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ОСНОВЫ ТЕОРЕТИЧЕСКОЙ ФОНЕТИКИ

Учебно-методическое пособие

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Учебно-методическое пособие включает методические рекомендации к изучению теоретической фонетики, планы лекционных и семинарских занятий, теоретическую часть (краткое изложение основ теоретической фонетики как части лингвистики), тест, контрольную работу, экзаменационные вопросы, список литературы; предназначено для самостоятельной и аудиторной работы студентов направления подготовки 44.03.01 «Педагогическое образование», 44.03.05 «Педагогическое образование (с двумя профилями подготовки)», 45.03.01 «Филология».

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СОДЕРЖАНИЕ

Предисловие

В основу курса теоретической фонетики положены принципы функциональности описания, понимания вариативности описываемого материала и представления о способах фонологизации материала данного языка. Следует отметить, что в последнее время фонология не противопоставляется фонетике, а считается ее частью, изучающей функциональную нагруженность звуков. На этих позициях полностью стоит Ленинградская лингвистическая школа и большая часть фонетического мира.

Отправной точкой в преподавании теоретической фонетики является акцентирование положения о том, что фонетика представляет собой единую науку о звуковом строе языка, в рамках которой фонология занимается функциональной стороной звуков речи. На основании смыслоразличительных функций звуков речи строятся системы фонем данного языка, однако такого перечня фонем и их оппозиций недостаточно для полного представления фонологической системы языка. Фонологическая система языка в современном понимании включает в себя перечень комбинаторных вариантов, или аллофонов фонем, зависящих от ряда лингвистических факторов.

Цели и задачи дисциплины

Целью настоящего теоретического курса по фонетике является фонетический строй современного английского языка.

В **задачи** курса входит:

1. Освещение и расширение знаний студентов по фонетике, приобретенных при изучении курса "Введение в общее языкознание".
2. Знакомство студентов с ролью и достижениями отечественных и зарубежных языковедов в области фонетики.

3. Систематизация элементов фонетической теории и подачи на его основе более полного знания всех компонентов фонетического строя современного английского языка в их системе и в сопоставлении с фонетическим строем родного языка.

4. Изучение основной проблематики общей и английской фонетики и знакомство с новейшими теориями и взглядами по этим проблемам.

Семинарские занятия нацелены на проверку понимания студентами содержания лекций, формирования умений критически анализировать основные теоретические положения фонетики, а также применять полученные теоретические знания при фонетическом и фонологическом анализе.

В результате освоения дисциплины студент должен:

Знать: основные теоретические положения в области фонетики, фонологии, интонации и т.д., иметь представление об основных этапах развития теоретической фонетики в ее диахронии и синхронии, об актуальных научных проблемах, существующих в данной области.

Уметь: проводить фонетический анализ на материале конкретного фрагмента текста, применять полученные знания при осуществлении исследовательской и других видов деятельности.

Владеть: основными методами и приемами исследовательской и практической работы в области теоретической фонетики.

Формы контроля по дисциплине

Форма текущего контроля

Формой текущего контроля в течение семестра являются практические задания, доклады и тестирование.

Критерии оценки доклада

«Отлично» ставится, если выполнены все требования к написанию и защите доклада: обозначена проблема и обоснована её актуальность, сделан крат-

кий анализ различных точек зрения на рассматриваемую проблему и логично изложена собственная позиция, сформулированы выводы, тема раскрыта полностью, выдержан объём, соблюдены требования к внешнему оформлению, даны правильные ответы на дополнительные вопросы.

«Хорошо» ставится, если в целом соблюдены требования к написанию и защите доклада: обозначена проблема и обоснована её актуальность, сделан краткий анализ различных точек зрения на рассматриваемую проблему и изложена собственная позиция, выводы сформулированы не всегда четко, соблюдена большая часть требований к внешнему оформлению, даны ответы на дополнительные вопросы.

«Удовлетворительно» – основные требования к докладу и его защите выполнены, но при этом допущены недочёты. В частности, имеются неточности в изложении материала; отсутствует логическая последовательность в суждениях; не выдержан объём доклада; имеются упущения в оформлении; на дополнительные вопросы при защите даны неполные ответы.

«Неудовлетворительно» – основные требования к докладу и его защите не выполнены. Материал имеет только компилятивный характер; студент не может ответить на дополнительные вопросы.

Критерии оценки практического задания

«Отлично» ставится, если практическое задание выполнено полностью и правильно.

«Хорошо» ставится, если практическое задание выполнено полностью и в целом правильно, допускаются негрубые ошибки (3-5).

«Удовлетворительно» ставится, если практическое задание выполнено, но студент испытывал большие затруднения и допустил грубые ошибки (3-5).

«Неудовлетворительно» ставится, если практическое задание выполнено фрагментарно, студент ошибается практически в каждом предложении. Рекомендации, касающиеся тестирования, указаны на странице 67.

Форма итогового контроля

Формой итогового контроля является экзамен.

Лингвистическое оформление ответов

Оценка	Ответ студента
Отлично	Студент ответил безошибочно с лингвистической точки зрения или с незначительными ошибками, использован широкий спектр лексических единиц, речь логически организована, четко структурирована, просодическое оформление соответствует иноязычной норме.
Хорошо	В ответе студента присутствовали лингвистические ошибки, не нарушающие понимания текста, студент опирался на ограниченный спектр лексических единиц, в речи прослеживается логическая организация, просодическое оформление отчасти соответствует иноязычной норме.
Удовлетворительно	В ответе студента допущено значительное количество лингвистических ошибок, использован ограниченный вокабуляр, в организации речи нет четкой логики, произношение и интонационное оформление свидетельствуют о наличии русского акцента.
Неудовлетворительно	В речи студента присутствует значительное количество ошибок, нарушающих понимание, вокабуляр беден, речь логически не организована, синтаксические связи нарушены, просодическое оформление не соответствует иноязычной норме.

В качестве ошибок при лингвистическом оформлении ответов считаются следующие нарушения нормы:

▪ *Грамматическая сторона речи:*

Неправильно употреблена форма множественного числа существительных. Неверно употреблены артикли. Употреблены в неверном лингвистическом окружении местоимения (личные, притяжательные, вопросительные и др.). Нарушена структура производных местоимений (например, имеющих в структуре компоненты some, any, no, every). Неверно употреблены степени сравнения прилагательных и наречий. Нарушены правила сочетаемости предлогов с глаголами, существительными и прилагательными. Неверно употреблены формы связочных глаголов, имеются нарушения в употреблении видовременных и залоговых форм. Имеются ошибки в формах неправильных глаголов, фразовых глаголов, модальных глаголов и их эквивалентов.

Нарушен порядок слов в коммуникативных типах предложений: утвердительных, вопросительных, отрицательных, побудительных. Нарушена структура безличных предложений, предложений с there is /are. Нет согласования времен в сложносочиненных и сложноподчиненных предложениях.

▪ *Лексическая сторона речи:*

Нарушена сочетаемость словообразовательных элементов в структуре слова (например, неправильно присоединены аффиксы *un-, in-, -ment, -ly* и др.) Слова употреблены в неверных коллокациях, значение слова не соответствует содержанию высказывания. Слова стилистически нейтрального или окрашенного характера употреблены в неверном стилистическом окружении (например, сленговые слова в научном регистре речи).

▪ *Композиционная сторона речи:*

В речевых произведениях отсутствуют связочные элементы, нарушена логика следования содержательных элементов, нет соответствия морфологических форм, служащих средствами когезии в различных частях речевого произведения (например, нарушено единообразие временных форм глагола).

Дальнейшие разделы пособия структурированы следующим образом:

1. Лекционный материал.

2. Вопросы к семинару по указанной лекции (лекциям) и практические задания к семинарским занятиям, которые могут выполняться как в аудитории, так и при подготовке к занятию дома.

3. Тест, который аккумулирует вопросы по всему изученному материалу.

4. Перечень вопросов для подготовки к экзамену.

5. Список рекомендуемой литературы.

Планы лекций и семинаров

<u>**Lecture 1.**</u>

Introduction. The subject-matter of phonetics.

1. Phonetics as a science.

2. Speech sounds and their aspects.

3. The components of sound-matter. Theoretical and practical significance of the phonetics.

Introduction. Subject-matter of phonetics

Historical background of phonetics. Phonetics as a branch of linguistics. The subject-matter of phonetics. Branches of phonetics. Methods of phonetic investigation. Phonetics and non-linguistic sciences (acoustics, physiology, psychology, etc).

Phonetics is an independent branch of linguistics and it studies the sound matter, its aspects and functions [2]. It is the science of speech sounds as elements of language. Phonetics has branches of its own. The most important of them are special phonetics and general phonetics. The aim of special phonetics is to study the sounds

of one language at a particular period of time, that is synchronically (descriptive phonetics) or diachronically (historical phonetics). General phonetics studies the sound systems of several languages. It is the part of general linguistics.

Comparative phonetics studies the correlation between the phonetic systems of two or more languages and finds out correspondences between their speech sounds [3].

Phonetics is connected with linguistic and non-linguistic sciences (acoustics, physiology, psychology, logic, etc). Phonetics formulates the rules of pronunciation for separate sounds and sound combinations [4]. Through the system of rules of reading phonetics is connected with grammar helps to pronounce correctly different grammatical forms. Phonetics is also connected with lexicology. It is only due to the presence of stress or accent in the right place that we can distinguish certain nouns from verbs ('abstract – ab 'stract, 'blackboard – 'black 'board). Through intonation phonetics is connected with stylistics: speech melody, word stress, rhythm, pausation and voice timbre serve to express emotions, to distinguish between different attitudes of the author and speaker.

Speech sounds and their aspects

Speech sounds have four aspects: articulatory, acoustic, auditory and functional.

Articulatory and auditory investigation of speech sounds is done on the basis of the knowledge of the voice and sound producing mechanisms, their structure, work and auditory effects. Alongside with the direct observation of the movements and positions of speech organs it makes use of such instruments and technical devices as a hand-mirror, laryngoscope, artificial palate, photographs and X-ray-photographs, cinematography, magnetic recorders,

The branch of phonetics which studies the acoustic properties of sounds (length, timbre, intensity, pitch, tempo) is called acoustic phonetics or phonoacoustics. Special laboratory equipment, such as kymograph, spectrograph, oscillograph

and intonograph help to obtain the necessary data about prosodic properties of speech sounds. A kymograph records qualitative variations of sounds in the form of kymographic tracings. A spectrograph produces sound spectrograms which help to list the frequencies of a given sound and its relative amplitudes. An oscillograph records oscillograms of sound vibrations of any frequency. An intonograph measures automatically the fundamental tone of vocal cords, the average sound pressure, the duration or length of speech (pausation).

The functional properties of phonemes, syllables, accent and intonation are investigated by means of special linguistic methods which help to interpret them as socially significant elements [5].

The components of sound-matter

Segmental phonemes exists in the form of speech sounds. Suprasegmental phonemes are distinctively functional units of the language which are formed by the time, force and pitch components of the sound matter of the language.

Theoretical significance of phonetics is connected with further development of the problem of the synchronic study and description of the phonetic system of a national language, the comparative analysis and description of different languages and study correspondences between them, the diachronic description of successive changes in the phonetic system of a language or different languages [5].

Practical significance of phonetics is connected with teaching foreign languages and applied in methods of speech correction.

Seminar 1:
1. What do we mean by phonetics as a science?
2. Prove that phonetics is a basic branch of linguistics.
3. Speech sounds and their aspects.
4. What is implied by the term phonology?
5. Explain theoretical and practical significance of phonetics.

I. Analyze the following definitions of the phoneme which reveal methodologically divergent acceptations of the concept:

a) «The phoneme is the psychological equivalent of physical «sound», the actual and reproducible phonetic unit of linguistic thought» (Baudouin de Courtenay. The difference between Phonetics and Psychophonetics // Phonology. Part 1. Katowice, 1978. P. 74.);

b) «The phoneme, like any other element of scientific analysis, is no more than an appropriate term or operational fiction, with which to handle the mass of observations and to make orderly statements about the sounds of a language» (Twaddel W.F. On defining the phoneme. Language Monograph 16. Baltimore, 1935. P. 33.);

c) «The phoneme is the basic unit of the sound system, paradigmatically defined as a cluster of DFs, syntagmatically, as a minimal linear segment, found regularly in contrastive distribution with the other analogous segments, and characterised by constitutive and distinctive functions» (Steponavicius A. English Historical Phonology. M., 1987. P. 17).

II. Identify the articulatory features which form the invariants of /t/, /g/, /v/, /r/.

III. Give examples of different distribution types: a) complementary, b) contrastive, c) free variation.

IV. Read the words. Pay attention to allophonic differences in the realization of /t/. Name the principal allophone.

Aspirated: take, tall, tone

Unaspirated: steak, stall, story

No audible release: outpost, football, sweatband

Nasal release: cotton, button, eaten

Lateral release: cattle, atlas, at last.

V. Find allophonic differences in the realization of /t/ in the following words: tree, twice, too, eighth, teeth, night.

VI. Indicate positional and combinatory allophones of the phoneme /l/: girl, like, plight, fool, lily, twelve, clerk, little.

VII. Text.

«Oh, Martin, don' t be so cruel!» cried Ruth. «You have not kissed me once! You are as cold as a stone! And think, what I have dared to do! Just think of where I am!»...

VIII. Find in the text allophones of segmental phonemes and various realizations of suprasegmental phonemes.

IX. Use the following linguistic terms in sentences:

Acoustic, auditory, phoneme, level, structural, allophones, functional, investigation, instrumental, articulatory, speech tract, segmental, suprasegmental, materialistic, a family of sounds, abstractional, variant.

Lecture 2.

Standards of pronunciation in English.

1. National varieties of English language.
2. Standard pronunciation: regional norms and dialects.
3. Some properties of the regional varieties of English.
4. The origins of RP.
5. The types of RP.

6. The problem of the definition of RP.

7. The current tendencies in RP.

National varieties of English pronunciation

I. British English Pronunciation

Dialectology and its basic concepts. Dialect, accent and Standard English. The regional varieties of English:

a) Southern English pronunciation;

b) Northern English pronunciation;

c) Welsh English pronunciation;

d) Scottish Standard pronunciation;

e) Standard pronunciation of Northern Ireland.

Standard English and Received Pronunciation (RP). The main types of RP. Changes in RP.

II. American English pronunciation

The relationship between British and American pronunciation standards. General points of American English pronunciation. The regional varieties of American English: the Eastern type, the Southern type, the Midwestern type (or General American). Main points of difference between GA and RP:

a) in the inventory and distribution of phonemes;

b) within the accentual system;

c) within the prosodic system.

National varieties of the English language

300 million of people in the world speak English as their first language. Out of this number native speakers form only a minute proportion. The English Language is the mother tongue of several countries, such as Great Britain, the United States of America, Australia, New Zealand. The English language is also used by the greater part of the population of Canada and the Republic of South America. The variants of

the English language spoken in these countries have very much in common, but they differ from Standard English in pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar [5].

Today all the English-speaking nations have their own national varieties of pronunciation [6]. *National language is treated as a historical category evolving from conditions of economic and political concentration which characterizes formation of a nation (A.D. Shweitzer)*[7]. Every national language is characterized by the following parameters:

1. it must be a language of a whole nation;

2. this variety must be fixed in a dictionary;

3. it must have its own literature.

The pronunciation of every national variety of English has peculiar features that distinguish it from the other varieties of English and they are by no means homogeneous [7]. *A national variety of the English pronunciation is a complex of national and regional standard norms and dialects*.

Standard pronunciation: regional norms and dialects

Standard pronunciation may be defined as a socially accepted variety established by the norm of correctness. The standard includes in its inventory the pronunciation forms which reflect the main tendencies in pronunciation that exist in the language. It is the pronunciation used by educated people, typified by radio and TV announcers and recorded in pronunciation dictionaries as the «proper» and «correct» pronunciation. Each national variety may fall into several *regional standards* which, too, are considered to be correct and acceptable. Regional standards are usually grouped into major dialect areas.

There are 5 regional standards in the British Isles:

1. Southern English pronunciation standard;

2. Northern English pronunciation standard;

3. Welsh English pronunciation standard;

4. Scottish English pronunciation standard;

5. English pronunciation standard of Northern Ireland.

Dialects may be defined as varieties of pronunciation which are spoken by a socially limited number of people or as a characteristic of certain localities.

Dialectal differences may arise from a variety of sources, such as a locality, early influences, education, occupation of the population, social surroundings, class distinction, etc. Dialect speakers are, as a rule, the less educated part of the population. All dialects fall into 2 groups:

1. Territorial (regional, local) dialects are used by people who live in certain locality.

2. Dialectology also correlates with the linguistically social parameter (class distinction, sex, age, education). So, social dialect is a variety spoken by a limited number of people and characterized by 2 plans:

– stratificational plan: defines class distinctions that are permanent (upper, upper-middle, middle, middle-middle, low-middle, upper working and low working.

– situational plan: is not permanent, social context of the language use is flexible in different situations.

Distinction between regional and social dialects is applied only for the sake of the background. Peter Trudgill tried to express this idea in the form of the triangle: at the top of it is RP, below – are regional standards as variants of national standard, and the basement is coincided with a great number of dialects.

RP

Social variation

Near RP (regional standards)

Territorial dialects
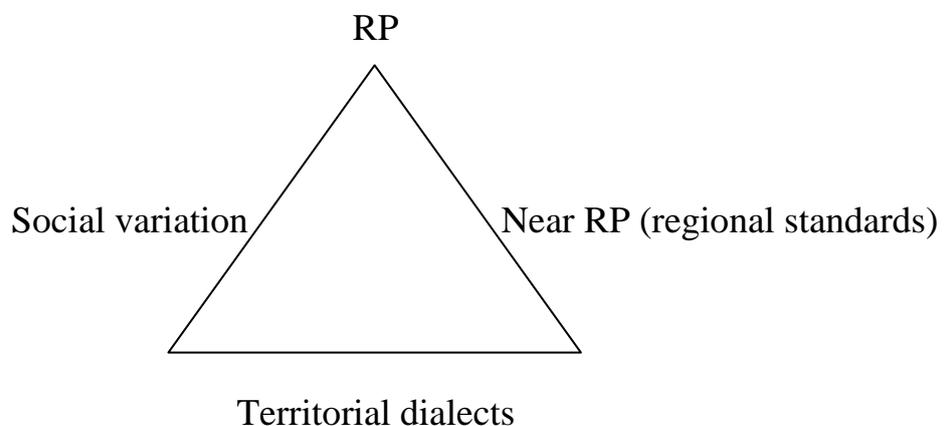
Diaglossia is a phenomenon when one and the same person uses standard literary norm and territorial dialect or accent in different social situations. It is normal.

Some properties of the regional varieties of English

First we shall compare *Southern and Northern pronunciation standards*. The principal difference between these two standards is presence or absence of separate phonemes. The vowel sound [∧] is not used in the north:

South	North
Blood [bl∧d]	[blud]

People with northern type of pronunciation use the sound [u:] instead of [u] in words «book, hook». So in the south there is an opposition [buk] [b∧k] for the differentiation the pair «book – buck», but in the north the opposition as follows: [bu:k] [buk].

Another widely used difference between Southern and Northern standards is concerned the sounds [æ] and [a:]. In the North the sound [æ] is pronounced before the fricatives [f, th, s], e.g. [da:ns] [dæns]. However, in the south the sound [æ] is often pronounced as [a:]:

RP	South
Bad [bæd]	[ba:d]

One more principal difference is concerned the sound [i] at the end of the words «money, city, etc». In the South during the pronunciation this sound is intensified: ['m∧ni] – ['m∧ni:].

In the both standards we can see a tendency to amiss the sound [j] after [t,s]: ['stju:dent] – ['stu:dent], [sju:t] – [su:t], and even after [th]: [en'oju:ziezm] – [en'ou:ziezm].

Welsh English

In distribution [æ] – [a:] it exists a tendency to pronounce [æ] as in the Northern standard. In words «money, city» the last sound [i] is intensified. There is a ten-

dency of smoothing diphthongs, e.g. bake [be:k], boat [bo:t]. In Welsh English the postvocal sound [r] is missed. Voiceless occlusive consonants are pronounced with strong aspiration. The sound [l] has light variant in all positions.

Scottish standard of English

The presence of the postvocal sound [r] leads to the fact that vowels [ie, e:, ea, ua] are absent in this standard:

RP	Scot. English
Beer [bie]	[bir]
Bird [be:d]	[bird]

The sound [r] in RP is cacuminal, but in Scottish English it is resonating.

The length of the vowels in this standard is not significant feature. So pairs «pool – pull», «caught – cot» are not differentiated as there is no difference between [a:] and [ae]: hat – [ha:t].

The norm for Scotland is pronouncing of the combination of [hw]:

RP	Scot. English
Whine [wain]	[hwain]

English of Northern Ireland

The system of vowels is realized as well as in Scotland. Postvocal [r] is not missed. The sound [l] has only light colouring. The voiceless sound [t] between vowels becomes voiced: city – ['sidi]. The sound [o] between vowels can be missed: mother – [mo:er].

The origins of Received Pronunciation

Received pronunciation is pronunciation accepted in the best society. Besides it has been called Queen's, Southern English Pronunciation Standard, Public School Pronunciation, BBC English.

In origin some centuries ago RP was an accent of the south-east Midlands. Because of this it is sometimes called Southern English, which makes it seem like a social accent of unusual prestige such as found in many other countries. There is, however, no distinct class today to which RP is native. RP speakers are found all over the country.

Today because of its use on radio and television within Britain, RP has become the social standard. It is the form of pronunciation described in the books on the phonetics of British English and traditionally taught to foreigners [6].

It would be wrong to think that RP is used by the entire population of Great Britain [6]. It is the «accent» of the minority of the educated class of England (it is only spoken by 3-5 % of the British population).

RP is an «accent» which is more than unusual: it is the kind which cannot be found anywhere else. In all other countries, whether English-speaking or not, all educated people have command of the standard form of the language, when they talk it they have an accent which knows the part of the country from which they come. In England RP is looked as «the Best Accent», but it is not the accent of the capital or any other part of the country. Every town, and almost every village, contains speakers of RP whose families have lived there for generations [8]. It is significant that the question «Where is the Best English spoken?» is never debated by the English.

The division between «RP-speakers», as we may call them and educated English people is a social one. It is a sharp division, for no compromise is possible. One either speaks RP or does not and if the opportunity to learn it in youth has not arisen it is almost impossible to acquire it in later life. It is an accent of privilege and prestige, conferring considerable advantages on those who speak it (maintained by the great English Public Schools).

D. Jones defined this term as PSP (Public School Pronunciation) in favor of RP because boys in the boarding schools tended to lose their local peculiarities.

Children are sent to live in them from all parts of the country by parents who can afford to do so, at the age when accent is at its most plastic.

RP is not, of course, actively taught at these schools; it is absorbed automatically by the pupils whatever may be the accent of their parents. The Public Schools are a unique institution and RP is a unique accent. It is intimately bound up with the social life of the country, and accent plays a more important part in English society that it does in any other. It is not easy for any ears other than the socially sharpened ones of the English, to distinguish RP from other educated accents of England.

Standard English is a misleading and unfortunate name. It implies that RP is a standard accent for the whole English-speaking world. The Queen's (or King's) English is occasionally used to mean RP, but it originally was a synonym of Standard English. The meaning of another term «the Oxford accent» is very vague. It seems most often to be applied either to RP speakers whose speech is thought to show marked individual eccentrities, or to those who, unsuccessfully attempting to imitate RP, are considered to be «affected». There is, in reality, no such thing as an accent characteristic of Oxford University.

The other educated accents of England nearly all resemble RP and sound fairly different from the various American, Canadian types of accent. There is little point in a foreigner learning any accent of England except RP, its great prestige within the country and the social disadvantages of the others, make it an obvious choice.

The types of RP

Present-day RP is not homogeneous.

A. Gimson, a British phonetician, distinguishes 3 types within RP:

1. the conservative RP forms used by the older generation and traditionally by certain professions or social groups;

2. the general RP forms most commonly used and typified by the pronunciation adopted by the BBC;

3. the advanced RP forms used by the younger generation.

Home: 1) [houm], 2) [heum], 3) [he:um] [7].

Honey had another classification: he divides RP into 2 groups:

1. marked RP;
2. unmarked RP.

Posh	RP	local
Marked RP		accents

Unmarked RP is characterized by the higher degree of the educatedness (teachers, doctors, etc.).

Marked RP is spoken by the highest privilege of birth, the very top of society (Queen and her family). Ordinary people should not use this type.

Coffee [o:] cauffee, often [o:], golf [o:]

The problem of the definition of RP

The first definition of RP belongs to Alexander Ellis in 1896: «RP is a pronunciation accepted all over the country and not widely differing in any locality as educated pronunciation of the Court, Pulpit. By the end of 19th century this accent became the characteristic of speech of the members of the upper class throughout of England».

D. Jones: this pronunciation is considered to be accentless, used by the upper class, the most general form widely understood.

A. Gimson: social class can no longer be used as a defining factor in any description of standard (his point of view doesn't receive support).

P. Trudgill: thinks that there is no ground for neglecting social factors – as RP is accentless, non-rhotic accent; phonetic parameters: the phoneme inventory of RP includes 24 consonants and 20 vocalic sounds.

The existence of RP is an anachronism in a present-day democratic society. There was a time when was the monopoly of well-educated people. Today it is misleading to call RP the accent of educated people. Although those who talk RP can

justly consider themselves educated they are outnumbered these days by the undoubtedly educated people who do not talk RP.

All over the world people are intolerant of each other's accents: unfamiliar customs seem as silly and wrong in speech as they do in everything else.

As a consequence of this accent-bar more and more people who are well educated but have not had an opportunity to learn RP are made nervous and anxious about their speech sounds.

There is a distinction between those who habitually use RP and those who do not, for practically everybody these days can make a fair shot at RP when they want to, if they have had any schooling at all.

Current tendencies in RP

1. model: the sound is changed in a stressed syllable

a) the tendency of orientation of the orphoepic norm to the rules of reading 1991:

       privacy   ['praivesi]   ['privesi];

b) the orientation of the orphoepic norm to the graphical reading:

       fetish   ['fi:tij]   ['fetij];

c) smoothing of the diphthongs (dead tendency):

       our   ['aue]   ['aue], [a:];

2. model: the sound is changed in an unstressed syllable:

a) the tendency to use neutral sound in the last syllables instead of [I], especially in suffixes -less, -ness:

       character ['kærikte]   ['kærekte],

       system   ['sistim]   ['system],

       causeless ['ko:zlis]   ['ko:zles],

       sickness ['siknis]   ['siknes];

b) the process of the intensifying of [I]: happy, money, etc.;

c) the tendency to use [je] instead of [ju]:

curriculum [ke'rikjulem]   [ke'rikjelem];

3. model: assimilation process: [tj, dj, sj, zj] – [tl, dz, j, z]

    statue   ['stætju:]   ['stætlu:],

    education ['edju:keijn]   ['edju:keijn],

    trucial   ['tru:sjel]   ['tru:jl],

    visual   ['vizjuel]   ['vizuel];

4. model: the number of sounds is changed:

a) the tendency of the elision of the neutral sound:

    student   ['stju:dent]   ['stju:dnt];

b) in borrowed lexics:

    boulevard ['bu:lva:]   ['bu:leva:d];

5. model: the accentual structure is changed:

    sea-side   ['si:'said]   ['si:said],

    bureau   [bjue'rou]   ['bjuerou];

6. model: the phonetico-accentual structure is chaged:

    theatre   ['oiete]   [oi'ete],

    piano   ['pjænou]   [pi'ænou].

Lecture 3.

American English as a variant of the English language.

1. Regional types of American variant of the English language.

2. Differences in the vocalic systems of BE and GA.

3. Differences in the consonantal systems of BE and GA.

Regional types of American variant of the English language.

The problem of explaining language changes seems to consist of three separate

problems:

1) the origin of linguistic variations;

2) the spread and propagation of linguistic changes;

3) the regularity of linguistic change.

Variations in one or several words in the speech of one or two individuals may be induced by:

1) the process of assimilation or differentiation;

2) analogy;

3) borrowing;

4) fusion;

5) contamitation;

6) the random variation.

Sound changes first appear as a characteristic feature of a specific subgroup, attracting no popular notice from anyone. As it progresses within the group, it may be spread outwards, in a wave, affecting first those social groups closest to the originating group. Inevitably, the linguistic feature is associated with the expressive characteristics of the originating group. Other members of linguistic community gradually may share these changes.

People whose social position is at a distance from the original group and who are advanced in years will hardly accept the changes.

In the course of time (3-4 decades) a wider range of speakers may be involved into the process. As the original change acquires greater complexity, scope and range, we can speak about more systematic social value and is restrained or corrected in formal speech.

English pronunciation changes as time passes; and the developments which have arisen and become established in different places and among different social groups are not identical. Present day pronunciation patterns reflect the changes which have taken place, modifying earlier pronunciation patterns.

Why do innovations arise? The principle of least effort leads us to pronounce words and sentences in a way that involves the minimum of articulatory effect.

System preservation runs counter to simplification. Splits increase the number of terms in a system, mergers reduce it.

Regularization is a pressure to remove irregularities by bringing irregular forms under the general rule.

Many sound changes have spread from higher social strata to lower. The upper or upper middle class on the whole define the standards of speech as of a most other matters, and other classes gradually pick up their ways of doing things. That is why working class in the north of England who still use traditional dialect.

A good example of phonetic conservatism in England is rhodicity: we find it only in certain geographical areas and in certain social classes (lower middle and below), since it is here that the RP custom of «r» dropping has been slowest to catch on. Those innovations which happen to have taken place in the standard accent tend to spread out to other accents.

Some changes have spread from higher social strata to lower, some – from lower to higher. An excellent example in England is H-dropping, which comes from London Cockney. Its spread cannot be explained except through the concept of covert prestige.

Women's speech tends to differ from men's, other things being equal, by being like that of a higher social class. The two foci from which change radiates would be upper-middle class women and middle-working0class men.

In the early XX century RP speakers initiated the switch from [gout] to [g ut] (goat). When all sorts of middle class and other speakers followed it, the speakers of the so-called «advanced RP» launched a new fashion for it. The social changes in Britain in the 1960-s and 1970-s then robbed them of their position of the most admired and imitated group. Over the last quarter-century all the signs are that the covert prestige of working-class speech is acting as a more potent source of innovation than the overt prestige of advanced RP.

Widespread literacy tends to affect the pronunciation people use.

Continental vowelism and hyperforegnism play a considerable role in spreading new tendencies in pronunciation.

External influences are presented by the elements of the Welsh and Irish accents.

Differences in the vocalic systems of BE and GA.

Vowels and consonants are the smallest segments which can be isolated from sound continuum. There are however a number of elements which cannot be segmented phonetically because they realize themselves through segments (segmental elements) – through vowels and consonants. One of them is juncture – the way of passing from one sound to another [9].

1. Wait till evening and make your call at the NIGHT RATE.

2. It contains a lot of sodium NITRATE.

3. That type of pottery decorations is called after its discoverer NYE TRAIT.

We can hear the differences among «night rate», «nitrate» and «Nye Trait». These three utterances are kept apart by difference. In what?

There are two different ways in which a speaker of English can get from one vowel or consonant to the next – two different kinds of transition between successive vowel and consonant phonemes.

Suppose a speaker finishes one macrosegment with a word «night» and then begin the next with «rates»: At night rates are lower. The «t» of «night» is clearly finished and then the speaker starts afresh with the «r» of «rates». This way of getting from one vowel or consonant to the next may be described as <u>sharp transition (open transition)</u>. Sharp transition is the only kind across the boundary between macrosegments, so that in this case there is no additional contrast. This kind of transition is simply part of macrosegment boundary.

Within the single macrosegment, however, one finds both sharp transition of another type, which may be called <u>muddy transition</u>.

In «The night rates are lower» one almost always has a sharp transition between the «t» of «night» and «r» of «rates». In «The nitrates are better ...» the transition between the «t» and «r» of «nitrates» is muddy.

The sharp transition is represented by the mark «+» and is called JUNCTURE.

Muddy transition within the part of the utterance is much more common than sharp transition. We do not call it phonemic element, we simply say that it is the way a speaker gets from one vowel or consonant to the next when no juncture is present. Thus the final portions of our three examples can be represented as:

Nait+rei, naitreit, nai+treit [9].

Differences in the consonantal systems of BE and GA.

When two successive (not necessarily adjacent vowels) are both stressed there is always a «+» between them and its location is always easy to hear:

Free + Danny   freed + Annie

See + Marble   seem + able

When the two stressed vowels are adjacent (no intervening consonant) then no contrast is possible, and «+» is always present:

See + eight   try + ours

When a stressed vowel is preceded by one or more consonants it is always clear whether the last consonant or is separated from it by a «+». It is necessary that the next preceding vowel is also stressed:

It + sprays   it's + praise

A nice + man   an + ice + man

Between an unstressed vowel and a following consonant there seems to be muddy transition (no juncture):

Get aboard   get a board

After a stressed vowel it is always clear whether the following consonant goes with the vowel or is separated from it by «+». It is not necessary that the next vowel is also stressed:

A troop arose   a true + parade

There are few classes of «+» between successive unstressed vowels, no matter how many intervening consonants there may be. If there are no intervening consonants at all, the one occurent type of transition is usually sharp:

The idea alarms me.

If there is at least one consonant, the type of transition is usually muddy:

A cherub is always … [9]

When a sound is articulated separately it displays all the characteristic features. But in the process of speaking when we articulate several sounds in succession the speech organs change their position [9].

The articulation of one sound pronounced separately can be divide into three stages:

1) the on-glide – speech organs are placed in a position for articulation;

2) the retention stage (the medial stage) when the speech organs preserve their position for a certain period of time;

3) the off-glide (release) or recursion – the end of the sound when the speech organs return to their neutral position.

When articulating sounds in sequences, the three stages are not necessarily preserved, they frequently merge into one another: act – [kt].

«K» has only two stages and «t» – the second and the third stage. The back of the tongue is raised to the velum. A complete obstruction is formed. The tip of the tongue is raised to the alveoli. When it touches the alveoli the back of the tongue is lowered. The off-glide of «k» takes place during the retention stage of «t». The stream of air is stopped by the obstruction of «t», no explosion of «k» is heard. There is only one plosion for «t».

When two sounds are joined together they usually influenced each other in a way that the articulation of one sound influences the articulation of a neighbouring one making it similar to itself. The process is called ASSIMILATION.

Assimilation may be historical and functional (juxtapositional). The process of historical assimilation was completed in the earlier epoch of the language's develop-

ment. Now we deal already with a result of the process of historical assimilation: «picture», «occasion» [9]. Here the articulation of «t» and «z» is influenced by the articulation of «j».

The omission of established assimilation leads to mispronunciation. It occurs in the speech of all English-speaking persons, no matter what style of speech is used [6]. This type of assimilation has to be mastered while learning pronunciation.

Accidental assimilation appears in careless speech and should not be encouraged, at least teaches and lecturers must avoid it.

According to the direction we distinguish three types of assimilation:

– progressive;

– regressive;

– reciprocal.

In progressive assimilation the speech organs are prepared for the articulation of a sound or sounds which follow.

The activity of one or some of the speech organs is continued after the sound for which they were prepared has been articulated.

Regressive assimilation is more common than progressive: evidently it is more common and usual that the speech organs should be prepared beforehand. In reciprocal assimilation (double) the two adjacent phonemes influence each other equally. In quick [kwik] «w» is assimilated to the voiceless stop «k» and becomes partially devoiced. In its turn «k» is assimilated to «w» and becomes partially labialized.

We also distinguish between complete and partial assimilation, depending upon the degree to which the articulations are assimilated.

When one or more features of the sounds in a sequence are affected we have a case of complete assimilation.

Assimilation may affect the work of different articulating organs: the tongue, lips, soft palate, vocal cords. It may also affect the place of articulation, the manner of articulation.

In regressive assimilation the speech organs acquire beforehand the position which is necessary for the articulation of the next sound in the sequence.

Complete regressive voicing and devoicing are not used in present-day English.

Seminar 2-3:

1. What is implied by the terms «national language», «national pronunciation standard»?

2. Define regional standards and dialects.

3. What is the distinction between regional and social dialects? The triangle of P. Trudgill.

4. Observe regional standards in England.

5. Peculiarities of GA.

6. Comment on the term RP. Why is it referred to as a regionless dialects?

7. Define the types of RP.

8. Learn by heart all the definitions of RP and analyze them.

9. What is your attitude to the privileged accent? Give your reasons for using RP as a teaching norm.

10. What changes in RP seem to become normative?

11. Estuary English.

Assignments:

I. Text

Beyond the closed window the moon rode up, a full and brilliant moon, so that the stilly darkened country dissolved into shape and shadow, and the owls hooted, and far off, a dog bayed; and the flowers in the garden became each a little presence in a night-time carnival raven into stillness; and on the gleaming river every fallen leaf that; drifted down carried a moonbeam; while, above, the trees stayed, quiet,

measured and illuminated, quiet as the very sky, for the wind stirred not. (J. Galsworthy).

1. Analyze the text from the phonostylistic point of view. Find segmental and suprasegmental phonostylistic peculiarities.

2. Find words in the text the pronunciation of which can be modified.

II. Read the text «In London. It's Estuary English» and say if the situation paralleled in any other country.

In London. It's Estuary English

By John Darnton

New York Times Service

London – if Henry Higgins were to stroll past the flower vendors in Covent Garden today, he might well catch an accent that would send him scurrying back to his phonetics laboratory.

A new accent seems to be establishing itself around London, a hybrid between the Queen's English and what many would describe as cockney. Though it has been called «Estuary English», out of difference to its birthplace along the Thames. It has spread in recent years throughout the southeast and as far west as Bristol.

«Here we have the upper middle class adopting elements of speech from below and making it standard», – said John Welis, professor of phonetics at University College London. «You can even see it with younger members of the royal family, excluding, of course, Prince Charles. But Princess Di – definitely».

The accent is characterized by a number of elements. Most prominent is a glottal stop replacing the letter «T», so that the word «butter», for example, comes out «bu'er».

The glottal stop can substitute for a «T», «P», or «K» sound. Examples provided by The Sunday Times recently include «qui'right», «sta'ment», «sea'belt» and «te'nical» for «quite right», «statement», «seat belt» and «technical».

«London has been in the forefront of sound changes in English for at least 500 years», – Welis said. «And I predict that in 100 years glottal stops will be widespread. So will the vocalization of «L». The vocalization means that the «L's» are swallowed in the middle or at the end of words. «St. Paul's becomes «St. Pauw's».

It has one supreme advantage. It seems classless. In a country where speech is so much an emblem of social caste that George Bernard Shaw could write, «It is impossible for an Englishman to open his mouth without making some other Englishman despise him», Estuary English is a great leveler. No one is likely to hate you simply for speaking it.

«A lot of people in the City speak it», – said Peter Rosengard. «It's disarming – no one tries to place you and figure out where you come from and what school you went to».

The term «Estuary English» was coined in 1984 by David Rosewarne, a linguist «who is a senior lecturer in English at Kingsway College, London». «I studied applied linguistics in London and it struck me that the descriptions used didn't cover the speech of a lot of people that I was hearing every day», – he said.

A major factor in the development of the accent, he believes, was the spread in the 1960s of comprehensive schools, which were intended to break down the old British barriers between academic and vocational schooling.

III. Listen to the word list read for US English and Midwestern (from «International English: A Guide to Varieties of Standard English»). The recording demonstrates the features most typical of this national standard. Be sure to reflect them in your allophonic transcription of words:

did	part	bay	loud
mirror	bard	pair	port
wanted	farther	Mary	talk
bed	calm	buy	boring
merry	horrid	fire	long

bad	putt	night	about
marry	hurry	ride	sofa
path	put	boy	bird
dance	be	boot	furry
half	very	tour	butter
banana	peer	boat	

IV. The word list is followed by a reading passage that conforms to the norms of this particular variety. Listen to the text. Identify and make as full list as possible of sound, accentual and prosodic differences between US English Midwestern and RP:

As a language changes, it may well change in different ways, in different places. No one who speaks a particular language can remain in close contact with all the other speakers of that language. Social and geographical barriers to communication, as well as sheer distance, mean that a change, that starts among the speakers in one particular locality, will probably spread to other areas with which these speakers are in close contact. This is what has happened over the centuries in the case of the language we now call English and German. Two thousand years ago the Germanic people's living in what is now for the most part of Germany, could understand one another perfectly well. However, when many of them migrated to England, they did not remain in close contact with those who stayed behind. The result, to simplify somewhat, was that different linguistic changes took place in the two areas independently, so that today English and German, while clearly related languages, are not mutually intelligible...

The same kind of process is unlikely to be repeated in such an extreme form in the case of different variants of modern English. American and British English have been geographically separated and diverging linguistically for three hundred years or so. But the divergence is not very great, because of the density of communication be-

tween the two speech communities, particularly since the advent of modern transport and communication facilities.

V. Text

«The Boss quit studying Judge Irwin's face, which didn't show anything. He let himself sink back in the chair, shrugged his shoulders, and lifted the glass up for a drink. Then he said, «Suit yourself, Judge. But you know, there's another way to play it. May be somebody might give Callahan a little shovelful on somebody else and Callahan might grow a conscience business starts, ain't no telling where it'll stop, and when you start the digging ...» (R.P. Warren, All the King's Men).

VI. Point out segmental phonemes which sound differently in national and regional varieties of English.

VII. Read the text aloud the way it sounds in American English. Enumerate all the peculiarities in the pronunciation.

VIII. Read the text aloud the way it sounds in any of the territorial dialects of English.

Lecture 4.

Segmental phonetics: phoneme theory

1. Functional aspect of speech sounds.
2. The phoneme and its definitions.
3. The main aspects of the phoneme.
4. The phoneme and its peculiarities.
5. Phonemic principal rules.
6. Notational system.
7. The classification of oppositions given by N.S. Trubetskoy.
8. Jacobson, Fant and Halle and their system of distinctive features.

9. The establishment of the inventory of phonemes in a language.

10. Neutralization of the phonemes.

Segmental phonetics
The phoneme theory

I. The phoneme.

Functional aspect of speech sounds. Phonological data and the notion of contrast. The phoneme and its definitions. Main aspects of the phoneme, its functions. Phoneme, allophone and phone. Distinctive and non-distinctive features. The invariant. Principal and subsidiary variants. Notational systems: phonemic (broad) and allophonic (narrow).

II. Main trends in phoneme theory.

Trends and schools of structural phonology: mentalistic (or psychological), physical (or material), abstract (or algebraic) and functional. Theories of distinctive features and oppositions: Trubetskoy's system of phonological oppositions and the distinctive features of Jacobson, Fant and Halle. Evolution of phonology in the last decade (generative phonology and functional linguistics).

III. Methods of phonological analysis.

Two problems of phonology. Methods of phonological identification: the distributional method and semantic method [10]. Commutation test and types of distribution (contrastive, complementary and free variation). Morphophonology. Problem of the phoneme identification in the neutral opposition and approaches to it by the Moscow, Leningrad and Prague schools. Archiphoneme.

Functional aspect of speech sounds

The branch of linguistics dealing with the functional aspect of speech sounds is called phonology [3,6]. While phonetics studies sounds as articulatory and acoustic units, phonology investigates sounds as units which serve communicative purposes.

Phonetics and phonology is closely connected. The unit of phonetics is a speech sound, the unit of phonology is a phoneme.

Phonemes can be discovered by the method of minimal pairs [6]. This method consists of finding pairs of words which differ in only one phoneme (tan – dan). Two words of this kind are termed «minimal pair» [6].

The phonemes of the language form a system of oppositions, in which any one phoneme is opposed to any other phoneme in at least one position, in at least one lexical or grammatical minimal pair. The founder of the phoneme theory was I.A. Baudouin de Courteney (1845-1939), the Russian scientist of Polish origin. His theory of phoneme was developed by L.V. Scherba – the head of S.-Petersburg linguistic school. The main principles which lie at the basis of phonology as a science were formulated by the Prague Linguistic school. The founders of this science are N.S. Trubetskoy and R. Jacobson.

The actually pronounced speech sounds are variants or allophones of the phonemes. Allophones are realized in concrete words. The number of phonemes in each language is much smaller than the number of sounds actually pronounced. That variant of the phoneme which is described as the most representative and free from the influence of the neighboring phonemes is considered to be the principal one. Each phoneme manifests itself in a certain pattern of distribution. The simplest of them is free variation in which one and the same phoneme is pronounced differently (e.g. the pronouncing of the initial [k] with different degrees of aspiration) [6].

The phoneme and its definitions

It is not an easy matter to give an adequate definition of the phoneme because this language unit has many aspects and functions. I.A. Baudouin de Courteney defined the phoneme as a psychical image of a sound or ideal mental image or target at which the speaker aims. He originated the so called mentalistic view of the phoneme.

His views were developed by his disciple L.V. Scherba who stated that *in actual speech we utter a great variety of sounds, they are united in a comparatively*

small number of sound types which are capable to distinguish the meaning and the form of words [11]. *He called these sound types phonemes.* Actually uttered speech sounds which represent phonemes are called allophones.

Scherba's disciple V. Vassiliev further state that *phoneme is the smallest further indivisible (into smaller consecutive segments) language unit that exists in the speech of all the members of a given language community as such speech sound which is capable to distinguish one word of the language from the other word of the same language, one grammatical form from the other grammatical form of the same language.* L.V. Scherba and V. Vassiliev belonged to materialistic point of view upon the phoneme.

Ferdinand de Sausseur viewed phonemes not as sound materal matter but some disembodied units of the language formed by the differences separating its acoustic image from the rest of the units. Language in his opinion contains nothing but differences. His disciple Twaddel stated that *the phoneme is an abstract ional fictitious unit, scientific fiction all through, but a convenient one.* Ferdinand de Sausseur and Twaddel's conception of the phoneme may be regarded as abstractional.

The representatives of the so called Copenhagen trend view this problem as algebraic.

The abstracted and generalized character of the phoneme is denied in D. Jones' conception. He presents *the phoneme as a family of sounds which are related in character and are used that no one member occur in the same phonetic context; this family of sounds distinguishes one utterance from the other.* He originated the physical view of the phoneme. Analogous definition of the phoneme is given by some American descriptivists, who state that «a phoneme is a class of phonetically similar sounds».

N.S. Trubetskoy, R. Jacobson viewed the phoneme *as a cluster of distinctive features.* Feature is a minimal contrastive element in phonology.

The main aspects of the phoneme

According to V. Vassiliev, phoneme is dialectal unity of three aspects:

1. Phoneme is material, real and objective unit. The phoneme exists in a number of definite speech sounds (allophones of the phoneme). These sounds constitute the material substratum of the phoneme. They exist for every English-speaking person. It is possible to measure their frequency. The phoneme is an objective unit, because it exists independently of anybody's will.

2. Phoneme is an abstract and generalized unit. Each unit of the language - the phoneme, the morpheme, the sentence – is an abstraction. Language itself is an abstraction. Speech is the reality of the language. Phoneme is an abstraction and a generalization of a number of sounds which are its variants [9]. While speaking, we abstract ourselves from differences between similar speech sounds (phonologically irrelevant features). Differences between allophones of one phoneme are not relevant. The process of abstraction goes along with the process of generalization. We deal with the combination of sound features: articulatory features common, for example, to all the «t»-sounds in English we combine together into a general type of «t»-sound, generalizing them into «t»-phoneme. The relationship between a phoneme and its variants (allophones) is the relation between abstract and general, concrete and specific. It is an example of the dialectal unity of contradiction.

3. Phoneme is a functional unit and in speech it serves to perform the following functions:

– Constitutive. Speech sounds constitute the material forms of morphemes, words and sentences; they are characterized by duration, intensity, frequency or pitch, timbre (vowels).

– Distinctive. Speech sounds help to distinguish words, phrases and sentences. We differentiate words because different speech sounds occur in identical positions and can differentiate one member of a minimal pair from another:

back – bag, pit – pot, tit – kit.

– Recognitive. Different variants of speech sounds must be used in the right places: «flo<u>p</u>», «<u>p</u>en», «fli<u>pp</u>er» and help normal recognition and understanding.

The phoneme and its peculiarities

Distinctive (relevant) features of the phoneme are articulatory features common to all the allophones of the same phoneme and capable to differentiate the meaning of the word. The articulatory features which do not serve to distinguish the meaning are called non-distinctive (irrelevant, redundant). Each phoneme possesses a bundle (collection) of DF which makes the phoneme functionally different from all the other phonemes in a given language [9]. This bundle of DF is called the invariant of the phoneme.

Distinctively irrelevant features can be of two kinds: incidental (redundant) and concomitant (indispensable). Incidental features may or may not be present in the allophones of the phoneme (e.g. aspiration). Concomitant (сопутствующие) are always present in all allophones of the phoneme (e.g. two-focus sounds [j,z] can't be pronounced without second focus).

All allophones of the phoneme can be divided in 2 groups. That variant of the phoneme which is described as the most representative, free from the influence of the neighboring phonemes and retains typical articulatory characteristics of the phoneme (both distinctive and non-distinctive) is considered to be principal [6]. Subsidiary are variants which lack one or more features of the principal variant.

Pa<u>p</u>er (in unstressed syllable we have non-aspirated variant: subsidiary).

S<u>p</u>ort (after [s] we have non-aspirated variant: subsidiary).

<u>P</u>our, <u>p</u>ull (labialized variants: subsidiary).

Also allophones can be positional and combinatory. Positional allophones are used in certain positions traditionally. For example, the English [l] is always clear in the initial position and dark in the terminal position [6]. Combinatory variants are the result of the assimilation, adaptation, accommodation. E.g. [t] is a rounded combinatory allophone of the «t» phoneme in the word «twice».

Phonemic principal rules

1.   The allophones of one phoneme never occur in the same phonetic context [3]. They are used in the mutually exclusive positions. E.g. [pil] – [wiljem]: l/ cannot substitute l. The sounds here stand in complementary opposition. The Russian ел – ель are not used in complementary distribution.

2.   The allophones of different phonemes occur in the same phonetic context and are said to be in contrastive distribution (pat, fat, cat).

However, there are cases where two allophones of one phoneme do occur in the same phonetic context. E.g. good night ([t] may be pronounced with or without aspiration); in Russian галоши – калоши, матрас-матрац, шкаф – шкап и др.

Notational system

Notation means transcription. There exists a lot of notational systems, but it is accepted the notational system by D. Jones. This system provides a symbol for each phoneme of a language.

Teachers and tutors use allophonic or narrow transcription which is given in square brackets. Phonemic or broad transcription is used in scientific research. In phonemic notation one symbol is assigned to each significant sound and is given additional symbols for differentiating the allophones:

/P/h, /T/h, /K/h – the symbol of aspiration

 /t_/ – dental variant

/t_/ – post-alveolar variant

/kæ/ tj/ – glottal stop

/kæt/ – all the symbols are given in slanting lines.

Transcription and transliteration in the process of translation

Transcription as the method of translation consists of transcribing words and is widely used for rendering personal names, place names, titles of periodicals,

names of films and companies. Sometimes transliteration is used for the same purpose, but transcription is preferable because it renders the original sound-form of the word, while transliteration is based upon its graphical presentation (cf. two ways of rendering the name of Shakespeare in Russian: its transcription is Шекспир, while its transliteration is Схакеспеаре).

It is evident that for the purposes of oral communication it is necessary to know the sound-form of the names, so with the growth of contacts between the countries transliteration is being gradually ousted by transcription. Those names which have already been rendered by means of transliteration are now traditionally used in this form (King George – король Георг, not король Джордж) and there is no need to change them [12]. Such names should not be translated anew, they have their translated equivalents. However, in translating those names which have no equivalents, it is preferable to use transcription. Transcription is a very good way of rendering proper names.

The classification of oppositions given by N.S. Trubetskoy

N.S. Trubetskoy and R. Jacobson in 1936 made their fundamental work concerning DFs of the phoneme.

A phonological system may be looked upon as a network of oppositions where phonemes are looked upon as the points of references in this network. Each opposition should be based upon similarities of the contrasted units. It must have the basis for comparison (or features common to the opposed members).

N.S. Trubetskoy as the basis for presenting phonological oppositions takes the similarity of determining features. His classification was based on the description of articulatory terms. He classifies the oppositions:

1. From the point of view of their correlation in the phonological system (relatively one another in the system);

2. From the point of view of the relation existing between the members of a phonological opposition;

3. From the point of view of the distinctive function of the members of the opposition.

1. N.S. Trubetskoy characterizing oppositions within the system distinguishes two big groups: bilateral and multilateral. In bilateral oppositions members of the opposition possess common features which are only characteristic only of the members of this very opposition (the similitude of the determining features shared by two members):

bil – pil – a bilateral opposition

a = oral, bilabial, plosive, stop

til-dil – a bilateral opposition

a = oral, apical, plosive, stop

keim – geim - a bilateral opposition

a = oral, back lingual, plosive, stop.

Multilateral oppositions are the oppositions whose common features may be found in any other member of the system.

tai – jai

a = oral, apical, fortis. If j is regarded as apical it may be found in any other member of the system; the opposition will be a multilateral one.

Oppositions that are characterized by the recurrences of the DFs of the members are called proportional:

p – b where DF – not lenis

t – d DF – not lenis

k – g   DF – not lenis

Isolated oppositions are those where it is impossible to find any other pair of sounds corresponding in contrast; usually unique sounds constitute isolated oppositions:

bit – hit DF – not pharyngeal, not bilabial

rot – got DF – not rill, not velar

Multilateral oppositions are subdivided into homogeneous and heterogeneous. Homogeneous oppositions are those whose extreme points constitute a multilateral opposition which can be unfolded into the series of bilateral oppositions:

k – n a multilateral opposition

a = back lingual, stop

k – g – n

a = back lingual, lenis, stop.

2. The classification of oppositions in accordance with the relationship between the members of a particular opposition

Privative oppositions are the oppositions in which one member has the feature which the other has not got:

p – b DF – not lenis

The member that has got the feature is called the marked member of the opposition.

Gradual oppositions are the oppositions whose members possess different degrees of the same property (quality). Contrary to privative oppositions which are always binary gradual oppositions consist of more than two members (3 as a rule):

high [i] mid [e] low [æ]

Equipollent oppositions are those which are neither privative nor gradual. Privative and gradual oppositions are distinguished by one and the same feature (the position of the tongue, strength, or smth else). If we take an equipollent oppositions their members are distinguished by numerous features (2-5 features):

dei – sei DF – not fortis, not constrictive

Bilateral privative and proportional oppositions should be used for the identification of the DFs of English sounds.

V. Vassiliev classifies oppositions as single, dual and multiple.

p – b DF – not lenis (single opposition)

As to the basis of the classification he takes the number of the DFs.

If the opposition is bilateral, proportional, privative and neutralizable it may be used as a criterion in the identification of the DFs of the sounds of speech and is called correlation.

3.Classification of oppositions with reference to the distinctive function of the members of the opposition

The oppositions are not always relevant. In some cases DFs are relevant in one position and non-relevant in another and have no distinctive function. In the first case we deal with constant (permanent) oppositions and in the second – with neutralized:

<div align="center">

пил – бил   – relevant in this position

дуб – пилили   – phonologically irrelevant

п – б   are actual not in every position

</div>

Jacobson, Fant and Halle and their system of DFs

Later in 1946 Jacobson, Fant and Halle developed quite different system of DFs. Their system represents innovations in following aspects:

1. DFs were designed only to capture phonologically relevant oppositions.

2. Their system was declared to be universal because it lists all the oppositions of all the languages of the world.

3. All the oppositions are binary. All the features are binary too.

4. DFs are defined in acoustic terms.

5. Both vowels and consonants are specified in terms of the same feature.

- vocalic – non-vocalic

- consonantal – non-consonantal

- compact (low vowels, palatal and velar consonants) – diffuse (high vowels, labial consonants)

- tense – lax

- voiced – voiceless

- nasal – oral

- discontinuous (stops) – continuant (glides, liquids, fricatives)

– strident (резкий, affricates, noisive fricatives) – mellow (мягкий, stops, less noisy fricatives)

– checked – unchecked

[l, r] – liquids, consonantal, vocalic

[w, j] – glides, non-vocalic, non-consonantal

Jacobson, Fant and Halle made formulas for glides, liquids, - non-consonantal, + consonantal, + vocalic and - non-vocalic sounds:

V + L : C + G = (+ voc) : (- voc)

C + L : V + G = (+ con) : (- con)

Nine distinctive, universal features are enough to describe any sound in any language. Jacobson, whose point of view was one in phonology in Europe and America, regarded DFs as the very building blocks of phonology and ascribed phonemes of less important role.

The establishment of the inventory of phonemes in a language

It is possible to establish the phonemes in a language by means of the process of *commutation test or* the discovery of minimal pairs, pairs of words which are different in respect of only one sound segment [13]. The series of words «pin – bin, tin – din, kin – chin, gin - fin» supplies us with several words which are distinguished simply by a change in the first element of the sounds sequence. These elements of contrastive significance or phonemes we can symbolize as [p – b, t – d, k – tj, dz – f]. Such comparative procedure reveals the number of phonemes capable to contrastive function initially in a word.

It is not sufficient however to consider only one position in a word. Possibilities of phonemic opposition have to be investigated in medial and final positions as well as in the initial one.

Such an analysis of the consonantal and vocalic phonemes in English will give us a total of 45 phonemes. Similar procedure may be used to establish any phonemes

in any languages: 40 phonemes in Russian, 32 – in French, 40 – in German, 71 – in Abkhazian.

The final inventories of vowel and consonant phonemes will constitute a statement of the total oppositions in all positions in the word or syllable; when any particular place in the word or syllable is taken into consideration the number of terms in the series of oppositions is likely to be more restricted.

Neutralization of the phonemes

A special branch of linguistics deals with two sciences – morphophonology which studies the nature of phonological alternations.

cake [k]   }

cage [dz] } the signal of otherness

 correct   [k] }

  corrigible   [k]   } the signal of sameness

But what to do in these cases? Russian валы – волы; English object [o] or [e]? It sometimes happens that sound may be assigned to either two phonemes with equal validity. There are three possible approaches to this problem:

1. Moscow phonological school (Ованесов, Реформатский, Кузнецов). Their point of view consists in following: the phonemic content of morpheme is constant and differences between allophones of the same phoneme are not limited. This school is known as morphological.

молод – молодой

молот

object [e] is allophone of [o]-phoneme

2. The Leningrad school (Щерба, Зиндер, Васильев) advocates the antonymy of opposition: the phoneme is independent from the morpheme.

молод – is realization of [т]-phoneme

молот

3. Prague school (Трубецкой, Якобсон) offered: in such cases we'll choose neither [т] nor [д], neither [o] nor [e]. So Trubetskoy introduced a new term – *archiphoneme.* Archiphoneme is a combination of DFs common to two phonemes. In word final position [т] represents [т]-archiphoneme which in its turn leads to *neutralization* of the phoneme. Neutralization is the suspension of DFs, suspension of distinction between phonemes. In Russian they loose their power in word final position.

Seminar 4:

1. Functional aspect of speech sounds.

2. Learn by heart all the definitions of the phoneme and copy out two more.

3. Considering the phoneme the smallest language unit, why is it impossible to pronounce it?

4. Can you prove that the phoneme is a unity of three aspects? Why none of them can be ignored?

5. Explain the difference between distinctive and non-distinctive features.

6. Define the terms «invariant», «principal variant», «subsidiary variant», «assimilation», «accommodation», «adaptation» with your own examples.

7. Learn by heart phonemic principal rules.

8. Explain the notational system in English.

9. N.S. Trubetskoy and his system of oppositions.

10. Jacobson, Fant and Halle and their theory of distinctive features.

11. Explain the basic principle of commutation test.

12. Neutralization of phonemes.

Aassignments:

I. Establish the number of distinctive features in the following oppositions that can be simple, double and multiple:

(1)   sit – set – sat   bet – bought – boat

        get – goat – gate   farm – firm – form

look – luck – lark   pot – port - put

II. Text.

«The stranger returned to his room about half past five in the morning and there he remained until midday, the blinds down and the door shut. All that time he must have been hungry. Twice he rang the bell, but Mrs. Hall would not answer it …».

1. Find in the text three oppositions and analyze them from the point of view of their position in the system of oppositions, of the relation between the members, of the functional value.

2. Describe three English vowels in the text from the point of view of their distinctive and non-distinctive features.

IX. Use the following terms in sentences:

sameness, relevant, neutralizable, contrast, relevant, irrelevant, proportional, determined.

Lecture 5.

The system of English consonants.

1. Articulatory aspects of English consonants. Basic principle of classification of English consonants.

2. Acoustic aspect of English consonants.

3. English consonants as units of phonological system.

4. The problem of affricates.

System of English consonants

Articulatory aspects of English consonants, basic principle of classification of English consonants

Each sound is known to have 3 aspects: acoustic, articulatory and auditory. On the articulatory level each consonant may be identified by stating two general facts about it:

1) what sort of articulatory posture it is formed by;

2) whereabout in the mouth it is produced.

Besides these major characteristics the particular quality of a consonant may depend on:

– what articulatory organ made an obstruction;

– how vocal cords work at the moment of production;

– what cavity is used as a resonator.

According to V.A. Vassiliev primary importance should be given to the type of obstruction and the manner of production of noise. On this ground he distinguishes two large classes of consonants:

1) occlusive in the production of which a complete obstruction is formed;

2) constrictive in the production of which an incomplete obstruction is formed [14].

Each of two classes is subdivided into noise and sonorants (the division is based on the factor of prevailing either noise or tone). In their turn noise consonants are divided into plosive (stops) and affricates.

Consonants

Occlusive   Constrictive

Noise   sonorants   Noise   sonorants

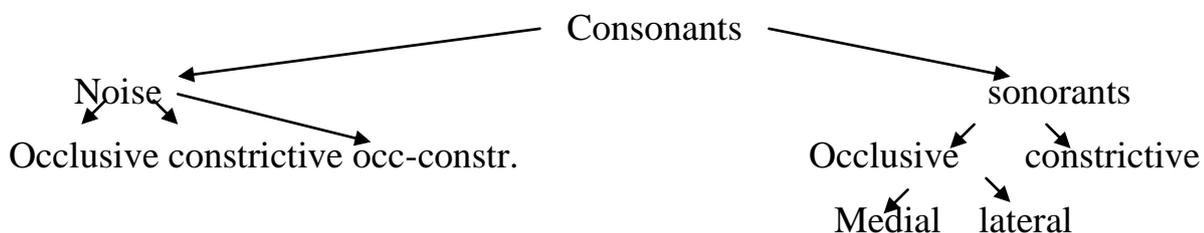Plosive   affricates   medial   lateral
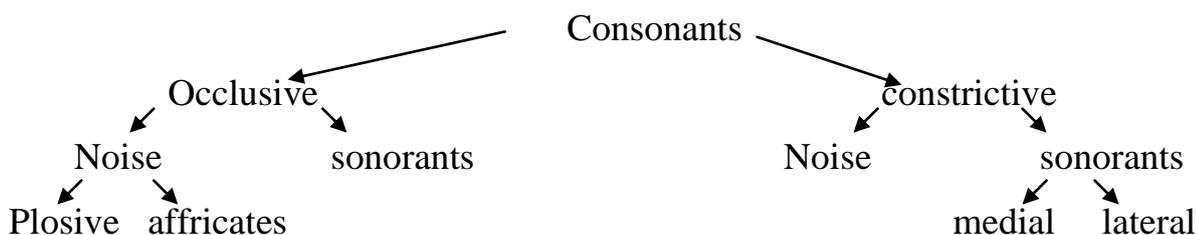
Another point of view is shared by a group of Russian phoneticians. They suggest that the basic principle of classification should be degree of noise:
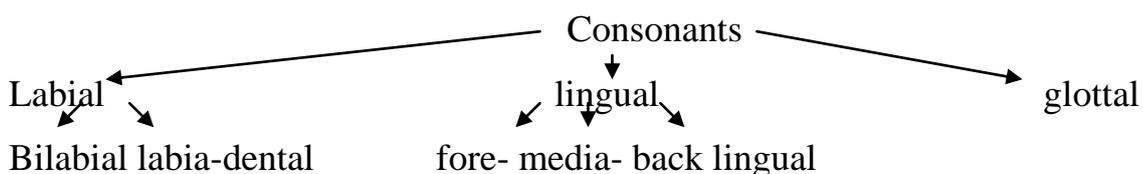
– noise;

– sonorants.

It is easy to see that that term «degree of noise» belongs to auditory level of analysis. But it is hardly necessary to point out that there is intrinsic connection between articulatory and auditory aspects.

The question about sonorants is disputable. In their production the air passage between two organs is wide, much wider than in the production of noise consonants [14]. This peculiarity of articulation makes sonorants more than vowels. So some of the British phoneticians refer some of sonorants to the class of semivowels (r, j, w). According to the Russian phoneticians sonorants are considered to be consonants from articulatory, acoustic and phonological points of view

```
                        Consonants
        Noise                            sonorants
Occlusive constrictive occ-constr.   Occlusive    constrictive
                                        Medial   lateral
```

The place of articulation is another characteristic of English consonants. The place of articulation is determined by active organ of speech against the point of articulation [14].

```
                        Consonants
Labial                    lingual                    glottal
Bilabial labia-dental   fore- media- back lingual
```

In total: 24 consonants:

6 plosives (pin, bin, tin, din, come, gum);

2 affricates (chain, Jane);

9 fricatives (fine, vine, think, these, seal, zeal, sheep, measure, how);

3 nasals (sum, sun, sung);

1 lateral (light);

3 semi-vowels (right, wet, yet).

Acoustic aspect of English consonants

Acoustic description of English vowels consists in describing its acoustic spectrum.

The acoustic spectrum of a speech sound is a range of frequencies (частота основного тона) which makes up quality of this or that peculiarities. Jacobson and Halle first made acoustic classification. Consonants are characterized by noise component: 2000 – 8000 circles per second (computer will measure). We can use acoustic resources for teaching.

English consonants as units of phonological system

DFs of English consonants are identified through correlation (the test of contrastive distribution and the test of non-contrastive distribution).

1. Voiced and voiceless consonants. If we use the test of non-contrastive distribution and see the English consonants in initial, medial and final positions we may discover that the English voiced consonants are fully voiced only in the intervocal positions: pleasure, trousers. They are devoiced in the initial and final positions. Thus voice cannot be regarded as a DF. S and Z in a number of English words in the intervocal position are not distinguished by native speakers as different phonemes. Out of 241 speakers of RP 135 pronounce the word «conclusive» with «s», 106 – with «z».

2. Fortis and lenis consonants. Strength is the amount of muscular tension and energy involved in the production of a consonant. In accordance with the degree of strength consonants are distinguished as fortis (strong) and lenis (weak). Cap – cab (p:b), but in «upper» «p» is rather weak. Strength is partially neutralizable in intervocal position, but upon the whole it functions as DF .

3. The role of active organs of speech. There are all sorts of contrasts when we oppose consonants, produced with the help of different articulators (active organs of speech):

– labial verses fore lingual;

- labial verses media lingual;
- labial verses back lingual;
- fore lingual verses media lingual;
- fore lingual verses back lingual.

Active organs of speech function as DFs of English consonants.

3. The role of passive organs of speech. If we consider different positions of «t»:

- 1. t I:m – apical alveolar;
- 2. eitO – apical dental;
- 3. trI: - apical post alveolar

We shall see that it stands the test of the complementary distribution. The test of non-contrastive distribution proves that the passive organs of speech do not function as DFs. The position of the tongue remains the same whereas the position of the place of obstruction is variable. E.g. apical consonants {t, d, n, l, s, z} may be alveolar, dental (before «s», «z») or post alveolar (before «r»). In fact some English speakers pronounce «s», «z» at the lower teeth. Thus passive organs of speech do not function as DFs of English consonants.

5. Manner of production. By the manner of production we mean the type of obstruction and the way the obstruction is overcome by the stream of the air. A complete obstruction is the place where the active and passive organs of speech touch each other and thus block the passage of the air to pass through. When an obstruction is incomplete there is some passage for the air to pass through. According to the type of obstruction we distinguish occlusive consonants (stops) and constrictive consonants (fricatives). Plosive stops p, b, t, d, k, g may be opposed to sonorants and affricates. The affricates are the consonants in the production of which the stream of the air breaks the obstruction slowly.

Sonorous nasal consonants {m, n, nj} are the consonants in the production of which the uvula goes down and the stream of air passes partially through the nasal

cavity and the obstruction formed in the mouth cavity is not broken by the stream of the air. Musical tones prevail over noises due to the work of the vocal cords.

Constrictive consonants are subdivided into fricatives and sonorants.

Fricative constrictive consonants are consonants where the narrowing is very small, thus producing friction: f, v, s, z, j, z.

Sonorous constrictive consonants (liquids) are the consonants where the passage may be rather wide. «W», «r» are medial sonorants, «l» is lateral sonorant.

We see a lot of oppositions based on the difference of the manner of production of consonants, which function as a DF.

6.Resonator. The next series of oppositions iu\s produced by the function of the resonance chamber (resonator):

oral: nasal   d: n, n: l   -x = not a stop, not nasal

DFs of English consonants are:

- strength;
- articulatory features produced by active organ;
- manner of production;
- resonator.

Each phoneme suggests to have a set of «+» and «–». The procedure of establishing the phonemic opposition includes following statements:

1. the list of common articulatory features

pan – Ban

«+» occlusive – occlusive

«+» contoids – contoids (noise prevails over tone)

«+» bilabial – bilabial

2. the list of features which differentiate the sounds:

«–» fortis – lenis

«–» voiceless – voiced (concomitant feature).

The problem of affricates

There are some moot points in the system of English consonants – the nature of English affricates. The scientists point out two questions:

1.   phonemic status of affricates;

2.   number of affricates in English.

As for phonemic status, the disputable question is whether affricates monophonemic or biphonemic sequences. One group of scientists supposes that there are no affricates, but there are biphonemic sequences. D. Jones points out six sequences: tj, dz, ts, dz, tr, dr. Ward added two more sequences: to, do.

Russian phoneticians consider that there are two affricates. To prove it they use three criteria:

−   the criterion of articulatory indivisibility;

−   acoustic criterion;

−   syllabic indivisibility or morphological criterion, according to it a morpheme boundary cannot pass within the phoneme.

Seminar 5:

1. Give full characteristics of English consonants.
2. Characterize the following oppositions: p/b, w/r, b/m, p/f.
3. Prepare for a test and learn by heart all the characteristics of consonants.
4. Articulatory and acoustic aspects of English consonants. Classification of English consonants.
5. English consonants as units of phonological system.
6. DF of English consonants.
7. The problem of affricates.

Assignments:

I. Give full characteristics of English consonants on the basis of their determining features:

e.g. p – oral fortis, bilabial stop

II. Give full characteristics of the following oppositions:

P/b, w/r, i/e/æ, b/m, d/n, p/f, k/s, r/l, w/h.

III. Identify classificatory principles that provide the basis for the establishment of the following oppositions in the system of English consonants:

(1) ten – den	coat – goat	plead – blead
(2) pain – cane	bun – ton	fame – tame
this – hiss	foam – home	care – hare
dim – tim	jet – yet	tongue – young
(3) bat – that	mine – thine	dare – share
dead – need	kick – king	beat – moat
same – lame	vain – lane	then – when
(4) pit – pin	seek – seen	sick – sing

VI. Comment on G. Brown's classification of consonants (see: Brown G. Listening to Spoken English. M., 1984. P. 18-25.)

Lecture 6.

The system of English vowels.

1. The system of cardinal vowels.
2. Acoustic aspect of English vowels.
3. English vowels as units of phonological system.

The system of English vowels

The system of cardinal vowels

D. Jones is responsible for the system of cardinal vowels. The phonetic characteristics of vowels and diphthongs can be described in terms of the conventional Cardinal Vowel Diagram. This diagram was originally constructed by plotting the highest points of raising of the tongue during the production of vowel sounds.

Vowels:

	Front	Central	Back
Close	i:, i		u:, u
Mid-open	e	ɜ:, ʌ, ə	o:
Open	æ		a:, ɔ

Diphthongs:

	Front	Central	Back
Close	iə	ei	
Mid-open	əu	oi	uə
Open	eə	ai	au

The 8 primary cardinal vowels occupy the extreme peripheral positions, their qualities approximating to the following language units:

1. French «si»
2. French «the»
3. French «meme»
4. French «la»
5. French «pas»
6. German «sonne»
7. French «beau»
8. French «doux»

D. Jones advised teachers to use the system of cardinal vowels in order to explain any sound of any language.

Acoustic aspect of English vowels

Acoustically vowels are musical tones, but not necessarily connected with the voice. Zinder proposed SHVA. Shva is a kind of vowel without voice when organs of speech articulated but the vowel is not produced (e.g. [ъ] кит, убить, суд). A voiceless vowel or shva can be found in a word terminal position after occlusive consonants.

Acoustically English vowels are differed due to timbre colouring and characterized by their own formants. By a *formant* we mean a concentration of energy in certain frequency regions on the spectrogram. Two formants are enough to identify a vowel. All vowels fall within 0 – 4000 circles per second in the range. The spectrum above is irrelevant.

First formant is determined by vertical movement of the tongue. This formant is associated with the low frequency (2080 cps for a long vowel [I:]). The tongue is high in the mouth.

Second formant is related to the horizontal movement of the tongue. This formant is associated with 2500 cps. The tongue is raised in the front of the mouth.

English vowels as units of phonological system

DFs of any phonological system are identified through correlation. As far as English vowels concerned, their DFs are judged from the function of their articulatory or acoustic properties.

Classificatory principles can be illustrated by distinctive oppositions of the phonemes based on the following parameters:

1. Stability of articulation. Due to this parameter all vowels are divided into:

− monophthongs (pure, unchanging vowel sounds; in their pronunciation the organs of speech do not change their position throughout the duration of the vowel);

− diphthongs (complex sounds consisting of two vowel elements pronounced so as to form a single syllable; in the pronunciation the organs of speech start in the

position of one vowel and glide in the direction of another whose full formation is not accomplished; the first element of a diphthong is called a nucleus, the second – a glide);

− diphthongoids (in the articulation the organs of speech change their position but very slightly; [I:], [u:]).

2. Tongue position. According to horizontal movement of the tongue:

− front;

− front-retracted;

− central;

− back;

− back-advanced.

According to vertical movement of the tongue:

− close;

− half-open;

− open.

3. Lip position:

− neutral;

− spread;

− round.

4. Character of vowel end checkness. *Checked vowels* which are pronounced without any lessening the force of utterance towards their end [6]. They end abruptly and are interrupted by the consonant immediately following. They can occur only in a closed syllable. *Unchecked vowels* which are pronounced with lessening the force of utterance towards their end [6].

5. Traditionally all English vowels are divided into long and short. Length varies depending on the sound environment. It is the longest in the open syllable, then goes the syllable followed by a lenis consonant, the shortest is the one followed by a fortis voiceless consonant.

6. Tenseness. All long vowels are tense, all short vowels are lax [15].

So the DFs of English vowels are:

- tongue position;
- stability of articulation;
- tongue advancement.

A method of minimal pairs helps to establish 20 vowel phonemes in the phonological system of English vowels, among them 10 monophthongs, 8 diphthongs and 2 diphthongoids.

Seminar 6:

1. Give full characteristics of English vowels.
2. Learn by heart all the characteristics of English vowels and prepare for a test.
3. The system of Cardinal vowels.
4. Acoustic aspect of English vowels.
5. Define the status of a neutral sound in English.
6. English vowels as units of phonological systems.

Assignments:

I. Identify classificatory principles that provide the basis for the establishment of the following oppositions in the system of English vowels:

(1)	bit – bait	dead – dared	cot – coat
(2)	lake – leek	boat – boot	bite – bee
	pull – pearl	cart – curt	call – curl
	bid – bird	week – work	team – term
	lark – lurk	bard – bird	call – curl
(3)	steel – still	feet – fit	peel – pill

II. Establish the number of distinctive features in the following oppositions that can be simple, double and multiple:

clean – glean   pry – dry   bit – hit

they – hay   lard – large   bad – back

<u>Lecture 7.</u>

Accentual structure of English words.

1. General notes on word stress.

2. Degrees of stress, accentual types of words in English and distribution of stress in words.

3. Tendencies that effect the position on the English word stress.

Suprasegmental phonetics

Syllable as a minimal speech unit. Its articulatory, acoustic and functional characteristics. Syllable formation and syllable division in English.

Nature of word accent and its types. Placement of word stress in English. Degrees of stress in a word. Accentual tendencies in the present-day English: recessive, rhythmical and retentive. Functional aspect of word accent.

General notes on word stress

According to Russian phoneticians, *word accent* is a combination of force, pitch, length, quantity and quality. These factors can be used in any language to make a syllable more prominent. Accent is wider in meaning than stress. *Stress* is a greater degree of prominence given to one or more syllables as compares with other syllables in the same word [16]. Terms «accent» and «stress» are not perfect synonyms as technical terms. In the English language the stressed syllables are distinguished due to their length.

In some languages the sounds differ only in duration or in relative prominence or loudness by means of the force of breath. The accentual system in which the differences are largely in relative prominence or loudness is called a stress system and

the contrasting degrees of prominence are called stress levels. English stress is dynamic or expirative.

In Chinese, Japanese, Korean and other non-European languages a special prominence of a stressed syllable is achieved through a change of pitch or musical tone. Stress here is musical or tonic.

/hana/:

−   if pronounced on the same level, it means «nose»;

−   if with a rising tone, it means «beginning».

A semantic factor in English stress is important in compound words, we stress here semantically relevant component. Mainly it is the first element of a compound word: 'blackboard, 'bluebell, 'network. There is a group of compounds which have two strong stresses due to the importance of both elements: 'vice-'president, 'non-'final, 'pre-'revolutionary. Compound adjectives, as a rule, have two equal stresses: 'blue-'eyed, 'acid-'sweet. Verbs with postpositional elements have two equal stresses: to 'take 'on, to 'give 'up.

Word stress in English organizes words when they are pronounced separately and joined into sentences, helps to recognize words and helps to distinguish words and their grammatical forms.

In actual speech we do not pronounce separately but join them into phrases and sentences; that is why we must take into account semantic importance of words in sentences, rhythm, emotional coloring and some social factors, such as individual qualities of the speaker.

Degrees of stress, accentual types of words in English and distribution of stress in words

In works of Gimson we can find such terms describing stress:

Examination

3 2 4 1 5

1.   – primary stress

2. – secondary or half-stress

American scientists appoint four degrees of stress:

/ ' /	/ ∧ /	/ \ /	/ v /
primary	reduced (loud)	medial	weak

Gleason called them:

primary	secondary	tertiary	weak

Stress mark in British dictionaries is put before the stressed syllable, in American dictionaries – above. Prof. Vassiliev supposes that mark before stressed syllables is more preferable as it shows the stress itself and the boarder.

In AE there is a strong tendency to put a tertiary stress:

– terri'tory;

– secre'tary;

– nece'ssary;

– abso'lutely etc.

As far as position of stress is concerned it may be free and fixed. In English and Russian stress is free: it may fall on the first, second and final syllables. It may be called shifting because it may shift from one syllable to another in different parts of speech ('present – pre'sent). Languages with a fixed stress are French, Polish, Latish, etc. Constant stress falls on the same phoneme in different grammatical forms and derivatives (awful – awfully; порицать – порицание – порицающий).

In English there are three tendencies associated with the stress:

1. The old one tendency is recessive. According to it the position of word stress is the product of its historical development [17]. The word stock passed different layers and had different origins (Anglo-Saxon, Germanic, Scandinavian, French, etc.). According to recessive tendency in Modern English the major part of Germanic words has stress on the first root syllable (husband, father, mother, water, etc.). Recessive tendency in Modern English may be of two types:

– restricted;

– unrestricted.

Restricted type deals with words which are formed with prefixes which have no refreshing meaning and so the stress is shifted on the root syllable (before, begin). Unrestricted type deals with French borrowings assimilated during the Norman Conquest until 15th century. These words had so called accentual assimilation: under the influence of the recessive stress the accent shifted to the initial syllable (reason, color).

2.   The next tendency – rhythmical – is the result of the mutual influence of Germanic and French patterns. According to rhythmical tendency we have the alternation of stressed and unstressed syllables. As a result of this rhythmical tendency in multisyllabled French borrowings the secondary stress appeared in most cases (demonstration). The important moment for this tendency is the development of two stresses. Rhythm is a sequence of stressed and unstressed syllables.

3.   According to retentive tendency we have the retention of the primary accent on the parent word, in other words stress retains on the same syllable in all derivatives (similar – assimilate – similarity).

<u>Seminar 7:</u>

1. The problem of definition of stress. Find definitions of stress by different authors.

2. What difference can you trace between word stress in English and Russian? [1]

3. The view of British linguists on the degree of stress.

4. What tendencies effect the position of English word stress.

5. Establish 7-8 minimal pairs of words to illustrate the distinctive function of word stress.

I. Choose the necessary variant:

A new report (1) _____ that going on summer holiday may be more stressful than working. The study, by the UK's Institute of Leadership and Management (ILM), questioned 2,500 of its members about attitudes (2) _____ long summer breaks. It found forty per cent of managers do not come back from a holiday (3) _____ relaxed. A worrying finding was that many workers came back from a holiday more stressed than when they left. Many in lower- and upper-management positions actually work while they are (4) _____ vacation. The researchers discovered that 80 per cent of those surveyed answer work-(5) _____ e-mails, around 50 per cent make and (6) _____ business-related phone calls and 10 per cent go into the office. Over 90 per cent of managers worried about returning to hundreds of e-mails. Information technology and the weakened global economy are the main (7) _____ of managers being unable to de-stress while on holiday. Penny de Valk, chief executive of the ILM, said: «(8) _____ are the days when people cut off contact with work for a fortnight over the summer and made a complete (9) _____. While technology means that it is easier than ever to work remotely, it also makes it extremely hard to switch off. Uncertain economic times also mean that many UK employees are keeping one (10) _____ on their job at all times, when what they really need is time away from the office to rest and re-energise». The study also revealed that (11) _____ average, it takes two days and seventeen hours into a holiday to totally unwind. Ten per cent of managers said it took them (12) _____ to a week to fully get into holiday mode.

1.	(a)	revealing	(b)	reveal	(c)	revealed	(d)	reveals
2.	(a)	towards	(b)	for	(c)	from	(d)	by
3.	(a)	feels	(b)	feeling	(c)	felt	(d)	feel
4.	(a)	in	(b)	at	(c)	on	(d)	by
5.	(a)	relation	(b)	relations	(c)	related	(d)	relationship
6.	(a)	carry	(b)	take	(c)	find	(d)	create
7.	(a)	cause	(b)	caused	(c)	causing	(d)	causes

8.	(a)	Gone	(b)	Come	(c)	Went	(d)	Arrived
9.	(a)	broken	(b)	break	(c)	breaks	(d)	breaking
10.	(a)	leg	(b)	foot	(c)	hand	(d)	eye
11.	(a)	in	(b)	by	(c)	on	(d)	to
12.	(a)	up	(b)	down	(c)	in	(d)	on

II. It's likely you are already quite good at hearing word stress in English.

The tricky part is hearing it in real speaking AND of course, making it in your own speaking.

Practice listening to word stress examples below.

It's very important that you can hear the word stress, the up and down of the voice to mark the stressed syllable in English.

Listen below and then record your own stress with the voice recorder.

English Word Stress Examples

speechactive

III. What makes you stressed? Complete this table and talk about it with your partner(s). Change partners and share what you heard. Change and share again.

	Stress	**How to deal with it**
English		
Partners		
Family		
People		
Technology		
Shopping		

IV. Write about stress for 10 minutes. Correct your partner's paper.

_____

Lecture 8.

Suprasegmental features. Intonation.

1. Prosodic system and intonation.

2. British approaches to intonation.

3. Recent theoretical approaches to intonation in Europe.

4. Modern American approaches to intonation.

5. Functions of intonation.

6. Components of intonation.

Suprasegmental features

The prosodic system of the English language.

Prosodic, paralinguistic and extra linguistic features. Prosody and intonation as basic notions of the suprasegmental level. Components of prosody: pitch, loudness (or sentence stress), tempo (rate, rhythm, pausation), timbre. The intonation group and its sections. Basic intonation\ prosodic\patterns in English and their communicative relevance.

Functions of prosody.

The prosodic system and rhythm. Traditional and present-day definitions of rhythm. Rhythmic units and their functions.

Functions of prosody: syntactic, attitudinal, communicative (or speech function), structuring of intonation content. Prosodic parameters and styles. Main phonostyles: informational, scientific, publicistic etc.

Prosodic phonology

In 40-es of the XX-th century a new aspect of phonology was developed and called prosodic. Prosodic phonology was a response of the fact that phonetics was aided by experimental sciences and now was able to record phonetic phenomena, e.g. stress, pitch, temporal characteristics. As a result classical phonemic theory which worked within word boundaries and focused on segments was incapable to deal with this newly described material. This crisis in phonology was developed by three scholars:

1. D. Jones proposed the most conservative solution of this problem. According to him intonation and stress fall outside the range of phonemic interpretation. Segmental phonemic concept should not be extended.

2. An alternative solution has taken up by American descriptivists who worked within Bloomfield's description. These linguists were respondent for the extension of phonemic theory. As a result new classes of phonemes were created namely suprasegmental phonemes, e.g. phoneme of stress, phoneme of length, phoneme of pitch etc.

3. Firth offered to treat pitch, stress and length on the basis of 2 elements:

− phonometic units;

− proceties (a minimal segment for proceties is syllable).

All these works were necessary for construction of prosodic theory.

D. Crystal proposes the next classification:

Prosodic system consists of:

–   melody: pitch direction + pitch range;

–   pause;

–   tempo;

–   loudness, stress;

–   voice segment: paralinguistic parameters (voice qualifiers – breathy, husky, etc; voice qualification – giggle, laugh, etc.);

–   extra linguistic feature (individual voice quality which depends on age, sex, body).

Suprasegmental features are:

Intonation   prosody

Intonation in narrow sense is melody rising and falling in pitch frequency of general tone; in broad sense (Vassiliev, Socolova) pitch, loudness, melody, stress (intensity), tempo, timbre. Term for teachers.

Prosody has three components (term for scientists):

1)   pitch (frequency of general tone);

2)   intensity (loudness);

3)   duration (tempo).

British approach to intonation

The earliest work of this field was that of Henry Sweet (1878, 1910). Sweet's general phonetic training and approach made him fully aware of prosodic effects and voice qualities other than intonation in English. He gives a list of five voice-qualities: clearness, dullness, nasality, wheeziness and gutturality which may characterize the speech of whole communities as well as individuals [9].

D. Jones attempted to transcribe narrowly the pitch movements in an individual speaker with the aid of tuning forks. Palmer (1922) stressed the need to distinguish the functional units of intonation and his distinction between head, nucleus and tail came to be widely used. In 1933 he modified the position replacing head and nucleus groups by patterns.

The approach begun by Palmer was closely followed by R. Kindon (1958) who made subdivisions of pre-head and body within the concept of head and also added a great deal of exemplification.

O'Connor and Arnold (1961) derive most of the stimulus from Palmer, along with Kingdon whose notation they use with modifications.

After the war industry of teaching English to foreigners developed rapidly: new teaching materials were needed; R. Kindon's work is especially important for the accumulation of data, its careful relating of stress to intonation.

O'Connor and Arnold (1961) produced the influential textbook on intonation and conversational English. It is the first real attempt to find a system in the complex range of attitudinal variables which exist [9].

Recent theoretical approaches to intonation in Europe

R. Quirk tries to account for all linguistic contrasts which will cover all the spoken varieties of discourse within the dialects of English. His approach is primarily a formal analysis and discusses the correlation between prosodic and grammatical phenomena and presents statistical evidence [9].

Halliday (1967) analyses intonation as a complex of three systemic variables: tonality (the division of the utterance into tone-groups and the placement of the tone-group boundary), tonicity (the placement of the tonic syllable and foot within the tone group and the consequent division of the group into tonic and pre-tonic elements of structure) and tone which is divided into primary and secondary tone. Tonality, tonicity and tone work independently, along with rhythm. Three phonological units are set up in hierarchical relation: tone, foot structure and syllable [13].

The historical importance of Halliday's approach is to suggest a theoretical framework within which the different statements about intonational form and function can be related.

D. Crystal views the intonation as a complex of prosodic and paralinguistic features of different degree of contrastivity. Many variables, contrasts and patterns

that have earlier been neglected or regarded as irrelevant are brought in under the heading of intonation. Some (less prominent) tones or tone-groups are subordinate to a proceeding or following (more prominent tone or tone-unit). Without denying grammatical or other function of intonation Crystal regards the attitudinal function as the primary function of intonation [9].

Modern American approaches to intonation

Bloomfield (1933) regards intonation and stress phenomena as secondary in the sense that they are not «attached to any particular words or phrases». His 8 secondary phonemes consist of 5 pitch and 3 stress phonemes. Full stop, question mark, inverted question mark, comma and exclamation mark are used to symbolize the various intonations [9].

Trager (1941) described phenomena like loudness, pitch and quantity as «superimposed on a succession of vowels and consonants» and distinguished between 2 kinds of «prosodemes»: accents (= prosodemes of syllables and words) and intonations (= prosodemes of phrases and sentences).

Hockett (1942) makes a distinction between segmental features, «which clearly follow each other in the stream of speech» and «suprasegmental features» which clearly extend over a series of several segmental groupings.

Bloch and Trager (1942) are important for their integration of prosodic features into a general phonetic theory and for the method of analysis they suggest. They distinguish between the prosodic features of quality, stress and tone; the last two are usually grouped together as features of accent. Juncture is also briefly mentioned. They adopt Bloomfield's system of intonation, but add symbols for suspensive and contrastive pitch [9].

Harris (1944) analyses intonation in terms of suprasegmental morphemes and distinguishes 7 pitch levels. He makes no attempt at a phonemic analysis of the levels, and he does not study the structural components within the intonation contours. He is also too dogmatic in his statements about the use of specific contours.

Pike (1945) gave the first thorough description of intonation of American English. For Pike intonation has an attitudinal function: it modifiers the lexical meaning of a sentence by adding to it speaker's attitude towards the contents of that sentence. There are 4 significant pitch levels: extra-high, high, mid and low. There are 2 pauses: tentative and final. English rhythm is described as «stress-timed», so the stresses tend to recur at fairly regular intervals [9]. There are 30 different primary contours.

Upon the whole, the American school is characterized by an emphasis on theory rather than practice; description on a phoneme| morpheme basis; less interest in formal and semantic detail; a tendency to regard non-grammatical functions of intonation as irrelevant or non-linguistic; interest in individual tones, particularly nuclear tones, rather than whole patterns; reluctance to be polysystemic and to distinguish between descriptions in terms of pitch levels rather than configurations; and, in recent years, description on a generative-transformational basis [9].

Structure and functions of intonation

Intonation may be defined as variations which take place in the pitch of the voice in connected speech; these variations in the pitch are produced by the vibration of vocal cords [18].

In ordinary speech the pitch of the voice is continually changing (rise and fall). The extent of the range of pitch in any given case depends on circumstances. It is greater in the declamatory style of speech than in the conversational one.

Intonation includes a complex of non-segmental or prosodic features of speech:
- pitch, melody;
- sentence stress;
- temporal characteristics (duration, tempo, pausation);
- rhythm;
- timber (voice quality).

The main two functions of intonation are:
- communicative;

– expressive.

Intonation in addition to these functions of providing a means of accentuation, may also serve to distinguish sentence types and indicate the emotional attitude of the speaker. The most important grammatical function of intonation in a language is that of tying the major parts together within sentences and tying sentences together within a discourse.

Stylistic variation in English speech

In interpreting an utterance one has to take account not only of <u>what</u> was said, but also of <u>how</u> it was said. Otherwise, one is liable to mistake joke for insult or irony for praise.

It is necessary to distinguish such features as tone of voice or gesture, which lead a hearer to understand that an interlocutor is angry or pleased which make him to identify permanent attributes of an interlocutor – for instance, that he is American, or is educated – and to exclude the latter from the definition.

Another way of making the same distinction might be to define «paralinguistic» phenomena as being under the voluntary control of the speaker. Emotions, such as anger, for example, are not always fully under the control of the speaker. To vocal paralinguistic devices may be referred: pitch phenomena, volume, precision, continuity, and tempo.

1. Pitch – an essential element of a sound system of English. The systematic sound melodies may be performed by an individual at his normal pitch height, or they may be delivered in either higher or lower key. Thus some information additional to the propositional content of the message is indicated. A lower key may suggest an attempt to sound, for example, stern or solemn. A higher key may be chosen to suggest surprise or excitement.

In the utterance «Jane came late» it is possible to exaggerate the extent of the fall, by beginning it higher and ending it lower than normal, or to restrict the fall and make it even more shallow. In either case something additional to the simple state-

ment is indicated. A lengthened fall could be used to indicate displeasure and a restricted one – lack of interest.

Exaggerated pitch movement is associated with an increase in volume, whereas restricted movement is quieter.

2.   Relative loudness or quietness of voice. Some people are naturally «loud-mouthed», while others are «softly-spoken». Loudness indicates anger. The usual repose to the accusation is to deny it; on an unnaturally quiet voice – possibly with clenched teeth. Quietness, on the other hand, is associated with intimacy, or, perhaps, secrecy.

However the reason for raising or lowering the volume of the voice is not so simple and obvious. It has been discovered that there is a strong tendency for interlocutors in a conversation to converge on the same volume, each accommodating his own volume to the perceived volume of the other.

3.   Precision is distinct from pitch and volume. It is a matter, simply put, of the care taken in articulating sounds.

Normally when we speak we produce a stream of sounds in which certain modifications are never completely made. There is nothing reprehensible in this: it is the nature of normal speech and causes us little trouble because our perception makes good the losses. In «Princes Street» comes out «Princestreet». The higher the level of formality, the more carefully we feel we have to articulate. Slurring indicates tiredness, illness or drunkenness.

4.   Continuity depends upon the amount of hesitation and pause. Hesitation manifested in false starts and new beginnings, occurs most frequently in informal speech, where it is largely involuntary. A skillful speaker can be by a voluntary avoidance of hesitation, not only in his speech but also in any other matter under discussion, suggest to his interlocutor competence and decisiveness.

5.   Pauses occur when the speaker is searching for the right word or expression. They may be either <u>silent</u> or <u>filled</u>. Unfortunately silent pauses tend to be am-

biguous. The interlocutor may interpret them as a signal that the previous speaker has relinquished the flow and for this reason pauses are frequently filled.

There are two ways to fill the pauses: first with a conventional noise («er» or «um»), second – by «you see», «you know», «I mean». Phrase-fillers occur frequently in informal speech or with unskillful speakers to give the speaker breathing space without running the risk of giving up the floor. On the other hand, the better the interlocutors know each other the less likely are we to find filled pauses. Silent pauses indicate intimacy.

Pauses like hesitations can be cut down considerably by a skillful speaker, and avoidance of filled pauses (of both types) is another way of impressing a hearer with a speaker's competence. Silent pauses on the other hand can be a useful stylistic device, which by keeping a hearer waiting focuses attention on what follows. It is a feature of public speaking and interviewee style of a number of leading politicians, among them Michael Foot, one of the most effective political speakers in Britain.

6.   Tempo or speed of utterance. Increase of tempo may suggest pressure of time or the pressure of excitement. A slower tempo may suggest boredom. The most easily observable use of tempo is in sport commentating, where the speaker slows down when nothing decisive taking place.

Non-vocal paralinguistic devices include: facial expression, eye-contact, posture, gesture and physical contact.

Accent mobility

A measurable tendency for speakers is to modify their pronunciation in the direction of that of their addressee so that the accents of interlocutors converge. But the matter may be complicated by a lot of other factors. One must take into account linguistic prestige, social status, accent loyalty and, perhaps, most of all, the sensivity and flexibility of the speaker.

Even when highly educated people are chatting together with friends their speech is very different from text-book conversations. They begin a sentence, then

change their mind, they hesitate, then start again, differently, they muddle one structure with another. They omit various words; forget others, replacing them with interjections. In a relaxed atmosphere they do not feel constrained to speak carefully, to plan what they are going to say. This makes understanding difficult for the learners of English. But once account is taken of his difficulties, then people begin to speak more carefully, inevitably the atmosphere changes somewhat.

There are no single-style speakers. Some speakers show a much wider range of style shifting than others, but every speaker shows a shift of some linguistic variables as the social context and topic change.

There are speakers in every community who are more aware than others of the prestige standard of speech and whose behavior is more influenced by exterior standards of excellence.

Idiosyncratic vocal features. Voice quality

Prosodic features, such as pitch, loudness and rate are permanent features of the utterance, but they are variable, depending on the situation and personality. The articulation may be tense, precise, slurred and lax. We can speak of huskiness, whispering and breathy, spasmodic articulation.

One can reasonably describe a speaker as having a typical «Norwich voice», «Glasgow voice», «RP voice», «Canadian voice». In voice quality the two main components are setting and anatomical and physiological foundation of a speaker's vocal equipment. It is genetically and individually determined and has nothing to do with regional and social accents.

Setting is a long-term muscular adjustments of the speaker's larynx and supralaryngeal vocal tract. It is acquired by social imitation and becomes permanent. In larynx setting the most typical are those including «creak» (creaking voice) and «murmur» (breathy voice). Thus Norwich working class speech is characterized by creaky voice.

High and wide pitch range in American Black speech, the low pitch range of Texan drawl, the soft loudness range of a Scottish Highlands accent are the result of the peculiar setting as well as typical Texan or Canadian male voice quality – «lowered larynx voice» «working-class Norwich voice» – «raised larynx voice», working-class Liverpool speech – «velarized», north Wales – «a pharyngalized voice quality», United States, Australia – «nasalization».

Prosodic and paralinguistic correlates of social categories

SEX. A «simpering» voice, largely reduces to the use of a wider pitch-range than normal (for men), glissando effects between stressed syllables, a more frequent use of complex tones (fall-rise and rise-fall), the use of breathiness and huskiness in the voice, and switching to higher (falsetto) register from time to time.

Intuitive impressions of effeminacy in English partly correlates with lisping.

AGE. With reference to English – the higher overall pitch of baby-talk, the preference to certain pitch contours and labialization.

STATUS. Intonation may vary in restricted and elaborated codes in English. Speed of the utterance is one of the features which distinguish formal and informal speech.

OCCUPATION. Clergymen, lawyers, undertakers have a peculiar tone of voice: pitch range, which is narrowed, frequent use of monotone, regular rhythm, fairly slow tempo, overall pitch height and resonance of the voice increases. There are many occupations which are recognized due to non-segmental features: disk-jockey, barrister, preacher, street-vendors, parade-ground commander, sports commentator, radio and television announcer, university lecturers.

VOICE may be cracked, dry, flat, hollow, husky, melodious, raucous, rough, thin, tinny, resonant, velvety, breathy, whispery, rich, deep, flattish.

Features of voice dynamics

LOUDNESS depends on the degree of force with which the air is expelled from the lungs by the pulmonic air stream mechanism while vocal cords are in vibration – the greater the force – the greater the loudness.

The range of loudness of which the human voice is capable is very considerable, but is easily controlled. The speakers of any language automatically adjust it to the conditions under which they are talking. Individuals vary considerably in the loudness of their average normal speech. Degree of loudness may be one of the things that characterize the habitual speaking of certain languages. Egyptian Arabic is spoken more loudly than Scots Gaelic, Italian – more loudly than Danish, etc.

TEMPO – speed of speaking which is best measured by rate of syllable- succession. It is a feature which< like loudness, is varied from time to time by the individual speaker [17]. Some people employ more variation in tempo than others, but everyone has a norm which is characteristic of his usual conversational style. Everyone who starts learning a foreign language has the impression that its native speaker uses an extraordinary rapid speed.

CONTINUITY is closely connected with tempo. It is the incidence of pauses in the stream of speech – where they come, how frequently they are, and how long they are. It seems to be a highly idiosyncratic matter, and there is a lot of variation from speaker to speaker. Under the conditions of ordinary conversation nobody's speech is fluent. The more thought there is behind what one is saying, the less fluent will be the speech. Pauses pass unnoticed by both speaker and hearer, yet they frequently occur at apparently unpredictable places. They bear little relation to syntax.

Pauses may by single, double, treble, etc. There may be silent and filled ones, which are filled by interjections, coughing, prolonging sounds, etc.

Single syllables may be shortened or lengthened (clipped or drawled respectively); stretches of utterance may be faster or slower than normal for a speaker or group (allegro, lento), and, the change may take place suddenly or gradually (accelerando, rallentando speech).

RHYTHMICALLITY. Combinations of pitch, loudness and duration effects produce rhythmic alternations in speaking, distinct from the rhythmic norm of this language, e.g. increasing the perceived regularity of a sequence of stressed syllables in an utterance, or decreasing it; clipping certain syllables to produce staccato speech, or slurring them, to produce glissando or legato utterance. There are numerous possible contrasts here, and, of course, the physical correlates of each word have to be carefully defined.

REGISTER. Registers of the singing voice are different qualities of sound arising from differences in the action of phonation. There are about five main registers.

«Head» and «chest» registers, «thick» and «thin», «natural» and «falsetto», «upper», «middle», «low» are also used. Register implies a difference of pitch-range as well as a difference of quality of sound.

Registers change together with emotional states and attitudes of the speaker; by it we express tenderness, irritability, sadness.

Seminar 8:

1. Regard the functions of intonation.

2. Regard the components of intonation (pitch, loudness, tempo, the system of pausation, etc.).

3. Define the difference between prosody and intonation.

4. Prosodic features of English and their distinctive functions. Word stress. Sentence stress. Pitch. Rhythm. Tempo. Pausation. Terminal tones. Allotones. Voice quality.

5. Compare various approaches to intonation in different linguistic schools.

6. What is the role of rhythm in the utterance?

7. Analyze the stylistic use of intonation.

8. What is the function of pausation in the process of articulation?

9. Systemize the notation of intonation.

10. What factors determine an individual voice quality?

Assignments:

I. Analyze the definitions of intonation and prosody given below. May the terms be used synonymously?

a)   «The use of pitch to distinguish whole utterances ... is known as intonation» (Jones D. An outline of English Phonetics. Cambridge, 1957. P. 275.)

b)   «The three physical parameters most commonly given as being prosodic are fundamental frequency (perceived as pitch). Intensity (perceived as loudness), and duration (perceived as length) » (See: Gimson A.C. An introduction to the pronunciation of English. 3ed. London, 1980. P. 60).

c)   «Prosody includes «rhythm, pause, tempo, stress and pitch features» (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English. Oxford, 1980. P.671).

d)   Intonation is «a complex of features from different prosodic systems the most central (of which) are tone, pitch, range and loudness with rhythmicallity and tempo closely related» (Crystal D. Prosodic systems and intonation in English. Cambridge, 1969. P. 195).

II. Comment on the interaction between prosody and sentence types. Give examples of prosodic patterns typical of a particular sentence type.

III. Text

«How dared you to tell me such a distinguishing thing! You even don't know what you are letting yourself in for! Beware! I'm nobody's fool! The best thing you can do is to disappear in по time...»

1. Find in the text cases of close and open juncture.

2. Analyze the syllabic structure of two or more words from the text.

3. Justify the usage of tones in the text.

4. Read the extract aloud modulating your voice quality.

5. Comment on the usage of pauses in the utterances of the text.

IV. Use the following terms in sentences:

Idiosyncratic, status, tempo, loudness, voice dynamics, continuity, rhythmicality, register, filled pauses, allotones, modification, kinetic, static, stress-timed, sharp transition, coda, onset, interlude.

Тест

Пояснительная записка

Предлагаемый срез уровня владения фонетическим материалом предназначен для выполнения студентами в конце изучения курса теоретической фонетики. Контрольный тест состоит из 20 заданий по 5 вопросов; каждый вопрос включает четыре варианта ответа. Характер формулировки заданий и подбор вариантов ответа определяется целью тестирования – получить объективные унифицированные данные об уровне сформированности навыков и умений, касающихся теоретических механизмов воспроизведения речи, определения типов фонем, особенностей произношения британского и американского вариантов английского языка, а также функций и компонентов интонации. Время выполнения теста ограничивается периодом в 50 – 60 минут, весь тест оценивается в 100 баллов. Выполнение заданий не менее чем на 70 баллов регистрирует хорошую сформированность заявленных грамматических навыков и умений; результат в пределах 50 баллов демонстрирует удовлетворительное овладение фонетическим материалом.

Test on theoretical phonetics

Assignments 1.

Question 1. What does phonetics as an independent branch of linguistic study?

1) the sound matter, its aspects and functions

2) the structure of the word

3) the structure of the sentence

4)   borrowings from other languages

Question 2. The aim of special phonetics is to study the sounds of one language at a particular period of time, that is
1)   diachronically (historical phonetics)
2)   generally (general linguistics)
3)   actually
4)   synchronically (descriptive phonetics).

Question 3. What science studies the correlation between the phonetic systems of two or more languages and finds out correspondences between their speech sounds?
1)   grammar
2)   comparative phonetics
3)   descriptive phonetics
4)   phonology

Question 4. What aspect is done on the basis of the knowledge of the voice and sound producing mechanisms, their structure, work and effects?
1)   acoustic
2)   articulatory and auditory
3)   functional
4)   grammatical

Question 5. The branch of phonetics which studies such properties of sounds as length, timbre, intensity, pitch, tempo is called
1)   articulatory phonetics
2)   functional phonetics
3)   acoustic phonetics

4)   auditory phonetics

Assignments 2.

Question 1. What device records qualitative variations of sounds in the form of tracings?

1)   spectrograph

2)   intonograph

3)   kymograph

4)   oscillograph

Question 2. What device records sound vibrations of any frequency?

1)   spectrograph

2)   intonograph

3)   kymograph

4)   oscillograph

Question 3. What device measures automatically the fundamental tone of vocal cords, the average sound pressure, the duration or length of speech (pausation)?

1)   spectrograph

2)   intonograph

3)   kymograph

4)   oscillograph

Question 4. Segmental phonemes exists in the form of …

1)   speech sounds

2)   morphemes

3)   the time, force and pitch

4)   phrases

Question 5. Suprasegmental phonemes are distinctively functional units of the language which are formed by …

1) speech sounds

2) morphemes

3) the time, force and pitch

4) phrases

Assignments 3.

Question 1. How many regional standards are in Great Britain?

1) five

2) six

3) two

4) one

Question 2. Dialects may be defined as varieties of pronunciation which are spoken by.

1) all population

2) socially limited number of people

3) young people

4) senior citizens

Question 3. Stratificational plan of a dialect defines

1) main tendencies in phonetics

2) rules of reading

3) class distinctions

4) regional standards

Question 4. Distinction between regional and social dialects is applied in the form of the triangle: at the top of it is RP, below – are regional standards as variants

of national standard; and the basement is coincided with a great number of dialects. Who is the author of this idea?

 1) D. Jones

 2) Baudouin de Courteney

 3) N.S. Trubetskoy

 4) P. Trudgill

Question 5. Phenomenon when one and the same person uses standard literary norm and territorial dialect or accent in different social situations is called

 1) allophone

 2) phoneme

 3) diglossia

 4) Received pronunciation

Assignments 4.

Question 1. The pronouncing of the combination [hw] is the norm for

 1) Southern English pronunciation

 2) Northern English pronunciation

 3) Welsh English pronunciation

 4) Scottish Standard pronunciation

 5) Standard pronunciation of Northern Ireland

Question 2. In origin some centuries ago RP was an accent of

 1) the south-east Midlands

 2) the north-west

 3) Yorkshire

 4) Northern Ireland

Question 3. What part of population in Great Britain speaks RP?

1) all population

2) 5 %

3) Southern part of the country

4) Northern part of the population

Question 4. What form of pronunciation is described in the books on the phonetics of British English and traditionally taught to foreigners?

1) General American

2) Northern English pronunciation

3) Received pronunciation

4) Welsh English pronunciation

Question 5. How has Received Pronunciation been called in the other way?

1) ABC

2) NBC

3) PSP

4) FBI

Assignments 5.

Question 1. The advanced RP forms are used

1) by BBC

2) by the younger generation

3) older generation

4) all population

Question 2. What type of RP is spoken by the highest privilege of birth, the very top of society (Queen and her family)?

1) modern RP

2) original RP

3) unmarked RP

4) marked RP

Question 3. Who was the author of the first definition of RP?

1) A. Gimson

2) D. Jones

3) A. Ellis

4) S. Ramsaran

Question 4. Non-rhotic accent means

1) non-pronouncing of [r]

2) pronouncing of [r]

3) opposition

4) distribution

Question 5. When two sounds are joined together they usually influenced each other in a way that the articulation of one sound influences the articulation of a neighbouring one making it similar to itself, this process is called

1) accomodation

2) juncture

3) assimilation

4) distribution

Assignments 6.

Question 1. The branch of linguistics dealing with the functional aspect of speech sounds is called

1) phonology

2) phonetics

3) general linguistics

4) diachronic linguistics

Question 2. The unit of phonetics is a

1) speech sound

2) letter

3) phoneme

4) sentence

Question 3. The unit of phonology is

1) speech sound

2) letter

3) phoneme

4) sentence

Question 4. Phonemes are discovered

1) in the alphabet

2) by the method of minimal pairs

3) in transcription

4) by marking stress

Question 5. The actually pronounced speech sounds are variants or

1) morphemes

2) phonemes

3) allophones of phonemes

4) syllables

Assignments 7.

Question 1. I.A. Baudouin de Courteney defined the phoneme as a psychical image of a sound or ideal mental image or target at which the speaker aims. He originated the

1) physical view of the phoneme

2) materialistic view of the phoneme

3) abstractional view of the phoneme

4) mentalistic view of the phoneme

Question 2. Scherba's disciple V. Vassiliev further stated that *phoneme is the smallest further indivisible (into smaller consecutive segments) language unit that exists in the speech of all the members of a given language community as such speech sound which is capable to distinguish one word of the language from the other word of the same language, one grammatical form from the other grammatical form of the same language.* L.V. Scherba and V. Vassiliev originated the

1) physical view of the phoneme

2) materialistic view of the phoneme

3) abstractional view of the phoneme

4) mentalistic view of the phoneme

Question 3. Defining *the phoneme as an abstractional fictitious unit, scientific fiction all through, but a convenient one,* Ferdinand de Sausseur and Twaddel's conception of the phoneme may be regarded as

1) 1.physical view of the phoneme

2) 2.materialistic view of the phoneme

3) 3.abstractional view of the phoneme

4) 4.mentalistic view of the phoneme

Question 4. D. Jones presents *the phoneme as a family of sounds which are related in character and are used that no one member occur in the same phonetic context; this family of sounds distinguishes one utterance from the other.* He originated the

1) physical view of the phoneme

2) materialistic view of the phoneme

3) abstractional view of the phoneme

4) mentalistic view of the phoneme

Question 5. The representatives of the so called Copenhagen trend view this problem as

1) abstractional

2) physical

3) geographical

4) algebraic

Assignments 8.

Question 1. The phoneme exists in a number of definite speech sounds (allophones of the phoneme). These sounds constitute the material substratum of the phoneme. They exist for every English-speaking person. It is possible to measure their frequency. The phoneme exists independently of anybody's will. This means that:

1) Phoneme is a functional unit

2) Phoneme is material, real and objective unit

3) Phoneme is an abstract and generalized unit

4) Phoneme is an abstractional unit

Question 2. Speech sounds help to distinguish words, phrases and sentences. They perform

1) constitutive function

2) distinctive function

3) recognitive function

4) practical function

Question 3. Articulatory features which are common to all the allophones of the same phoneme and capable to differentiate the meaning of the word are called

1) irrelevant

2) principal

3) relevant

4) free

Question 4. The articulatory features which do not serve to distinguish the meaning are called

1) irrelevant

2) principal

3) relevant

4) free

Question 5. The invariant of the phoneme is

1) a bundle of non-DFs

2) an allophone

3) RP

4) a bundle of DFs

Assignments 9.

Question 1. The features which may or may not be present in the allophones of the phoneme (e.g. aspiration) are called

1) relevant

2) concomitant

3) incidental

4) DFs

Question 2. In words «pull, pour» the sound [p] is a

1) principal variant

2) subsidiary variant

3) neutralized variant

4) DF

Question 3. The allophones of one phoneme _____ in the same phonetic context.

1) never occur

2) sometimes occur

3) occur

4) actually occur

Question 4. The allophones of different phonemes _____ in the same phonetic context.

1) never occur

2) sometimes occur

3) occur

4) actually occur

Question 5. In scientific research is used …

1) allophonic or narrow transcription

2) phonemic or broad transcription

3) no transcription

4) any transcription

Assignments 10.

Question 1. In what oppositions members of the opposition possess common features which are only characteristic only of the members of this very opposition (the similitude of the determining features shared by two members):

1) in bilateral oppositions

2) in multilateral oppositions

3) in proportional oppositions

4) in isolated oppositions

Question 2. The oppositions whose common features may be found in any other member of the system are

1) bilateral oppositions

2) multilateral oppositions

3) proportional oppositions

4) isolated oppositions

Question 3. Oppositions that are characterized by the recurrences of the DFs of the members are called

1) bilateral oppositions

2) multilateral oppositions

3) proportional oppositions

4) isolated oppositions

Question 4. Oppositions where it is impossible to find any other pair of sounds corresponding in contrast; usually unique sounds constitute

1) bilateral oppositions

2) multilateral oppositions

3) proportional oppositions

4) isolated oppositions

Question 5. The oppositions in which one member has the feature which the other has not got is called

1) equipollent

2) gradual

3) privative

4) actual

Assignments 11.

Question 1. The oppositions whose members possess different degrees of the same property (quality) are called

1) equipollent

2) gradual

3) privative

4) actual

Question 2. Oppositions whose members are distinguished by numerous features (2-5 features) are called

1) equipollent

2) gradual

3) privative

4) actual

Question 3. The establishment of inventory of phonemes is made by means of

1) minimal pair

2) free variation

3) commutation test

4) alphabet

Question 4. How many phonemes in English?

1) 72

2) 45

3) 33

4) 71

Question 5. Neutralization of the phonemes is

1) free variation of the phonemes
2) differentiation of the phonemes
3) suspension of DFs of the phonemes
4) transcription

Assignments 12.

Question 1. Occlusive consonants are consonants in the production of which

1) complete obstruction is formed
2) incomplete obstruction is formed
3) no obstruction is formed
4) sometimes obstruction is formed

Question 2. Fortis are

1) glottal consonants
2) bilabial consonants
3) sonorants
4) voiceless consonants

Question 3. How many affricates in English?

1) 8
2) 6
3) 0
4) 2

Question 4. Semivowels are considered to be:

1) r, h, j
2) r, s, q
3) w, v, j

4)   r, w, j

Question 5. Plosives are considered to be:

1)   p, b, t, d, k, g

2)   p, b, t, d, s, z

3)   p, b, f, v, k, g

4)   p, b, t, d, k, g

Assignments 13.

Question 1. When tone prevails over noise, we pronounce:

1)   letter

2)   formant

3)   vowel

4)   consonant

Question 2. When noise prevails over tone, we pronounce:

1)   letter

2)   formant

3)   vowel

4)   consonant

Question 3. What is SHVA?

1)   a consonant

2)   a voiceless vowel

3)   a letter

4)   a syllable

Question 4. By a … we mean a concentration of energy in certain frequency regions on the spectrogram.

1) spectrograph

2) formant

3) consonant

4) transcription

Question 5. A method of minimal pairs helps to establish … vowel phonemes in the phonological system of English vowels.

1) 12

2) 22

3) 32

4) 20

Assignments 14.

Question 1. In the pronunciation of monophthongs

1) the organs of speech do not change their position throughout the duration of the vowel

2) the organs of speech change their position throughout the duration of the vowel

3) the organs of speech change their position, but slightly

4) the organs of speech do not articulate

Question 2. In the pronunciation of diphthongs

1) the organs of speech do not change their position throughout the duration of the vowel

2) the organs of speech change their position throughout the duration of the vowel

3) the organs of speech change their position, but slightly

4) the organs of speech do not articulate

Question 3. In the pronunciation of diphthongoids

1)   the organs of speech do not change their position throughout the duration of the vowel

2)   the organs of speech change their position throughout the duration of the vowel

3)   the organs of speech change their position, but slightly

4)   the organs of speech do not articulate

Question 4. Checked vowels

1)   are pronounced without any lessening the force of utterance towards their end.

2)   are pronounced with lessening the force of utterance towards their end.

3)   are not pronounced

4)   sometimes are pronounced

Question 5. Unchecked vowels

1)   are pronounced without any lessening the force of utterance towards their end.

2)   are pronounced with lessening the force of utterance towards their end.

3)   are not pronounced

4)   sometimes are pronounced

Assignments 15.

Question 1. In the English language the stressed syllables are distinguished due to their …

1)   pitch

2)   level

3)   length

4)   quantity

Question 2. English stress is

1) dynamic

2) musical

3) actual

4) opposional

Question 3. Compound adjectives have

1) one stress

2) no stress

3) stress which depends on semantics

4) two equal stresses

Question 4. In American English there is a strong tendency to put … stress

1) primary

2) tertiary

3) weak

4) secondary

Question 5. As far as position of stress, English stress is

1) free

2) fixed

3) frustrated

4) figural

Assignments 16.

Question 1. According to …   in Modern English the major part of Germanic words has stress on the first root syllable (husband, father, mother, water, etc.).

1) rhythmical tendency

2) relishing tendency

3) recessive tendency

4) reconsidering tendency

Question 2. … type deals with words which are formed with prefixes which have no refreshing meaning and so the stress is shifted on the root syllable (before, begin).

1) restricted

2) unrestricted

3) resulted

4) unregulated

Question 3. … type deals with French borrowings assimilated during the Norman Conquest until 15th century. These words had so called accentual assimilation: under the influence of the recessive stress the accent shifted to the initial syllable (reason, colour).

1) restricted

2) unrestricted

3) resulted

4) unregulated

Question 4. According to … tendency we have the alternation of stressed and unstressed syllables. The important moment for this tendency is the development of two stresses.

1) rhythmical tendency

2) relishing tendency

3) recessive tendency

4) reconsidering tendency

Question 5. … is a sequence of stressed and unstressed syllables.

1) length

2) pitch

3) melody

4) rhythm

Assignments 17.

Question 1. Paralinguistic parameters are …

1) phoneme

2) morpheme

3) voice qualifiers – breathy, husky, etc; voice qualification – giggle, laugh,

etc.

4) allophones of the phoneme

Question 2. Individual voice quality which depends on …

1) age, sex, body

2) psychology

3) tempo of the speech

4) parents

Question 3. Prosody is a term for …

1) teachers

2) common people

3) psychologists

4) scientists

Question 4. Intonation is a complex of

1) stress and pitch

2) segmental units

3) phonemes

4)   pitch, loudness, melody, stress (intensity), tempo, timbre.

Question 5. Give a synonym to the term «tempo».

1)   loudness

2)   duration

3)   pitch

4)   frequency of general tone

Assignments 18.

Question 1. A higher key of pitch may be chosen to suggest ...

1)   stern or solemn

2)   calmness

3)   surprise or excitement

4)   indifference

Question 2. Relative loudness or quietness of voice is called …

1)   tempo

2)   volume

3)   duration

4)   pause

Question 3. It is a matter, simply put, of the care taken in articulating sounds.

1)   tempo

2)   volume

3)   precision

4)   pitch

Question 4. … depends upon the amount of hesitation and pause.

1)   precision

2) loudness

3) conclusion

4) continuity

Question 5. … occur when the speaker is searching for the right word or expression.

1) pauses

2) loudness

3) pitch

4) vibrations

Assignments 19.

Question 1. There are a number of elements which cannot be segmented phonetically because they realize themselves through segments (segmental elements) – through vowels and consonants. One of them is … – the way of passing from one sound to another.

1) accumulation

2) accommodation

3) juncture

4) jungle

Question 2. When the two stressed vowels are adjacent (no intervening consonant) then no contrast is possible:

See + eight   try + ours

1) no juncture

2) sometimes there is juncture

3) there is never juncture

4) juncture is always present

Question 3. Between an unstressed vowel and a following consonant there seems to be muddy transition:

Get aboard   get a board

1) no juncture

2) sometimes there is juncture

3) there is never juncture

4) juncture is always present

Question 4. When two successive (not necessarily adjacent vowels) are both stressed … between them and its location is always easy to hear:

Free + Danny   freed + Annie

See + Marble   seem + able

1) no juncture

2) sometimes there is juncture

3) there is never juncture

4) juncture is always present

Question 5. When a stressed vowel is preceded by one or more consonants it is always clear … . It is necessary that the next preceding vowel is also stressed:

It + sprays   it's + praise

A nice + man   an + ice + man

1) no juncture

2) sometimes there is juncture

3) there is never juncture

4) juncture is always present

Assignments 20.

Question 1. To what paralinguistic devices may be referred: pitch phenomena, volume, precision, continuity, and tempo?

1) vocabulary

2) vociferous

3) vocal

4) non-vocal

Question 2. What paralinguistic devices include: facial expression, eye-contact, posture, gesture and physical contact?

1) vocabulary

2) vociferous

3) vocal

4) non-vocal

Question 3. …is a long-term muscular adjustments of the speaker's larynx and supralaryngeal vocal tract.

1) cutting

2) setting

3) establishing

4) installation

Question 4. … of the utterance is one of the features which distinguish formal and informal speech.

1) sobriety

2) secrecy

3) suggestion

4) speed

Question 5. Everyone who starts learning a foreign language has the impression that its native speaker uses an extraordinary … speed.

1) slow

2) rapid

3) discontinuing

4) obvious

Control questions:

1. The subject-matter or phonetics.

2. Speech sounds and their aspects.

3. Theoretical and practical significance of phonetics.

4. National varieties of English language.

5. Standard pronunciation, regional pronunciation, dialects.

6. Standard pronunciation: regional norm and dialects.

7. Some properties of regional varieties.

8. The origins of RP and its definitions.

9. Types of RP.

10. Current tendencies in RP.

11. American English and its peculiarities.

12. Regional standards in American English.

13. The phoneme and its peculiarities.

14. The main aspects of the phoneme.

15. The functional aspect of speech sounds.

16. Different approaches to the definition of the phoneme.

17. Phonemic principal rules.

18. Trubetskoy and his system of phonological opposition.

19. Jacobson, Fant and Halle and their system of DF.

20. The establishment of inventory of phonemes in a language.

21. Notational system.

22. English vowels as units of phonological system.

23. The phonemic status of sounds in a neutral opposition.

24. Acoustic aspect of English vowels.

25. Articulatory aspect of English consonants. Basic principle of classification of English consonants.

26. Acoustic aspect of English consonants and vowels.

27. English consonants as units of phonological system.

28. Distinctive and non-distinctive features. The invariant. Principal and subsidiary variants.

29. Intonation structure.

30. The problem of affricates.

31. Word stress.

32. Functions and components of intonation.

33. Degrees of stress, accentual types of words in English and distribution of stress in words.

Рекомендуемая литература

Основная литература

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Дополнительная литература

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Перечень ресурсов информационно-телекоммуникационной сети «Интернет»

1. Введение в теоретическое языкознание (электронный учебник), И.П. Сусов. Учебное пособие для студентов, обучающихся по лингвистическим специальностям. Учебник разбит на модули, удобная навигация между разде-

лами. Модули: Язык как объект языкознания; Основы общей фонетики и фонологии; Основы общей лексикологии; Основы общей морфологии; Основы общего синтаксиса; Языки в их отношении друг к другу; Основы общей теории письма (грамматологии); Методические материалы (темы рефератов, экзаменационные вопросы). – Режим доступа : http://homepages.tversu.ru/~ips/LingFak1.htm

2. Википедия : Проект:Лингвистика. Цель этого проекта – координация усилий по созданию и улучшению статей по лингвистике, включая статьи об отдельных языках и их группах; в том числе выработка соглашений по оформлению и содержанию статей. – Режим доступа: http://ru.wikipedia.org/wiki/ВП:П:ЛИ

3. Журнал «Язык человека». – Режим доступа: http://www.philol.msu.ru/~humlang/

4. Журнал ПАРАДИГМА. Ежеквартальный журнал теоретического и прикладного языкознания, культурологии, страноведения, межкультурной коммуникации. – Сибирский государственный технический университет. – Режим доступа: http://res.krasu.ru/paradigma/main.htm

5. Каталог ссылок на лингвистические ресурсы на сайте Лаборатории Общей и Компьютерной Лексикологии и Лексикографии МГУ. Лингвистические сайты; действующие системы анализа русских текстов в Интернете; информационные ресурсы по русскому языку в Интернете (российские сайты): словари русского языка, текстовые базы данных и корпуса русского и старославянского языков, тексты новостных агентств; лингвистические ресурсы для других языков: словари для иностранных языков, английские словари разной тематики, различные словари на французском языке, словари на других языках и многоязычные словари, текстовые базы данных. – Режим доступа: http://www.philol.msu.ru/~lex/links/lingresnet.htm

6. Лингвистика или языкознание – Каталог ссылок для лингвистов. Лингвисты в Интернете; Лингвистические журналы; Лингвистические исследо-

вания, статьи, публикации; Лингвистические научные центры; Лингвистические сайты; Лингвистические ссылки; Общая лингвистика в Интернете. – Режим доступа: http://www.links-guide.ru/sprachen/linguistik/lingvistika.html

7. Методическое вступление в дисциплину «HYPERLINK» – http://homepages.tversu.ru/~ips/Ling0.htm «Общее языкознание», И.П. Сусов. Цель курса, краткая история языкознания, литература для подготовки к экзамену. – Режим доступа: http://homepages.tversu.ru/~ips/Ling0.htm

8. Языкознание. Лингвистика. Филология. Каталог сайтов и книг для бесплатной закачки. Словари, научные труды, сайты для закачки. Классификация по областям лингвистики и по языкам. – Режим доступа : http://www.zipsites.ru/?n=12/

9. Яндекс.Каталог: Языкознание. – Режим доступа:http://yaca.yandex.ru/yca/ungrp/cat/Science/Sciences/Humanities/Philology/Linguistics/

Перечень информационных справочных систем, баз данных:

1. Электронно-библиотечная система «Университетская библиотека онлайн». – Режим доступа: www.biblioclub.ru.

Keys to the test:

№ Задания	№ Вопроса	Вариант ответа	№ Задания	№ Вопроса	Вариант ответа
Assignment 1	1	**1**	Assignment 11	1	**2**
	2	**4**		2	**1**
	3	**2**		3	**3**
	4	**2**		4	**2**
	5	**3**		5	**3**
Assignment 2	1	**3**	Assignment 12	1	**2**
	2	**4**		2	**4**
	3	**2**		3	**4**
	4	**1**		4	**4**
	5	**3**		5	**1**
Assignment 3	1	**1**	Assignment 13	1	**3**
	2	**2**		2	**4**
	3	**3**		3	**2**
	4	**4**		4	**2**
	5	**3**		5	**4**
Assignment 4	1	**4**	Assignment 14	1	**1**
	2	**1**		2	**2**
	3	**2**		3	**3**
	4	**3**		4	**1**
	5	**3**		5	**2**
Assignment 5	1	**2**	Assignment 15	1	**3**
	2	**4**		2	**1**
	3	**3**		3	**4**
	4	**1**		4	**2**
	5	**3**		5	**1**

Assignment 6	1	**1**	Assignment 16	1	**3**
	2	**1**		2	**1**
	3	**3**		3	**2**
	4	**2**		4	**1**
	5	**3**		5	**4**
Assignment 7	1	**4**	Assignment 17	1	**3**
	2	**2**		2	**1**
	3	**3**		3	**4**
	4	**1**		4	**4**
	5	**4**		5	**2**
Assignment 8	1	**2**	Assignment 18	1	**3**
	2	**2**		2	**2**
	3	**3**		3	**3**
	4	**1**		4	**4**
	5	**4**		5	**1**
Assignment 9	1	**3**	Assignment 19	1	**3**
	2	**2**		2	**4**
	3	**1**		3	**1**
	4	**3**		4	**4**
	5	**2**		5	**4**
Assignment 10	1	**1**	Assignment 20	1	**3**
	2	**2**		2	**4**
	3	**3**		3	**2**
	4	**4**		4	**4**
	5	**3**		5	**2**

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