

# ENGLISH PHONOLOGY

(For Learners of English as A Foreign Language)

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**UNIVERSITAS PGRI SEMARANG**

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Perpustakaan Nasional: Katalog Dalam Terbitan (KDT)

ENGLISH PHONOLOGY FOR EFL: Drs. Senowarsito, M.Pd.  
Sukma Nur Ardini, S.S., M.Pd.

Viii: 126 / 15 x 20,5 cm

ISBN:

Dilarang mengutip sebagian atau seluruh isi buku dengan cara apapun termasuk menggunakan mesin fotocopy tanpa seizing penerbit.

2016

ENGLISH PHONOLOGY FOR EFL: Drs. Senowarsito, M.Pd.  
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Hak cipta penerbitan oleh PT UPGRIS

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

First and foremost the writers would like to thank to the God. In the process of putting this book together they realized how true this gift of writing is for them.

The writers would like to express their gratitude to the many people who saw us through this book; to all those who provided support, talked things over, read, wrote, offered comments, allowed them to quote their remarks and assisted in the editing, proofreading and design.

Any correction and constructive suggestions are welcomed to complete and perfect this written exercise book. Thank you very much.

Semarang, Juni 2015



## ABOUT THIS TEXT BOOK

This text book is intended to be a model of course materials of English Phonology for non-native speakers of English (NNSE) or for learners of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in a college or university, or to be practicing English language teachers. This model is designed to give information the general theory about speech sounds, the principles regulating the use of sounds, and how they are used in spoken English. Nonetheless it is also intended to give some materials and exercises to overcome the common obstructions (because of different characteristics of the mother tongue and the target language, and fossilizations) faced by NNSEs or EFLs when they are producing spoken English.

Languages have differences in the way to be pronounced by people from different geographical places, ethnics, social classes, educational backgrounds, and ages. As some materials and exercises in this model are based on the relevance of Indonesian context, it can be developed by the English language teachers or lecturers in different contexts of the particular native language.

The expected readers of the book are NNSEs or EFLs, either the college or university students of English, English teachers or lecturers, and people who are going to work with the language at advanced level as teachers or researchers.

The contents of this book are arranged systematically to guide the readers or learners to gain appropriate progresses of learning process. It begins by presenting a number of basic points that are important for understanding the principles of relevant materials and followed by practical exercises to enhance the expected capability.

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## List of Symbols

VOWELS & DIPHTHONGS		
IPA	English	Indonesian
ʌ	cup, luck	-
ɑ:	arm, father	akan, dua, makan
æ	cat, black	-
e	met, bed	nenek, bebek, tokek
ə	away, cinema	enam, entah, pergi
ɜ:ʳ	turn, learn	-
ɪ	hit, sitting	kirim, parit
i:	see, heat	-
ʊ	hot, rock	tokoh, pojok
ɔ:	call, four	-
ʊ	put, could	upah, bantu
u:	blue, food	-
aɪ	five, eye	ramai, ayunan
aʊ	now, out	pulau, saudara
eɪ	say, eight	-
oʊ	go, home	-
ɔɪ	boy, join	amboi, sepoi
eəʳ	where, air	-
ɪəʳ	near, here	-
ʊəʳ	pure, tourist	-

CONSONANTS		
IPA	English	Indonesian
b	bad, lab	batu, labu
d	did, lady	dasi, dadu
f	find, if	fakta, khilaf
g	give, flag	gita, lagu
h	how, hello	hari, lelah
j	yes, yellow	yang, kaya
k	cat, back	kayu, katak
l	leg, little	laku, sial
m	man, lemon	masuk, kelam
n	no, ten	naïf, kian
ŋ	sing, finger	bangun, siang
p	pet, map	pada, suap
r	red, try	roda, liar
s	sun, miss	sama, harus
ʃ	she, crash	syah, dahsyat
t	tea, getting	topeng, total
tʃ	check, church	cocok, becak
θ	think, both	-
ð	this, mother	-
v	voice, five	visa, lava
w	wet, window	wasiat, bawah
z	zoo, lazy	azas, zat
ʒ	pleasure, vision	-
dʒ	just, large	jet, baja





# **UNIT 1**

# **INTRODUCTION**



Phonology, as well as phonetics, is worth studying for several reasons. One is that the study of phonology, as all study of language, gives learners insight into how the human mind works. By studying phonetics of a foreign language, it gives learners a much better ability both to hear and to correct mistakes that we (or someone else) make. And as a foreign language learner, they need to learn (in this case English) a proper pronunciation to be produced in order to make good interpretation and interaction with others.

The purpose of this text book is to give information about the general theory relate to phonology and phonetics, speech sounds, the principles regulating the use of sounds, and how they are used in spoken English. It is also intended to give some materials and exercises to overcome the common obstructions (because of different characteristics of the mother tongue and the target language, and fossilizations) faced by NNSEs or EF2Ls when they are producing spoken English. The term “fossilization” as the phenomenon that leads to the freezing of SL learners’ inter language. We will consider age as one of the most important factors that affects the lack of progression towards the target language (TL), especially in phonology, and provide possible solutions to help learners develop their pronunciation skills.

When readers have worked their way through these chapters they will be equipped with the background knowledge to tackle the areas and applications.

These matters will be touched on presently.

<b>Objects of study</b>	<b>Name of field</b>	<b>Size of unit</b>
Language use	Pragmatics	
Meaning	Semantics	
Sentence, clauses	Syntax	Largest
Words, forms	Morphology	
Classified sounds	Phonology	
All human sounds	Phonetics	Smallest

## **A. Phonology**

Phonology is the study of the sound system of languages. It is a huge area of language theory and it is difficult to do more on a general language course than having outline knowledge of what it includes. In an exam, you may be asked to comment on a text that you are seeing for the first time in terms of various language descriptions, of which phonology may be one. At one extreme, phonology is concerned with anatomy and physiology – the organs of speech and how we learn to use them. At another extreme, phonology shades into socio-linguistics as we consider social attitudes to features of sound such as accent and intonation. And part of the subject is concerned with finding objective standard ways of recording speech, and representing this

symbolically. For some kinds of study – perhaps a language investigation into the phonological development of young children or regional variations in accent, you will need to use phonetic transcription to be credible. But this is not necessary in all kinds of study – in an exam, you may be concerned with stylistic effects of sound in advertising or literature, such as assonance, rhyme or onomatopoeia – and you do not need to use special phonetic symbols to do this.

## **B. Phonetics**

This is the level of sounds. One must distinguish here the set of possible human sounds, which constitutes the area of *phonetics* proper, and the set of system sounds used in a given human language, which classifying the sounds of language and with saying how the subset used in a particular language is utilised, for instance what distinctions in meaning can be made on the basis of what sounds.

Phonetics is the study of human sounds in general without saying what function which sounds may have in a particular language. The term ‘phonetics’, however, is often used with reference to one language when the emphasis is on the pronunciation of this language. For instance, a book on “The phonetics of Irish” would be about how to pronounce

Irish correctly and not necessarily about the function which the sounds may have in the phonological system of the language.

It is customary to divide the field of phonetics into three branches as follows:

1. Articulatory phonetics (emission of sounds)
2. Acoustic phonetics (transmission of sounds)
3. Auditive phonetics (reception of sounds)

In any language there will be sounds which are used to differentiate meaning and those which do not serve this function. To cope with this situation descriptively one needs three terms to start with.

### C. PHONOLOGY & PHONETICS

See the following table to know the differences between phonology and phonetics.

Phonetics	Phonology
Is the basis for phonological analysis	Is the basis for further work in morphology, syntax, discourse, and orthography design
Analyzes the production of all human speech sounds, regardless of language.	Analyzes the sound patterns of a particular language by <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Determining which phonetic sounds are significant, and</li></ul>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Explaining how these sounds are interpreted by the native speaker</li> </ul>
Concerned with how sounds are produced, transmitted and perceived ( <b><i>We will only look at the production of sound</i></b> ).	Concerned with how sounds function in relation to each other in a language.
about sounds of language.	about sound systems of language.
Studied of the physical properties of speech production.	Studied of sounds in the speaker's mind to distinguish meaning.
A descriptive tool necessary to the study of the phonological aspects of a language.	

(Lingualink library:2004)

## D. Phonemics

The study of the sound system of a given language and the analysis and classification of its phonemes.

## E. Phoneme

Study the following text!

Mark and Mary Brown are both doctors in the same hospital. One of them is a physician, the other is a biologist. When an invitation addressed to Dr. M. Brown's arrives, the secretary



of the hospital wants to know which Dr Brown is invited. She asks a colleague: "Who's the physician?". The answer is: "She is". Hence it is Mary who's invited. Had the answer been "He is", it would have been Mark.

(Forel& Foska:2005)

This important information is conveyed by a single segment of the utterance. If we transcribe the two possible answers in phonetic symbols, we get:

1. a. /ʃi:lz/

b. /hi:lz/

These two answers refer respectively to Mary and Mark.

2. a. /ʃi:lz/ = she is = Mary

b. /hi:lz/ = he is = Mark

If we permute /ʃ/ and /h/ we change the meaning of the sentence and hence we are not speaking about the same person.

In the example above, we produce a change in meaning through a substitution of segments in a string of sounds. These segments are called **phoneme**. Thus, in this case, the phonemes are /ʃ/ and /h/.

Here is another definition to support the previous explanation. A phoneme is the smallest contrastive unit in the sound system of a language.

<b>A phoneme is ...</b>
A contrastive unit in the sound system of a particular language.
A minimal unit that serves to distinguish between meanings of words.
Pronounced in one or more ways, depending on the number of allophones.
Represented between slashes by convention.
<b>Example:</b> /b/, /j/, /o/

## F. Phone

This is the smallest unit of human sound which is recognisable but not classified. The delimiters used are square brackets: [ ]. Example: [p], [i] [t] all three of which are found in *peat*. Phones are unclassified in that nothing is said of their function in the sound system of a language. They are thus different from allophones.

## G. Allophone

The realisations of phonemes – or phones – are called allophones. In another words, an allophone is a phonetic variant of a phoneme in a particular language.

Examples (English):

- [p] and [p<sup>h</sup>] are allophones of the phoneme /p/.
- [t] and [t<sup>h</sup>] are allophones of the phoneme /t/.

As in *pill, bill, until, kill*.

[p<sup>h</sup>] and [p] are said to be allophones because:

- 1) They can both be described as voiceless bilabial plosives and
- 2) If we substitute one for the other we do not get any change in meaning but rather an odd pronunciation.

The feature ‘aspirated’, which we find in [p<sup>h</sup>rt], is context-bound. Its relevance is not a change of meaning but its position in a string of sounds or context. [p<sup>h</sup>] and [p] are realisations of the same phoneme, i.e. allophones that are in complementary distribution : [p] never occur instead of [p<sup>h</sup>] and vice-versa. Note that these non-phonological variations are not always perceived.

Allophones can also be in free variation. That is, there are no restrictions as to their appearance. Probably no one ever utters the same phoneme twice in the very same way; with an appropriate acoustic instrument, one could always find a small difference between two allophones, a difference which can be attributed to a physiological state, accent, the sort of conversation, etc.

## H. Minimal pair

A minimal pair is two words that differ in only one sound.

Examples:

Sounds which differ: /p/ and /b/

- /læp/ = lap
- /læb/ = lab

Let's go back to the concept of phoneme. Since the substitution of /ʃ/ and /h/ changes *she* into *he*, /ʃ/ and /h/ belong necessarily to two different phonemes. Whereas, /r/ and /R/ which is under no circumstances change the information given, are said to belong to the same phoneme /r/.

Generally, when we wish to decide whether two segments belong to the same phoneme or, on the contrary, are realisations of two different phonemes, we put them in an identical context, that is the same string of sounds. When there is a difference between two otherwise identical strings of sound and this difference results in a change of meaning, these two strings are said to constitute a minimal pair. Instead of how /ʃ/ and /h/ can be said minimal pair, here is another example.

/ðə hæʔ ɪz ɔn ðə mæt/

The hat is on the mat

If we substitute one segment for another and this results in a change in meaning the two segments belong to two different phonemes. Thus /h/ and /m/ are realisations of two different

phonemes /h/ and /m/ because substituting one for the other as first element of the string (-æt) gives two different words: /hæt/ (hat) and /mæt/ (mat).

## I. Morphology

This is the level of words and endings, to put it in simplified terms. It is what normally understands by grammar “(along with syntax). The term *morphology* refers to the analysis of minimal forms in language which are, however, themselves comprised of sounds and which are used to construct words which have either a grammatical or a lexical function.

Lexicology is concerned with the study of the lexicon from a formal point of view and is thus closely linked to (derivational) morphology.

## J. Syntax

This is the level of sentences. It is concerned with the meaning of words in combination with each other to form phrases or sentences. In particular it involves differences in meaning arrived at by changes in word order, the addition or subtraction of words from sentences or changes in the form of sentences. It furthermore deals with the relatedness of different sentence types and with the analysis of ambiguous sentences.

*Language typology* attempts to classify languages according to high-order principles of morphology and syntax and to make sets of generalisations across different languages irrespective of their genetic affiliations, i.e. of what language family they belong to.

### **K. Semantics**

This is the area of meaning. It might be thought that semantics is covered by the areas of morphology and syntax, but it is quickly seen that this level needs to be studied on its own to have a proper perspective on meaning in language. Here one touches, however, on practically every other level of language as well as there exists lexical, grammatical, sentence and utterance meaning.

### **L. Pragmatics**

The concern here is with the use of language in specific situations. The meaning of sentences need not be the same in an abstract form and in practical use. In the latter case one speaks of utterance meaning. The area of pragmatics relies strongly for its analysis on the notion of speech act which is concerned with the actual performance of language. This involves the notion of proposition – roughly the content of a sentence – and the intent and effect of an utterance.

## Exercise

Match them up!

- |  |                           |
|--|---------------------------|
| 1. Including particular sounds and systems from one language to another. | a. Allophone              |
| 2. /b/ and /l/ in 'book' and 'look'                                      | b. Phoneme                |
| 3. /əmju:ziŋ/  | c. Minimal pair           |
| 4. How speech organs produce sounds.                                     | d. Phonology              |
| 5. Vary of a phoneme in a particular language.                           | e. Phonetics              |
| 6. A minimal unit that serves to distinguish between meanings of words.  | f. Phonetic transcription |

## SOUNDS AND LETTERS

### A. International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) Symbols

As phonetics and phonology both deal with sounds, and as English spelling and English pronunciation are two very different things, it is important that you keep in mind that we are not concerned in letters here, but in sounds. For instance, English has not 5 or 6 but 20 different vowels, even if these are all written by different combinations of 6 different letters, “a, e, i, o, u, y”. The same case we have here in consonants. English has unusual symbols, such as /ɪ/, /ʊ/, /ʃ/, /ð/, etc. Look at the IPA symbols below then try to practice them aloud.

ɪ READ	ɪ SIT	ʊ BOOK	u: TOO	ɪə HERE	ei DAY	John & Sarah Free Materials 1996	
e MEN	ə AMERICA	ɜ: WORD	ɔ: SORT	ʊə TOUR	ɔɪ BOY	əʊ GO	
æ CAT	ʌ BUT	ɑ: PART	ɒ NOT	eə WEAR	aɪ MY	aʊ HOW	
p FIG	b BED	t TIME	d DO	tʃ CHURCH	dʒ JUDGE	k KILO	g GO
f FIVE	v VERY	θ THINK	ð THE	s SIX	z ZOO	ʃ SHORT	ʒ CASUAL
m MILK	n NO	ŋ SING	h HELLO	l LIVE	r READ	w WINDOW	j YES

(source: <http://ipa-paradise.weebly.com/ipa.html>)



## Exercise

1. Try to find some words on the same symbols as above. Two or more syllables are better!
2. Before going further into sub-topic of **Phonetic Transcriptions & Orthographic Writing**, you'd better do the exercises below.

Write the words!

- a. /prepəreɪʃn/ = \_\_\_\_\_
- b. /ʃʌtl/ = \_\_\_\_\_
- c. /ɔ:təm/ = \_\_\_\_\_
- d. /vækjuəm/ = \_\_\_\_\_
- e. /wɪ ɪnvaɪt jə/ = \_\_\_\_\_
- f. /let ðəm klʌm/ = \_\_\_\_\_
- g. /hɪ slept saʊndli/ = \_\_\_\_\_
- h. /aɪm frəm lʌndən/ = \_\_\_\_\_

Now, let's see your work. Ones which in slashes are named ***phonetic transcriptions***, while ones which written using alphabetic letters are called ***orthographic writing***. Here are some definitions of both.

Phonetic transcriptions or phonetic writing is representing speech sounds to show clearly and consistently the pronunciation of a given word using phonetic symbols. Remember this principle of

phonetic writing; “one phonetic symbol represents one sound only, and never any other”.

**Examples:**

/fa:ðə/ has 4 phonetic symbols

/pʊl/ has 3 phonetic symbols

/neɪm/ has 3 phonetic symbols. **Why? Because /eɪ/ is diphthong.**

Most language, including English and Indonesian, use alphabetic writing to represent their speech sounds. It is the most popular and well-established way of representing speech sounds. Orthographic writing (or commonly named conventional way) is the way to represent speech sounds of every day speaking in order to communicate using alphabetic letters.

**Examples:**

Father has 6 alphabetic letters

Pull has 4 alphabetic letters

Name has 4 alphabetic letters

## Exercise 1

1. Define the following terms. Work with your classmate and use examples when you can!
 

a. Morphology	e. Morpheme
b. Syntax	f. Phone
c. Phonetic	g. Orthographic writing
d. Phoneme	h. Phonetic transcription
2. Complete the transcriptions with one of the following diphthongs: /eɪ/ /aɪ/ /ɔɪ/ /əʊ/ /aʊ/ /ɪə/ /eə/ /ʊə/
 

a. Make /m__k/	f. Sure /ʃ__/	
b. Bear /b__/	g. Island /__lənd/	
c. Employ/impl__/	h. Hear /h__/	
d. Town /t__n/	i. Home /h__m/	
e. Sight /s__t/	j. Know /n__/	
3. Discuss with your partner, match the phonetic transcriptions with the words.
 

a. /ʃʌt/	1. Later
b. /hɑ:t/	2. Joke
c. /θɪŋk/	3. Heart
d. /wɜ:k/	4. There
e. /lətə/	5. Doubt
f. /bɔ:t/	6. Work
g. /pu:l/	7. Shut

- |            |            |
|------------|------------|
| h. /daʊt/  | 8. Think   |
| i. /dʒəʊk/ | 9. Pool    |
| j. /ðeə/   | 10. Bought |

4. Write down the Orthographic transcription from this following phonetic transcription

[ˈlændən ˈkæb draɪvəz ɑː | wɪðaʊt ˈkweɪtʃən | ðe ˈfaɪnɪst  
 ɪn ðe ˈwɜːɪd || ðe ˈtræstwɜːði | ˈseɪf | ˈdʒenrəli  
 ˈfrendli | ˈɔːɪweɪz peˈlaɪt || ðeɪ kɪːp ðe ˈviːɪkɪz  
 ˈsptləs ˈɪnsaɪd ənd ˈaʊt | ən ðeɪl ˈpʊt ðəmseɪvz tə ðe  
 meʊst rksˈtrɔːdʒrɪ ɪnkenˈviːniəns tə ˈdrɒp ju et ðe ˈfrʌnt  
 ˈentrens əv jə destɪˈneɪʃn || ðeɪ ə ˈrɪəli əʊnli ˈtuː nd  
 θɪŋz əbaʊt ðəm || ˈwʌn ɪz ðet ðeɪ ˈkæʊt draɪv moː ðen ˈtuː  
 haʊdrɪd ˈfiːt ɪn ə streɪt ˈlaɪn || aɪv ˈnevə əndəˈstʊd  
 ðɪs | bət nəʊ ˈmæte ˈweə ju ɑː ɔː wɒt ðe ˈdraɪvɪŋ kəndɪʃnz |  
 evrɪ ˈtuː haʊdrɪd ˈfiːt ə lɪtɪ ˈbeɪ ɡəʊz ˈɒf ɪn ðe ˈhedz  
 ən ðeɪ əbˈrʌptli ˈlændʒ daʊn ə ˈsaɪdstriːt || ən wen ju get  
 tə jə həˈteɪ ɔː ˈreɪɪweɪ steɪʃn ɔː weəevəɪ ɪt ɪz ju ə  
 ˈɡəʊvɪŋ | ðeɪ laɪk tə ˈdraɪv ju ˈɔːɪ ðe weɪ əˈraʊnd ɪt et  
 lɪːst ˈwʌns səʊ ðet ju kən ˈsiː ɪt frəm ˈɔːl ˈæŋɡɪz ||]

**Exercise 2**

1. Work in a group consisting of 4 students; describe the following terms with your own words. You can use another book as reference.
  - a. What are the differences between:
    1. Phonetic
    2. Phonology
  - b. Support your statement with examples when you can! Define these two terminologies:
    1. Speech sounds
    2. Organ speech
  - c. Describe these terminologies and give some examples.
    1. Phonetic transcription
    2. Orthographic writing
    3. Homonym
    4. Homophone
2. As an ESL student mention what are your difficulties in learning English and provide with examples.

# **UNIT 2**

# **PHONOLOGICAL**

# **FOSSILIZATION**



## **1. PHONOLOGICAL FOSSILIZATION (SOME PROBLEMS FOR NON-ENGLISH NATIVE LEARNERS)**

Many language learners face some problems when they are learning a second or foreign language, even if they're exposed to it on a daily basis. In linguistics this is called fossilization. Fossilization is a stage at which a foreign language speaker seems to cease making progress toward becoming more target-like in his or her use of the language, wherein the L2 learner has his own linguistic system that's still influenced by L1 and other things is known as the inter language.

Fossilization has been assigned different meanings by the main linguists who have tried to find out the most suitable connotation to this phenomenon. Regarding this feature as the most important in this case, phonological fossilization will be examined according to its characteristics, Indonesian setting. Graham (1981: p.10) points out that fossilization is the relatively permanent incorporation of incorrect linguistic forms into an acquirer's foreign language competence. Moreover, Krashen (1985: p.43) claims that fossilization refers to when learners stop short of the native speaker level of performance in their second language. Selinker (1972: p.32) mentions that it occurs when progress in the acquisition of the target language is arrested, despite all reasonable attempts at learning. At this point, fossilization occurs when the foreign language learning is intervened by their mother tongue structures.

In learning foreign languages, pronunciation is placed as one of a difficult domain for a foreign language learner to acquire. This is due to the fact that each language has its own characteristic. The problems or difficulties are related to the



absence of features that do not have equivalents in the native language. On one hand, the learner is adapting his or her foreign language based on his or her mother tongue, which can lead in any case to some kind of fossilization.

Some phonological difficulties and mistakes made by Indonesian students when they pronounce some consonants in English, such as they have difficulties to pronounce [b, d, z, ɖ, tʃ] in final position, or sometimes consonant [v] is pronounced [f]. The problems are due to the different sound systems in the two languages, some sounds do not exist in Indonesian sound systems, such as: / æ, ʌ, ɜ, ʌ, θ, ð / or due to the different phonetic features. One can realize that the influence of the first language's sounds and intonation can be one of the problems at the moment of learning and using the foreign language's structure. Therefore, the general and appropriate instructions given by the teacher, whatever the method may be, are essential for the students to study the target language appropriately.

Apart from using knowledge of our students and our ears in order to be aware of their pronunciation problems, it is also useful to have some prior knowledge of what elements of English phonetics and phonology are likely to cause problems. This is one area of language learning where few people would question the use of contrastive analysis. For instance, to give some simple examples, we can predict that Indonesian speakers will have difficulty distinguishing between / θ / and / ð /. Realizing some of the main areas of contrast between native language and target language and what difficulties students have, it then remains us to build this information into some meaningful exercises.

**Exercise 1**

1. Summarize some of the ways that your language can differ from English!
2. Suppose you are a teacher or lecturer, what are specific ways you can help your students to learn English.

**Exercise 2**

Sound (/v/ and /w/)

- A. Work with a partner. First, repeat the words below. Your partner will write down the word which sounds different. Then, your partner will read his/her words. Write down the word! Which sounds are different?

- |           |       |       |
|-----------|-------|-------|
| 1. vest   | west  | _____ |
| 2. few    | view  | _____ |
| 3. groove | grew  | _____ |
| 4. viper  | viper | _____ |
| 5. wail   | veil  | _____ |

- B. Look up the phonetic transcription of the following phrases and speech them in front of your friend!

- |                    |       |
|--------------------|-------|
| 1. Seven devils    | _____ |
| 2. A village vicar | _____ |
| 3. Every evening   | _____ |
| 4. Eve's love      | _____ |
| 5. Very vain       | _____ |

- C. Say the following sentences, paying attention to the sounds /v/ & /w/.
1. Wendell Vaccario wasted vine after vine.
  2. Woolen vests for wailing wolves are worn in the vast woodlands.
  3. Varied berries are wetted while Val and Walt whisper in vain.
  4. Woodson's waistcoat is weirdly vented.
  5. Wise women don't walk in the woods while wolves wander.

Sound / tʃ /

Look up the phonetic transcription of the following word, phrases, and sentences and speech them in front of your friends!

1. Church
2. Arch
3. Chair
4. Watch
5. a chubby child
6. a watch-chain
7. cheap cheese
8. Charles is scratching his itching chin.
9. Charles is a cheerful chicken-farmer.

10. A poacher is watching Charles' chickens, choosing which to snatch.
11. He chucks at the chance of a choice chicken to chew for his lunch.
12. A jelly a juicy orange a large jug gingerbread a jam-jar  
Jeremy

### Sound / dʒ /

1. Jones
2. jug
3. Jill
4. aged judge
5. jolly jury
6. The aged judge urges the jury to be just but generous
7. a huge treasure chest on a large Chinese junk
8. Joe plays Jazz - Richard plays chess

### Sound / θ /

1. Arthur Smith, a thick-set, healthy athlete sees three thieves throw a thong round
2. Thea's throat and threaten to throttle her. He throws one thug to earth with a
3. Thud that shakes his teeth. Both the other thieves run off with a filthy oath thea.

4. Thanks Arthur for thrashing the three thugs.

Sound / ð /

1. Weather wreaths a feather a leather tether
2. These bathers are breathing through their mouths
3. Smooth breathing is rather soothing
4. These are three brothers This is their other brother
5. These are their father and mother

Sound / z /

1. a zoo cages prison bars a zebra a zebu daisies
2. Zoe is visiting the zoo.
3. A lazy zebra called Desmond is dozing at the zoo.
4. He feels flies buzzing round his eyes, ears and nose.
5. He rouses, opens his eyes, rises and goes to Zoe.
6. Zoe is wearing a rose on her blouse. Zoe gives Desmond these buns.

Sound /i:/

1. a tree three leaves a bee a sheep
2. a fleet a sea ice-cream for tea Stephan meets Eve
3. Stephan is greedy. He eats three pieces of cheese.
4. Asleep. Stephan dreams of Eve. He sees Eve fleeing from three beasts.

## Sound /i/

1. Sheep
2. Bean
3. Meal
4. Lead
5. Seek
6. Six slippers
7. Fitting feet
8. Fat fish
9. Cheap chips
10. Ink a ship a fish a biscuit a tin whistle a big pig a little kitten
11. A kitchen sink with dishes in it
12. Which of the six thin women is a wicked witch?

## Sound /e/

1. A leg a tent a penny a letter a wren's nest seven pets a treasure chest
2. Ten well-dressed men a wedding-dress
3. Eleven hens with twelve eggs in ten nests.

## Sound /æ/

1. a hand a map a stamp a flag a tank a jazz band

2. a fat man clapping his hands a black cat catching a fat rat.
3. Anne has plaits and black slacks. Harry has a hacking jacket.
4. Harry and Anne are standing hand in hand.

Sound /e/

1. A pat a pet one man many men a net a gnat
2. Pedalling paddling Ted has Dad's hat on his head
3. Jack's Czech friend Franz is very expansive.
4. Franz's French friend is very expensive.

Sound /ʌ/

1. A puff a cup a glove a gun a jump a duck a country cousin
2. A lovely crusty buttered bun for supper.
3. Cuthbert puts some mustard on his mother's custard.
4. A thump cuthbert's young brother wonders why mother doesn't love her other son.

Sound /a:/

1. a hat a hut, a battler a butler, a stamp a stump a banker a bunker
2. These windows were shattered. These windows were shuttered,

3. mashed potatoes with butter / mushed potatoes with batter

Sound / ʊ : /

1. A thought a talk a yawn a call a stormy dawn
2. Maud is short Paul is tall
3. Maud is walking on the lawn. Paul is crawling along the wall.
4. Maud warns Paul, "You'll fall!" "Not at all!" retorts Paul.

Sound / ə /

1. Abacus
2. Fashionable
3. Photographer
4. Balloon
5. Banana
6. A cactus
7. A cormorant
8. Adventurous professor
9. An amateur astrologer
10. A professional astronomer
11. Alderman sir Edward Anderson is a prosperous government official at the Treasury.



12. The comfortable apartment of Sir Edward Anderson at Aldeburgh.
13. A professional burglar has entered the apartment by a ladder that was at the back of the house.
14. But an observant amateur photographer has focused a camera on the burglar and summoned a police-constable.
15. As the burglar leaves there is a policeman at the bottom of the ladder.

Sound / ei/

1. Space
2. Sailor
3. Lay
4. Lake
5. Bait
6. Break day
7. Painful Mate
8. Great wave
9. Rainy day
10. A train is waiting at the railway station.
11. James plays with trains and planes.
12. Jane bakes eight cakes.
13. James Jane James takes a cake from Jane's plate.

# **UNIT 3**

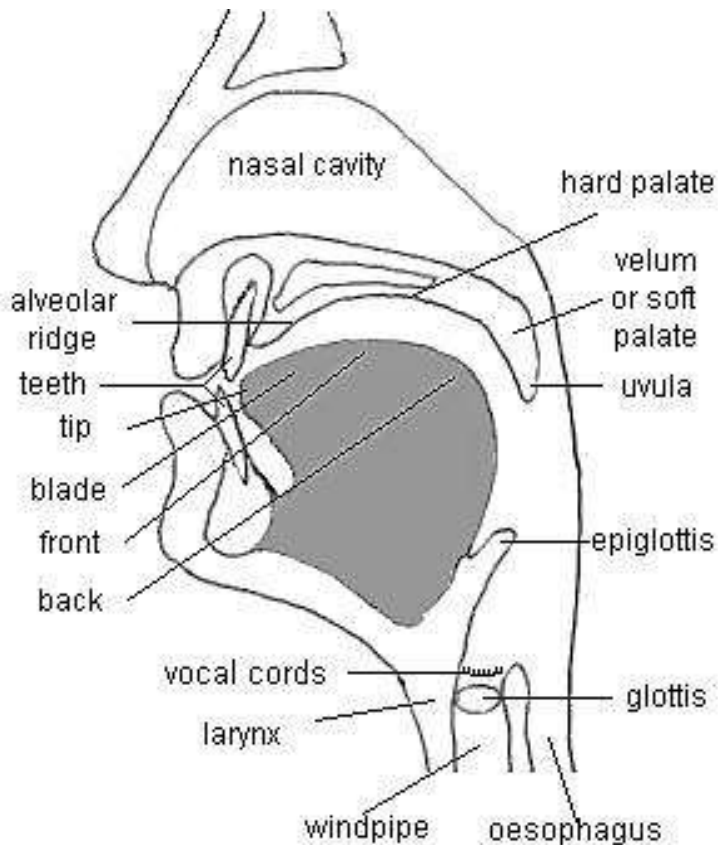
## **THE PRODUCTION OF SPEECH SOUNDS**



## A. Speech Organs

Human being, as well as many other animals, possesses the ability to produce sounds by using certain of his body's mechanisms. What is meant by body's mechanisms here is how human's body makes mechanical movement in order to produce sound in speaking a language to convey message.

Sounds move in and out of the speech organs; which include the mouth and the respiratory organs. Mouth, in addition to masticate food, is also functioned to help man producing sounds. The respiratory organs, which consist of the nose, the pharynx, the larynx, the wind-pipe, and the lungs, are fundamentally used to inhale and exhale air. In the lungs our blood absorbs oxygen from the inhaled air, and circulates it throughout our body. Oxygen is very essential for our life, and cannot be dispensed with by man. All the organs mentioned which contribute to the production of speech can be seen in the following figures.



**Figure 3.1**

**NOTES:**

- a. Teeth-ridge** is part of the roof of the mouth exactly behind the upper-teeth, and is convex in shape facing the tongue.

- b. Hard palate** is the bony part of the roof of the mouth behind the teeth-ridge, and is concave in shape facing the tongue.
- c. Soft palate** is the remaining fleshy part of the roof of the mouth behind the hard palate.
- d. Uvula** is the speech organs along the lower margin include the lower lip, the lower teeth, and the tongue.
- e. Tongue** is divided into the following parts;
  - 1. the tip or apex,
  - 2. the blade,
  - 3. the front, and
  - 4. the back of the tongue
- **The central part of the tongue includes:**
  - a.** a small part of the front, and
  - b.** the back of the tongue.

The movement of air into and out of the lungs can be explained in the following way: the two lungs act as a pair of bellows, which expand and contract continuously as long as man lives. When the lungs expand, the air pressure within them becomes lower than the air pressure outside; the result is that the air streams into the lungs. Conversely when the lungs contract, the air pressure within them

becomes stronger, and consequently the air is driven outward.

All the sounds are made using air on its way out from the lungs. The lungs pull in and push out air, helped by the diaphragm. The air goes out via the trachea, where the first obstruction it meets the larynx, which it has to pass through. Inside the larynx the air passes by the vocal cords, which, if they vibrate, make the sound voiced. Afterwards the air goes up through the pharynx, and escapes via either the oral or the nasal cavity.

Speech sounds are basically produced by a moving air column, either by the in-going air or out-going air. Sounds produced by the in-going air are called *ingressive* sounds, while sounds produced by the out-going air are called *egressive* sounds. Speech sounds used by man in speaking are mostly using out-going air for it comes from the lungs. Therefore, ingressive sounds are rarely used in communication.

## **B. Airstream Mechanism**

The movement of air into and out of the lungs can be explained in the following way: the two lungs act as a pair of bellows, which expand and contract continuously as long as man lives. When the lungs expand, the air pressure within

them becomes lower than the air pressure outside; the result is that the air streams into the lungs. Conversely when the lungs contract, the air pressure within them becomes stronger, and consequently the air is driven outward.

All the sounds are made using air on its way out from the lungs. The lungs pull in and push out air, helped by the diaphragm. The air goes out via the trachea, where the first obstruction it meets the larynx, which it has to pass through. Inside the larynx the air passes by the vocal cords, which, if they vibrate, make the sound voiced. Afterwards the air goes up through the pharynx, and escapes via either the oral or the nasal cavity.

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### C. Vowels and Consonants

Vowel is a speech sound made by allowing breath to flow out of the mouth, without closing any part of the mouth



or throat (although the lips may move to create the correct sound, as in creating the sound “o”). Letters of the English alphabet that represent vowels: a, e, i, o, u, and sometimes y.

A consonant is a speech sound made by partially or completely blocking the flow of air through the mouth (using the lips, teeth, tongue, and palate). Letters of the English alphabet that represent consonants include all the letters that are not vowels. Examples: b, d, k, s. The letter “y” makes a consonant sound when it appears at the beginning of words (examples: yellow, yacht), and it makes a vowel sound when it appears at the end of words (examples: valley, fairy). This dual role explains why the letter y is considered as only sometimes a vowel. Once students know that vowels are a, e, i, o, u, and sometimes y, and that consonants make up all the other letters, they can usually easily group the letters of the alphabet into vowels and consonants. However, there are vowels and consonants that sound like each other in certain words in English. Students speaking or hearing these vowels and consonants can sometimes find it difficult to distinguish between them, and that makes these vowels and consonants especially challenging as well as interesting. Here are some examples:

- a. What happens when what looks like a vowel does not sound like a vowel? For example, the u in “unicorn” makes a consonant sound and is usually preceded by “a,” not “an,” in the English language people say “a unicorn,” not “an unicorn.” An even more interesting example is the word “unununium” (an artificially produced radioactive element, pronounced yoon-yoon-yoo-nee-um, with the accent on the “yoo”). In addition, the o in “one,” “ouananiche” (a type of landlocked salmon, pronounced wan-an-ish, with the emphasis on the “ish”), and “Ouija” (a trademark for a spiritual and telepathic game board, pronounced wee-jee, with the emphasis on the “wee”), makes a consonant sound. The “w” sound in ouananiche and Ouija is actually made by the combination of the letters o and u.
- b. What happens when what looks like a consonant does not sound like a consonant? For example, the h in “hour” is silent, so the word “hour” begins with a vowel sound and is usually preceded by “an,” not “a,” in the English language —people say “an hour,” not “a hour.” Other examples: honorary, honesty.

## D. English Vowels vs Indonesian Vowels

Vowels are sounds which are produced with the vibration of air in produced with the vibration off. All vowel sounds are voiced. The relationship of the vowels to one another is shown by the device known as the Vector Triangle. Vowel articulation is described using four parameters. They are ***tongue height, tongue advancement, lip rounding, tenseness Parameters.***

ENGLISH VOWELS	INDONESIAN VOWELS
ɪ = kit, bid, kit, duty,	a = Bapak, , sakit, ayam,
e = dress, bed, head, many	i = ibu, itu, ilmu,
æ = trap, bad, trap	u = untung, ujian, lupa
ɒ = lot, odd, wash	e = emosi, energy
ʌ = strut, mud, love, blood	o = olahraga, otak
ʊ: = goose, two, blue, group	ə = elang, belang, belajar,
i: = fleece, sea, machine	
ɑ: = start, father	
ɔ: = thought, law, north, war	
ɜ: = nurse, stir, learn, refer	
ə = about, combat, common	
u = influence,	

i:, ɑ:, ɜ: This is a long /i:/ that Indonesians never say it with a little bit long duration. They may say it with a long /i:/ but they do not recognize this symbol. 3 difficult Sounds (Vowels) Indonesian does not recognize this symbol except short a. English recognizes the short a. English recognizes the /ɑ:/ like in the word father /fɑ:ðə(r) /. This is a long /ə:/ . Remember, however, that these two symbols do not have any relation. Compare /ɜ:/ in bird /'bɜ:d/ and ə in ago /ə'gəʊ/

English vowel sounds are divided into two:

**English short vowels** /ɪ/ /ʊ/ /ʌ/ /ɒ/ /ə/ /e/ /æ/ as in /ɪ/ ship /ʃɪp/, pin /pɪn/; /ʊ/ book /bʊk/, put /pʊt/; /ʌ/ cup /kʌp/, brush /brʌʃ/; /ɒ/ or /o/ hot /hɒt/, clock /klɒk/; /ə/ a /ə/, of /əv/, camera /kæməɾə/; /e/ ten /ten/, men /men/; /æ/ man /mæn/, cap /kæp/

**English long vowels** i:, u:, ɑ:, ɔ:, o:, ɜ: as in i: see /si:/, sea /si:/; u: boot /bu:t/, June /dʒu:n/, ɑ: march /mɑ:tʃ/, heart /hɑ:t/; ɔ: or o: ball /bɔ:l/, fork /fɔ:k/; ɜ:girl /gɜ:l/, work /wɜ:k/, hurt /hɜ:t/, heard /hɜ:d/

**Indonesian** i u a o e ə

Discover this phoneme. Try to focus on the sound of the word!

- Tail \_ (tali)
- Gate - (gatel)
- Ate - (atap)
- Rake - (rak)
- Taken \_ (tekan)

Answer the following explanation!

1. What vowel sound is common in the words above?

Each of the words without brackets has the long “a” phoneme or sound.

2. What vowel sound is common in the list below?

- a. See (melihat) b. three (tiga) c. Speaking (berbicara)

Each word has the long /e/ phoneme or sound. Each of the words without in brackets has the long “i” phoneme or sound.

3. What vowel sound is common in the following list?

- a. Ten (sepuluh) b. Send (senter)

The long /e/ phoneme or sound is common in the list of words, without in brackets.

4. What is the common vowel sound?

- a. go – (gosong)  
b. Potatoes – (potong)  
c. Overheard – (oper)

The long /o/ phoneme or sound is represented without in (brackets) the words.

5. What vowel sound is common in the list below?

- a. Cucumber – (cucu)  
b. Beautiful – (buruk)  
c. Cute – (kutek)

**Note: The long /u/ phoneme or sound is common without in bracket each of the words.**

### **E. English Consonants vs Indonesian Consonants**

The sounds are produced by blocking the flow of air as it leaves the mouth. There are many ways of blocking the air and various tongues. Lip and jaw position required in order to create accurately the consonants of English.

#### **INDONESIAN CONSONANTS**

Examples: b [b] bantal, sebut, adab, c [c] cakap, baca, d [d] dua, adab, abad, f [f] fakir, kafan, maaf, g [g] ganda, tiga, jajag, h [h] hari, lihat, tanah, j [j] jalan, manja, k [k] kami, paksa, politik, l [l] lekas, alas, kesal, m [m] maka, kami, diam, n [n] nama, anak, daun, P [p] pasang, apa, siap, q [q] Aqiqah, qurba, r [r] raih, juara, putar, s [s] suku, asli, lemas, t [t] tali, mata, rapat, v [v] varia, laval, w [w] wanita, hawa, x [x] Xenomania, x-ray, y [y] yakin, paying, z [z] zeni, lazim, kh[k] khas, akhir, ny [ɲ] nyata, banyak, ng [ŋ] ngilu, angin, pening, sy [ʃ] syarat, isyarat

#### **ENGLISH CONSONANTS**

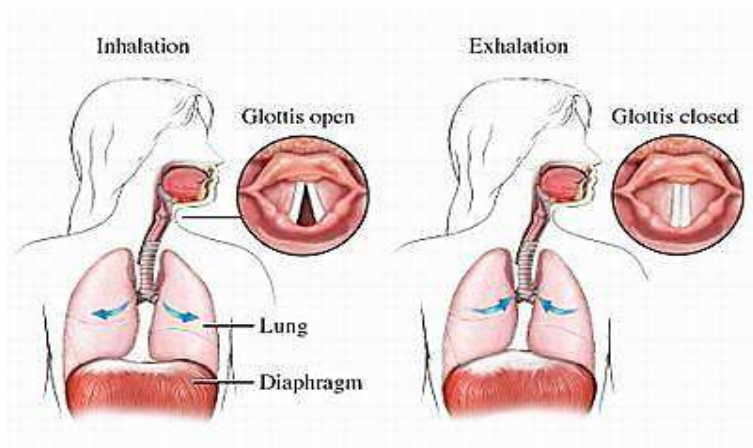
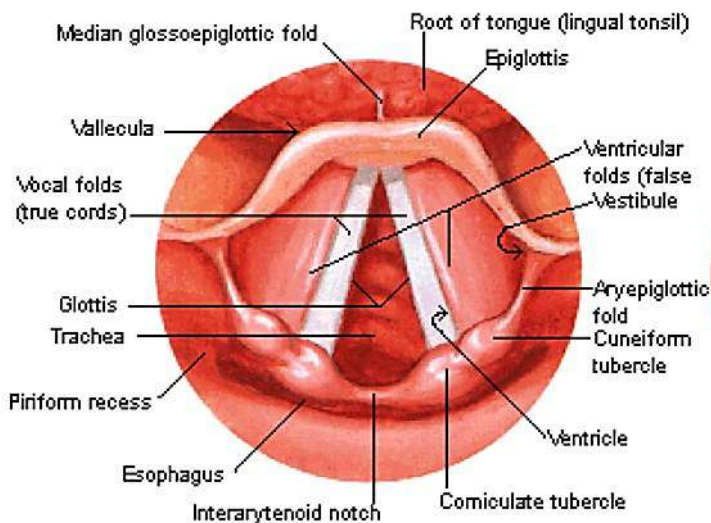
b [b] baby, absent, number, tub; [s]centre, cinema, agency; d [d] day, admire, hidden, kind; [f] fast, five, often, cuff; g [g] great, giggle; [dʒ]general, giant, suggest; h [h]hair, help, behind; k [k] kind, kill, sky; l [l] Late, alone, table, file, all; m [m]make, men, common; n [n] napkin, never, funny, student, sun; [p] paper, repair, apple; r [r] rain, rise, brief, hurry, car; [s]send, lost, kiss; [z] release, cause; t [t] tell, time,

tone; v [v] voice, even, active; w [w] wall, wind, would; j [j] yellow, young, buy.

Differences between Indonesia & English Though both Indonesian and English have some similar letters, in several words they have different sounds. They are C → tʃ g → g h → h Indonesia : kacang Indonesia : generasi Indonesia : hari English : car/k : (r)ɑ / English : general /' enrdʒ l/ə ENG : hour /'a/'æʊ (r)/. In several sounds, Indonesian doesn't have English sounds ex : three /θ/, that /ð/, English / /, and pleasure / /ʒ. In Indonesian, sounds /f/ and /v/ are the same sound, but in English they are different. • INA : safitri or virgiawan > same sound without any obstruction ENG : fantasy or village > there are obstruction INA VS ENG : novel and novel > same letter but difference in sound

## F. Voicing

Voice is produced by what is called vocal cords. It is located in the larynx (a point commonly called Adam's Apple). Larynx is in the neck, it is like a box. The vocal cords themselves contain two thick flaps of muscle. When the vocal cords are apart, it is said that the glottis is open (in a normal position). Reversely, when they open and close regularly, the edges of the vocal cords touch each other while the air that passing through will usually cause vibration. So, it gives what is called voicing. Look at the figures below:

**Figure 3.2****Figure 3.3**

(Ramelan:1994)



To learn more how to produce speech sounds you can reach these pages out:

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=7y8MdZaKAV8>

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=16b2M-YwgKs>

### **EXERCISE 1**

Answer the following questions and discuss with your friends!

- 1) What is the media used by man in speaking a language?
- 2) How does our organs speech produce speech sounds?
- 3) Between ingressive and egressive sounds, which one is used by human beings to speak? Why?
- 4) Explain each of your speech organs to seat-mate by touching your own external ones!

# **UNIT 4**

## **VOWELS**



Let's see the following table

### English vs Indonesian

#### Vowels

No	English	Indonesia
1	ʌ	a
2	ɑ:	e
3	æ	i
4	e	o
5	ə	u
6	ɜ:	-
7	ɪ	-
8	i:	-
9	ɒ	-
10	ɔ:	-
11	ʊ	-
12	u:	-

#### Consonants

No	English	Indonesia
1	b	b
2	d	c
3	f	d
4	g	f
5	h	g
6	j	h
7	k	j
8	l	k
9	m	kh
10	n	l
11	ŋ	m
12	p	n
13	r	ny
14	s	ng
15	ʃ	p
15	t	q
17	ʒ	r
18	θ	s
19	ð	sy
20	v	t
21	w	v
22	z	w
23	ʒ	ks
24	dʒ	j
25	-	z

## A. Long and Short Vowels

English has 12 vowel sounds. Vowel sounds are basically classified according to tongue position and rounding.

### 1) Tongue Position

Tongue position means how high in the mouth is the tongue, and which part of the tongue is the highest?

Tongue position is described using two criteria: the height (how high is the tongue) and the part of the tongue involved in the production of the sound.

#### a) The height (how high is the tongue)

In English the tongue may either be **high** (when we produce sounds /i:/, u:/ in /bi:t, bu:t/, **intermediate** /e, ɔ:/ in /bet, bɔ:t/, or **low** /æ, a:/ in /bæt, ba:t/.

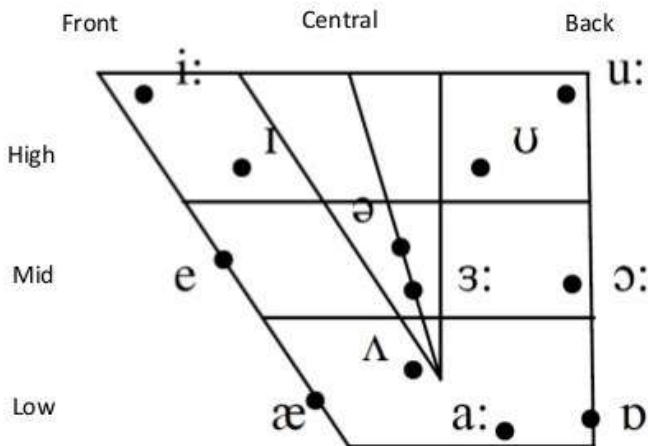
English has several intermediate tongue heights; high, mid and low.

#### b) Part of the tongue

The part of the tongue involved in the production of a vowel can also be illustrated as follows: if you say /i:/ and then /u:/ just after it, you almost have the feeling that you are moving your tongue backwards. This is because /i:/ is a **front** vowel and /u:/ is a **back** vowel, or in other words,

the highest point in the pronunciation of /i:/ is the front of the tongue; whereas the highest point in /u:/ is the back of the tongue.

Further, sound /ɛ/ is front and /ɔ:/ is back, and /æ/ front, /ɑ:/ back. There are also vowels in between front and back, called **central**, namely /ɜ:ə, ʌ/ as in /wɜ:d, fɔ:wəd, mʌd/. /ɜ:/ for instance is between /e/ and ə:/, as can be seen from /bed, bɜ:d, bɔ:d/. See the diagram of English vowels below:



Compare to Indonesian vowels below

(S



<http://www.slideshare.net/manuelmedinavuaad/vowels>

Do the exercises below.

- a. In English how do you account for the difference between [i:], [e] and [æ]?
- b. Can you apply the same system to account for the difference between [i], [e], [æ] and [a] in Indonesia? How would you describe the differences between these sounds, knowing that they are all considered to be front?
- c. In English what is the difference between [i:] and [i] on the one hand and [u:] and [ʊ] on the other? Do you have such a difference in Indonesia?
- d. Where do you find rounded sounds in English? Where do you find rounded sounds in Indonesia?

How do you account for the difference between [i] and [y] in Indonesia, considering that they are both front?

Is rounding a relevant feature in Indonesia?

Is it relevant feature in English?

- e. Which sound do you get if you follow the instructions below?

Start at [i:]:

- 1) Which part of the tongue is involved and at what height is it?
- 2) Now the back of your tongue is at its highest and you keep the same opening. Is this a possible sound of English? If not, what do you have to do to get one without changing the other parameters?
- 3) Now lower your tongue to the next possible position. Which sound do you get?
- 4) Lower your tongue again. What do you get?
- 5) What is the only thing you have to do to get [ɑ:]
- 6) Now where do you move to get [ʌ]?
- 7) From this position, move to [æ]. Describe the move.



- 8) What are the two intermediate steps to reach [i:] again?

## 2) Rounding

Rounding is about the shape of lips rounded or not. Vowels may also be different from each other with respect to rounding. If you compare /i:/ in /tʃi:z/ with /u:/ in /tʃu:z/, you will see that not only is /i:/ a front vowel and /u:/ a back vowel, but /i:/ is also unrounded where /u:/ is rounded. When pronouncing /u:/ your lips are rounded, but when pronouncing /i:/ the corners of the mouth are much further apart.

To make you easy in memorizing how is the position of the tongue and also where the part of the tongue is when you pronounce a vowel, here is the summarize description of English vowels in the following table:

NO	SOUND	DESCRIPTION
1	i:	Long high front unrounded
2	I	Short high font unrounded
3	E	Short mid front unrounded
4	Æ	Short low front unrounded

5	ʌ	Short low central unrounded
6	ɑ:	Long low back unrounded
7	ɒ	Short low back rounded
8	ɔ:	Long mid back rounded
9	ʊ	Short high back rounded
10	u:	Long high back rounded
11	ɜ:	Long mid central unrounded
12	ə	Short mid central unrounded

## Exercises

1. Put the following words into the corresponding column:

a)

<b>ɪ</b>	<b>i:</b>
Sit	Seat

(ill, eel, kneel, nil, will, wheel, field, filled, bean, bin, ski, sick)

b)

ɔ:	ɒ	u:
Call		

(board, two, bored, call, pot, moth, cough, do, through, thought)

2. Find the mistakes

/craim/

/θi:z/

/sixti/

/wisliŋg/

/jækit/

/waivs/

/yeləu/

# **UNIT 5**

## **DIPHTHONGS**

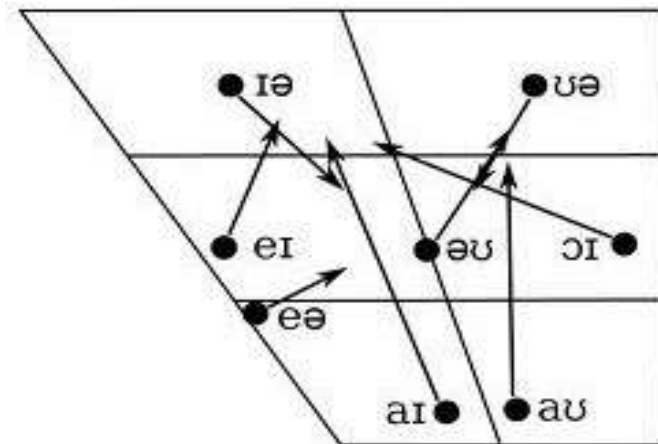


English also has 8 diphthongs, which are vowels that change character during their pronunciation, that is, they begin at one place and move towards another place. Different to monophthong (commonly called vowel or single vowel), that is vowels that is pronounced at one and at the same place). Compare these examples;

Monophthong 'car' with the diphthong 'cow'

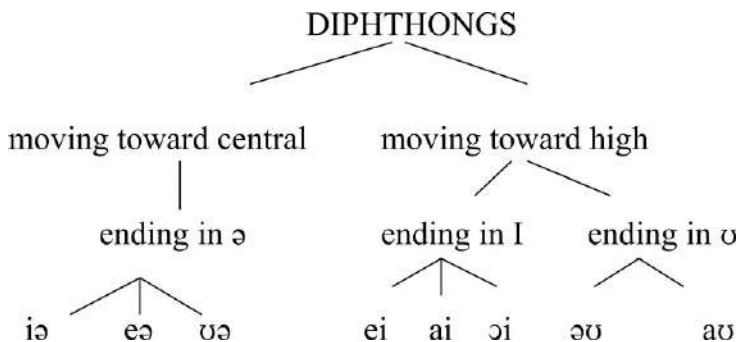
Monophthong 'girl' with the diphthong 'goal'

The vowels in 'cow' and 'goal', both begin at a given place and glide toward another one. In 'goal' the vowel begins as if it was /ə/, but then it moves towards /ʊ/. Therefore it is written /əʊ/ as in /gəʊl/ with two symbols, one for how it starts and one for how it ends.



(Source:<http://linguistics.stackexchange.com/questions/2538/difference-between-production-of-vowels-diphthongs-and-semi-vowels>)

The easiest way to remember them is in term of three groups composed as follows:



If you had read the description of vowels, this may be some description for English diphthongs.

NO	SOUND	DESCRIPTION
1	ei	Diphthong moving from mid front unrounded to high front unrounded
2	ai	Diphthong low central unrounded to high front unrounded
3	ɔi	Diphthong low back rounded to high front unrounded
4	əʊ	Diphthong mid central unrounded high back rounded
5	aʊ	Diphthong low central unrounded to high back rounded

6	iə	Diphthong high front unrounded to mid central unrounded
7	eə	Diphthong mid front unrounded to mid central unrounded
8	ʊə	Diphthong high back unrounded to mid central unrounded

## Exercises

1. Put the following words into the corresponding column:

ɔ:	əʊ	aʊ
Sore		

(caught, owe, coal, own, sore, mow, scowl, brow, door, now, paw, found)

2. Write the sentences:
- /hi: wɒntstə bi: əsalkælətrɪst, aɪbɪli:v/
  - /pli:zkləʊzðə dɔ:r a:ftə j li:v/
  - /aldəʊntsəpəʊsfi:ləndərstænd jɔ:r əpɪnjən/
3. Write this reading passage in the phonetic transcription (use the weak form wherever possible)



## Hire Purchase

The cheapest and simplest way to buy something is to walk into a shop and pay cash; but if you want to buy some big, expensive item, like a hi-fi set or a colour television, you might not have enough money to pay cash. In this case you can arrange to purchase the goods on Hire Purchase.

Besides diphthongs, you must know that the most complex English sounds of the vowel type is the **triphthongs**. They can be rather difficult to pronounce, and very difficult to recognize. A triphthong is a glide from one vowel to another and then to a third, all produced rapidly and without interruption.

For example, a careful pronunciation of the word hour begins with a vowel quality similar to a: goes on to a glide towards the back close rounded area (for which we use the symbol  $\text{Ü}$ ), then ends with a mid-central vowel (schwa,  $\text{ə}$ ). We use the symbols  $\text{aÜə}$  to represent the way we pronounce how, but this is not always an accurate representation of the pronunciation. There are five triphthongs that are described as five closing diphthongs.

eɪ + ə = eɪə

əʊ + ə = əʊə

ɔɪ + ə = ɔɪə

aɪ + ə = aɪə

aʊ + ə = aʊə

We will not go through a detailed description of each triphthong. This is partly because there is so much variation in the amount of vowel movement according to how slow and careful the pronunciation is, and also because the “careful” pronunciation can be found by looking at the description of the corresponding diphthong and adding ə to the end. However, to help identify these triphthongs, some examples words are given below:

eɪə ‘layer’, ‘player’

əʊə ‘lower’, ‘mower’

ɔɪə ‘loyal’, ‘royal’

aɪə ‘liar’, ‘fire’

aʊə ‘power’, ‘hour’

### Exercise 1

The following diagram indicates with an arrow the movement of the tongue for the diphthongs in the given words. Give a phonetic transcription first. Work with a partner!

- Hair \_\_\_\_\_
- Sure \_\_\_\_\_
- High \_\_\_\_\_
- Owl \_\_\_\_\_
- Own \_\_\_\_\_

Do the same thing for the triphthongs in the words

- a. Player \_\_\_\_\_
- b. Fire \_\_\_\_\_
- c. Royal \_\_\_\_\_
- d. Lower \_\_\_\_\_
- e. Hour \_\_\_\_\_

Put the following words into the corresponding column:

ɔ:	əʊ	aʊ
Sore		

(caught, owe, coal, own, sore, mow, scowl, brow, door, now, paw, found)

## Exercise 2

Work with a partner. First, repeat the words below. Your partner will write down the word which sounds different. Then, your partner will read his/her words. Write down the word which sounds different!

- 1. Bar Burr Burr \_\_\_\_\_
- 2. Fear fear far \_\_\_\_\_
- 3. Dear dare dear \_\_\_\_\_
- 4. Jar jar jaw \_\_\_\_\_
- 5. Lark lurk lark \_\_\_\_\_

- |     |        |        |        |       |
|-----|--------|--------|--------|-------|
| 6.  | Bare   | boor   | boor   | _____ |
| 7.  | Pear   | purr   | pear   | _____ |
| 8.  | Gargle | gurgle | gargle | _____ |
| 9.  | Rear   | rear   | roar   | _____ |
| 10. | Tar    | tear   | tear   | _____ |

### Exercise 3

A. Transcribe the following phonetics into words!

<i>Phonetics</i>	<i>Word</i>	<i>Phonetics</i>	<i>Word</i>
/beə/	.....	/kik/	.....
/bɪə/	.....	/gəʊ/	.....
/bɜ:d/	.....	/ti:m/	.....
/bɔ:n/	.....	/mʊ:n/	.....
/bʌt/	.....	/stɑ:t/	.....
/fæn/	.....	/ju:/	.....

B. Create the phonetic transcription of the words presented!

Football	.....
Bus stop	.....
Out-dated	.....
Over-ripe	.....

The letter was written by hand	.....
We grew the vegetables at home	.....
We went on holiday at the last minute	.....
Jane works very hard	.....
Tom looks really good	.....

### Exercise 4

Say the following sentences aloud and pay attention to the vowel + R sound!

- Four fur-bearing bearded larks near Larry.  
/ fɔːr fɜː 'ber.ɪŋ 'biə.dɪd lɑːks niə læri/
- Farther than further father feared.  
/'fɑː.ðə ðæn 'fɜː.ðə 'fɑː.ðə fɪəd/
- "Sure, lure poor drink further into girl problems."  
/ʃʊə lʃʊə pʊə drɪŋk 'fɜː.ðər 'ɪn.tuː gɜːl 'prɒb.ləmz/
- Laura's forty-four whirling dervishes had durable curves.  
/lɔːrəz 'fɔː.ti fɔːr wɜː.lɪŋ 'dɜː.vɪʃɪz hæd 'dʃʊə.rə.bl kɜːvz/
- Bored birds barred Barry from further harm.  
/bɔːrd bɜːdz bɑːd bəri frəm 'fɜː.ðər hɑːm/
- Poor weather assured Barb that her fears were perturbed.  
/pʊə 'weð.ər ə'ʃʊəd bɑːb ðæt hɜːr fɪəz wɜː pə'tɜːbd/

7. Carl cursed as he cavorted after four beer.  
/kɑ:l kɜ:st əz hi: kə'vɔ:tɪd 'ɑ:f.tər fɔ:r bɪr /
8. Bears and beer, bears and bourbon, and bears and barley don't mix.  
/berz ænd bɪər berz ænd 'bɜ:.b ə n ænd berz ænd 'bɑ:li dəʊnt mɪks/
9. In fact, bears are usually barred from beer bars if they do drink.  
/ ɪn fækt berz ɑ:r 'ju:ʒu.ə.li bɑ:d frəm bɪr bɑ:rz ɪf ðeɪ du drɪŋk/
10. Barry, Laura, Barbara, and Larry were burned for four hundred dollars at Dirk's dark and dank casino.  
/beri lɔrə bɑrbrə leri wɜ: bɜ:nd fər fɔ:r 'hʌn.drəd 'dɒl.ərz ət dɜ:kz dɑ:k ænd dæŋk kə'si:.nəʊ/

### Exercise 5

Write the orthographic writing of the phonetic transcription represent and read it in front of the class!

ðə 'weð.ə tə'deɪ wɪl bɪ wɔ:m fɔ: ðə taɪm ɑ:v jɪər ən faɪn ɑ:n ðə  
həʊl ðer wɪl bɪ faʊr hɪə ən ðer ðəʊ sʌm pleɪsɪz wɪl mɪs ʌt  
kəm'pli:t.li ðə gʊd spel jʊd hoʊld ʊ.və ðə nekst tu: deɪs bʌt  
ðer meɪ bɪ fɑ:g ʊ.və læʊ graʊnd ɪn ðə ʒɪ.li 'mɔ:niŋz ðæt ɪz ðə  
end əv 'dʒen.ə r.ə l 'fɔ:ka:st

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# **UNIT 6**

## **CONSONANTS**





The air which is flowing out from the respiratory organs can be more or less obstructed, producing consonants including vowels. If you pronounce the word 'pepper' your mouth is completely closed and that is the utmost obstruction. In other hand, if you pronounce the word 'fly' your mouth is widely opened more than normal that it makes the air flows freely.

Consonants are often classified by being given a so-called VPM-label. VPM stands for VOICING, PLACE and MANNER.

- a. Voicing means the vocal cords are used. When the vocal cords are free, the sound is voiceless. (note that vowels always imply the use of vocal cords)
- b. Place of the articulation is the place where the air flow will be more or less obstructed.
- c. Manner of the articulation is concerned with the nature of the obstruction.

The following is the detail explanation:

### **A. Places of The Articulation**

Apart from the position of the vocal cords, sounds can also be distinguished as to where in the oral cavity they are articulated. It means where in the mouth there is most obstruction when they are pronounced.

#### **1) Bilabial**

Bilabial sounds are produced when the lips are brought together.

Examples: /p/ ---- pay --- voiceless  
 /b/ ----- bay ---- voiced  
 /m/ ----- may ----- voiced

## 2) Labiodental

Labiodental sounds are made when the lower lips is raised towards the upper front teeth.

Examples: /f/ ---- safe ---- voiceless  
 /v/ ---- save ---- voiced

## 3) Dental

Dental sounds are produced by touching the upper front teeth with the tip of the tongue.

Examples: /θ/ ---- oath ---- voiceless  
 /ð/ ---- clothe ----- voiced

## 4) Alveolar

Alveolar sounds are made by raising the tip of the tongue towards the ridge that is right behind the upper **front**teeth, called the alveolar ridge.

Examples: /t,s/ --- too, sue --- voiceless  
 /d,z,n,l,r/ --- do,zoo,nook,look,rook  
 ---voiced

## 5) Palatoalveolar

Palatoalveolar sounds are made by raising the blade of the tongue towards the part of the palate just behind the alveolar ridge.

Examples: /ʃ, tʃ/ --- pressure, batch --- voiceless  
              /ʒ, dʒ/ --- pleasure, badge --- voiced

## 6) Palatal

Palatal sounds are very similar to palatoalveolar ones, they are just produced further back toward the velum. The only palatal sound in English is /j/ --- yes, yellow, beauty, new (voiced).

## 7) Velar

Velar sounds are made by raising the back of the tongue towards the soft palate, called the velum.

Examples: /k/ --- back--- voiceless  
              /g, ŋ/ --- bag, bang --- voiced  
              /w/ --- wow ---voiced (followed  
with lip rounding)

## 8) Glottal

Glottal sounds are produced when the air passes through the glottis as it is narrowed.

Examples: /h/ --- high --- voiceless

## B. Manner of The Articulation

The way in which the air meets on its way out after passing the vocal cords named manner of articulation. It may meet a complete closure (plosives), an almost complete closure (fricatives), around the sides of the tongue (laterals), through the nasal cavity (nasals), and so on. See the explanation below.

### 1) Plosives

Plosive or stop are sounds in which there is a complete closure in the mouth, so that the air is blocked for a fraction of a second and then released with a small burst of sound, called a plosion (it sounds like a very small explosion). Plosive may be:

a) bilabial /p, b/ (park, bark)

b) alveolar /t, d/ (tar, dark)

c) velar /k, g/ (car, guard)

d) In some cases, glottal stop is included plosive sound.

The word 'football' can be pronounced without interruption in the middle /fʊtbɔ:l/ OR with a complete closure of the glottis instead of /t/; /fʊʔbɔ:l/.

In English, a voiceless plosive that occurs in the beginning of a word and is followed by a vowel, it will

release a plosion with a slight puff of air (called aspiration) before the vowel is articulated. Like in 'pen' we hear /p<sup>h</sup>en/.

## 2) Fricatives

Fricatives are sounds which have a closure which is not quite complete. This means that the air is not blocked at any point, therefore there is no plosion. On the other hand, because of it is friction, this sound demands some big air to be blown out as an obstruction. Fricatives may be:

- a. Labiodentals /f,v/ (wife, wives)
- b. Dental /θ,ð/ (breath, breathe)
- c. Alveolar /s,z/ (sink, zinc)
- d. Palate-alveolar /ʃ,ʒ/ (nation, evasion)
- e. Glottal /h/ (help). Sound /h/ is glottal fricative for it is like aspiration unaccompanied by any obstruction.

## 3) Affricates

Affricates are a combination of a plosive and a fricative (sometimes they are called affricated plosive). This sound begin with a plosive, with a complete closure, but at the same time they have a very slow release then moving backwards to a place where a friction can be heard (palate-alveolar).

- a. Two English affricates are both palatoalveolar; /tʃ, dʒ/ (chin, gin). In this case, the combination between affricate and plosive is shown by the symbol /t+ʃ/ and /d+ʒ/.

#### 4) Nasals

Nasal sounds resemble plosive except that there is a complete closure in the mouth but as the velum is lowered the air can escape through the nasal cavity. Even though most sounds are produced with the velum raised, the normal position of the velum is lowered as the position of breathing. Nasal sounds are:

- a. Bilabial /m/ (ram)
- b. Alveolar /n/ (ran)
- c. Velar /ŋ/ (ring)

#### 5) Laterals

Laterals are the sounds where the air escapes around the sides of the tongue. There is only one sound in lateral with two versions:

- a. The clear /l/ (light, long)
- b. The dark /ɫ/ (milk, ball)

#### 6) Rolled

Rolled sounds are when the tip of the tongue is made to vibrate against the teeth ridge. It means that

there is a rapid series of closing and opening of the air passage at the alveolar point of articulation.

There is only one sound in rolled /r/ but different way of production in different countries;

- a) Lingual rolled consonant is mostly used in Scotch dialect, Javanese, and Indonesian.
- b) Uvular rolled consonant is used in Dutch and some German dialects.
- c) The initial consonant of the word 'red' in British English is fricative.
- d) But in American English, it is called retroflexed consonants where the tip of the tongue is curled backwards. That is why English sound /r/ is not a rolled consonant.

#### 7) Semi-vowel / Glide

It is called semi vowel because the way of producing semi-vowel sounds is the same as that of producing vowels. It is basically a gliding vowel sound but has lack of stress. These sounds are:

- a. Palatal /j/ (use, youth)
- b. Velar /w/ (square, why, twin)



### C. Voiced and Voiceless Sounds

As discussed on the second chapter that voicing means the vocal cords are used. Here is the further discussion related to the production of English consonants.

Please pronounce words 'sue' and 'zoo'. Do you feel the distinction? Do you feel vibration? In word 'sue' or 'zoo'? Again, please pronounce words 'few' and 'view' while touching the front of your larynx (or Adam's Apple) or sticking your finger into your ears. Do you feel any vibration? In word 'few' or 'view'?

Yup, in uttering words 'zoo' and 'view', the Adam's Apple is vibrating for sounds /z/ and /v/ are considered voiced consonants. In the examples below the first sound is voiceless, the other is voiced: *pie/buy*, *try/dry*, *chew/Jew*, *thigh/thy*. This distinction can also be made in between two vowels: *rapid/rabbit*, *metal/medal*. Or at the end of a word: *pick/pig*, *leaf/leave*, *rich/ridge*.

Based on the use of vocal cord, English consonants are divided into voiced and voiceless/unvoiced consonants:

- 1) Voiced = b,d,g,v,ð,z,ʒ,l,r,j,w,dʒ,m,n,ŋ
- 2) Unvoiced/voiceless = p,t,k,f,θ,s,ʃ,h,tʃ

### D. Nasal and Other Consonants

#### 1) Nasal

Nasal is an occlusive consonant produced with a lowered velum, allowing air to escape freely through the nose. Nasal pronounced with the voice issuing through

the nose, either partly or entirely (as in m, n, or the ng of song)

Nearly all nasal consonants are nasal occlusives, where air escapes through the nose but not through the mouth, as it is blocked (occluded) by the lips or tongue. The oral cavity still acts as a resonance chamber for the sound. Rarely, non-occlusive consonants may be nasalized.

## 2) Other Consonants

**Oral consonant** is a consonant sound in speech that is made by allowing air to escape from the mouth, as opposed to the nose. To create an intended oral consonant sound, the entire mouth plays a role in modifying the air's passageway. This rapid modification of the air passageway using the tongue and lips makes changes to the waveform of the sound by compressing and expanding the air.

In addition to the nose and mouth, the vocal cords and lungs also make a contribution to producing speech by controlling the volume (amplitude) and pitch (frequency) of the sound. The use of the vocal cords will also determine whether the consonant is voiced or voiceless. The vast majority of consonants are oral, such

as, for example [p], [w], [v] and [x]. The others are nasal, such as the nasal occlusives [m] or [ɲ].

**Semivowels.** The consonants in this group are halfway between vowels and consonants. For that reason, they are called the semivowels, where "semi-" means "half." Like the vowels, the semivowels are voiced and unaspirated. Also, they are produced by continuous air flow out of the mouth. However, we produce these sounds by suppressing the flow of air at the point of pronunciation. Example: "Y" in "Yellow", "L" in "Loose", "V" in "Vase"

Each of the semivowels has a different point of pronunciation: ya uses the hard palate, "ra" is a retroflex consonant, and "la" uses the teeth. "Va" is a bit different; it mainly uses the lips, but it also requires the use of the teeth. "va" is halfway between the English "va" and the English "wa."

**The "s"-sounds.** The consonants in this group are all varieties of the hissing sound that you hear in words like "Sanskrit" and "sherpa." For simplicity's sake, let's just call these the "s"-sounds. Just like the semivowels, the "s"-sounds in this group are produced by suppressing the flow of air at the point of pronunciation. But, these

sounds are not like the semivowels. The "s"-sounds are unvoiced. Each has a different point of pronunciation.

The discussion on consonants above can be summarized in the following table. A sound on the left of a column is voiceless, one on the right side is voiced.

PLACE MANNER	Bilabial	Labio Dental	Dental	Alveolar	Palato- Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Plosive	p, b			t, d			k, g	
Fricative		f, v	θ, ð	s, z	ʃ, ʒ			h
Affricative					tʃ, dʒ			
Nasal	m			n			ŋ	
Lateral				l				
Rolled					ʀ			
Semi-vowel/ Glide	w					j		

(Roach, 1983:52)

**Exercise 1**

1. Find the phonetic symbol for the first sound in each of the following words:

- |               |       |              |       |
|---------------|-------|--------------|-------|
| a. This       | ..... | f. Hear      | ..... |
| b. Usual      | ..... | g. Phonetics | ..... |
| c. Christian  | ..... | h. Giant     | ..... |
| d. Psychology | ..... | i. One       | ..... |
| e. Knee       | ..... |              |       |

2. Find the phonetic symbol for the last sound in each of the following words!

- |           |       |            |       |
|-----------|-------|------------|-------|
| a. Tough  | ..... | f. Shapes  | ..... |
| b. Kicked | ..... | g. Bones   | ..... |
| c. Loved  | ..... | h. Parking | ..... |
| d. Health | ..... | i. Wave    | ..... |
| e. Dog    | ..... | j. Large   | ..... |

3. Among the following words tick those which start with a nasal sound!

- |            |       |              |       |
|------------|-------|--------------|-------|
| a. Know    | ..... | e. Power     | ..... |
| b. Mother  | ..... | f. Kill      | ..... |
| c. Another | ..... | g. Mare      | ..... |
| d. Gnaw    | ..... | h. Pneumonia | ..... |

4. Put the following words into two columns according to whether their consonant is voiced or not!

+ VOICE	- VOICE

(du:, hIə, pi:, i:gə, æd, ti:, fɪ:, θaI, Iʃ, ðə)

5. Circle the words in which the consonant in the middle is voices!

Tracking

mother

robber

leisure

Stomach

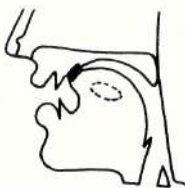
rozer

column

briefin

## Exercise 2

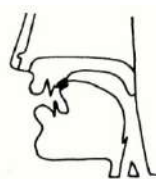
Fill the blanks in the following text in order to describe the sequence of actions required for the pronunciation of the consonants in the middle of the word [implænt] implant.



[m]



[p]



[l]

[m] as the vowel ends, the lips ....., the tongue is still ..... but the ..... is lowered and the vocal chords continue to .....

[p] the .....remains in the same position, the tongue moves to .....in anticipation, nasalization stops so the .....and the .....stop vibrating.

[l] the lips ....., the tip of the tongue ....., the blade ..... so that the air can escape.....and as [l] is voiced the .....

Note that in a sequence such as this one sounds tend to influence each other and do not appear exactly as they would in isolation.

[n] in [bra:ntʃ] is anticipated towards the end of the vowel and the soft palate is lowered; then it anticipated the following [t] with a raising of the soft palate.

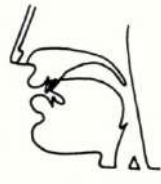
### Exercise 3

The following diagrams each represent a different place of articulation.

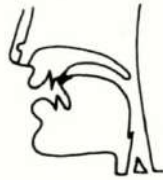
a. Name the pictures!



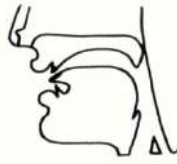
a) .....



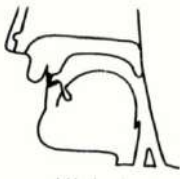
b) .....



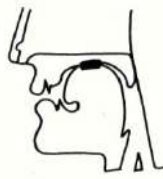
c) .....



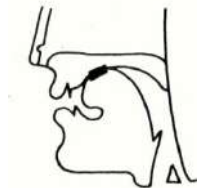
d) .....



e) .....



f) .....



g) .....

b. List the sounds that are produced at each of these places!

c. For each of these sounds, give a word in which it appears!



**Exercise 4**

1. Circle the words that begin with a bilabial consonant!

mat    gnat    sat    bat    rat    pat

2. Circle the words that begin with a velar consonant!

knot    got    lot    cot    hot    pot

3. Circle the words that begin with a labiodental consonant!

fat    cat    that    mat    chat    vat

4. Circle the words that begin with an alveolar consonant!

zip    nip    lip    sip    tip    dip

5. Circle the words that begin with a dental consonant !

pie    guy    shy    thigh    thy    high

**Exercise 5**

The teacher will read out the following sentences. Underline the alternative that you hear!

1. Which county/country did you say he lived in?
2. She rubbed/robbed the silver to make it shinier.
3. There are a lot of colourful rags/rugs on the floor.
4. Can I borrow your cup/cap?
5. We were wondering/wandering where she was.
6. She has a heart/hut of gold.
7. Put the batter/butter in the fridge.
8. Did you say he run/ran away?

9. There was a big cart/cut in the wood.
10. He tripped over the stump/stamp on the ground.

### Exercise 6

Underline the word that the transcription represents!

- |            |          |          |
|------------|----------|----------|
| 1. bɔ:n    | burn     | born     |
| 2. θɪŋ     | thing    | thin     |
| 3. fɪ:lɪŋz | fillings | feelings |
| 4. vaɪn    | vine     | wine     |
| 5. meɪdʒə  | major    | mayor    |
| 6. ræm     | rum      | ram      |
| 7. wɜ:d    | word     | worried  |
| 8. fəget   | forget   | forged   |
| 9. aɪs     | eyes     | ice      |
| 10. hu:z   | whose    | house    |

### Exercise 7

Write down the phonetic transcription of the following poem briefly!

Beware of heard, a dreadful word  
 That looks like beard and sounds like bird.  
 And dead, it's said like bed, not bead-  
 for goodness' sake don't call it 'deed'!

Watch out for meat and great and threat  
(they rhyme with suite and straight and debt).

A moth is not a moth in mother,  
Nor both in bother, broth, or brother,  
And here is not a match for there,  
Nor dear and fear for bear and pear,  
And then there's doze and rose and lose-  
Just look them up- and goose and choose,  
And cork and work and card and ward  
And font and front and word and sword,  
And do and go and thwart and cart-  
Come, I've hardly made a start!

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# **UNIT 7**

## **SEGMENTALS AND SUPRASEGMENTALS FEATURES**



First let us underline that linguists divide an utterance into segmental and suprasegmental features in order to make some theories and do analysis. Practically, when man produces sounds, those two terminologies are indivisible, since it is impossible to produce one type of features without involving other features.

More specific, segmental or segmental features are feature in utterances which can be segmented out of an utterance such as consonants and vowels. However, segmental alone can never be pronounced, they must always be pronounced with some degree of loudness or stress and also with a certain degree of highness or lowness of tone, which is called pitch. These features are what we call 'suprasegmentals'.

The following table is what you need to read about the two features. Comprehend the provided examples.

<b>SEGMENTALS (FEATURES)</b>	<b>SUPRASEGMENTALS (FEATURES)</b>
Refer to sound units arranged in a sequential order.	Refer to such features as stress, pitch, length, intonation, and other features that always accompany the production of segmental
Example: written /rɪtɪn/ The word 'written' has four segmental features or four	Example: sound written which is produced by segmental features is always followed by

<p>segmental phonemes, namely /r, l, t, n/, three consonants and one vowel.</p>	<p>those mentioned features (stress, pitch, length, intonation, etc).</p> <p>On what syllable the stress is? It has low, medium or high pitch? Is the intonation falling, rising, or sustain?, etc.</p>
<p>Can be studied in isolation</p> <p>Example: for the word 'written' above, a single segmental phoneme /w/ is called semi vowel or glide consonants. /I/ is unrounded half-close to close front vowel, etc.</p> <p>OR</p> <p>Phoneme /p/ can be said as a single segmental phoneme in initial utterance: pull /pʊl/; medial utterance: apart /əpɑ:t/; final utterance: help /help/.</p>	<p>Cannot be studied in isolation</p> <p>stress, pitch, length, intonation, etc never be pronounced individually.</p>

(Ramelan:1994)

**a. Speech Features/ Suprasegmental Features****1) Stress**

Ramelan (1994) defined 'stress' is meant the degree of force or loudness with which a syllable is pronounced so as to give it prominence. In addition, still Ramelan (1992), described that 'stress' is defined as the degree of force with which a syllable is pronounced.

There are three degrees of stress in English:

- a. Strong or primary stress. It is symbolized phonetically (')
- b. Medium or secondary stress. The symbol is (ˈ) or (ˌ)
- c. Weak stress. It is left unmarked in the transcription.

Generally, the uses of symbols are varying within writers or dictionaries.

English has both of word stress and sentence stress. Study the following.

**a) Word Stress**

There is, actually, no rules can be implemented of stress in a word in English since the distribution of it cannot be predicted. In another words, each of English word has its own stress pattern which is learnt together with their meaning.



That is why we need to consult a dictionary in case of doubt.

But sometimes you can predict the stress placement because of the type of word or the ending you put on it. Here are some general rules:

Word type		Where is the stress?	Examples
Two syllables	Nouns	on the first syllable	<u>center</u> <u>object</u> <u>flower</u>
	Verbs	on the last syllable	<u>release</u> <u>admit</u> <u>arrange</u>
Compound	Nouns (N + N) (Adj. + N)	on the first part	<u>desktop</u> <u>pencil case</u> <u>bookshelf</u> <u>greenhouse</u>
	Adjectives (Adj. + P.P.)	on the last part (the verb part)	<u>well-meant</u> <u>hard-headed</u> <u>old-fashioned</u>
	Verbs (prep. + verb)		<u>understand</u> <u>overlook</u> <u>outperform</u>
Phrasal Verbs		on the particle	<u>turn off</u> <u>buckle up</u> <u>hand out</u>
Word with added ending	-ic	the syllable before the ending	<u>economic</u> <u>geometric</u> <u>electrical</u>

	-tion, -cian, -sion		techn <u>ic</u> ian gradu <u>at</u> ion co <u>h</u> esion
	-phy, -gy, -try, - cy, -fy, -al	the third from the last syllable	phot <u>o</u> graphy bi <u>o</u> logy ge <u>o</u> metry
	-meter		par <u>a</u> meter therm <u>o</u> meter bar <u>o</u> meter

## b) Sentence Stress

In the utterance of a sentence, the speaker needs to consider the function of the words within the sentences. In a sentence, there must be some words which belong to content or functional ones. The functional words (articles, preposition, auxiliary, conjunction, etc) do not receive stress for the function is to build up or to mark syntactical constructions, but the content words (noun, verb, adjective, adverb) do since these words tend to be the 'IDEA-CARRIERS'. Practice them well:

Pútdówn

Pút them dówn

Pút them dówn on the flóor

Pút them on the flóor

Pút them on the flóor near the bóx

I've ásked him to pút them dówn on the flóor  
opposite the bóx

## Exercise

**Mark the stressed words in the following sentences! After you have found the stressed words practice reading the sentences aloud!**

1. John is coming over tonight. We are going to work on our homework together.
2. Ecstasy is an extremely dangerous drug.
3. We should have visited some more castles while we were travelling through the back roads of France.

Sometimes sentence stress also depends on what the speaker mind. Look at the following cases, pay attention to the stress symbols.

1. This is my hóuse : primary stress on 'house', this is the normal way of saying the sentence.

2. This is *my* house : primary stress on 'my', to emphasize the possessor; the implication is that it is not your house, or his house, but *my* house.
3. This *is* my house : primary stress on the word 'is' to emphasize the affirmative element of the statement; the implication is 'it is not a lie, this house does belong to me'.
4. This is my house : primary stress on the word 'this', the implication is 'it is this house that belongs to me, and not that house'.

Sometimes the stress pattern of a word may be changed for the sake of sentence rhythm, such as the following examples:

My bróther is sixtéén	- There are síxteenpéople
She cómes from Berlín	- She is a Bérlinwóman
He is Chinése	- He has a Chínese móther

## 2) Length

From the word 'long', 'length' (quantity) refers to a feature of sounds that distinctively longer than other sounds. This term is measured vowels only since consonants do not make any significant difference. In his book, Ramelan gave an example in sound /a:/ in /fa:ðə/. It has 0.12 seconds length. Sound /a:/ is longer than

sound /ə/. The following is some rules of how **length** is manipulated in English which foreign learners have to bear in mind so that they speech will sound English and will not be misspelled and occurs different meaning which drives to miscommunication.

Comprehend the table below. The other is pronounced longer than another.

LONGER		SHORTER	
Diphthong	Late /leɪt/	Pure vowels	Let /let/
Long vowels	Caught /kɔ:t/	Short vowels	Cot /kɒt/
Open syllables	He /hi:/	Closed syllables	Heal /hi:l/
Stressed syllables	Bird /bɜ:d/	Unstressed syllables	Cup-board /kʌbəd/
Voiced consonants	Send /se:nd/	Voiceless consonants	Sent /sent/
A vowel occurs on the following consonants	Seize /si:z/ Seal /si:l/ Seem, seen, seed, seek.		

### 3) Intonation

As we know, words have sometimes one or more syllables (word 'love' has one syllable, word 'music' has two syllables, word 'imagine' consists of three syllables, etc). There is each of the syllables has some degree of lowness and highness of tone which is called 'pitch'.

Before you know further about intonation, you need to know what is pitch. Based on Ramelan (1994), designated pitch levels by numbers in the following way: Pitch level /1/ = low, /2/ = mid, /3/ = high, and /4/= extrahigh. People normally start an utterance on the pitch level /2/, so this pitch is considered normal pitch.

Let's see this example:

<u>Mor-ning</u>	<u>quick-ly</u>	<u>fam</u> - i - <u>ly</u>
/2/ - /1/	/2/ - /1/	/1/     -     /2/

After you know how pitch works when people speak, you need to what intonation is. "the going up and down of pitch over different syllables in an utterance is called intonation" (Ramelan:1994). People speak as the way people sing. It means when people speak, the voice goes up and down in tone. The going up and down in an utterance is what is meant by intonation. This statement is supported by The Free Dictionary by Farlex, it stated that intonation is a manner of producing or uttering tones, especially with regard to accuracy of pitch.

In uttering phrases, clauses or sentences, people need to make good intonation. Commonly, in English, there are three intonations in normal speaking (Ramelan, 1994:33-38):

### a) High-low Falling Intonation (/31/ or/ 231/)

The pitch level /2/ falls on the first syllable of a sentence/phrase. Pitch level /3/ on the last stressed syllable of the sentence, which is called the center of intonation. The /31#/ intonation pattern occurs normally with one-syllable or two syllable utterances.

The high-low falling intonation or commonly well known falling intonation is used in the following expressions:

EXPRESSIONS	PHRASE/SENTENCE	
ORDERS	Come here	Be a good boy
CALLS	Ladies and Gentleman	Hello, there
EXCLAMATION	Good Lord!	How beautiful!
DECIDED OR FINAL STATEMENTS	It is time to go	Seeing is believing
QUESTION WORD QUESTIONS (INFORMATION QUESTIONS)	What is your name?	How much money do you need?

**b) Rising Intonation (/23/)**

The utterance start with pitch level /2/ and the last stressed word or syllable has pitch level /3/, which is the center of intonation the pitch level of the syllables in between may be a bit higher or lower than /2/. The mid high rising intonation or just the rising intonation, is used in the following expressions:

EXPRESSIONS	PHRASE/SENTENCE	
Yes-no questions	Shall I open the door?	Was it you?
Polite requests	Please, sit down	Come again soon
Miscellaneous Emotional Statements	If you like	Don't trouble

**c) High-normal Sustained Intonation (/32/)**

This intonation is known as continuation speaking. The speaker implies non-finality of an utterance, it is not complete yet. That is why this intonation is normally used in enumeration or in counting which are using commas. Sometimes this intonation is considered as falling intonation.



EXPRESSIONS	PHRASE/SENTENCE	
Enumeration / Counting	Yesterday I bought chocolate, sugar, vegetables, and milk.	Count from one to five: one, two, three, four, and five
A distinction in meaning	Are you reading/Tom Sawyer?: the question is addressed to Tom Sawyer.	Are you reading Tom Sawyer? : "Tom Sawyer" here is name of a book.

#### d) Additional intonation patterns

As an inconsistent language, English always has some additional rules. In this case, additional intonation patterns.

EXPRESSIONS	WORD/PHRASE/SENTENCE	
Phrases consisting of adjectives and nouns or nouns and nouns.	Big boys	A white house (house that is white, it is NOT compound word)
Compound words with primary and secondary stresses also take the falling intonation, but with the center of intonation on the first element.	Airport	White house

The intonation pattern of a choice question which consists of two parts; first part takes the usual rising intonation, and the second part takes the ordinary falling intonation.	Would you like tea or coffee?	Are you married or single?
The word of the sentence pitch vary depend on the sentence stress	Have you seen my daughter <i>before</i> ?	<i>Have</i> you seen my daughter before?

(Ramelan:1994)

#### 4) Pitch

There is each of the syllables has some degree of lowness and highness of tone which is called 'pitch'. Before you know further about intonation, you need to know what is pitch. Based on Ramelan (1994), designated pitch levels by numbers in the following way: Pitch level /1/ =, /2/ = mid, /3/ = high, and /4/= extrahigh. People normally start an utterance on the pitch level /2/, so this pitch is considered normal pitch.

Let us see this example:

Mor-ning      quick-ly      fam - i - ly  
 /2/-/1/      /2/-/1/      /1/ - /2/

## Exercise

Draw the intonation of the following phrases and sentences.

- a. Here's my telephone number.
- b. Why don't you call me?
- c. Are you there only mornings, or are you there all day?
- d. All day. Call me anytime.
- e. Is the doctor here? No, he isn't
- f. Excuse me. I'm looking for swimsuits.
- g. Oh, that's too bad!

## 5) Tone

Tone is the use of pitch in language to distinguish lexical or grammatical meaning – that is, to distinguish or to inflect words.

All verbal languages use pitch to express emotional and other paralinguistic information and to convey emphasis, contrast, and other such features in what is called intonation, but not all languages use tones to distinguish words or their inflections, analogously to consonants and vowels.

Languages that do have this feature are called tonal languages; the distinctive tone patterns of such a language are sometimes called tonemes by analogy with

phoneme. Tonal languages are extremely common in Africa, East Asia, and Central America, but rare elsewhere in Asia and in Europe; as many as seventy percent of world languages may be tonal.

## 6) Connected Speech

Since sound is not spoken separately but unity, people need to be concerned in how each sound is followed by another.

### **Between phonemes**

The morpheme of the plurality –s like in ‘cats’ and ‘dogs’ appear as two distinct phonemes /s/ and /z/.

Cats = /kætz/      Dogs = /dɒgz/

### **Between words**

Compare a to b in the following examples:

a. Hit you /hɪtʃju:/

b. Hit me /hɪt mi:/

Pay attention on sounds /t/ and /j/, the place of articulation of /j/ induces the palatalisation of /t/ in hit into /tʃ/.

It is different when we say:

For you /fəju/

Since the first sound of the second word /j/ meets vowel /ə/.

It is different as well when we say:

....mind if... /maɪndɪf/

The vowel /i/ in 'if' will be pronounced /ɪf/ since it is followed by consonant /d/ in the first word.

Or

...boys are... /bɔɪsə:/

The vowel /a:/ in 'are' will be pronounced /sə:/ since it is followed by preceded consonant sound.



### **Linking r**

Sound /r/ is never occur in syllable-final position. For instance, in 'far' /fɑ:/ . However, this /r/ has not completely disappeared in such position. For instance, before vowel, this final /r/ is often pronounced, as in 'four eggs' /fɔːregz/.

Sometimes, this /r/ is also occur even the word or phrase do not have sound r. For example: in 'Anna and John' /ænərændʒən/. This is kinds of phenomenon.

## 7) Weak and Strong Forms

Now we have moved on from looking at syllables to looking at words, and we will consider certain well-known English words that can be pronounced in two different ways, which are called strong forms and weak forms. As an example the word “that” can be pronounced ðæt (strong form) or ðət (weak form). The sentence ‘I like that’ is pronounced aɪ laɪk ðæt (strong form); the sentence “I hope that she will” is pronounced aɪ həʊpfi wɪl (weak form). There are roughly forty such words in English. It is possible to use only strong forms in speaking, and some foreigners do this. Usually, they can still be understood by other speakers of English, so why it is important to learn how weak forms are used? There are two main reasons; firstly, most native speakers of English find an “all-strong-form” pronunciation unnatural and foreign-sounding, something that most learners would wish to avoid. Secondly, and more importantly, speakers who are not familiar with the use of weak forms are likely to have difficulty understanding speakers who do use weak forms; since practically all native speakers of British English use them, learners of the language need to learn about these weak forms to help them to understand what they hear.

Almost all the words which have both a strong and weak form belong to a category that may be called function words – words that do not have a dictionary meaning in the way that we normally expect nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs to have. These function

words are words such as auxiliary verbs, prepositions, conjunctions, etc, all of which are in certain circumstances pronounced in their weak forms. It is important to remember that there are certain contexts where only the strong form is acceptable, and others where the weak form is the normal pronunciation.

Please refresh your mind about content words and function words. Which one is considered stressed words? Function words, which are less important than content words, also have strong form. When function words are stressed because of some reasons, they are pronounced in their strong form. Do you know why?

Let's see the list of the strong and weak forms of the function words:

No	Words	SF	WF	Examples in sentences
1	A	ei	ə	aɪ bɔ:t əbʊk
2	An	æn	n ən	aɪ bɔ:t n æpl aɪ bɔ:t ənæpl (after an alveolar consonant)
3	The	ði	ðə	ðəbɔɪræn həʊm ðɪæplɪzrɔtn (before a vowel)
4	Am	æm	əm	ə malleɪt? (when it begins a sentence) aɪ m leɪt
5	Is	iz	z s	ðədɔg z hɪ (after a voiced sound) ðækæt s hɪ
6	Are	a:	a ar ər	əju: hɑŋgrɪ? (when it begins a sentence) aræplɪz dɪlɪfəs (before a vowel or glide)

				ðeləræŋgrɪ (before a voiced sound)
7	Was	wɔz	wəz wəs	hi: wəzmæd (before a voiced sound) hi: wəstæld (before a voiceless sound)
8	Were	wə:	Wə wər	wi: wəstʌdɪŋɪŋglɪf (before a consonant) ðelwərəʊnlɪdʒəʊkɪŋ (before a vowel or a glide)
9	Do	du:	dʊ də d	hi: laɪksæplz, səʊdʊai (before a vowel or a glide) dəðelkʌmɔn sʌndɪz? (before a consonant) dju: hləml? (before 'you')
10	Does	dʌz	dəz dəs	dəzməərɪlaɪk ɪt? (before a voiced sound) dəstɪmstʌdiwel? (before a voiceless sound)
11	Have	hæv	həv həf  əv v	həvju: dʌnlɪt? (when it begins a sentence and is followed by a voiced sound) həfpi:tərən pɔ:l kʌm? (when it begins a sentence and is followed by a voiceless sound) ðəbɔlzəvŋgɔnhəʊm aɪ v red ɪt (after a vowel or a glide)
12	Has	hæz	həz həs z s	həzməərɪhə:dɪt? (when it begins a sentence and is followed by a voiced sound) həstɔm met ju: (when it begins a sentence and is followed by a voiceless sound) hi: z rɪtɪt (after a voiced sound)



				It sɒn (after a voiceless sound)
13	Had	hæd	həd əd d	hədju: pɛldbɪfɔ: ju: entəd? (when it begins a sentence) kærələdsi:n it? (after a consonant) aɪddʌnIt (after a vowel or glide)
14	Can	kæn	kən	ɔ̃ɜ:ɔ̃kændʌnswel.
15	Must	mʌst	məst məs	ju: məst i:t nʌʊ (before a vowel or a glide) ʌlməstɛlkIt (before a consonant)
16	Shall	ʃæl	ʃəl/ʃl	ʃəlʌlkʌm?
17	Could	kʊd	kəd	ʌlkəd swim wen ʌlwəzjʌŋ
18	Should	ʃʊd	ʃəd	ju: ʃədstʌDi
19	Would	wʊd	wəd əd d	wədðɛlkʌm? (when it begins a sentence) ɔ̃ɜ:nədstʌdɪhə:d (after a consonant) ʌɪ d tɛljʊ: əstɔ:ɪ (after a vowel or a glide)
20	And	ænd	ənd nd n md m ŋd ŋ	pɪ:tərəndʌlkɛɪmlɛɪt (after a consonant-except an alveolar, a bilabial and a velar-and before a vowel or a glide) kɛɪtndʌləfrendz (after an alveolar and before a vowel or glide) kɛɪt n dʒæk went həʊm (after an alveolar and before a consonant) ðækʌp md əlsɔ: ʌndðɛɪbl (after a bilabial and before a vowel or a glide) ðækʌp m sɔ:sərədɔ:tɪ (after a bilabial and before a consonant) dʒækŋdʌɪrɪ:nhævəhələdɪ (after a velar and before a vowel or a

				glide) dʒækŋdʒl went ʌpðəhl (after a velar and before a consonant)
21	Of	ɔv	Əv	ðəlegzəvðətelbləbrəʊkən
22	But	bʌt	bət	alləklɪt bətəldəʊntwɔntɪt
23	That	ðæt	ðət	ʃi: sedðætʃi:dkʌm (as a conjunction) ðəbʊkðætju: gelvmlɪzgʊd
24	Than	ðæn	ðən	hi:zbigəðənal
25	For	ɔ:	Fə	Its fəmi
26	To	tu:	tʊ tə	aɪwɔnttʊ i:t (before a vowel or a glide) aɪ: wɔnttəgəʊ (before a consonant)
27	At	æt	At	dəʊntstændtəðə dɔ:
28	from	fɹɒm	Frəm	aɪ m frəmlændən
29	Me	mi:	mɪ	glɪvt təmɪ
30	Him	hɪm	ɪm	tellɪmtəkʌmhɪə
31	Her	hə:	Hə hər ə/ɜ ər	həbʊk s ðəə (when it begins a sentence and is followed by a consonant) hər ʌŋklkelmjestədɪ (when it begins a sentence and is followed by a vowel or a glide) glɪvt tʊə / glɪvt tʊɜ glɪvər ə bʊk (when it is followed by a vowel or a glide)
32	His	hɪz	ɪz	dju: nəʊɪznelm?
33	He	hi:	hɪ i: / I	hɪ slept səʊndɪlɪ (when it begins a sentence) ju:ənd i: əfrendz / ju:əndɪəfrendz
34	She	ʃi:	ʃɪ	ʃɪ went ʃɒplɪŋ
35	You	ju:	jʊ jə	jʊəklevə (before a vowel or a glide)

				wenwlljəkəm? (before a consonant)
36	We	wi:	wl	wlinvaltjəkəm
37	Them	ðem	Ðəm	let ðəmkəm

(Indriani:2003)

### Exercise

Write the phonetic transcription including weak and strong form!

- As we have seen before.
- There are many ways to create new words.
- If you read any of Shakespeare's work.
- And who knows?
- So finally, if we take a look around.
- I want her to park that car over there.
- Of all the proposals, the one that you made is the silliest
- Jane and Bill could have driven them to and from the party
- To come to the point, what shall we do for the rest of the week?
- Has anyone got an idea where it came from?
- Pedestrians must always use the crossings provided for them
- Each one was a perfect example of the art that had been developed there.

## Strong and Weak Syllables

One of the most noticeable features of English is that many syllables are weak; this is true of many other languages, but it is necessary to study how these weak syllables are pronounced and where they occur in English. The distribution of strong and weak syllables is a subject that will be met in several later chapters. For example, we will look later at stress, which is a major factor in determining whether a syllable will be strong or weak. Elision is a closely related subject, and in considering intonation the difference between strong and weak syllable is also important. Finally, words with “strong” and “weak” forms are clearly a related matter. In this chapter we look at the general nature of weak syllables.

What we do mean by “strong” and “weak”? in the present context, we are using these terms to refer to phonetic characteristics of syllables. We could describe them partly in terms of stress (by saying, for example, that strong syllables are stressed and weak syllables unstressed), but until we describe what “stress” means such a description would not be very useful. The most important thing to note at present is that any strong syllable will have

as its peak one of the vowel phonemes (or possibly a triphthong), but nor ə. Weak syllables, on the other hand, as they are being defined here, can only have four types of peak:

- 1) The vowel ə (“schwa”)
- 2) A close front unrounded vowel in the general area of i: and I
- 3) a close back rounded vowel in the general area of u: and Ū
- 4) a syllabic consonant

When we compare weak syllables containing vowels with strong syllables, we find the vowel in a weak syllable tend to be shorter, of lower intensity and different in quality. For example, in the word “father” 'fɑ:ðə the second syllable, which is weak, is shorter than the first, is less loud and has a vowel that cannot occur in strong syllables. In a word like “bottle” 'bɒtl the weak second syllable contains no vowel at all, but consists entirely of the consonant l. we call this a syllabic consonant. In the rest of this chapter we will look at the different types of weak syllable in more detail.

### **Syllabic Consonants**

In the above sections we have looked at vowels in weak syllables. We must also consider syllables in which no vowel is found. In this case, a consonant, either l, r or a nasal, stands as the centre of the syllable instead of the

vowel. It is usual to indicate that a consonant is syllabic by means of a small vertical mark, for example “cattle” 'kætl̩

Syllabic l is perhaps the most noticeable example of the English syllabic consonant, though it would be wrong to expect to find it in all accents. It occurs after another consonant, and the way it is produced.

## Exercise

The following sentences have been partially transcribed, but the vowels have been left blank. Fill in the vowels, taking care to identify which vowels are weak; put no vowel at all if you think a syllabic consonant is appropriate, but put a syllabic mark beneath the syllabic consonant.

1. A particular problem of the boat was a leak.  
\_ p \_ t \_ kjl \_ \_ pr \_ bl \_ m \_ v ð \_ b \_ \_ t w \_ z \_ l \_ k
2. Opening the bottle presented no difficulty.  
\_ p \_ n \_ ŋ ð \_ b \_ tl pr \_ z \_ nt \_ d n \_ d \_ f \_ klt \_
3. There is no alternative to the Government's proposal  
ð \_ r \_ z n \_ \_ lt \_ \_ n \_ t \_ v t \_ ð \_ g \_ v \_ \_ nm \_ nts pr \_ p \_ zl
4. We ought to make a collection to cover the expenses  
W \_ \_ t t \_ m \_ k \_ k \_ l \_ k f n t \_ k \_ v \_ \_ ð \_ \_ ksp \_ ns \_ z
5. Finally they arrived at a harbor at the edge of the mountains.  
f \_ n \_ l \_ ð \_ \_ r \_ \_ vd \_ t \_ h \_ \_ b \_ r \_ t ð \_ \_ dʒ \_ v  
ð \_ m \_ \_ nt \_ nz



# **UNIT 8**

## **MORPHO-PHONEMIC CHANGES**





## TYPES OF MORPHO-PHONEMIC CHANGES

What is meant by morpho-phonemic is actually related not only to phonological or phonetic process but also morphological one. For it is restricted to a particular morphological environment. For example, prefix /in-/ has the allomorphs [il] and [ir]: /in-/ + logical = illogical. There are some types of morpho-phonemic changes:

### a. Assimilation

Assimilation is the process of changing phonemes then a group of morphemes are formed. For example: the word 'impossible' is not formed from /im-/ + possible but /in-/ + possible. Phoneme /n/ becomes /m/ when it meets phoneme /p/.

There are two kinds of assimilation:

#### 1) Progressive

Progressive assimilation happens when the change of one sound into another one is influenced by the preceding sound.

Example:

It is here /it shiə/

The word 'is' /iz/ should become /z/ as an unstressed syllable, but then become /s/ because it is influenced by the preceding voiceless stop /t/.

## 2) Regressive

Reversely, regressive assimilation happens when the change of one sound into another sound is influenced by the following sound.

Example:

Newspaper /njuspelpə:/

Sound /z/ of /njuz/ becomes /s/ because of the influence of the following voiceless sound /p/.

## b. Other morpho-phonemic changes

### 1) Loss of sounds (Elision)

The sound will be lost or elided because of another morpheme or their occurrences in unstressed syllables or in rapid speech.

Example:

Kindness /kainIs/

Sound /d/ of /kaind/ is elided because the occurrences of morpheme /ness-/.

### 2) Addition of sounds

The sound is added because of another morpheme occurs.

Example:

Solemn /sələm/ + /-ity/ = /sələmnItI/ solemnity

Sound /n/ is added when morpheme /-ity/ occurs.

### 3) Vowel change

It is influenced by the shift of stress.

Example:

Apply /əplɑI/ application /æplɪkəlʃn/

### 4) Shift of stress

A shift of stress is quite common in English, that is when a morpheme takes some suffixes. However, in most cases this stress shift is accompanied with other changes, like consonantal or vowel changes.

Example:

detérmine – determinátion

### 5) Dissimilation

Dissimilation is very rare in English. It comes from *dissimilar* or *different from the next sound*.

Example:

Sound /n/ becomes /g/

/in-/ + /noble/ = ignoble

/in-/ + /nominious/ = ignominious

### 6) Synthesis

Synthesis will happen when two sounds of different morphemes may be fused or synthesized into each other

and become a new sound that is different from the original two sounds.

Example:

act /ækt/ + -ion /-yən/ = action /ækʃən/

where /t/ and /y/ become /ʃ/.

## 7) Suppletion

It is when an allomorph is completely different in its phonemic form from the base of the morpheme.

Examples:

- The plural allomorph /-ən/ in 'oxen' where /z/ in /ɒkz/ becomes /s/.
- The word 'go' (gou) which becomes /wen-/ before the past tense morpheme /t/, thus we have the combination /went/ and not /gou/.
- Comparative morpheme 'good' becomes 'better'.

## EXERCISES

Analyze the following words then decide which morpho-phonemic changes they belong to!

1. Impatient
2. Illegal
3. Width
4. This shop

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ISBN: 978-602-71517-4-1



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