.

Psycholinguistics as a distinct area of interest covers the psychological implications of an extremely broad area, from acoustic phonetics to language pathology (discusses the problem of acquisition of language by children, the extent to which language is influenced and influences such things as memory, attention, recall and constraints on perception, the extent to which language has a certain role to play in the understanding of human development, the problems of speech production).

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

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

Acoustic phonetics comes close to studying *physics* and the tools used in this field enable the investigator to measure and analyze the movement of the air in terms of *acoustics*.

A study of phonetics has educational value for almost everyone realizing the importance of language in human communication. The study of the complex of various communication techniques is definitely relevant *to teaching a foreign language*.

As regards the learning of specific foreign languages, there has never been a time in the world when the ability of growing numbers of people to speak one another's language really well has been of such significance as now.

Knowledge of the structure of sound systems, and of the articulatory and acoustic properties of the production of speech is necessary in teaching foreign

languages. The teacher has to know the starting point, which is the sound system of the pupil's mother tongue as well as the aim of his teaching, which is a mastery of the pronunciation of the language to be learnt. He must be able to point out the difference between these two, and to arrange adequate training exercises. Ear training and articulatory training are both equally important in modern language teaching. The introductory of technical equipment – disks, taperecorders, language laboratories, etc. – has brought about a revolution in teaching pronunciation of a foreign language.

Questions:

1. What is phonetics?
2. Identify the object and the subject of phonetics.
3. What is phonology? How is it related to phonetics?
4. Analyze the three branches of phonetics.
5. Name the segmental and suprasegmental elements.
6. With which sciences is phonetics connected?
7. Explain the role of phonetics in foreign language teaching.
8. What methods are used in phonetic investigations?

Read, translate and learn by heart tongue twisters, proverbs and sayings.

1. Curiosity killed the cat.
2. Kate has a cat and a car and a hare.
3. A cat may look at a king.
4. A canner, exceedingly canny, one morning remarked to his granny, «A canner can can anything that he can, but a canner can't can a can, can he?»
5. Care killed a cat, not work.
6. So that accounts for the milk in the coconut.

Lecture №2

Phonostylistics and the stylistic use of intonation

1. Problems of Phonostylistics.

A speaker uses a great number of varieties of the language according to the situations he finds himself in. As he/she moves through the day, so the variety of the language he/she uses is moving. It is changed instinctively or consciously at home, with friends, at work, so on. An educated speaker is multilingual. Functional stylistics studies certain aspects of language variations. The aim of it is to analyze language habits and identify the linguistic features which are restricted to certain social contexts, to explain them and to classify them.

It is important to realize what kind of English is used in the process of teaching. We all agree that we are to teach the norm of English. But there isn't much agreement as far as the term «norm» is concerned. This term is interpreted in different ways. Some scholars associate «norm» with the so-called «neutral» style. According to this conception all stylistically marked parameters do not belong to the norm. More suitable, however, seems to be the conception which considers the norm as a complex of all functional styles.

There are three so called levels of functional stylistics: *lexical, syntactic and phonetic*. We shall deal only with phonetic stylistics or phonostylistics.

Phonostylistics studies the way phonetic means of the language function in various oral realizations of the language. The choice of the phonetic means suitable to this or that situation depends on a number of factors, among which extra-linguistics ones are very important as they result in phonostylistic varieties.

The most important extra-linguistic factor is the aim of utterance, which is a sort of strategy for the language user. People speak in order to inform, persuade, instruct, narrate, etc. In each particular case speakers select a number of intonational means that serve his/her purpose and make his/her speech more

effective. That is why the aim of utterance is considered to be a style-forming factor, whereas the rest are style-modifying ones.

The nature of intercourse or the form of speech can also influence the choice of a phonetic style. It suggests listening, speaking, or exchanging remarks and may be a lecture, a discussion, a conversation, etc. Depending on the number of participants it may be a monologue, a dialogue or a polilogue. The last factor sets the degree of speech spontaneity or preparedness. An utterance can be qualified as fully spontaneous, when the verbal realization of speech is simultaneous to reproduction of the idea in the mind of the speaker. Speech is half-prepared when the speaker has thought over what he/she is going to say (for example, a teacher giving explanations at a lesson). Speech is fully prepared when the speaker prepares the reading of a piece of prose (or poetry) or when he/she quotes. In this case the speech is prepared in advance, is written on paper and is generally read.

Other style-modifying factors include social and psychological situations. The occupations of the speaker and the listener, the social status, age and gender determine the degree of formality of speech and the attitudes expressed (it may be a friendly talk, a formal conversation, public or non-public speech, etc.). If the situation is formal the speaker will tend to articulate more slowly and carefully. Individual sounds will be given their full forms, none will be omitted. In a very informal situation, on the other hand, he/she will be more likely to speak quickly, less carefully, and some sounds will either change their form or be omitted entirely.

All these factors are interconnected and interdependent in everyday life situations and it's normally the combination of several of them that characterizes the phonetic style.

The task of phonostylistics is firstly, to identify the set of phonetic expressive means, which are stylistically significant; secondly, it must outline a method of analysis, which would allow to arrange these features in such a way as to facilitate the comparison of the use of one language with any other; thirdly it

must decide on the function of these features by classifying them into categories, based on the extra-linguistic purpose they have.

One of the most urgent problems of phonostylistics is the classification of phonetic styles. Different scholars name different styles according to the principle the classification is based on. We give preference to the classification suggested by the phoneticians of our faculty. Taking the aim of utterance as the main principle of their classification they distinguish the following phonetic styles:

- 1) Informational;
- 2) Scientific or academic;
- 3) Publicistic;
- 4) Declamatory;
- 5) Familiar or conversational.

Any of these styles has a great many varieties in accordance with style-modifying factors. Besides any of these styles may be realized either in the form of reading or in the form of speaking.

Speaking and reading are two different psychic processes in which the sounding utterance is generated in different ways. When a person reads a text, he/she has a ready piece of information, written on paper. So he/she doesn't have to think what to say. The only thing he/she has to think of is how to say, how to make it sound proper, according to the norm of the language, suitable for the situation. As a result the usage of phonetic means is characterized by a high degree of regularity.

When a person produces a spontaneous text, that has not been written or prepared beforehand, he has to think of both: what and how to say. When such a person starts speaking he/she has only an intention to make an utterance. In most cases he/she doesn't even know how long the utterance is going to continue. The speaker has to decide spontaneously how to express what he intends using proper lexical, phonetic and grammatical means. The main thing that differs reading and speaking is the segmentation (or delimitation) of speech into phrases and

intonation groups. In reading a phrase corresponds to a written sentence. The end of the phrase is marked by a pause with a complete stop of phonation and by the falling nuclear tone. Intonation groups in the text which is read coincide with syntagms. Each intonation group has a semantic centre.

Intonation groups of a spontaneous text may be syntactically complete or incomplete (they may lack a semantic centre). The end of the intonation group is characterized by the absence of any pause and often is pronounced with the mid-level or even rising nuclear tone. While reading a person makes mainly syntactic pauses, those which mark the end of a phrase or an intonation group. Sometimes a reader makes emphatic pauses too, to emphasize the following part of utterance. While speaking a person makes three kinds of pauses – syntactic, emphatic and hesitation, among which hesitations prevail. Hesitation pauses are characteristic of spontaneous speech belonging to any style.

In spontaneous speech semantic centres are more prominent, they are much louder, pronounced at a much higher pitch and are much slower compared to the rest of the utterance. We can say that rhythm in spontaneous texts is often non-systematic, variable and unpredictable.

Normally, each act of communication is addressed at a listener, so it's important to understand what perceptual characteristics of an oral text have a style-differentiating value for him/her. The most important ones are considered to be delimitation (or segmentation), the accentuation of semantic centres and the speaker's timbre.

2. Intonational Styles.

Now we are going to discuss the main intonational features of each style. It should be born in mind that each style exists in a number of varieties which depend on the style-modifying factors.

1) Informational Style

It seems to be the most neutral as its main purpose is to convey information without expressing any emotions or attitudes. It is the least marked kind of situationally influenced English. This kind of style is used mostly in broadcasting,

press reporting, oral representation of any information or a written text, in formal business conversations and classroom teaching.

Among the prosodic features characteristic of this style we should mention the following:

- a) Low Fall/Rise with Descending Heads and High Level Head;
- b) stable and normal loudness;
- c) normal or relatively slow speed;
- d) mostly syntactic pauses;
- e) systematic and properly organised rhythm.

2) *Academic Style*

It is used in lectures, scientific discussions, conferences, etc. Its purpose is to inform, to win the attention and interest of the public, to establish a contact with the audience. As it is an intellectual and volitional type of speech (the speaker appeals to the intellect and will of the listener) it requires some emotional colouring. It is achieved by varying prosodic features, by the alternation of pauses, types of heads and terminal tones, by using tempo contrasts:

- a) High/Low Falls and Fall-Rises with Stepping Head;
- b) rather high loudness;
- c) a large proportion of pauses that serve to bring out semantic centres;
- d) normal or relatively slow speed
- e) systematic and properly organized rhythm.

3) *Publicistic Style*

This is the style of public discussions on political, judicial or economic topics, sermons, parliamentary debates. Its aim is to persuade, to influence, to involve the audience into the talk and to make the listeners take the speaker's point of view. It is never spontaneous and is often even rehearsed. This style is extremely emotional, mimics and gestures are widely applied.

The prosodic features are the following:

- a) a lot of High Falls and Fall-Rises with Descending and Ascending Heads;
- b) changes of loudness from fortissimo to whispering;

- c) rather slow speed;
- d) intonation groups are not short, separated with rather long mostly syntactical and emphatic pauses;
- e) properly organized rhythm.

4) *Declamatory Style*

It is used on stage, TV screen or in class in reading aloud prose or poetry. Its aim is to appeal simultaneously to the mind and emotions of the listener, so this style is highly emotional and expressive. It requires special training. On the prosodic level the following features are the most common:

- a) falling, level nuclear tones with Low/High Level or Stepping Head;
- b) varied loudness;
- c) rather slow speed;
- d) properly organized and stable rhythm.

5) *Conversational Style*

This is the style of every-day communication between friends, relatives, well-acquainted people. It is relaxed, characterized by the lack of planning, so it is unpredictable, there are a lot of errors, slips, hesitations, elliptical constructions:

- a) falling or rising tones with Level or Falling Heads;
- b) normal loudness;
- c) varied speed;
- d) intonation groups are rather short separated by pauses, mostly hesitations, which;
- e) can be both silent and filled;
- f) irregular rhythm.

As we have mentioned already, each style has some varieties depending on the extra-linguistic factors. Each can be realized in different forms: monologue, dialogue, polilogue, in speaking and reading, etc. It's also important to note that any style is seldom realized in its pure form, each oral text usually includes phonetic characteristics of different styles, so there's overlapping (or fusion) of styles. But the knowledge of peculiarities of the usage of different phonetic styles

improves the effectiveness of speech, facilitates understanding and communication, so it shouldn't be ignored in both teaching and learning a foreign language.

Questions:

1. What does phonostylistics study?
2. What is «the style»? Explain the difference between phonetic and functional style.
3. Speak about the purpose of communication.
4. Enumerate the factors that determine the variation of phonetic means.
5. Why is the aim of communication called the most important «style forming factor»? What aims of communication can be distinguished? Give your own examples.
6. Comment on the formality of the situation. What are social relations reflected in?
7. How is discourse described in terms of the number of addressees.
8. Try and suggest types of speech-situations that lead to spontaneous speech.
9. What are the most important characteristics of a spoken spontaneous text?
10. Enumerate the forms of communication. In what way do they determine the choice of phonetic means?
11. What factor is the given classification based on?
12. Which phonetic styles are singled out according to this classification?
13. Speak about each phonetic style: the sphere of discourse, extralinguistic and prosodic characteristics: informational style; academic style; publicistic style; declamatory style; conversational style.

Read, translate and learn by heart tongue twisters, proverbs and sayings.

1. If you go digging in the garden, don't forget your old gray gloves.
2. Three gray geese and green field grazing. Gray were the geese and green was the grazing.

3. To kill the goose that lays the golden eggs.
4. A good dog deserves a good bone.
5. We agreed to go there together.
6. Grace has got good sea-legs.

Lecture №3

Phoneme as a unit of speech

There are a lot of definitions of the phoneme. L.V. Shcherba said: «The phoneme may be viewed as a functional, material and abstract unit». V. A. Vassilyev described the phoneme as «a smallest unit capable of distinguishing one word from another word, one grammatical form of word from another». B. Bloch wrote: «phoneme is a class of phonemically similar sounds contrasting and mutually exclusive with all similar classes in the language». R. Jakobson spoke: «phoneme is a minimal sound by which meaning may be discriminated»

Nowadays the phoneme is characterized from the point of view of its three aspects (functional, material, abstract): *the phoneme is a minimal abstract linguistic unit realized in speech in the form of speech sounds, opposable to other phonemes of the same language to distinguish the meaning of morphemes and words.*

The material aspect of the phoneme is reflected in the definition that the phoneme is the minimal abstract unit realized in speech in a form of speech sounds. It exists in speech of all people who belong to a given language community in a form of speech sounds, but as it occurs in different positions in the word (e.g. in different environments), the phonemes may slightly differ.

For example, compare the sound [t] in the phrase «let us» and «let them», they are not the same. The [t] of «let us» is alveolar while the [t] in «let them» is dental. They are the variants of the phoneme [t] and are called «*allophones*».

Types of allophones and the main features of the phoneme.

Let us consider the English phoneme [d]. It is occlusive, forelingual, apical, alveolar, lenis consonant. This is how it sounds in isolation or in such words as door, darn, down, etc, when it retains its typical articulatory characteristics. In this case the consonant [d] is called principal allophone. The allophones which do not undergo any distinguishable changes in speech are called principal.

Allophones that occur under influence of the neighboring sounds in different phonetic situations are called subsidiary, e.g.: a. deal, did – it is slightly palatalized before front vowels b. bad pain, bedtime – it is pronounced without any plosion c. sudden, admit - it is pronounced with nasal plosion before [n], [m] d. dry – it becomes post-alveolar followed by [r]. If we consider the production of the allophones of the phoneme above we will find out that they possess three articulatory features in common – all of them are forelingual lenis stops.

Consequently, though allophones of the same phoneme possess similar articulatory features they may frequently show considerable phonetic differences.

Native speakers do not observe the difference between the allophones of the same phoneme. At the same time they realize that allophones of each phoneme possess a bundle of distinctive features that makes this phoneme functionally different from all other phonemes of the language. This functionally relevant bundle is called the invariant of the phoneme. All the allophones of the phoneme [d] instance, are occlusive, forelingual, lenis. If occlusive articulation is changed for constrictive one [d] will be replaced by [z]: e. g. breed - breeze, deal — zeal, the articulatory features which form the invariant of the phoneme are called distinctive or relevant. To extract relevant features of the phoneme we have to oppose it to some other phoneme in the phonetic context. If the opposed sounds differ in one articulatory feature and this difference brings about changes in the meaning this feature is called relevant: for example, port — court, [p] and [k] are consonants, occlusive, fortis; the only difference being that [p] is labial and [t] is lingual.

The articulatory features which do not serve to distinguish meaning are called non-distinctive, irrelevant or redundant. For example, it is impossible to oppose an aspirated [ph] to a non-aspirated one in the same phonetic context to distinguish meaning. We know that anyone who studies a foreign language makes mistakes in the articulation of sounds. L.V. Shcherba classifies the pronunciation errors as phonological and phonetic. If an allophone is replaced by an allophone of a different phoneme the mistake is called phonological. If an allophone of the phoneme is replaced by another allophone of the same phoneme the mistake is called phonetic.

In linguistics *function* is generally understood as the role of the various elements of the language in distinguishing the meaning. The function of the phonemes is to distinguish the meaning of morphemes and words. The native speaker doesn't notice the difference between the allophones of the same phoneme because this difference does not distinguish meanings.

But at the same time they realize, that allophones of each phoneme possess a bundle of distinctive features that makes the phoneme functionally different from all other phonemes of the language concerned. This functionally relevant bundle of articulatory features is called the *invariant of the phoneme*. None of the articulatory features that form the invariant of the phoneme can be changed without affecting the meaning. All the allophones of the phoneme [d] are occlusive, forelingual, lenis (if occlusive articulation is changed for constrictive one, [d] will be replaced by [z] – e.g. breed – breeze; [d] will be replaced by [g] if the forelingual articulation is replaced by the backlingual one: dear – gear; the lenis articulation of [d] cannot be substituted by the fortis one without changing the meaning: dry – try). The articulatory features which form the invariant of the phoneme are called distinctive or relevant. To extract relevant features of the phoneme we should oppose it to some other phoneme in the same phonetic context. If the opposed sounds differ in one articulatory feature and this difference brings about changes in the meaning of the words the contrasting features are called relevant (e.g. port – court, both sounds are occlusive and

fortis, the only difference is that [p] is labial and [k] is backlingual. So it is possible to say that labial and backlingual articulations are relevant in the system of English consonants. The articulatory features which do not serve to distinguish meaning are called non-distinctive, irrelevant or redundant; for instance, it is impossible in English to oppose an aspirated [pʰ] to a non-aspirated one in the same phonetic context to distinguish meanings. That is why aspiration is a non-distinctive feature of English consonants.

There are two ways of analyzing speech sounds: *phonological and articulatory*. The aim of the phonological analysis of language is the identification of the phonemes and finding out the patterns of relationship into which they fall as the sound system of that language.

For the articulatory description we need the information of what sort of narrowing is formed by the tip of the tongue and the alveolar ridge, what is the shape of the tongue when the obstruction is made, etc. So if the speech sounds are studied from the articulatory point of view it is the differences and similarities of the production that are in the focus of attention, whereas phonological approach suggests studying the sound system which is actually a set of relationships and oppositions which have functional value.

There are two mainly used methods of phonological analysis: *the distributional and the semantic* methods. The distributional method is used by «structuralists». They group all the sounds pronounced by native speakers into phonemes according to the two laws of phonemic and allophonic distribution:

- a) Allophones of different phonemes occur in the same phonetic context;
- b) Allophones of the same phoneme never occur in the same phonetic context.

Another method of the phonological analysis, widely used in Soviet linguistics, is the semantic method. It is based on a phonemic rule, that phonemes can distinguish words and morphemes when opposed to one another. The semantic method attracts great significance to meaning. It consists of the systematic substitution of the sound for another in order to ascertain in which cases where the phonetic context remains the same such substitution leads to a

change of meaning. This process is called the *communication test*. It consists in finding minimal pairs of words and their grammatical form. By a minimal pair we mean a pair of words or morphemes which are differentiated by only one phoneme in the same position (e.g. [p] – in [pin], [b] – in [bin], [s] – in [sin] – allophones of different phonemes; [p'] – [p'in] – wrong pronunciation but an allophone of the same phoneme).

Questions:

1. Define the notion «phoneme».
2. Is there any difference between a sound and a phoneme?
3. Give characteristics of allophones of one phoneme, of different phonemes.
4. What are the main distinctive features of two phonological methods?

Read, translate and learn by heart tongue twisters, proverbs and sayings.

1. On the tip of your tongue.
2. Better the foot slip than the tongue trip.
3. A tutor who tooted a flute tried to tutor two tooters to toot. Said the two to the tutor: «Is it better to toot or to tutor two tooters to toot?»
4. Temptations are like tramps, let one in and he returns with his friends.
5. A storm in a teacup.
6. Ted is a bit of a wet blanket.

Lecture №4

The System of English Phonemes

The organs of speech and their work

In any language people speak (if they have no physical defects) using their organs of speech. The air stream released by the lungs goes through the windpipe and comes to the larynx, which contains the vocal cords. The vocal cords are two elastic folds which may be kept apart or brought together. The opening between

them is called the glottis. This is the usual state of the vocal cords, when we breathe out. If the tense vocal cords are brought together, the air stream forcing an opening makes them vibrate and we hear some voice. Let us pronounce the Russian sound [ʒ]. Put your finger on the larynx and produce a long [ʒ] sound.

You will feel the vibration of the vocal cords and hear voice. Such sounds are called voiced. Now produce a long Russian sound [ç]. No vibration is felt, no voice is heard. This is a voiceless sound, which is made with the vocal cords kept apart. There is one more state of the vocal cords which results in the glottal stop.

When the vocal cords are brought close together and then opened suddenly by the air stream there comes a sort of coughing noise, a kind of the 'click' of the vocal cords. This sound is called the glottal stop. On coming out of the larynx the air stream passes through the pharynx. The pharyngeal cavity extends from the top of the larynx to the soft palate, which directs the air stream either to the mouth or nasal cavities, which function as the principal resonators. The soft palate can be easily seen in a hand mirror. Now open your mouth wide and say the vowel [a:]. Looking into the mirror you will see the soft palate, the very end of which is known as the uvula. The soft palate can easily move. When the soft palate is in its lowered position the air goes up into the nasal cavity and then out through the nose. This is the usual position of the soft palate when we breathe through the nose. This is also the position for the nasal sounds [m, n, ŋ]; [m, m\ h, h'].

If you nip your nose you cannot pronounce these sounds. But as soon as you release the nose the air will continue its way and you will hear the sounds again. When the soft palate is raised the uvula forms a full contact with the back wall of the pharynx and the air stream goes through the mouth cavity. This is the most typical position of the soft palate for most of the sounds of many languages. The soft palate is the furthest part of the palate from the teeth.

Most of the palate is hard. This hard and fixed part of the palate is divided into two sections: the hard palate (the highest part of the palate) and the *teeth ridge* or alveolar ridge (the part immediately behind the upper front teeth). You

can touch the teeth ridge with the tongue *tip*. The teeth ridge is very important in English as many consonants are formed with the tongue touching or close to it.

If you still move the tip of the tongue forward you will feel the teeth. The lower teeth are not very important for making speech sounds, while the upper teeth take part in the production of many of them. The most important organ of speech is the tongue.

Phoneticians divide the tongue into four sections, the part which lies opposite the soft palate is called the back of the tongue; the part facing the hard palate is called the front; the one lying under the teeth ridge is known as the blade and its extremity the tip, by the central part of the tongue we mean the area where the front and back meet. The edges of the tongue are known as the *rims*.

The tongue may lie flat or move in the horizontal or vertical directions. It can also change its shape so that the sides are curved up forming a groove. The lips can take up various positions as well. They can be brought firmly together or kept apart neutral, rounded, or protruded forward.

All the organs of speech can be divided into two groups (Picture 1):

1. Active organs of speech, movable and taking an active part in the sound formation: 1) the vocal cords which produce voice; 2) the tongue which is the most flexible, movable organ; 3) the lips affecting very considerably the shape of the mouth cavity; 4) the soft palate with the uvula, directing the stream of air either to the mouth or to the nasal cavity; 5) the back wall of the pharynx contracted for some sounds; 6) the lower jaw which movement controls the gap between the teeth and also the disposition of the lips; 7) the lungs providing air for sounds;

2. Passive organs of speech: 1) the teeth, 2) the teeth ridge, 3) the hard palate and 4) the walls of the resonators.

Questions:

1. Tell about organs of speech and try to characterize their work?
2. What kinds of organs of speech do you?
3. Tell about active organs of speech.

4. Tell about passive organs of speech.

Read, translate and learn by heart tongue twisters, proverbs and sayings.

1. Dull as ditch water.

2. Never say die until you're dead.

3. Between the devil and the deep sea.

4. Dan's Dad is a good driver.

5. If a doctor is doctoring a doctor, does the doctor doing the doctoring have to doctor the doctor the way the doctor being doctored wants to be doctored or does the doctor doctor the way he usually doctors?

6. The trip by train took tiresome twenty two hours.

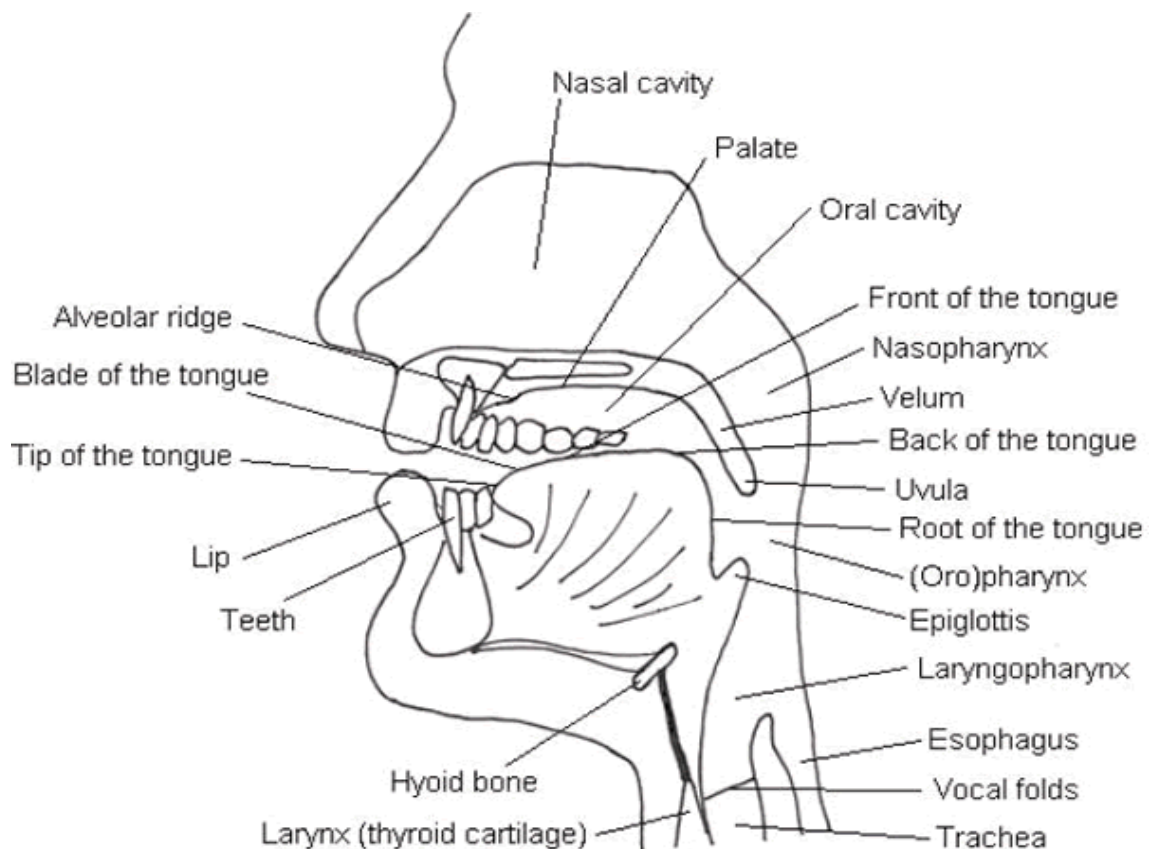


Fig. 1: Organs of Speech

Picture 1. Organs of speech.

Vowels

The quality of a vowel is known to be determined by the size, volume and shape of the mouth resonator, which are modified by the movement of active speech organs, i.e. the tongue and the lips. Besides, the particular quality of a vowel can depend on a lot of other articulatory characteristics, such as the relative stability of the tongue, the position of the lips, physical duration of the segment, the force of articulation, the degree of tenseness of speech organs.

The analysis of the articulatory constituents of the quality of vowels allowed phoneticians to suggest the criteria which are significant in classificatory description: a) stability of articulation; b) tongue position; c) lip position; d) character of the vowel end; e) length; f) tenseness.

Let's consider the above-mentioned principles from phonological point of view.

I. According to the *stability of articulation* all English vowels are divided into four groups: pure vowels or monophthongs, diphthongs, diphthongoids and triphthongs.

Monophthongs are vowels the articulation of which is almost unchanging. The quality of such vowels is relatively pure. The English monophthongs are [i, e, æ, ɑ:, ɒ, ɔ:, ʌ, ɜ:, ə, ʊ]. In the pronunciation of *diphthongs* the organs of speech glide from one vowel position to another within one syllable. The starting point, the nucleus, is strong and distinct. The glide which shows the direction of the quality change is weak. The English diphthongs are [ei, ai, ɔi, aʊ, iə, eə, ʊə].

In the pronunciation of *diphthongoids* the articulation is slightly changing but the difference between the starting point and the end is not distinct as it is in the case of diphthongs. English diphthongoids are [i:, u:]. In Russian the initial [o] may serve as an example of a Russian diphthongoid in the word «ОЧЕНЬ». *Triphthongs* are very rarely, a single syllable may contain three vowel sounds that quickly glide together; this compound vowel sound is known as a (pronounced /'trɪf θɔŋ/). There are three triphthongs that are generally agreed upon

in American English: /aʊə/ («ah-oo-uh»), /aɪə/ («ah-ih-uh»), and /jʊə/ («ee-oo-uh»).

II. The changes in the position of the tongue determine largely the shape of the mouth and pharyngeal cavities. The tongue may move forward and backward, up and down, thus changing the quality of vowel sounds. According to **the tongue position** English vowels may be:

1. *Front vowels*: [i:, e, æ] – the tongue is in the front part of the mouth and the front part of it is raised to the hard palate;

2. *Front-retracted vowels*: [ɪ] – the tongue is in the front part of the mouth and is slightly retracted and the part of the tongue is nearer to front is raised;

3. *Central vowels*: [ʌ, ɜ:, ə,];

4. *Back vowels*: [ɑ:, ɒ, ɔ:, u:];

5. *Back-advanced vowels*: [ʊ].

Moving up and down in the mouth various parts of the tongue may be raised to different height towards the roof of the mouth (**close, mid, open** vowels). To make classification more precise it is necessary to distinguish broad and narrow variants of close, mid and open vowels (Picture 2). There are:

III. According to **the lip position** there are:

Unrounded vowels [i:, ɪ, e, æ, ɑ:, ʌ, ɜ:, ə] – the lips are neutral or spread.

Rounded vowels [ɒ, ɔ:, ʊ, u:] - lips are protruded.

	Narrow variant	Broad variant
Close vowels	[i:, u:]	[ɪ, ʊ]
Mid vowels	[e, ɜ:, ɝ]	[ʌ, ə, ɛ]
Open vowels	[ɔ:, ɒ]	[æ, ɑ:, ɒ, ɒ]

Picture 2.

IV. The quality of all monophthongs in the stressed position is strongly affected by the following consonant of the same syllable. According to **the character of vowel end** the vowels may be:

Checked (better, cart) – a stressed vowel is followed by a strong voiceless consonant and a vowel is cut off by it.

Free (before, money, begger, bead) – a vowel is followed by a weak consonant or by no consonant and the end of it is weak. Such vowels are in closed syllables ending in a voiced consonant or in an open syllable.

V. According to **the length the vowels** may be:

Long [i:, a:, ɔ:, u:, ɜ:]

Short [ɪ, e, ɒ, ʊ, ʌ, ə]

VI. Tenseness is another articulatory characteristic of English vowels. It characterizes the state of organs of speech at the moment of production of a vowel. Special analysis shows that long vowels are *tense*, and short vowels are *lax*. The distinction is important in teaching English, since there are no tense vowels in Russian (Picture 3).

Questions:

1. What do you know about classification of English vowels?
2. On which bases do we distinguish vowels? Tell about them.
3. What are pure vowels or monophthongs, diphthongs, diphthongoids and triphthongs?
4. Try to characterize some of English vowels.

Read, translate and learn by heart tongue twisters, proverbs and sayings.

1. Round as a biscuit, busy as a bee, the prettiest little thing you ever did see.
2. Three little kittens lost their mittens. It's a pity, they were so pretty.
3. It isn't his business.
4. Pills and bills make Timmy ill.
5. It's bringing grist to his mill.
6. It's written in simple English.

1. Stability of articulation		Monophthongs – 12				Diphthongs – 8
2. Length of articulation		Long – i:, u:, ɑ:, ɔ:, ɜ:		Short – ɪ, e, æ, ɒ, ʌ, ʊ, ə		
3. Degree of muscular tension		Tense – i:, u:, ɑ:, ɔ:, ɜ:		Lax – ɪ, e, æ, ɒ, ʌ, ʊ, ə		
4. Lip participation		Rounded (labialized) u:, ʊ, ɔ:, ɒ		Unrounded (non-labialized) ɪ, e, æ, ʌ, ə, i:, ɑ:, ɜ:		
5. Vertical movement of the tongue		6. Horizontal movement of the tongue				
		fully front	front retracted	central (mixed)	back advanced	fully back
High (close)	narrow variety	i:				u:
	broad variety		ɪ		ʊ	
Mid (mid-open)	narrow variety	e		ɜ:		
	broad variety			ə ʌ		
Low (open)	narrow variety					ɔ:
	broad		æ			ɒ ɑ:

Picture 3. Classification of English vowels.

Consonants

Each sound is known to have three *aspects: acoustic, articulatory* and *auditory* and therefore can be studied on these three levels.

On the articulatory level each consonant may be identified by stating two general facts about it:

- a) what sort of articulatory posture it is formed by;
- b) whereabouts in the mouth (or pharynx) it is produced.

Phonological description of sounds will be made in terms of the articulatory level (Picture 4).

As to the classification of English consonants there are few ways of seeing the situation. According to V. A. Vassilyev primary importance should be given to the type of obstruction and the manner of production of noise. On this ground he distinguishes two large classes of consonants:

- a) **occlusive**, in the production of which a complete obstruction is formed;

Classification of NAE Consonant Phonemes							
Manner of Articulation	Place of Articulation						
	Bilabial	Labiodental	Dental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Stop Voiceless Voiced	p b			t d		k g	
Fricative Voiceless Voiced		f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ		h
Affricate Voiceless Voiced					tʃ dʒ		
Nasal Voiced	m			n		ŋ	
Liquid Voiced				l	r		
Glide Voiced	w				y		

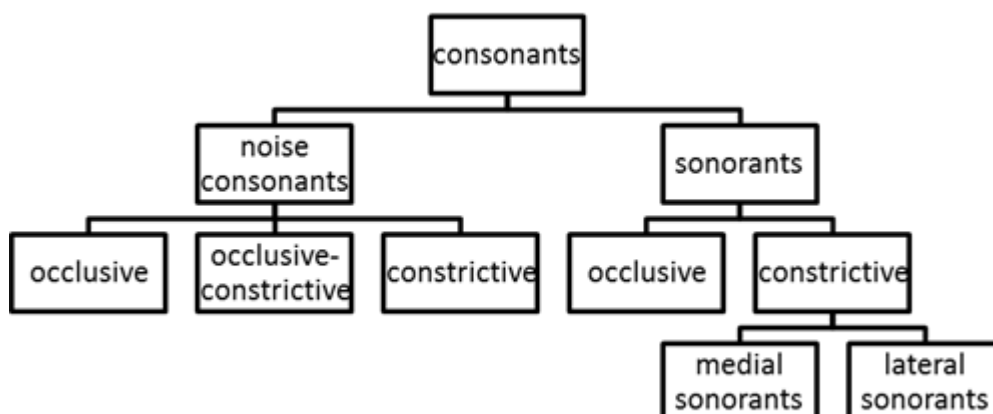
Picture 4. Place of articulation in mouth.

b) *constrictive*, in the production of which an incomplete obstruction is formed. (e.g. oppositions: [ti:] – [si:] occlusive – constrictive [pul] – [ful] occ. – cons.)

Each of the two classes is subdivided into *noise consonants* and *sonorants*. The division is based on the factor of prevailing either noise or tone component in the auditory characteristic of a sound. In their turn noise consonants are divided into *plosive consonants (or stops)* and *affricates*.

Another point of view is shared by other phoneticians. They suggest that the first and basic principle of classification should be the degree of noise. Such consideration leads to dividing English consonants into two general kinds: *noise consonants and sonorants* (Picture 5).

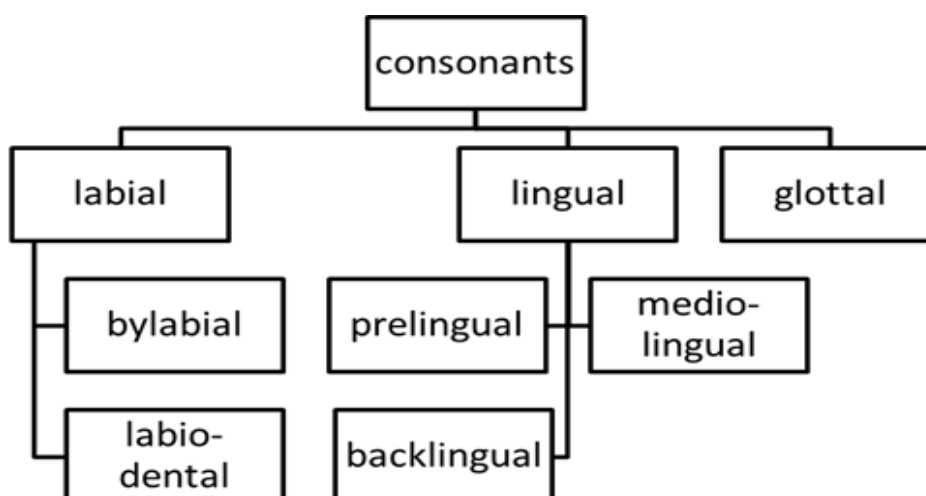
The place of articulation is another characteristic of English consonants which should be considered from the phonological point of view. The place of articulation is determined by the active organ of speech against the point of articulation. According to this principle the English consonants are classed into: *labial, lingual and glottal* (Picture 6).



Picture 5. Noise consonants and sonorants consonants.

The class of labial consonants is subdivided into: *a) bilabial; b) labio-dental*; and among the class of lingual consonants three subclasses are distinguished; they are: *a) forelingual, b) medio-lingual and c) backlingual*.

The next point should be made in connection with another sound property, that is *voiced – voiceless* characteristic which depends on the work of the vocal cords. The distinction between such pairs of consonants as [p, b], [t, d], [k, g], [s, z], [f, v] is primarily based on energy difference, besides on absence or presence of vibrations of the vocal cords, or on the absence or presence of voice or tone component. All voiced consonants are *weak (lenis)* and all voiceless consonants are *strong (fortis)*.



Picture 6. Labia, lingual and glottal consonants.

There is one more articulatory characteristic which is usually included into the set of principles on the basis of which the English consonants are classified. That is the position of the soft palate. According to this principle consonants can be *oral* and *nasal*. There are relatively few consonantal types in English which require the lowered position of the soft palate. They are the nasal occlusive sonorants [m], [n] and [ŋ]. They differ from oral plosives in that the soft palate is lowered allowing the escape of air into the nasal cavity.

Questions:

1. On which bases do we distinguish consonants?
2. Analyze the phonemes [p], [b], [s], [z].
3. What classes of consonants in English language do you know?
4. What do you know about noise consonants and sonorants? Characterize them?
5. What do you know about noise labial, lingual and glottal? Characterize them?

Read, translate and learn by heart tongue twisters, proverbs and sayings.

1. The field is white, black is the seed, the man who sows it is clever indeed.
2. As fit as a fiddle.
3. A small leak will sink a great ship.
4. Still waters run deep.
5. I think, it's a little thick.
6. The busy bees are flying over the roses.

Lecture №5

Alternations and modifications of speech sounds in English

1. The notion of alternation and its types.

The sound variations in words, their derivatives and grammatical form words, are known as sound alternations. For example: the dark [ɫ] in spell alternate with the clear [l] in spelling; combine (n) ['kɒmbain], combine [kəm'bain] where [n] in the stressed syllable of the noun alternates with the neutral sound. It is perfectly obvious that sound alternations of this type are caused by assimilation, accommodation and reduction in speech. To approach the matter from the phonological viewpoint, it is important to differentiate phonemic and allophone alternations.

Some sound alternations are traced to the phonemic changes in earlier periods of the language development and are known as historical. Historical alternations mark both vowels and consonants, though the alternating sounds are not affected by the phonemic position or context. The sound changes, which occurred in the process of historical development of the language, are reflected in present-day English as alternations of phonemes differentiating words, their derivatives and grammatical forms. The following list of examples presents the types of alternations:

1) Vowel alternations.

a) distinction of irregular verbal forms [i:-e-e] mean - meant - meant; [i-æ-A] sing - sang - sung; [i-ei-i] give - gave - given;

b) distinction of causal verbal forms: [i-e] sit - set; [ai-ei] rise - raise; [o - e] fall-fell;

c) distinction of parts of speech in etymologically correlated words [a: - æ] class - classify, [o: - e] long - length; [ei - æ] nation – national.

2) Consonants alternations.

a) distinction of irregular verbal forms [d - t] send – sent;

b) distinction of parts of speech [s - z] advice - advise; [k - tʃ] speak – speech.

3) *Vowel and consonant alternations* [i - ai] + [v - f] live - life; [a: - ae] + [θ - ð] bath - bathe.

2. Contextual alternations in English language.

Alternations are also widely spread on the synchronic level in the present-day English and are known as contextual. In connection with contextual sound alternations there arises a problem of phonemic identification of alternated sounds. The study of the relationship between phonemes and morphemes is called morphophonemics. The interrelation of phonology and morphology is also known as morphophonology or morphonology which is actually the phonology of morphemes. Morphonology studies the way in which sounds can alternate in different realizations of one and the same morpheme.

Questions:

1. What do you know about alternation in English language?
2. Characterized the notion of alternation and its types.
3. Give the characteristic of contextual alternations in English language.

Read, translate and learn by heart tongue twisters, proverbs and sayings.

1. Wealth is nothing without health.
2. A thatcher of Thatchwood went to Thatchet a-thatching.
3. Thumbalina thought the thick bug was a thief.
4. I am thankful for a thousand things ...
For faithful earth, for birth and breath,
For thought and health and strength and mirth,
And, may be, when it comes, for death.
5. Thread and thrum.
6. Nothing venture, nothing have.

Modifications of consonants in speech

Speech is performed in larger units: words, phrases and texts. There are very big differences between pronouncing a word in isolation and a word in connected speech.

There is a problem of defining the phonetic status of sounds in connected speech. As a result there are some processes of phonetic changes in connected speech: assimilation, accommodation, vowel reduction and elision.

Assimilation is the adaptive modification of a consonant by neighboring sound:

eighth - at three

alveolar [t] becomes dental [θ]

Accommodation is the adaptation of sounds combinations of vowel-consonants type and consonant-vowel type:

never - man (consonant-vowel type)

nasal pronunciation of vowels

больно - конь - думать

Labialization of consonants is before labialized vowels.

Vowel reduction is a quantitative or qualitative weakening of vowels in unstressed positions:

board - blackboard

man - postman

Elision is a complete loss of sounds, both vowels and consonants. In informal speech we can lose many sounds. The process cannot be neglected in defining the phonemic status of speech sounds. These phenomena represent the economy of energy from the part of the speaker. Usually the listener doesn't even notice this because these changes don't influence the meaning. The target of listener is usually to understand the meaning but sometimes the meaning can also be influenced, for example, [z] can represent has, is, does, plural, possessive, third person singular. Now let us consider which qualitative characteristics of consonants can be changed in connected speech. Consonants can be modified

according to the place of articulation: assimilation takes place when a sound changes its character in order to look like a neighboring sound and the characteristic which is involved in this is almost always a place of articulation:

1. eighth - at the - said that

[t] [d] alveolar + [θ] [ð] interdental = dental [t] [d]

Partial regressive assimilation:

2. tree - true - dry - dream

[t] [d] alveolar + post alveolar [r] = post alveolar [t] [d]

Partial regressive assimilation:

3. horseshoe - this shop

[s] [z] alveolar + [ʃ] post alveolar = post alveolar [s] [z]

Complete regressive assimilation:

4. graduate - congratulate - did you - could you

[t] + [j]; [d] + [j] = affricates [tʃ] [dʒ]

Partial regressive assimilation:

5. symphony

[m] bilabial + [f] labiodentals = [m] labiodentals

Partial regressive assimilation:

Manner of articulation is also changed as a result of assimilation.

Questions:

1. What do you know about modifications of consonants in speech?
2. What is assimilation?
3. What is accommodation?
4. What is vowel reduction?
5. What is elision?
6. What are the basic modifications of sounds in connected speech? Give your examples (with the analysis).

Read, translate and learn by heart tongue twisters, proverbs and sayings.

1. They are always bothering Father and Mother to do things for them.

2. The bathers have left their clothes on the other bank of the river.
3. «This» is used for one thing near,
«That» means one thing over there,
«These» and «those» mean two or more,
«Those» are far and «these» are near.
4. Smooth breathing is rather soothing.
5. Whether it rains, whether it snows, we shall have weather whether or no.
6. There's no one there, neither their mother, nor their father.

Modifications of Vowels in Speech

The modifications of vowels in speech chain are traced in the following directions: they are either *quantitative* or *qualitative* or both. These changes of vowels in speech continuum are determined by a number of factors such as the position of the vowel in the word, accentual structure, tempo of speech, rhythm, etc.

The shortening of the vowel length is known as *a quantitative modification of vowels*, which may be illustrated as follows:

a) the shortening of the vowel length occurs in unstressed positions, e.g. blackboard [o:], sorrow [ʊ] (reduction). In these cases reduction affects both the length of the unstressed vowels and their quality. Form words often demonstrate quantitative reduction in unstressed positions, for example:

Is →he or she to blame? – [hi:]

But: At →last he has come. – [hɪ]

b) the length of a vowel depends on its position in a word. It varies in different phonetic environments. English vowels are said to have *positional length*, e.g. knee – need – neat (accommodation). The vowel [i:] is the longest in the final position, it is obviously shorter before the lenis voiced consonant [d], and it is the shortest before the fortis voiceless consonant [t].

Qualitative modifications of most vowels occur in unstressed positions. Unstressed vowels lose their «colour», their quality, which is illustrated by the examples below:

a) in unstressed syllables vowels of full value are usually subjected to qualitative changes, e.g. man [mæn] – sportsman ['spɔ:tsmən], conduct ['kɒndəkt] – conduct [kən'dʌkt]. In such cases the quality of the vowel is reduced to the neutral sound [ə].

These examples illustrate the neutralized (reduced) allophones of the same phonemes as the same morphemes are opposed.

Nearly one sound in five is either [ə] or the unstressed [ɪ]. This high frequency of [ə] is the result of the rhythmic pattern: if unstressed syllables are given only a short duration, the vowel in them which might be otherwise full is reduced. It is common knowledge that English rhythm prefers a pattern in which stressed syllables alternate with unstressed ones. The effect of this can be seen even in single words, where a shift of stress is often accompanied by a change of vowel quality; a full vowel becomes [ə], and [ə] becomes a full vowel. For example, to compare: analyse ['ænləɪz] – analysis [ə'næləɪsɪs].

b) slight degree of *nasalization* marks vowels preceded or followed by the nasal consonants [n], [m], e.g. never, no, then, men (accommodation).

The realization of reduction as well as assimilation and accommodation is connected with the style of speech. In rapid colloquial speech reduction may result in vowel elision, the complete omission of the unstressed vowel, which is also known as zero reduction. Zero reduction is likely to occur in a sequence of unstressed syllables, for example, history, factory, literature, territory. It often occurs in initial unstressed syllables preceding the stressed one, for example, correct, believe, suppose, perhaps.

The example below illustrates a stage-by-stage reduction (including zero reduction) of a phrase.

Has he done it? [hæz hi, dʌn it]

[həz hi ,dʌn it]

[əz i ,dʌn it]

[z i ,dʌn it]

Vowels may also be modified by their position. Many vowels are more open in final positions.

Questions:

1. What do you know about modifications of consonants in speech?
2. Analyze the function of quality and quantity in the system of English vowels.
3. Characterize the phonemes [o], [u], [i].
4. What are the basic modifications of vowels in connected speech? Give your examples (with the analysis).

Read, translate and learn by heart tongue twisters, proverbs and sayings.

1. I don't wish them other than they are.
2. That's neither here nor there.
3. They couldn't tell one brother from the other.
4. That means nothing other than the usual thing.
5. The less men think, the more they talk.
6. One law for the rich, another for the poor.

Lecture №6

The syllabic structure in English language

1. Theories on syllable formation and division.

Speech can be broken into minimal pronounceable units into which sounds show a tendency to cluster or group. These smallest phonetic groups are generally given the name of syllables. Being the smallest pronounceable units, syllables form morphemes, words and phrases. Each of these units is characterized by a certain

syllabic structure. Thus a meaningful language unit phonetically may be considered from the point of view of syllable formation and syllable division.

The syllable is a complicated phenomenon and like a phoneme it can be studied on four levels – articulatory, acoustic, auditory and functional. The complexity of the phenomenon gave rise to many theories.

The first theory belongs to R. H. Stetson. This theory is based on the assumption that expiration in speech is a pulsating process and each syllable should correspond to a single expiration. So the number of syllables in an utterance is determined by the number of expirations made in the production of the utterance. This theory was strongly criticized by soviet and foreign linguists, because «in a phrase a number of words and consequently a number of syllables can be pronounced with a single expiration» (G.P. Torsuyev). This fact makes the validity of the theory doubtful. Another theory of syllable put forward by O. Jespersen is generally called the sonority theory. According to O. Jespersen, each sound is characterized by a certain degree of sonority which is understood as acoustic property of a sound that determines its perceptibility. According to this sound property a ranking of speech sounds could be established: *<the last sonorous> voiceless plosives → voiced fricatives → voiced plosives → voiced fricatives → sonorants → close vowels → open vowels <the most sonorous>*. For example, in the word «plant» we may use the following wave of sonority: [pla:nt].

According to V.A. Vassilyev the most serious drawback of this theory is that it fails to explain the actual mechanism of syllable formation and syllable division. Besides, the concept of sonority is not very clearly defined.

The next theory of muscular tension was described by L. V. Shcherba. In most languages there is the syllabic phoneme in the centre of the syllable which is usually a vowel phoneme or, in some languages, a sonorant. The phonemes preceding or following the syllabic peak are called marginal. The tense of articulation increases within the range of prevocalic consonants and then decreases within the range of postvocalic consonants.

N. I. Zhinkin is Russian linguist and psychologist has suggested the so-called loudness theory which seems to combine both production and perception levels. The experiments carried out by N. I. Zhinkin showed that the arc of loudness of perception level is formed due to variations of the volume pharyngeal passage which is modified by contractions of its walls.

Further experimental work aimed to description of the syllable resulted in lot of other theories. However the question of articulatory mechanism of syllable is still an open question in phonetics. The scientists might suppose that this mechanism is similar in all languages and could be regarded as phonetic universal.

The difficulties seem to arise from the various possibilities of approach to the unit. There exist two points of view:

a) some linguists consider the syllable to be a purely articulatory unit which lacks any functional value. This point of view is defended on the ground that the boundaries of syllables do not always coincide with those of morphemes;

b) however the majority of linguists treat the syllable as the smallest pronounceable unit which can reveal some linguistic function. Trying to define the syllable from articulatory point of view we may talk about universals.

When the scientists mean the functional aspect of the syllable it should be defined with the reference to the structure of one particular language. The definition of the syllable from the functional point of view tends to single out the following features of the syllable:

- 1) a syllable is a chain of phonemes of varying length;
- 2) a syllable is constructed on the basis of contrast of its constituents (which is usually of vowel - consonant type);
- 3) the nucleus of a syllable is a vowel, the presence of consonants is optional; there are no languages in which vowels are not used as syllable nuclei, however, there are languages in which this function is performed by consonants;
- 4) the distribution of phonemes in the syllabic structure follows by the rules which are specific enough for a particular language.

Syllable formation in English is based on the phonological opposition vowel – consonant. Vowels are usually syllabic while consonants are not, with the exception of [l], [m], [n], which become syllabic if they occur in an unstressed final position preceded by a noise consonant [/litl], [/ga:dn].

The structure of the syllable is known to vary because of the number and the agreement of consonants. In English there are four types of syllables:

- 1) open (no);
- 2) closed (odd);
- 3) covered (note);
- 4) uncovered (oh).

The structure of the English syllables reveals variations in the number of pre-vocalic consonants from one to three and post-vocalic consonants from one to five. As to the number of syllables in the English word it can vary from 1 to eight.

The other aspect of the dialectal unity which characterizes the speech continuum is syllable division. The linguistic importance of syllable divisions in different languages is in finding typology of syllables and syllable structure of meaningful units of a language, that is morphemes and words.

The syllabic structure of a language is patterned. The part of phonetics that deals with this aspect of a language is called phonotactics.

In English the problem of syllable division exists only in case of intervocalic consonants and their clusters like in the words [/siti], [ə/gri:].

Two variants are possible:

- 1) the point of syllable division is after the intervocalic consonant;
- 2) the point of syllable division is inside the consonant.

In both cases the first syllable remains closed according to phonotactic rules of the English language, because the short vowel should be checked. The results of the analysis show that the point of syllable division in words like [/piti], [/topic] is inside the intervocalic consonant.

2. Functions of the syllable.

1) the constitutive function. It lies in its ability to be a part of a word or a word itself;

2) the distinctive function. The syllable is characterized by its ability to differentiate words and word forms.

So at the functional level of description the syllable could be conceived of as a smallest pronounceable unit with potential linguistic importance.

The system of phonetic notations is generally termed as *«transcription»*. Transcription is a set of symbols representing speech sounds. The first type of notation is broad or phonemic transcription which provides special symbols for all the phonemes of a language. The second type – the narrow or allophonic transcription – suggests special symbols including some notes about the articulation of a particular allophone. It is used in research work.

There are two types of broad transcription, used in English language:

The first type was introduced by D. Jones. He realized the difference in quality as well as in quantity between the vowel sounds in the words «sit» and «seat», the neutral vowel and the vowel in the word «earn». He wanted to reduce the number of symbols and insisted that some conventions should be stated one and for all. One of these conventions is that the above mentioned long and short vowels differ in quality as well as in quantity. That's why one used the same symbols for them [i – i:].

The second type used by V. A. Vassilyev, causes no phonological misunderstanding providing special symbols for all vowel phonemes [i], [i:], [e], [æ], [a:], [ʌ], [o], [o:], [u], [u:], [ɜ:], [ə].

Being a good visual aid this way of notation can be strongly recommended for teaching the pronunciation of English language to any audience.

Questions:

1. The syllabic structure of English. The acoustic theories of the syllable. The sonority theory by O. Jespersen. The loudness theory by N. I. Zhinkin. The muscular tension theory by L. V. Shcherba.

2. How many types of syllables do you know? Name them.

3. What are the three points according to which a syllable can be analyzed?
4. What is the main problem of the syllable division in English?
5. What are the functions of the syllable?
6. Give the definition of the term «syllable».
7. What are the basic differences between the broad and narrow types of transcription?

Read, translate and learn by heart tongue twisters, proverbs and sayings.

1. There is no smoke without fire.
2. There's nothing like leather.
3. Praise is not pudding.
4. Practice what you preach.
5. Playing ping-pong makes me hungry.
6. Look at the portrait of a plump, prosperous, purposeful passenger with a pipe.

Lecture №7

Word Stress

1. Word stress, its acoustic nature.

The sequence of syllables in the word is not pronounced identically. The syllable or syllables which are pronounced with more prominence than the other syllables of the word are said to be stressed or accented. The correlation of varying prominences of syllables in a word is understood as the accentual structure of the word.

According to A. C. Gimson, the effect of prominence is achieved by any or all of four factors: force, tone, length and vowel colour. The dynamic stress implies greater force with which the syllable is pronounced. In other words in the articulation of the stressed syllable greater muscular energy is produced by the speaker. The European languages such as English, German, French, Russian are

believed to possess predominantly dynamic word stress. In Scandinavian languages the word stress is considered to be both dynamic and musical (e.g. in Swedish, the word *komma* (comma) is distinguished from the word *komma* (come) by a difference in tones). The musical (tonic) word stress is observed in Chinese, Japanese. It is effected by the variations of the voice pitch in relation to neighbouring syllables. In Chinese the sound sequence «chu» pronounced with the level tone means «pig», with the rising tone «bamboo», and with the falling tone «to live».

It is fair to mention that there is a terminological confusion in discussing the nature of stress. According to D. Crystal, the terms «heaviness, intensity, amplitude, prominence, emphasis, accent, stress» tend to be used synonymously by most writers. The discrepancy in terminology is largely due to the fact that there are two major views depending on whether the productive or receptive aspects of stress are discussed.

The main drawback with any theory of stress based on production of speech is that it only gives a partial explanation of the phenomenon but does not analyze it on the perceptive level.

Instrumental investigations study the physical nature of word stress. On the acoustic level the counterpart of force is the intensity of the vibrations of the vocal cords of the speaker which is perceived by the listener as loudness. Thus the greater energy with which the speaker articulates the stressed syllable in the word is associated by the listener with greater loudness. The acoustic counterparts of voice pitch and length are frequency and duration respectively. The nature of word stress in Russian seems to differ from that in English. The quantitative component plays a greater role in Russian accentual structure than in English word accent. In the Russian language of full formation and full length in unstressed positions, they are always reduced. Therefore the vowels of full length are unmistakably perceived as stressed. In English the quantitative component of word stress is not of primary importance because of the non-reduced vowels in the unstressed syllables which sometimes occur in English words (for example, «transport», «architect»).

2. The linguistic function of a word stress.

In discussing accentual structure of English words we should turn now to the functional aspect of word stress. In language the word stress performs three functions:

Constitutive – word stress constitutes a word, it organizes the syllables of a word into a language unit. A word does not exist without the word stress. Thus the function is constitutive – sound continuum becomes a phrase when it is divided into units organized by word stress into words.

Word stress enables a person to identify a succession of syllables as a definite accentual pattern of a word. This function is known as identificatory (or recognitive).

Word stress alone is capable of differentiating the meaning of words or their forms, thus performing its distinctive function. The accentual patterns of words or the degrees of word stress and their positions form oppositions («/import – im /port», «/present – pre /sent»).

3. Degree and position of a word stress.

There are actually as many degrees of word stress in a word as there are syllables. The British linguists usually distinguish three degrees of stress in the word. The primary stress is the strongest (for example, exami/nation), the secondary stress is the second strongest one (for example, ex,ami/nation). All the other degrees are termed «weak stress». Unstressed syllables are supposed to have weak stress. The American scholars, B. Bloch and J. Trager, find four contrastive degrees of word stress: locid, reduced locid, medial and weak.

In Germanic languages the word stress originally fell on the initial syllable or the second syllable, the root syllable in the English words with prefixes. This tendency was called recessive. Most English words of Anglo-Saxon origin as well as the French borrowings are subjected to this recessive tendency.

Languages are also differentiated according to the placement of word stress. The traditional classification of languages concerning the place of stress in a word is into those with a fixed stress and a free stress. In languages with a fixed stress

the occurrence of the word stress is limited to a particular syllable in a multisyllabic word. For example, in French the stress falls on the last syllable of the word (if pronounced in isolation), in Finnish and Czech it is fixed on the first syllable.

Some borrowed words retain their stress.

In languages with a free stress its place is not confined to a specific position in the word. The free placement of stress is exemplified in the English and Russian languages: (for example, E. appetite – begin – examination; R. озеро – погода – молоко).

The word stress in English as well as in Russian is not only free but it may also be shifting performing semantic function of differentiating lexical units, parts of speech, grammatical forms. It is worth noting that in English word stress is used as a means of word-building (e.g. /contrast – con/trast, /music – mu /sician).

4. Typology of accentual structures.

The numerous variations of English word stress are systematized in the typology of accentual structure of English words worked out by G. P. Torsuyev. The scientist classifies them according to the number of stressed syllables, their degree or character (the main and the secondary stress). The distribution of stressed syllables within the word accentual types forms accentual structures of words.

Accentual types and accentual structures are closely connected with the morphological type of words, with the number of syllables, the semantic value of the root and the prefix of the word.

The accentual types are:

1. ['___]. This accentual type marks both simple and compound words. The accentual structures of this type may include two and more syllables, e.g. 'father, 'possibly, 'mother-in-law, 'gas-pipe.

2. ['_ ' _]. The accentual type is commonly realized in compound words, most of them are with separable prefixes, e.g. 'radio-'active, 're'write, 'diso'bey.

3. ['_ ' _ ' _] and 4. ['_ ' _ ' _ ' _]. The accentual types are met in initial compound abbreviations like 'U'S'A, 'U'S'S'R.

5. ['_ ,____]. The type is realized both in simple and compound words, very common among compound words, e.g. 'hair-,dresser, 'substructure.

6. [, _'____]. The accentual type marks a great number of simple words and some compound words as well.

In simple words the stresses fall onto: a) the prefix and the root: maga'zine; b) the root and the suffix: ,hospi'tality; c) the prefix and the suffix: disorganization.

The variability of the word accentual structure is multiplied in connected speech. The accentual structure of words may be altered under the influence of rhythm, for example, An 'unpolished 'stone but: The 'stone was un'polished. The tempo of speech may influence the accentual pattern of words. With the quickening of the speed the carefulness of articulation is diminished, the vowels are reduced or elided, the secondary stress may be dropped, for example, The 'whole organi'zation of the 'meeting was 'faulty.

Questions:

1. Word stress. Types of word stress. Tendencies in English word stress.
2. Tell about the linguistic function of a word stress.
3. Degree and position of a word stress.
4. Described the typology of accentual structures.

Read, translate and learn by heart tongue twisters, proverbs and sayings.

1. Don't be a busybody, baby.
2. One beats the bush, another takes the bird.
3. Let bygones be bygones.
4. The bear could not bear the boar. The boar thought the bear a bore.
5. Better be alone than in a bad company.
6. Barking dogs seldom bite.

Lecture №8

Intonation

1. Intonation.

Intonation is a language universal. There are no languages which are spoken as a monotone, without any change of prosodic parameters. On perceptual level intonation is a complex, a whole, formed by significant variations of pitch, loudness and tempo closely related. Some linguists regard speech timber as the fourth component of intonation. Though it certainly conveys some shades of attitudinal or emotional meaning there's no reason to consider it alongside with the *three prosodic components of intonation (pitch, loudness and tempo)*.

Nowadays the term «prosody» substitutes the term «intonation». On the acoustic level pitch correlates with the fundamental frequency of the vibrations of the vocal cords; loudness correlates with the amplitude of vibrations; tempo is a correlate of time during which a speech unit lasts.

The auditory level is very important for teachers of foreign languages. Each syllable of the speech chain has a special pitch colouring. Some of the syllables have significant moves of tone up and down. Each syllable bears a definite amount of loudness. Pitch movements are inseparably connected with loudness. Together with the tempo of speech they form an intonation pattern which is the basic unit of intonation.

An intonation pattern contains one nucleus and may contain other stressed or unstressed syllables normally preceding or following the nucleus. The boundaries of an intonation pattern may be marked by stops of phonation that is temporal pauses.

Intonation patterns serve to actualize syntagms in oral speech. The *syntagm* is a group of words which are semantically and syntactically complete. In phonetics they are called *intonation groups*. The intonation group is a stretch of speech which may have the length of the whole phrase. But the phrase

often contains more than one intonation group. The number of them depends on the length of phrase and the degree of semantic impotence or emphasis given to various parts of it. The position of intonation groups may affect the meaning.

2. The linguistic function of intonation.

The *communicative function* of intonation is realized in various ways which can be grouped under five-six general headings:

1) to structure the intonation content of a textual unit. So as to show which information is new or cannot be taken for granted, as against information which the listener is assumed to possess or to be able to acquire from the context, that is given information;

2) to determine the speech function of a phrase, to indicate whether it is intended as a statement, question, etc.;

3) to convey connotational meanings of attitude, such as surprise, etc. In the written form we are given only the lexics and the grammar;

4) to structure a text. Intonation is an organizing mechanism. It divides texts into smaller parts and on the other hand it integrates them forming a complete text;

5) to differentiate the meaning of textual units of the same phonetic structure and the same lexical composition (distinctive or phonological function);

6) to characterize a particular style or variety of oral speech which may be called a stylistic function.

3. The implications of a terminal tone.

Classification of intonation patterns:

Different combinations of pitch sections (pre-heads, heads and nuclei) may result in more than one hundred pitch-and-stress patterns. But it is not necessary to deal with all of them, because some patterns occur very rarely. So, attention must be concentrated on the commonest ones:

1. The Low (Medium) Fall pitch-and-stress group
2. The High Fall group
3. Rise Fall group
4. The Low Rise group

5. The High Rise group
6. The Fall Rise group
7. The Rise-Fall-Rise group
8. The Mid-level group

No intonation pattern is used exclusively with this or that sentence type. Some sentences are more likely to be said with one intonation pattern than with any other. So we can speak about «common intonation» for a particular type of sentence: a) statements are most widely used with the Low Fall preceded by the Falling or the High level Head. They are final, complete and definite; b) commands, with the Low Fall are very powerful, intense, serious and strong; c) exclamations are very common with the High Fall.

4. Rhythm.

We cannot fully describe English intonation without reference to speech rhythm. *Rhythm* seems to be a kind of framework of speech organization. Some linguists consider it to be one of the components of intonation.

Rhythm is understood as periodicity in time and space. We find it everywhere in life. Rhythm as a linguistic notion is realized in lexical, syntactical and prosodic means and mostly in their combinations.

In speech, the type of rhythm depends on the language. Linguists divide languages into two groups:

- 1) *syllable-timed* (French, Spanish);
- 2) *stress-timed* (English, German, Russian).

In a syllable-timed language the speaker gives an approximately equal amount of time to each syllable, whether the syllable is stressed or unstressed.

In a stress-timed language the rhythm is based on a larger unit, than syllable. Though the amount of time given on each syllable varies considerably, the total time of uttering each rhythmic unit is practically unchanged. The stressed syllables of a rhythmic unit form peaks of prominence. They tend to be pronounced at regular intervals no matter how many unstressed syllables are located between

every two stressed ones. Thus the distribution of time within the rhythmic unit is unequal.

Speech rhythm is traditionally defined as recurrence of stressed syllables at more or less equal intervals of time in a speech continuum.

Questions:

1. Name the basic components of intonation.
2. What is the connection between pitch and tempo?
3. What for do we need different nuclear tones?
4. Which nuclei are the commonest?

Read, translate and learn by heart tongue twisters, proverbs and sayings.

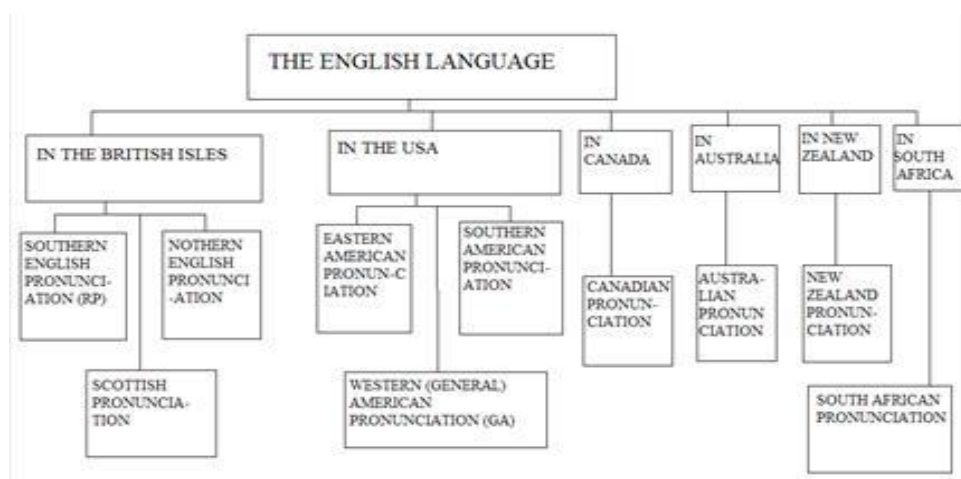
1. He cried when he saw it – he hates bright blue.
2. Barbara's baby brother Bobby is bouncing a big beach ball.
3. Barbara is bathing blissfully in a bubble-bath.
4. Manners make the man.
5. Men may meet, but mountains never greet.
6. Many men, many minds.

Lecture №9

Regional and stylistic varieties of English pronunciation

1. Territorial varieties of English pronunciation.

The English language is spoken in a variety of ways. It's the official language of the UK, the USA, Canada, Australia, New Zealand and in a number of former British colonies. English spoken in these countries differs in vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation. The varieties of the language are conditioned by language communities. Speaking about the nations we refer to the *national variants* of the language, that is the language of a nation, the standard of its form, the language of its nation's literature (Picture 7).



Picture 7. Territorial varieties of English pronunciation.

It's important to distinguish between dialect and accent. Dialect refers to variations in vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation, while *accent* means a type of pronunciation, that is the way sounds, stress, rhythm and intonation are used in the given language community. Today all the English-speaking nations have their own national variants of pronunciation (and national pronunciation standards) and their own peculiar features that distinguish them from other varieties of English. National pronunciation standards are associated with radio and TV newsreaders and public figures. It is generally accepted that for the «English English» the national standard is «Received Pronunciation» (RP), for the «American English» – «General American», for the «Australian English» – «Educated Australian» (Picture 8).

International English Spelling Chart

 United States	 Canada	 UK	 UK (Oxford spelling)	 Australia
color	colour	colour	colour	colour
center	centre	centre	centre	centre
globalization	globalization	globalisation	globalization	globalisation
realize	realize	realise	realize	realise
analyze	analyze	analyse	analyse	analyse
traveling	travelling	travelling	travelling	travelling
defense	defence	defence	defence	defence
computer program, concert program	computer program, concert program	computer program, concert programme	computer program, concert programme	computer program, concert program
gray	grey	grey	grey	grey
fulfill	fulfil(l)	fulfil	fulfil	fulfil
aluminum	aluminum	aluminium	aluminium	aluminium

Picture 8. International English spelling chart.

National standards are not fixed; they undergo constant changes due to various internal and external factors. Within a national language there are a number of territorial or regional standards. Regional standards are used by most educated people in the region, and show a certain degree of deviation from the national standard. In Britain several groups of regional accents are recognized: Southern, Northern, Welsh, Scottish and Northern Irish. In the United States there are three major groups: Southern, Western and Eastern. Less educated people use numerous local accents which can be either urban or rural. For certain economic, political and cultural reasons one of the dialects becomes the standard language of the nation. This was the case of London dialect whose accent became RP.

An individual may speak RP in one situation (with teachers, at work, etc.) and then use a native local accent in other situations. This phenomenon is called *diglossia*. It shouldn't be mixed up with bilingualism which is the command of two different languages.

Correspondingly every social community has its own social dialect and social accent (professional, educational, according to one's age, gender, etc.). It is evident that language means are chosen consciously and unconsciously by a

speaker according to his perception of the situation. Individual speech of members of the same language community *is* known as *idiolect*.

2. British English.

RP is believed to be a social marker, a prestige accent of an Englishman, often referred to as the «Queen's English» or «BBC English». It's estimated that only 3-5% of the population of Great Britain speak RP and some phoneticians even say that there are more foreign speakers of English who use RP than native English speakers themselves. Nowadays RP is not homogeneous. Three types are distinguished within it: the conservative RP (the language of the royal family, aristocracy and court), the general RP (spoken by most educated people and BBC announcers) and the advanced RP (used by young people). This last type of RP is believed to reflect the tendencies typical of changes in pronunciation. Some of its features may be results of temporary fashion; some are adopted as a norm.

The status of RP has changed in the last years. It used to be associated with high-class society, aristocracy, authority and competence. Nowadays, however, RP speakers may be disliked because they sound «posh». Though most BBC announcers still speak RP, other national TV and radio channels have become tolerant of broadcasters' local accents.

As we've mentioned already, pronunciation is subject to all kinds of innovations. Considerable changes are observed in the sound system of the present-day English:

- a) there is a tendency for all short vowels to be made nearer the centre of the mouth;
- b) the vowels [i:] and [u:] become more diphthongized (and more fronted);
- c) [eɪ] is becoming shorter or more like a pure sound [e]: *said* [sed], *again* [ə'gen];
- d) the diphthong [ʊə] tends to be [ɔ:]: *sure* [ʃɔ:], *poor* [pɔ:];
- e) [æ] is often replaced by [a]: *have* [hav], *and* [and];

f) in rapid speech [h] is lost in the pronouns and the auxiliary «have»: *her* [ɜ:], *he* [i:], *had* [æd];

g) palatalized final [k] is often heard: *weak* [wi:kʰ], *Dick* [dɪkʰ];

h) the sound [t] in the intervocalic position is made voiced: *better* ['bedə], *letter* ['ledə];

i) the dark [ɫ] is used instead of [l]: *believe* [bi'li:v];

j) [j] is lost following [l, s, z, n]: *suit* [su:t], *illuminate* [ɪ'lu:mɪneɪt], *exuberant* [ɪg'zu:b(ə)r(ə)nt], *neutral* ['nu:tr(ə)l];

k) [tʃ, dʒ] become affricates: *fortune* ['fɔ:tʃu:n], *duty* ['dʒu:ti];

l) pre-consonantal [t] becomes a glottal stop: *don't come* [dʒʌnʔ'kʌm].

There is also a strong tendency for elision, reduction and assimilation.

There has appeared a new classification of RP types: general, refined and regional. Refined RP is defined as an upper-class accent; the number of people speaking it is declining. Regional RP represents, in fact, Regional Standards, among which one has become very popular and is said to be substituting RP in general. This is the so-called «*Estuary English*». It is a variety of modified regional speech, a mixture of non-regional and local south-eastern English pronunciation and intonation. Estuary English speakers place themselves «between Cockney and the Queen» (Picture 9).

The phonetic features of Estuary English include:

a) the use of [w] where RP uses [ɹ] in the final positions or in a final consonant cluster: *faulty* = *fawty*; *all full* = *awful*;

b) glottal stop for [t] and [d]: *Scoʔland*, *neʔwork*;

c) elision of [j] after «n, l, t, s»: *news* [nu:z], *tune* [tʃu:n], *absolute* ['æbsəlu:t], *assume* [ə'su:m];

d) [ɪ] is prolonged in the final position and may tend towards the quality of a diphthong: *very* ['veri:], *city* ['sɪti:];

e) triphthongs [aʊə] and [aɪə] smooth into one long [a:]: *hour* [a:], *tired* [ta:d].

Estuary English intonation is characterized by frequent prominence given to prepositions and auxiliary verbs, in some cases the nuclear tone can fall on prepositions: *Let's get \to the point.*

<i>Estuary English / RP</i>	<i>Cockney</i>
no H-dropping	H-dropping, e.g. <i>hand</i> [ænd]
no TH-fronting	TH-fronting, e.g. <i>think</i> [fɪŋk]
no MOUTH- monophthong	MOUTH-monophthong, e.g. <i>town</i> [tɛ:n]
no intervocalic T-glottaling	intervocalic T-glottaling, e.g. <i>pity</i> ['pɪʔi]

<i>Estuary English / Cockney</i>	<i>Received Pronunciation</i>
variable HAPPY-tensing, e.g. <i>pretty</i> ['prɪtɪ]	no HAPPY-tensing
vocalisation of preconsonantal, final /l/, e.g. <i>spilt</i> [spɪlɔt]	no vocalisation of preconsonantal, final /l/
final T-glottaling, e.g. <i>cut</i> [kʌʔ]	no final T-glottaling
yod coalescence in stressed syllables, e.g. <i>tune</i> [tʃu:n]	no yod coalescence in stressed syllables
some diphthong shift in FACE, PRICE, GOAT, e.g. [fæɪs], [praɪs], [gɔt]	no such diphthong shift

Picture 9. Estuary English/Cockney

The pitch of intonation patterns in Estuary English appears to be narrower than that of RP.

Estuary English nowadays is believed to describe the speech of a far larger and currently more linguistically influential group than advanced RP speakers. The popularity of Estuary English among the young is significant for the future. The RP speakers may be aware that RP (Conservative and Advanced) can arouse hostility and general RP is no longer perceived as a neutral accent. So Estuary English is attractive to many, as it obscures sociolinguistic origins.

3. American English.

The formation of the American English underwent under the influence of minorities' languages, but its starting point was the English language of the 17th century. The American language has fewer dialects as Standard English had already existed when first English settlers came to America. Still three main types of cultivated speech are recognized in the USA: the Eastern type, the Southern type and Western or General American (Picture 10.).

The following phonetic features of GA are distinguished:

- a) length is not differentiated in [i:] - [ɪ] and [u:] - [ʊ];
- b) [e] is more open;
- c) [æ] is used in the words in which RP has [ɑ:], often before a combination of [s] with another consonant, but when there is no letter «r» in spelling: *dance* [dæns], *can't* [kænt];
- d) there is no vowel [ɒ], which is replaced by [ɑ:]: *god* [gɑd:], *clock* [klɑ:k];
- e) there are no diphthongs, ending in [ə], all vowels occurring before «r» within a syllable become «r-coloured»: *more* [mɔ:r], *heard* [hɜ:rd], *letter* ['letə:];
- f) [r] is retroflex (pronounced with the tip of the tongue curled back) and is used in all the positions where there is an «r» in spelling;
- g) [ɪ] is hard: *relieve* [rɪ'li:v];
- h) [t] between vowels is voiced: *better* ['bedə], *letter* ['ledə];
- i) when [t] follows [n], it is omitted and the vowel becomes nasalized: *twenty* ['twenti], *winter* ['wɪnə];
- j) in [ju:] [j] is not pronounced in all positions: *mute* [mu:t], *super* ['su:pə], *nuclear* ['nu:kliə:];
- k) in «where», «when», etc. [w] is pronounced as [hw];
- l) the suffixes -ory, -ary, -mony have an additional secondary stress (sometimes called tertiary): 'dictio, nary, ' testi, mony, la 'bora. tory.

Intonation is smoother and seems rather dull and monotonous due to the narrower pitch range and Mid-level Head. Level-rising tones in special questions

American	English	American	English
apartment	flat	jelly	jam
bill	note (currency)	muffler	exhaust (of a car)
cab	taxi	pants	trousers
car rental	car hire	panties	knickers
cell [phone]	mobile [phone]	parakeet	budgie
[potato] chips	[potato] crisps	rental car	hire car
condominium	apartment block	rest room	toilet
cookie	biscuit	sidewalk	pavement
diaper	nappy	signal	traffic lights
elevator	lift	sneakers	trainers
entrée	main course	stick shift	gear lever
fall	autumn	suspenders	braces
fanny pack	bum bag	toll-free number	freephone number
fender	mudguard	trash can	bin
flashlight	[electric] torch	truck	lorry
French fries	chips	trunk	boot (of a car)
gas/gasoline	petrol	vacation	holiday
gurney	[hospital] trolley	vest	waistcoat
hood	bonnet (of a car)	x through y	x to y
Jell-o	jelly	yard	garden

Picture 10. American English.

and statements are also common in American English:

- *What's your name?* - *□Sixbie.*

So as we can see the norms of GA and RP pronunciations are highly variable and are subject to further changes (Picture 11).

Word	British Pronunciation	American Pronunciation
Advertisement	Advertissment	Advertizement
Lieutenant	Leftenant	Lootenant
Patriot	Patriot	Paytriot
Schedule	Sheduel	Skedule
Premiere	Premiair	Premir
Monarch	Monak	Monark
Era	Eera	Error
Bouquet	Bookay	Bokay
Neither	Nyther	Neether
Glacier	Glassiar	Glaysiar
Zebra	Zehbra	Zeebra
Semi	Semee	Semai
Buoy	Boy	Bui
Nuclear	Newclear	Nukilar
Garage	Garaj	Garidj
The letter Z	Zed	Zee
Iraq	Irak	Eyerak
Lasso	Lasu	Laysoo
Vase	Varze	Vayze
Research	Risearch	Reesearch

Picture 11. British-American pronunciation.

Questions:

1. What is the national variant of the language?
2. How do you understand the term «national pronunciation standard»?

What is another term for it?

3. What are national pronunciation standards for Great Britain, the USA, Australia?
4. State the difference between a regional dialect and a regional accent.
5. What are the reasons for one of the dialects becoming the standard language of the nation?
6. What regional dialect of Great Britain has become the national standard of the English language? Is it homogeneous?
7. In what countries is English spoken as the native language?
8. What are British English pronunciation standards and accents?
9. Why can we say that RP is a regionless accent within Britain?
10. Comment on Estuary English.
11. Do you agree that American English is the national variant of English, or is it a different language?

12. What three main types of cultivated speech are recognized in the USA?

Read, translate and learn by heart tongue twisters, proverbs and sayings.

1. To make both ends meet.
2. Money is a good servant but a bad master.
3. Money begets money.
4. Minnie can't make up her mind.
5. If my memory serves me right...
6. Bill sells a bell for a spell.

ENGLISH ALPHABET

Aa	<i>Aa</i>	[ei]	[эй]
Bb	<i>Bb</i>	[bi:]	[би:]
Cc	<i>Cc</i>	[si:]	[си:]
Dd	<i>Dd</i>	[di:]	[ди:]
Ee	<i>Ee</i>	[i:]	[и:]
Ff	<i>Ff</i>	[ef]	[эф]
Gg	<i>Gg</i>	[dʒi:]	[джи:]
Hh	<i>Hh</i>	[eitʃ]	[эйч]
Ii	<i>Ii</i>	[ai]	[ай]
Jj	<i>Jj</i>	[dʒei]	[джей]
Kk	<i>Kk</i>	[kei]	[кей]
Ll	<i>Ll</i>	[el]	[эл]
Mm	<i>Mm</i>	[em]	[эм]
Nn	<i>Nn</i>	[en]	[эн]
Oo	<i>Oo</i>	[ou]	[оу]
Pp	<i>Pp</i>	[pi:]	[пи:]
Qq	<i>Qq</i>	[kju:]	[кью:]
Rr	<i>Rr</i>	[a:]	[а:]
Ss	<i>Ss</i>	[es]	[эс]
Tt	<i>Tt</i>	[ti:]	[ти:]
Uu	<i>Uu</i>	[ju:]	[ю:]
Vv	<i>Vv</i>	[vi:]	[ви:]
Ww	<i>Ww</i>	[ˈdʌblju:]	[даблйю:]
Xx	<i>Xx</i>	[eks]	[экс]
Yy	<i>Yy</i>	[wai]	[уай]
Zz	<i>Zz</i>	[zed]	[зэд]

PRACTICAL PART

THE EXERCISES FOR LIPS AND TONGUE

The purpose of articulation gymnastics is to develop full-fledged movements and certain positions of the organs of the articulatory apparatus necessary for the correct pronunciation of sounds.

Purposeful exercises help prepare the articulatory apparatus of a person (student) to correctly pronounce the necessary sounds.

Articulation gymnastics should always begin with working out the basic movements and positions of the lips and the tongue necessary for a clear, correct pronunciation of all sounds.

Exercises for lips:

1. Opening and closing the mouth.

Open your mouth wide, your lower jaw as low as possible. Shut your mouth.

2. Exposure of teeth – «grin».

Lips with close jaws open up and down slightly exposing both rows of teeth and then closing up. Lips keep slightly stretched position, without bulging. The distance between the jaws is equal to the thickness of the tongue. The lower incisors are directly below the upper ones.

3. «Grin» with the opening and closing of the mouth.

Open the lips, lower and raise the lower jaw with exposed teeth.

4. Lowering and raising the lower lip.

Slightly raise the upper lip, expose the edge of the upper teeth, press to them lower lip. Having exposed the lower teeth, lower the lower lip. Repeat it movement without dropping jaws. Upper lip is immobile.

5. «Proboscis».

Lips vigorously bulge forward, hard to blow air through the reduced opening, without allowing whistling noise.

6. The alternation of «grin» and «proboscis».

Alternate the «grin» and «proboscis». Movement of the corners of the mouth should be simultaneous and symmetrical.

7. Flat rounding.

Opening his mouth with a «grin», slowly round his lips, leaving them pressed to teeth, and gradually reduce the hole. The lips remain flat and do not bulge. The lower jaw is lowered and immobile.

Exercises for tongue:

1. Sticking tongue out – «hovel».

Having exposed the teeth, give the tongue a flat wide shape so that the edges around the semicircle touched the upper teeth. Then tongue slightly stretch between the teeth. The teeth of the upper jaw slightly scrape the back of the tongue. Blow air through the gap between the teeth and tongue. Sticking out the tongue, do not bend it down and do not apply to the lips.

2. Pointing out the pointed tongue – «sting».

Expose the teeth, sticking out the pointed tongue, do not touch it with your teeth. The tip is directed forward and upward. Avoid involuntary bending.

3. Feeling the line of the transverse incision of the oral cavity with the tip of the tongue.

Attach the tip of the tongue to the edge of the upper teeth. Feel the gap between the upper incisors on the back surface, go to the gums and alveoli, moving the tip of the tongue back, go through the alveolar bulge and feel the hard sky.

4. The alternation of the dorsal and apical order.

Attach the tip of the tongue to the lower teeth of the inner gums, arching middle part of the language. Then lift and move the tip of the tongue to the convex part of the alveoli, translating the language into an apical (upper) position. At repetitive movement of the tip of the tongue is bent up and down in turn.

5. Pulling the tongue back.

Open your mouth wide, pull the entire tongue back. Back of the tongue rises to the soft sky. Lower the tongue and push it forward, tip the tongue touches the lower teeth. Do not close your mouth.

Seminar №1

Phonetics as a branch of linguistics

1. Describe the articulation of sounds [f, v, h] and [l, m, n] in terms of the operation of the vocal cords and expiratory force.
2. Describe the articulation of sounds [k, q, z] in terms of the work of the active organ of speech.
3. Explain the difference in the articulation of the English sounds [c, k, t] and Russian [k] in terms of the place of formation of noise.
4. Describe the articulation of sounds [ʌ], [ʌ:] in terms of the horizontal and vertical movement of the tongue. Compare them with the articulation of Russian sounds [a, o].
5. Explain the difference in the articulation of sounds [ə: – ə], [o: – o].
6. Write the following words in the transcription: curiosity, cat, hare, king, canner, exceedingly, morning, work, accounts, milk, coconut, go, digging, garden, forget, old, gray, gloves, green, field, lays, golden eggs, good, dog, deserves, bone, together, grace, sea-legs.

Seminar №2

Phoneme as a unit of language

1. Describe the articulation of sounds [p, t, k] and [b, d, g] in terms of the operation of the vocal cords and expiratory force.
2. Explain the difference in the articulation of the English sounds [b, v, tʃ] and Russian [p] in terms of the place of formation of noise.
3. Describe the articulation of sounds [ə], [ə:] in terms of the horizontal and vertical movement of the tongue. Compare them with the articulation of Russian sounds [s, a].
4. Explain the difference in the articulation of sounds [i: – i], [u: – u].

5. Give articulation and morphological evidence of the indivisibility of diphthongs. Prove with examples that combinations of Russian sounds oh, ah, hey are not diphthongs.

6. Read the given word pairs. Determine which ones represent the minimal pairs and which are the subminimal ones: thick – sick; bathed – base; mouse – mouse; thigh – shy; leasure – ledger; zest –lest; they – lay; marry – measure; genre – jar; dowly –dowsy; Weller – weather; eel – ease; bathe – bail.

7. Write the following words in the transcription. With their help, illustrate the features of the unstressed vocalism of the English language: latchkey, simplicity, skylark, pantheon, bulldog, outdoor, dining-room, mildew, woodcut, heart-burn, humpback, highway, simplify, highbrow, convoy, rainbow, raincoat, into, protest.

Seminar №3

Phonostylistics and the stylistic use of intonation

1. Read the following words paying special attention to correct pronunciation.

bead	choice	bar
buy	rib	abbey
fancy	idea	full
fell	David	knee
cut	owl	star
book	load	obey
shrunk	pair	observe
Sue	beard	happy

2. Read the following sentences. Comment on stylistic use of phonetic devices.

He swallowed the hint with a gulp and a gasp and a grin.

The fair breeze blew, the white foam flew, the furrow followed free.

You, lean, long, lanky lath of a lousy bastard.

Luscious, languid, and lustful, isn't she? Those are not correct epithets. She is – or rather was surly, lustrous and sadistic.

Then, with an enormous, shattering rumble, sludge-puff, sludge-puff, the train came into the station.

«You have a duty to the public, don'tcher know that, a duty to the great English public?» said George reproachfully. «Here, lemme handle this, kidder», said Tiger.

«Gotta maintain strength, you», said George.

Deep into the darkness peering, long I stood the wondering, fearing, doubting, dreaming dreams no mortal ever dared to dream before.

«I'm gonna drink this if it kills me,» Mrs. Snell said. «What would you do if you were in my shoes?» Sandra asked abruptly. «I mean what would you do? Tella truth.»

«I hear Lionel's supposeta be runnin' away.» – «Sure they found him!» said Sandra with contempt. «Wuddya think?»

3. Read the text, analyse phonetic phenomena in it.

But I recollect that the poor blighter spent much of his valuable time dumping the corpse into ponds and burying it, and what not, only to have it pop out at him again. It was about an hour after I had shoved the parcel into the drawer when I realized that I had let myself in for just the same sort of thing. Florence had talked in an airy sort of way about destroying the manuscript; but when one came down to it, how the deuce can a chap destroy a great chunky mass of paper in somebody else's house in the middle of summer? I couldn't ask to have a fire in my bedroom, with the thermometer in the eighties. And if I didn't burn the thing, how else could I get rid of it? Fellows on the battlefield eat dispatches to keep them from falling into the hands of the enemy, but it would have taken me a year to eat Uncle Willoughby's Recollections. I'm bound to say the problem absolutely baffled me. The only thing seemed to be to leave the parcel in the drawer and hope for the best. I don't know whether you have ever experienced it, but it's a dashed unpleasant thing having a crime on one's

conscience. Towards the end of the day the mere sight of the drawer began to depress me. I found myself getting all on edge; and once when Uncle Willoughby trickled silently into the smoking-room when I was alone there and spoke to me before I knew he was there, I broke the record for the sitting high jump.

Seminar №4

The System of English Phonemes

(The organs of speech and their work)

1. Divide the following words into two groups. In the first one, write the words with the sound [θ], and in the second - with the sound [ð]. Use the dictionary if you find it difficult to answer:

with, think, thank you, teeth, that, there, thing, thousand, those, through, though, throw.

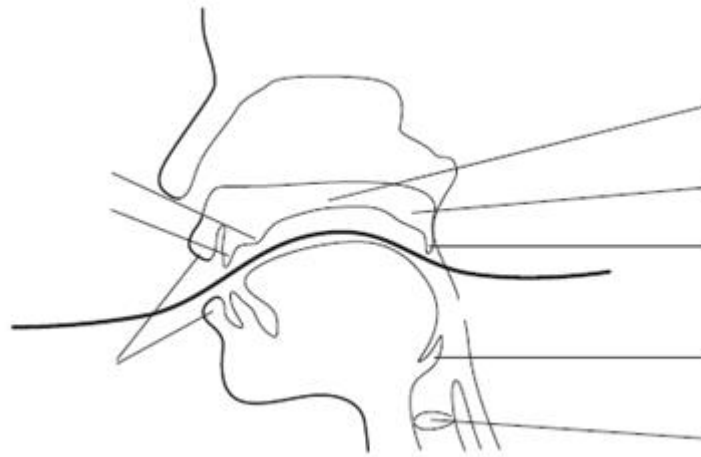
2. Read the following words and name in which endings [s] is read, and in which [z].

lamps, cats, days, feelings, roads, telephones, notes, rooms, plays, plates.

3. Practise reading the following word combinations. Transcribe them.

Hobnob, hobnail, cabman, submit, submarine, Bob Mitchel, button, cotton, let Nell, oatmeal, utmost, not me, couldn't, wouldn't, shouldn't, hidden, kidney, picnic, rock'n'roll, dark night, black magic, thank Nick, pug-nose, big man, dig more, Pygmalion, threaten, not now, don't know, liftman, hurt myself, not mine, sadness, good nerves, red nails, headmaster, goldmine, bad man, rude manners, happen, open, I hope not, help me, ribbon, sob noisily, subnormal, nickname, look now, dark night, take mine, frogman, big news.

4. Describe the organs of speech in the picture.



Seminar №5

The System of English Phonemes (Vowels)

1. Explain the articulation of [w], [j], [h] from the point of view of the active organ of speech.
2. Explain the articulation of [i:], [u:] and the articulatory difference between [i:] – [i] and [u:] – [u].
3. Characterize the subsidiary allophones of the phoneme /d/ in the following phonetic contexts: a) bedtime; b) dry; c) admit; d) dweller; e) breadth.
4. State what type of distribution is illustrated by the following examples: a) shoe, pool, food, boot; b) foot – fit, book – back, book – bark; c) deciduous [dɪ'sɪdʒʊəs] – [dɪ'sɪdʒʊəs].
5. State which of the pairs fame – same, less – yes, bee – thee, wail – Yale, seek – seen illustrate the following oppositions: a) labial – mediolingual; b) forelingual – mediolingual; c) occlusive – constrictive; d) noise – sonorant; e) flat narrowing – round narrowing.

Seminar №6

The System of English Phonemes (Consonant)

1. State the difference in the articulation of [d], [h], [g] from the point of view of the manner of articulation.

2. Explain the articulation of [i:], [æ], [ɜ:], [u] [a:] from the viewpoint of the horizontal and vertical movements of the tongue.

3. Characterize the subsidiary allophones of the phoneme /t/ in the following phonetic contexts: a) team; b) stalk; c) twenty; d) eighth; e) cattle.

4. Match the words to obtain minimal distinctive pairs: catch, pip, cheap, lap, sap, jail, say, cord, Sam, lay, match, fail, heap, rip, cap, cod.

5. State which of the pairs seem – seen, fare – chair, rudder – rugger, vain – lane, leap – leak illustrate the following oppositions: a) labial – forelingual; b) labial – backlingual; c) forelingual – backlingual; d) constrictive – occlusive – constrictive; e) unicentral – bicentral.

Seminar №7

Alternations and modifications of speech sounds in English

1. Describe the difference in the transition from [p] to [o] in the word port and from [s] to [p] in the word stop.

2. Describe the types of assimilation in the following words: breadth, wealth, at that, afraid, apron, thrive.

3. Arrange the following words according to (a) aspiration, (b) lack of aspiration, (c) palatalization, (d) labialization, (e) labialization with lip extension: top, bee, pit, built, port, meal, cope, deep, beauty, tarn, port, corn, music, pepper, onion, peare, come, lean, car, cable, lion, dean, толь, поле, тина, Коля, тесто, роль, сила, лом, ток, дунь, пень, соль, ряд, пел, рёв, бук, пил, мел, полк, нам, дуло, coop, tool, call, gorge, goose, doorn, down, room, thorn.

4. Explain how assimilation affects the place of articulation in accentuated sounds:

[ta: – ka:, ki: – ka :, ku: l – ki: n, jes – pju: t, i: l – ki: p]

Seminar №8

The syllabic structure in English language

1. Write the following words in the transcription, divide them into syllables, determine the type of each syllable: reading, ready, standing, nature, natural, picture, brightly, finish, many, pity, colony, colonial, putting, pupil, flour, flower, during, Mary, marry, starry, merry, study, enjoying, enjoying, without, over, over, discover, pooling, follower, father, story, brother, sorry, body, hurry, early, houses, stony, nearer, preparing, buyer, destroyer, power, poorer.

2. Write the following English words in the transcription and explain the difference in the words of the English and Russian words:

Carry – карий, pulley – пули, runner – рана, sorrow – ссора, buyer – бая, sawyer – соя, grayer – грея, powers – пауз, mire – мая.

3. Say the English equivalents of the following Russian phrases, paying attention to the yearning:

Славный (красивый) дом – ледяной дом;

Она увидела мясо – она видела, как они ели;

У него был черный галстук – у него был фонарь под глазом (подбитый глаз);

Каждый день должен иметь имя – каждый должен иметь цель;

Если ты увидишь Мейбл, скажи мне – если ты сможешь скажи мне.

4. What consonants are syllable in the equivalents of the following Russian words: печалить, люди, фильм, ритм, упавший, призма, съеденный, пустык, сад, часто, семь, земляной, урок, сезон.

Seminar №9

Word Stress

1. Fill in the table with these words.

Words with shock suffixes		Words with unstressed suffixes			
[- - ']	[- - - ']	[- ' - -]	[- - - - ']	[- - - ' -]	[- - - - - ']

Employee, reality, cigarette, conversation, tradition, picturesque, economic, unique, engineer, unity, occasion, etiquette, revolution, parentical, ability, procession, demonstration, pedagogic, statuette, confusion, volunteer composition, sympathetic, admission, wagonette, oblique, collision, patriotic, mountaineer, exclamation, pioneer, antique, financier.

2. Translate into Russian.

a missing list, a missing – list;
 a dancing girl, a dancing – girl;
 a silver tip, a silver – tip.

3. Fill in the table with these words.

	[- ' - ']	[- ' -]	[- - - ']	[- - - ']	[- ' -]
Nouns					
Adjectives					
Numbers					
Verbs					

beefsteak, middle-aged, thirteen, break-out, armchair, good-looking, call-up, headset, fair-haired, booking-office, hard-working, mix-up, fourteen, engine-driver, dressing-gown, blue-eyed, motorcycle, public-house, fifteen, narrow-

minded, country-house, post-graduate, table-spoon, out-of-doors, make-up, mankind, opera-glasses, post-war, shortcoming, run out.

Seminar №10

Intonation

1. Give six variants of the intonation design of this proposal, expressing the different attitudes of the speaker to the expressed (business, interested, inattentive, disapproving, hostile, questioning).

Why did he keep his house?

2. Read the following sentences, beating the rhythm.

Who told you so? 2) I was to come to you. 3) I am doing my duty. 4) I am clinging to my duty. 5) I'll get you away to his fate. 6) Perhaps he told the soldier. 7) This had been his home for four years. 8) Do I have to go? 9) He stretched out and down his eyes.

3. Translate the following sentences into English, retaining the final stress on the English equivalents of the highlighted words:

а) Вы пойдете в кино *завтра*? б) Где вы *живете*? в) Я пойду в *театр*.
 г) Я вас не *понимаю*. д) Какой жаркий *день*! е) Пойдемте *домой*! ё) Куда вы *едете*? ж) Вы *больны*? з) Что вы *делаете*? и) Какая прекрасная *погода* сегодня! й) Как это *мило* с вашей стороны! к) Каково ваше *мнение* по этому поводу? л) Я этого не *думаю*.

Seminar №11

Regional and stylistic varieties of English pronunciation

1. Using the following phrase, name the features of the Cockney dialect. How does this phrase sound in common pronunciation?

Ow eez ye-ooa son, is e? Wal, fewd dan y' de-ooty bawmz a mather shoul, eed now bettern to spawl a pore gel's flahrzn than ran awy athaht pyin. Will ye-oo py me f'them?

2. Which of the following words are written in American English, and which in British? Can you give a second variant of writing?

For example: American English — mustache : British English — moustache
airplane, cheque, theatre, tyre, defense, woolen, pajamas, gaol

3. Can you indicate how an American would say the following words, and how – a British?

vase, route, ballet, address (noun), ate, buoy, tomato, advertisement, garage, leisure

4. From the list below, select pairs of words that have the same meaning, and attribute them to American or British English.

For example: American English – cookie : British English – biscuit

closet	queue	vacation	fall	bonnet	sweets
thumb tack	lift	bill	caravan	flashlight	subway
postman	baggage	movie	drapes	underground	luggage
hood	elevator	cupboard	mailman	torch	check
line	curtains	film	candy	gas	autumn
petrol	drawing pin	holiday	trailer		

5. The following sentences are typically for an American. What would their a British say? 1) Do you have any siblings? 2) It is important that she be told. 3) The jury has not yet reached its decision. 4) Go fetch your book. 5) He dove into the water. 6) You must come visit me real soon.

6. For whom the following sentences are more characteristic - for an American or a British? 1) I'll try and visit you on the weekend. 2) Please write me when you arrive. 3) Call me as soon as you get there. 4) Most everyone has a telephone and a refrigerator these days. 5) If you make a mistake, you'll just have to do it over. 6) He was born 3/27/1981. 7) The soccer team won two to nothing (2-0). 8) She arrived at twenty of two. 9) The secretary said, «Mr. Clinton will see you soon».

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS

1. Phonetics as a science, branches of phonetics.
2. Methods of investigating the sound matter of the language.
3. Phonostylistics and the stylistic use of intonation.
4. Speech and language. Pronunciation, the four components of language phonic structure.
5. The articulatory aspect of English speech sounds. Stages of speech formation, groups of speech organs in accordance with their linguistic function.
6. The functional aspect of English speech sounds. Phoneme and its three aspects. Opposition.
7. Allophones. The articulatory features that form the invariant of the phoneme.
8. The relationship between the phoneme and the phone.
9. The system of the English phonemes. Differences between V and C.
10. Classification of sounds according to H. Giegerich, M. Pennington.
11. Consonants. Variants of classification of English consonants.
12. Modifications of consonants in connected speech (five basic aspects).
13. Adjustment phenomena. Types of adjustments and kinds of adjustments.
14. Vowels. Criteria of vowel classification. Classifications of vowels.
15. Modifications of vowels in connected speech. Sound alternations.
16. Stylistic modifications of sounds. Formal and informal speech.
17. Syllabic structure of English words. The theories of a syllable.
18. Syllable formation and syllable division. The functions of the syllable.
19. Accentual structure of English words.
20. English words stress placement.
21. English intonation. Intonation pattern and intonation group.
22. The tones in English. Distinguishing and characteristic.
23. Semantic center of the utterance. Content words and function words. Anaphoric words. Accenting and de-accenting.

24. English rhythm. Speech rhythm. Rhythmic units. Poetry and prose rhythm.
25. Accents of English. RP. English and American – based pronunciation standards.

GLOSSARY-REFERENCE OF ENGLISH-RUSSIAN PHONETIC TERMS

A

- abstract** – абстрактный
affricate – аффриката
allophone – аллофон
alternation – чередование
alveolar – альвеолярный
articulate – артикулировать, произносить
articulation – артикуляция; place of ~ – место образования
aspiration – придыхание (аспирация)
assimilate – ассимилировать (уподобляться)
assimilation – ассимиляция (уподобление)

B

- backlingual** – заднеязычный
bilabial – губно-губной

C

- cacuminal** – какуминальный
cluster – кластер; phonetic ~ – фонетический ~
consonant – согласный (напр. звук)
constrictive – щелевой

D

- devoice** – оглушать
digraph – диграф (сочетание из двух букв)
diphthong – дифтонг (гласная фонема, состоящая из двух элементов: ядра и скольжения)

dorsal – дорсальный (согласный называется дорсальным, если при его произнесении передняя часть спинки языка, а не кончик языка, поднимается к твердому небу в районе альвеол; кончик языка в это время не активен и опущен к верхним зубам)

E

elision – элизия (выпадение гласного)

ellipsis – эллипсис (выпадение согласного)

F

fall – падение; **high** ~ – высокое ~; **low** ~ – низкое ~ (один из видов ядерного тона). Высокое падение используется в основном для эмоционального выделения

fall-rise – падение-подъем (один из видов ядерного тона)

flap – одноударный («хлопающий»)

flat – плоский; ~ **lips position** – губы в плоском укладе

feature – признак; **distinctive/relevant** ~ – различительный/релевантный ~;

integral ~ – интегральный ~

forelingual – переднеязычный

fricative – щелевой шумный

G

glide – 1) глайд – скольжение дифтонга; 2) глайд – плавный сонорный

glottal – гортанный; ~ **stop** – ~ смычка; **glottal plosion** – ~ взрыв

grapheme – графема (графическое изображение буквы)

I

interdental – межзубный

intonation – интонация

J

jaw – челюсть; **upper** ~ – верхняя ~; **lower** ~ – нижняя ~

L

labial – 1) губной (а не язычный, фарингальный и т.д.); 2) лабиализованный (огубленный – произнесенный при округлении губ)

larynx – гортань

level – уровень; **upper** ~ – верхний; **middle** ~ – средний; **low** ~ – низкий; ~ **tone** – ровный тон

lingual – язычный

lip – губа

M

mediolingual – среднеязычный

monophthong – монофтонг (гласная фонема, реализующаяся как относительно однородный простой звук)

monosyllabic – односложный

N

narrow – узкий

nasal – назальный (носовой)

neutral – нейтральный; ~ **sound** – ~ звук; ~ **lip position** – ~ положение губ

nuclear – ядерный; ~ **tone** – ~ тон

nucleus – ядро дифтонга

O

obstruction – преграда; **place of** ~ – место образования преграды

occlude – смыкаться

occlusive – смычный

P**palatal** – мягкий**palatalization** – смягчение**palatalize** – смягчать**palate** – нёбо; **hard** ~ – твердое ~; **soft** ~ – мягкое ~**pause** – пауза; **empty** ~ – незаполненная ~; **filled** ~ – заполненная ~**pharyngeal** – фарингальный**pharynx** – фаринкс (глотка)**phoneme** – фонема (абстрактное представление о звуке; фонема характеризуется набором дифференциальных признаков, отличающих ее от других фонем);**plosion** – взрыв; **loss of** ~ – потеря ~**plosive** – взрывной**polysyllabic** – многосложный (из двух и более слогов)**protrude** – выпячивать**protruded** – выпяченный**R****reduction** – редукция (ослабление – сокращение длительности, уменьшение интенсивности, изменение качества)**rise** – подъем; **low** ~ – низкий ~; **high** ~ – высокий ~ (один из видов ядерного тона; высокий подъем используется в целях эмоционального выделения)**rise-fall** – подъем-падение (один из видов ядерного тона)**rounded** – округленный**S****sonorant** – сонорный**speech** – речь**speech organs** – произносительные органы (органы речи); **passive** ~ – пассивные ~; **active** ~ – активные

spread – растянутый

stress – ударение; **secondary** ~ – второстепенное; **primary** ~ – главное ~

stress – выделять ударением (ударять)

stressed – ударный

syllable – слог; type of ~ – тип ~

T

teeth – зубы; ~ **ridge** – альвеолы; ~ **edge** – край

tongue – язык; **the tip of the** ~ – кончик ~; **the blade of the** ~ – передняя часть

спинки ~; **the middle of the** ~ – средняя часть спинки ~; the back of the ~

– задняя часть спинки ~ **transcription** – транскрипция; **phonemic** ~ –

фонемная ~; **phonetic** – фонетическая

U

unstressed – безударный

uvula– увула (маленький язычок)

V

vocal cords– ГОЛОСОВЫЕ СВЯЗКИ

voice– ГОЛОС

voiced – звонкий

voiceless– глухой

voicing– озвончение

vowel – гласный; **front** ~ – ~ переднего ряда; **front retracted** ~ – ~ переднего

отодвинутого назад ряда; **mixed** ~ – ~ центрального (смешанного) ряда; **back**

~ – ~ заднего ряда; **back advanced** ~ – ~ заднего продвинутого вперед ряда

W

wide – широкий, adv широко

windpipe – трахея

Accommodation – adaptation of vowels to different adjacent sounds.

Acoustic phonetics – a branch of phonetics which deals with physical properties of speech sounds. Articulatory phonetics is concerned with the description and classification of speech sounds articulated by the speech apparatus.

Affricates are consonants in the production of which the speech organs form a complete obstruction which is then realized so slowly that considerable friction occurs at the point of articulation.

Alveolar consonants are articulated by the tip of the tongue against the alveolar ridge.

Allophones – variants of one and the same phoneme, which never occur in identical positions, but are said to be in complementary distribution, they are actual speech sounds.

Allophonic transcription – a type of transcription which is based on the principle «one symbol per allophone». This transcription provides a special sign for each variant of each phoneme. A phoneme is reflected in this transcription as a unity of all its allophones. The symbols of an allophonic transcription are usually placed between square brackets.

Apical consonants are articulated by the tip of the tongue against either the upper teeth or the alveolar ridge.

Articulation – coordinated movements of speech organs in the process of speech.

Assimilation – a modification of a consonant under the influence of a neighbouring consonant. It is the result of coarticulation, when one sound is made similar to its neighbour.

Back-advanced vowels are produced with the bulk of the tongue in the back part of the mouth, but somewhat advanced while the back part of the tongue is raised in the direction of the front part of the soft palate.

Back vowels are produced with the bulk of the tongue in the back part of the mouth while the back of the tongue is raised in the direction of the soft palate, forming an empty space in the front part of the mouth.

Backlingual consonants are articulated by the back of the tongue against the soft palate.

Bilabial consonants are articulated by the two lips.

Cacuminal consonants are articulated by the tongue tip raised against the back part of the alveolar ridge.

Central vowels are those in which the central part of the tongue is raised towards the juncture between the hard and soft palate.

Checked vowels are those which are pronounced without any lessening the force of utterance towards their end. They have, therefore, a strong end. They end abruptly and are interrupted by the consonant immediately following. Therefore, they can only occur in a close syllable.

Close transition – articulation of two neighbouring sounds when the first stage of the second sound takes place already during the medial stage of the first sound.

Close (high) vowels are those which are produced when one of the parts of the tongue comes close to the roof of the mouth and the airpassage is narrowed, but not so much as to form a consonant.

Combinatory allophones – variants of a phoneme which appear in speech as a result of assimilation and adaptation or of the specific ways of joining sounds together.

Commutation method – one of the basic methods of phonemic investigation, which consists in the discovery of minimal pairs.

Comparative phonetics – a branch of phonetics which studies the correlation between the phonetic systems of two or more languages.

Complete assimilation – when the articulation of the assimilated consonant fully coincides with that of the assimilating one. In contextual assimilation a word comes to have a pronunciation different from that which it has when said by itself.

Complete obstruction is formed when two organs of speech come in contact with each other and the air-passage through the mouth is blocked.

Consonant is a sound produced with an obstruction (complete or incomplete) to the air stream. The organs of speech are tense at the place of obstruction. In the articulation of voiceless consonants the air stream is strong, while in voiced consonants it is weak.

Constrictive consonants are produced with an incomplete obstruction, that is by a narrowing of the air-passage.

Dental consonants are articulated against the upper teeth with the tip, or with the blade of the tongue.

Descending scale – gradual lowering of the voice pitch.

Descriptive phonetics studies the contemporary phonetic system of a language, i.e. the system of its pronunciation, and gives a description of all the phonetic units of this language.

Diphthong – a complex sound consisting of two vowel elements pronounced so as to form a single syllable. In its pronunciation the organs of speech start in the position of one vowel and glide gradually in the direction of another vowel, whose full formation is generally not accomplished. The first element of an English diphthong is called the nucleus, it is strong, clear and distinct; the second element is rather weak, it is called the glide.

Diphthongoids – vowels in the articulation of which the organs of speech change their position but very slightly.

Distributional analysis – a method that helps to establish the distribution of speech sounds, i.e. all the positions or combinations in which each speech sound of a given language occurs (or does not occur) in the words of the language.

Dynamic stress – force stress based mainly on the expiratory effort.

Elision – the process when one of the neighbouring sounds is not realized in rapid or careless speech (complete loss of sounds, both vowels and consonants. It is likely to be minimal in slow careful speech and maximal in rapid relaxed colloquial forms of speech).

Fixed stress – this type of stress which is characterized by the fixed position.

Free word-stress – the type of stress which is characterized by the free occurrence of the word stress.

Forelingual consonants are articulated by the blade of the tongue, the blade with the tip or by the tip against the upper teeth or the alveolar ridge.

Front-retracted vowels are produced with the bulk of the tongue in the front part of the mouth but somewhat retracted, while the front of the tongue is raised in the direction of the hard palate.

Front vowels are produced with the bulk of the tongue in the front part of the mouth while the front of the tongue is raised in the direction of the hard palate, forming a large empty space in the back part of the mouth.

General phonetics is concerned with the analysis, description, and comparison of phonetic phenomena in different languages.

Head – stressed syllables preceding the nucleus together with the intervening unstressed syllables.

Historical assimilation – assimilation which took place at an earlier stage in the history of the language (sound changes which are the result of the historical development of the language).

Historical phonetics – a branch of phonetics, which studies phonetic components on the diachronic level; it is a part of the history of language, which studies the history of the development of the phonetic laws.

Incomplete obstruction is formed when an articulating organ is held so close to a point of articulation as to narrow or constrict the air-passage without blocking it.

Intermediate assimilation – the process when the assimilated consonant changes into a different sound, but does not coincide with the articulating consonant.

Intonation is a component of the phonetic structure which is viewed in the narrow meaning as pitch variations, or speech melody. Intonation group is an actualized sense group (syntagm).

Intonation ascending scale – gradual rising of the voice pitch.

Labio-dental consonants are articulated with the lower lip against the upper teeth.

Lateral sonorants are those in the production of which the tongue is pressed against the alveolar ridge or the teeth, and the sides of the tongue are lowered, leaving the air-passage open along them.

Lax vowels are those which are produced with lesser tenseness of the speech organs.

Living assimilation – assimilation which occurs in everyday speech in the present day pronunciation.

Loose transition – articulation of two neighbouring sounds when the final stage of the first sound is not affected by the initial stage of the second sound.

Median sonorants are those in the production of which the air escapes without audible friction over the central part of the tongue, the sides of the tongue being raised.

Mediolingual consonants are articulated with the middle part of the tongue against the hard palate.

Melody – changes in the voice pitch in the process of speech.

Method of distinctive oppositions enables to prove whether the phonetic difference is relevant or not.

Method of minimal pairs – the discovery of as many pairs of words as possible, that differ in one phoneme. It is based on the substitution of one sound for another, commutation.

Mid-open (mid) vowels are those which are produced w the raised part of the tongue is half-way between its high and low positions.

Monophthong – a pure (unchanging) vowel sound. In its pronunciation the organs of speech do not perceptibly change their position throughout the duration of the vowel.

Nasal consonants are produced with the soft palate lowered while the air-passage through the mouth is blocked. As a result, the air escapes through the nasal cavity.

National language – a language of a nation and its literature.

Noise consonants are those in the production of which noise prevails over tone.

Non-obligatory assimilation – appears in careless and slovenly speech.

Nucleus of an intonation group – the last stressed syllable of a sense group.

Obligatory assimilation – occurs in the speech of all persons who speak a certain language no matter what style of speech is used.

Occlusive consonants are produced with a complete obstruction formed by the articulating organs; the air-passage in the mouth cavity is blocked.

Open (low) vowels are those which are produced when the raised part of the tongue is very low in the mouth, and the air-passage is very wide.

Oral consonants are produced when the soft palate is raised and the air escapes through the mouth.

Organs of speech are divided into movable and fixed. The movable speech organs take an active part in the articulation of speech sounds and are called active organs of speech. The fixed speech organs with which the active organs form obstruction are called passive organs of speech. They serve as points of articulation. The organs of speech together with biological functions, such as breathing, feeding, smelling and tasting serve to carry out intercommunication through the elaborate work of the four mechanisms: the power, the vibrator, the resonator, the obstructor.

Orthoepic norm – the correct pronunciation of the words of a language.

Palato-alveolar consonants are articulated by the tip and blade of the tongue against the alveolar ridge or the back part of the alveolar ridge, while the front of the tongue is raised in the direction of the hard palate.

Partial (incomplete) assimilation – the process when the assimilated consonant retains its main phonemic features and becomes only partly similar in some feature of its articulation to the assimilating sound.

Pause – a short period of time when sound stops before starting again.

Phoneme – the shortest functional unit of a language. Each phoneme exists in speech in the form of mutually non-distinctive speech sounds, its allophones. Each speech sound is an allophone of some phoneme.

Phonemic transcription – a type of transcription which is based on the principle «one symbol per phoneme». A phoneme is reflected in this transcription as an abstraction and generalization. The symbols of a phonemic transcription are placed within two slanting lines //.

Phonetics – the science that studies the sound matter of the language, its semantic functions and the lines of development.

Phonology – the science that deals with phonemes and their sequences. It is functional phonetics since it investigates the functional side of phonemes, accent, syllable, and intonation.

Phonosemantics investigates the connection between the sound form and the meaning.

Phonostylistics studies the phonetic phenomena from the stylistic point of view.

Plosive consonants (stops) are those in the production of which the speech organs form a complete obstruction which is then quickly realized with plosion.

Positional allophones – variants of a phoneme which are used in definite positions due to the tradition of a language pronunciation, e.g. dark and light /l/.

Post-alveolar consonants are articulated by the tip of the tongue against the back part of the alveolar ridge.

Practical phonetics studies the substance, the material form of phonetic phenomena in relation to meaning.

Pre-head – unstressed and half-stressed syllables preceding the head.

Primary stress – the stress which is the strongest compared with the other stresses used in a word.

Principal allophone – that variant of a phoneme which is considered to be free from the influence of the neighbouring sounds.

Progressive assimilation – the process when the first of the two neighbouring sounds influences the second and makes it similar to itself.

Received pronunciation – the type of standard pronunciation most commonly described in books on the phonetics of British English and traditionally taught to foreigners.

Reciprocal (double) assimilation takes place when the neighbouring sounds are equally affected by assimilation (when the two adjacent sounds influence each other).

Reduction – actually qualitative or quantitative weakening of vowels in unstressed position (a historical process of weakening, shortening or disappearance of vowel sounds in unstressed positions).

Regressive assimilation – the process when the second of the two neighbouring sounds influences the first one and makes it similar to itself.

Rhythm – the regular alternation of stressed and unstressed syllables.

Rounded vowels are produced when the lips are more or less rounded and slightly protruded.

Scale (head) – the arrangement of stressed and unstressed syllables of a syntactic whole.

Secondary stress – this type of stress which appears in words of five or more syllables. It falls on the second pretonic syllable.

Segmental phonetics deals with individual sounds, i.e. segments of speech.

Sentence stress – the greater degree of prominence given to certain words in a sentence.

Sonorants – the sounds in the production of which voice prevails over noise.

Sound – a material unit, produced by speech organs. A sound can be viewed from the articulatory, acoustic, auditory and functional points of view.

Speech melody – variations in the pitch of the voice in connected speech.

Statistical method – a method which helps to establish frequency, probability and predictability of occurrence of phonemes and their allophones in different positions.

Staves – two parallel lines for intonation recording (by means of special symbols).

Styles of pronunciation – different ways of pronouncing words and joining them in the flow of speech.

Subsidiary allophones – variants of phonemes that appear under the influence of the neighbouring phonemes with which they are in complementary distribution. They are subdivided into combinatory and positional.

Substitution method – the method of replacing of one speech sound by another in the same position to see whether it results in a minimal pair, e.g. pen, ten, den.

Supra-segmental phonetics is concerned with the larger units of connected speech, i.e. syllables, words, phrases, texts.

Syllabic – capable of forming a syllable. Syllabic sounds – sounds that can form the peaks of prominence.

Syllable pattern – the type of syllable most common for the language.

Syllable syllable – the shortest segment of speech continuum. It is one or more speech sounds, forming a single uninterrupted unit of utterance, which may be a word, or a commonly recognized and separable subdivision of the word (J. Kenyon).

Syntagm is a group of words which is semantically and syntactically complete. Tempo of speech – the rate of utterance.

Tail - unstressed or partly stressed syllables that follow the nucleus of the intonation group.

Tense vowels are produced when the organs of speech are tense.

Terminal tone – a change of pitch at the junction of two sensegroups.

Theoretical phonetics is mainly concerned with the functioning of phonetic units in the language.

Timbre – the quality of a musical sound, depending on what overtones are present and their respective amplitudes.

Tonogram – graphic representation of intonation.

Unchecked vowels are those which are pronounced with lessening the force of utterance towards their end. Therefore, they have a weak end.

Unrounded vowels are produced when the lips are spread or neutral.

Varieties of English pronunciation dialect – a form of a language that is spoken in a particular area.

Vowel – is a voiced sound produced in the mouth with no obstruction to the air stream. The air stream is weak. The tongue and the vocal cords are tense; the muscular tension is distributed more or less evenly throughout the mouth cavity and the pharynx.

Word stress – a singling out of one or more syllables in a word by giving them a greater degree of prominence as compared with the other syllable or syllables in the same word.

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