

ODLAR YURDU UNİVERSİTETİ

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S. S. Məmmədzadə

XARİCİ DİLİN FONETİKASI

Metodik- vəsait

Bakı- 2018

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Bakalavr proqramı ilə xarici dil müəllimliyi (ingilis dili) ixtisası üzrə təhsil alan tələbələr üçün elmi- metodik vəsait. Bakı, 2018.- 46s.

Elmi-metodik vəsait tələb olunan müvafiq proqrama əsaslanaraq “İngilis dili müəllimliyi” ixtisası üzrə təhsil alan tələbələr üçün nəzərdə tutulmuşdur.

Bu metodik vəsait tələbələrin sərbəst işlərində istifadə oluna bilər. Həm tələbələr, həm müəllimlər, hətta, humanitar yönümlü məktəb və liseylərin müəllimləri bu metodiki vəsaitdən geniş şəkildə istifadə edə bilərlər.

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INTRODUCTION

The recent material stores important information about the course of modern phonetics of English language. It consists of introduction, 5 topics and their divisions and literature. After each topic there are question samples or multiple choice for students for self-control.

The main purpose of this material is to help students to develop their speaking and pronunciation skills. The students may obtain a lot of information about the intonation, word stress and speech sounds. It helps the students to interact with foreigners with good pronunciation.

The most important function of any language is to serve for intercourse. No thought, no idea can be expressed without sentences which consist of words. Spoken words in all the languages consist of sounds. Letters are used to represent spoken words in writing only. Therefore any spoken language is firstly of all a language of sounds.

In order to speak any language one must be able to pronounce words and sentences in that language correctly. It means that the learners of foreign language must first of all know how to pronounce isolated sounds, learn to join them within words and sentences. They must also know how sounds are modified in speech, which of the elements in words and sentences must be stressed and what intonation is used to express a certain thought.

Teachers of a foreign language must not only speak and read correctly, but also know how to teach correct pronunciation.

The teacher must also know all the difficulties that may arise in teaching good pronunciation and possess methods of overcoming these difficulties.

Now speech habits are attained by learning and remembering the articulation of new speech sounds and other phenomena, then by systematic

training on the basis of special sets of exercises in order to make new speech habits stable.

There are also different test samples after each topic. The students have an opportunity to choose one correct answer from 5. These multiple choices help students to learn and understand the material.

The main purpose of this material is to help students to develop their speaking and pronunciation skills.

§1 Topic I. General information about phonetics

The word “phonetics” is derived from the Greek and is used in two different meanings: 1) to some authors, usually non –phoneticians, phonetics is that part of grammar which deals with speech sound; 2) to phoneticians, however, phonetics is an independent branch of linguistics which is concerned with the phonetic structure of language.

Within the last few years, the increasing need of phonetics in the study of a language, has led to great achievements in the field of phonetics. The development of the theory of phonemes, for instance, has caused a revolution. A number of other important phonetic concepts have been developed; it is therefore possible to assert that phonetics should no longer be considered a part of grammar. It is an independent branch of linguistics.

However, phonetics, being a branch of linguistics, occupies a peculiar position. On the one hand, it is quite independent, and develops according to its own laws. But what are the objects of phonetics? Today the sphere of phonetics is wider and deeper than ever before: phonemes, stress, syllable formation, intonation, the relation between oral and written speech and a number of other problems have become the objects of phonetic investigation.

Phonetics is closely connected with a number of other sciences, such as physics, biology, physiology and others. The more phonetics develops the more

different branches of science become interested in the field of phonetic investigation.

Phonetics is an essential part of language because the vocabulary and grammar of a language can function only when the language has phonetic form.

Thus, grammar and vocabulary depend on phonetics; they cannot exist outside of phonetics, because all lexical and grammatical phenomena are expressed phonetically. Yet it has laws of its own which are independent of grammar and vocabulary. The following examples reflect this:

1. Words are expressed in phonetic form, and can be analyzed into sounds. One word may differ from another in one sound only, e.g. big- bag- bog

2. The three main forms of the so –called “strong” (or “vocalic”) verbs in English are also expressed in phonetic form, and differ from one another because of vowel alternations in the root:

Rise – rose – risen

Swim – swam – swum

Drink- drank- drunk

Eat – ate - eaten

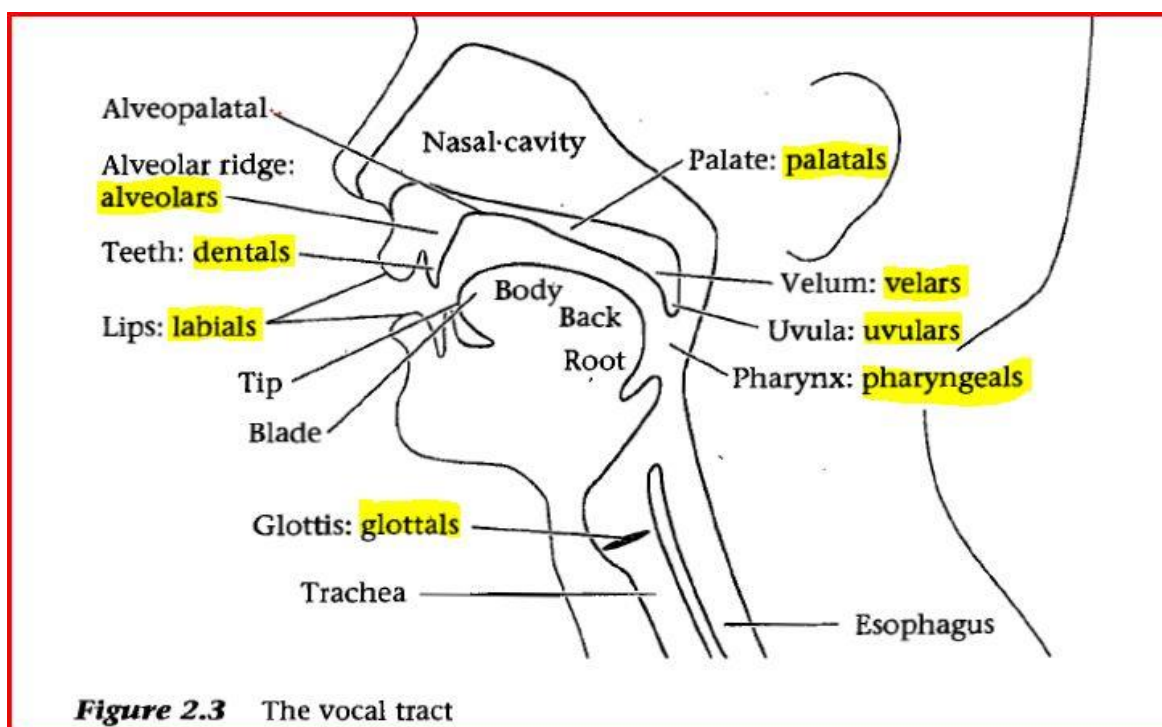
1.1 The Speech Organs

There are 3 main cavities in the speech apparatus: 1) the mouth cavity, 2) the nasal cavity, 3) the pharynx

The mouth cavity: the lips, the tongue, the tip of the tongue, the blade of the tongue, the front of the tongue, the back of the tongue, the lower jaw, the upper jaw, alveoli, hard palate.

The pharynx: the larynx, the wind pipe, the larynx, the vocal cords, the glottis, the soft palate with uvula.

Organs of speech can be divided into two main groups: active and passive organs of speech.



1.2 Classification of organs of speech

Active organs of speech are taking an active part in a sound formation:

1. Vocal cords
2. The tongue
3. The lips
4. The soft palate with the uvula
5. The back wall of the pharynx
6. The lower jaw
7. The lungs

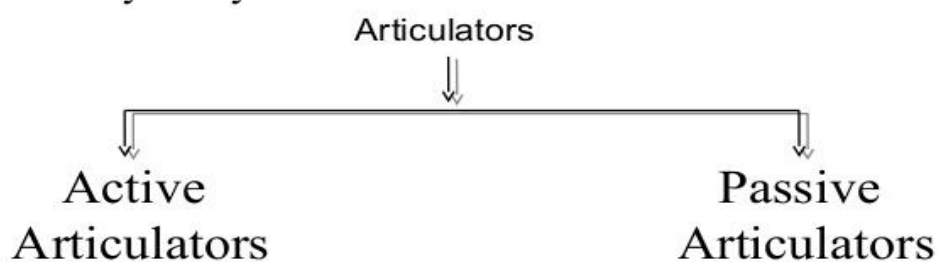
Passive organs of speech:

1. the teeth
2. the teeth ridge or alveolar ridge

3. the hard palate
4. the walls of the resonators

Classification of Organs of Speech

Famous Philologist David Crystal divides the articulators into two different ways according to its mobility. They are...



Control Questions and Test:

1. Which are the active organs of speech?
2. Which are the passive organs of speech?
3. What does phonetics mean?
4. Multiple choices.

Which one is pronounced differently?

- a) Ball
- b) Call
- c) Fall
- d) Shall
- e) Tall

§2 Topic II. The Speech sounds

There are 44 speech sounds in English. The sounds of speech are divided into vowels and consonants. There are 20 vowels and 24 consonants in English. A phoneme is a speech sound which is capable to distinguish one word from another word of the same language. Eg: bag-back-bad

The sounds by which a phoneme is realized in the speech are called allophones.

2.1 Consonants and their classification

[p],[b],[t],[d],[k],[g],[ʃ],[dʒ],[f],[v],[θ],[ð],[s],[ʒ],[z],[h],[m],[n],[ŋ],[l],[r],[j],
[w]

A consonant is a speech sound in the pronunciation of which an obstruction is formed in the mouth cavity.

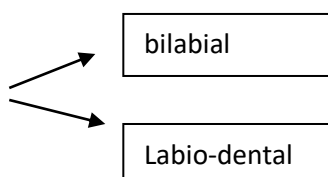
During the pronunciation of consonant sound an air meets an obstruction in the mouth cavity.

The classification of English consonants.

1. According to the active organs of speech and place of obstruction they

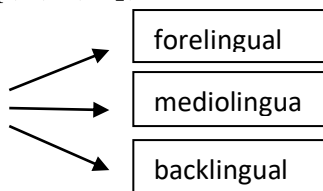
may be:

a) labial



Bilabials are: [p,b,w,m], labio-dentals are: [f,v]

b) lingual

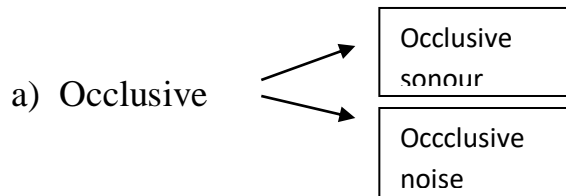


Forelinguals are: [t,d,n,θ,ð,l,s,z,ʒ,S,ʃ,dʒ,r], mediolingual is [j],
backlinguals are [k,g,ŋ]

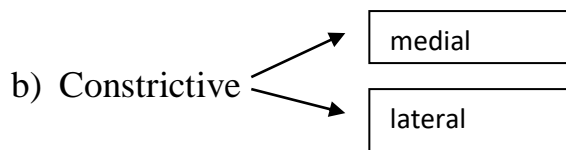
c) pharyngal –[h]

2. According to the place of obstruction they may be: bilabial, labio-dental, dental, alveolar, post-alveolar, palato-alveolar, palatal, velar, glottal.

3. According to the type of obstruction they may be:



Occlusive sonours are; [m,n,ŋ], occlusive noise consonants are [p,b,t,d,,k,g]



Medials are; [w,r,j], lateral is [l]

c) Occlusive-constrictive: [tʃ,dʒ]

d) Rolled –[r]

4. According to the work of vocal cords they may be:

a) Voiced [b,d,g,z,v,ð,ʒ]

b) Voiceless [p,t,k,s,θ,S]

5. According to the position of soft palate they may be;

a) Oral [p,t,s,z,k,g,.....]

b) Nasal [m,n,ŋ]

2.2 Vowels and their classification

Vowel is a speech sound in the articulation of which the air passes through the mouth cavity freely. There is not any obstruction to the stream of air. There are 20 vowel sounds in English: 12 monophthongs and 8 diphthongs.

English vowels are classified according to the following principles:

1) According to the stability of articulation they are divided into monophthongs and diphthongs

[i:],[i],[e],[a:],[o],[u],[æ],[ʌ],[ɔ:],[u:],[ɜ:],[ə]- monophthongs

[eɪ],[aɪ],[aʊ],[aɪ],[ɔɪ],[ɪə],[eə],[uə]- diphthongs

2) According to the horizontal position of tongue they are divided into

Front [i:,e,æ]

Front-retracted [ɪ]

Back [a:,o,o:,u:]

Back-advanced [ʌ,u]

3) According to the vertical position of the tongue they may be:

Close [i:,u:]

Half-close [ɪ,u]

Open [æ,a:,o,o:]

Half-open [ʌ,e,ɜ:, ə]

4) According to the position of lips;

Rounded [o:,o,u:,u]

Unrounded [i:,ɪ,e,a:,ə,æ,ʌ,ɜ:]

5) According to the length they may be:

Long [i:,a:,u:,o:,ɜ:]

Short [ɪ,o,u,e,ə ʌ æ]

6) According to the degree of stability:

Tense vowels [i:,u:,o:,a:,ɜ:]

Lax vowels [ɪ, u, o, ə,æ, ʌ]

Vowels

'short' [ɪ | ʊ | ʌ | ɒ | ə | e | æ]

'long' [i: | u: | a: | ɔ: | ɜ:]

diphthongs [ɪə | ʊə | aɪ | ɔɪ | əʊ | eə | aʊ | eɪ]

Consonants

unvoiced [p | t | tʃ | k | f | θ | s | ʃ]

voiced [b | d | dʒ | g | v | ð | z | ʒ]

[m | n | ŋ | h | l | r | w | j]

§3 Topic III. The syllable

When we pronounce a word containing more than one vowel it easily falls into smaller phonetic parts. So every word that we pronounce are broken up into smaller units. Such smaller unit is called syllable. A syllable is mainly a phonetic unit. All vowel sounds are syllabic.

3.1 The Tonic Syllable

When we pronounce a word containing more than one vowel it easily falls into smaller phonetic parts. So, every word that we pronounce are broken up into smaller units. Such smaller unit is called syllable. A syllable is mainly a phonetic a phonetic unit. A syllable consisting of more than one sound contains one which sounds louder and stronger than others. This louder sound is called syllabic sound. All vowel sounds are syllabic. But, there are some consonanrs thar form syllable. They are [l,m,n], for ex: garden [ga – dn]

There are 2 types of syllable: open syllable and close syllable. A syllable which ends in a vowel sound is called an open syllable: reader [ri: - də]. A syllable which ends in a consonant sound is called a closed syllable: helpful [help – ful]

English syllables may be srtong and weak according to their relation to stress. Stressed syllables are called srong, unstressed syllables are called weak syllables.

It is quite safe to say that unless some intonation is produced one doesn't know whether an utterance is complete or not. Where exactly this utterance ends, giving thus the limits of the sentence, cannot be decided easily. The most common form of intonation is the fall in pitch which occurs on the last stressed syllable, i.e. the stressed syllable of the last lexical word, which we will call **tonic syllable**. Usually we can decide where the utterance stops after the tonic syllable.

There are other intonation marks. A sudden rise in pitch can also indicate that the utterance is complete. This rise in pitch is used to indicate that the sentence uttered is a question when there is no interrogative word or auxiliary-subject inversion to convey this meaning.

There are also double changes in pitch direction (rise-fall or fall-rise). However, they do not seem to have the same function as rise or fall only. Fall-rise, for example, tells us more about internal boundaries within the sentence than actual utterance boundaries.

3.2 Syllable division

1. Syllable division is between 2 consonants if they follow one another in a word.

[maun-tin]

2. Syllable division is between 2 vowels if they follow one another in a word.

[pou-it]

3. Syllable division is before a consonant if the preceding vowel is long vowel or a diphthong.

[ti:-tʃə]

4. Syllable division is after a consonant if the preceding and following vowels are short.

[let-ə]

5. When 2 similar consonants follow one another in a word the syllable division is between them.

[buk-keis]

6. If a syllabic sonorant is preceded by long monophthong or diphthong the syllable division is before the consonant.

[tei-bl]

7. If a syllabic sonorant is preceded by a short vowel the syllable division is after the consonant and the second syllable is formed by the sonorant itself.

[sæd-l]

§4 Topic IV. Word Stress

When we pronounce a word consisting of 2 or more syllables we may clearly hear that not all the syllables are pronounced with the same degree of energy. Stress is the degree of force with which a sound or syllable may be pronounced.

If a stressed syllable is pronounced with a greater degree of energy, such kind of stress is said to be dynamic.

If a stressed syllable is pronounced a tone higher than that of other syllable that is tonic stress.

If a stressed syllable becomes longer than the rest, that is quantitative stress.

If a stressed syllable is clear and tense than the others, that is qualitative stress.

Word stress: English words consisting of 4 or more syllables have 2 stress. One of them is strong and called primary stress and the weaker one is called secondary stress. The primary stress generally falls on the second syllable from the end of the word, and the secondary from the beginning.

1. English words with strong prefixes have 2 strong stress. Ex: $\tilde{u}\tilde{n}$ known, $\tilde{r}\tilde{e}$ write.
2. Compound nouns in which the first element is more important have stress on this element. Ex: \tilde{b} edroom, \tilde{r} ailway.
3. Compound adjective has 2 strong stress. Ex: \tilde{d} ark- \tilde{e} yed.
4. Verbs with prepositions have 2 stress: \tilde{p} ut- \tilde{o} n
5. Numerals from 13 to 19 have 2 strong stress: \tilde{f} our- \tilde{t} een

6. If the second syllable is stronger than the first stress falls to the second syllable.
7. If the second syllable is weak then the first syllable is stressed.
8. The final syllable is also unstressed if it contains [əu] Ex: [ˈfɒləu]

Stress in compound words

Compound words are written in different ways. Compound words which combines 2 nouns have the stress on the first element: [ˈtʌɪprɑːltə]. Compounds with an adjectival first element, stress falls to the second element: bad-ˈtempered. Compound words in which the first element is a numeral, stress falls to the second element: second-ˈclass.

Stressed and unstressed elements of English speech.

To know the distribution of stress in English speech is very important for the learners of the English language. In connected speech the word stress and the sentence stress are closely related to each other. As a rule, one of the word stresses assume the function of the sentence stress.

However, the distribution of stress in a sentence is often conditioned by semantic and syntactic factors.

The stressed elements in English sentences are usually the significant words. The significant words are such words which carry some semantic information. They are: nouns, adjectives, adverbs, principal verbs, numerals, demonstrative and interrogative pronouns.

The noun significant words in an English sentence are the following: personal, possessive, objective, relative and indefinite pronouns, auxiliary and modal verbs, prepositions, conjunctions, articles and particles. They are the syntactic means of connecting the significant words in a sentence. Alternation of stressed and unstressed elements provides a basis for the rhythmical structure of

the sentence in English. In pronouncing a sentence we observe that the unstressed elements are attached to the stressed ones in the form of the so-called proclitics (initial unstressed syllables) and enclitics (final unstressed syllables). Such small groupings of stressed and unstressed elements form rhythmical groups. The following sentence can be taken as an example, which contains five rhythmic groups:

We went for a walk in the forest in spite of the rain.

The vowels in non-significant words are usually reduced to their weakest forms in connected speech, up to the neutral vowel. However, there are some exceptions when non-significant words have their full forms of pronunciation both in stressed and unstressed positions. This can be observed in the following cases:

1. The positions “at, to, from, for” are said in their full forms at the end of the sense-group:

What are you looking at?

2. Some prepositions and conjunctions become stressed:

a) at the beginning of a sentence:

When he comes, I'll tell him everything.

b) at the end of the sentence before an objective pronoun:

They all were running after him.

4.1 Exception to general rule №1

1. When a sentence contains a word which has been used before that word is not stressed.

How many times have you been in London?

- *Two times.* ↘

2. Demonstrative pronouns are stressed when they are used in the function of subject, object and predicative, but it is unstressed in the position of attribute.

3. The pronoun “one” is not stressed.

One book is mine. – Which one?

4. The word “street” in the name of street is not stressed: *Nizami street, Oxford street*

5. The reflexive pronouns “himself, myself and so on” are not stressed when they are used as an object.

They found themselves in different positions.

The same pronouns are stressed if they are used to emphasize the action of the verb.

I myself bought it.

6. Absolute forms of possessive pronouns are stressed in the sentence.

That book is mine, but this one is yours.

Note: The pronoun “one” may be stressed in the function of the subject.

One can do it.

Combinations “one another, no one” are not stressed.

4.2. Exception to general rule №2

1. Auxiliary verbs and modal verbs are stressed in the following cases.

a. In general questions

b. With short negatives “n’t”

c. When the principal verb is omitted

d. The verb “to have” is usually unstressed. But in combinations “to have a lesson, text etc. it is stressed.

2. Prepositions consisting 2 or more syllable, such as “after”, before”, “between” are stressed when they stand at the end of the sentence before unstressed personal pronouns.

The dog ran after him.

3. Prepositions and conjunctions standing at the beginning of the sentence are usually unstressed. But, they are stressed in the same position if they are followed by unstressed personal pronoun.

On my way home I met him.

But if it follows with stressed word it becomes unstressed.

As Tom was ill he decided to go home.

Control Questions and Tests:

1. What is a vowel? Which are they?
2. What is a consonant? Which are they?
3. What is a word stress?
4. Multiple choices

Choose the word where [k] is not pronounced.

- a. Actor
- b. Kiss
- c. Kettle
- d. Knife
- e. King

5. Read and learn the tongue-twister by heart.

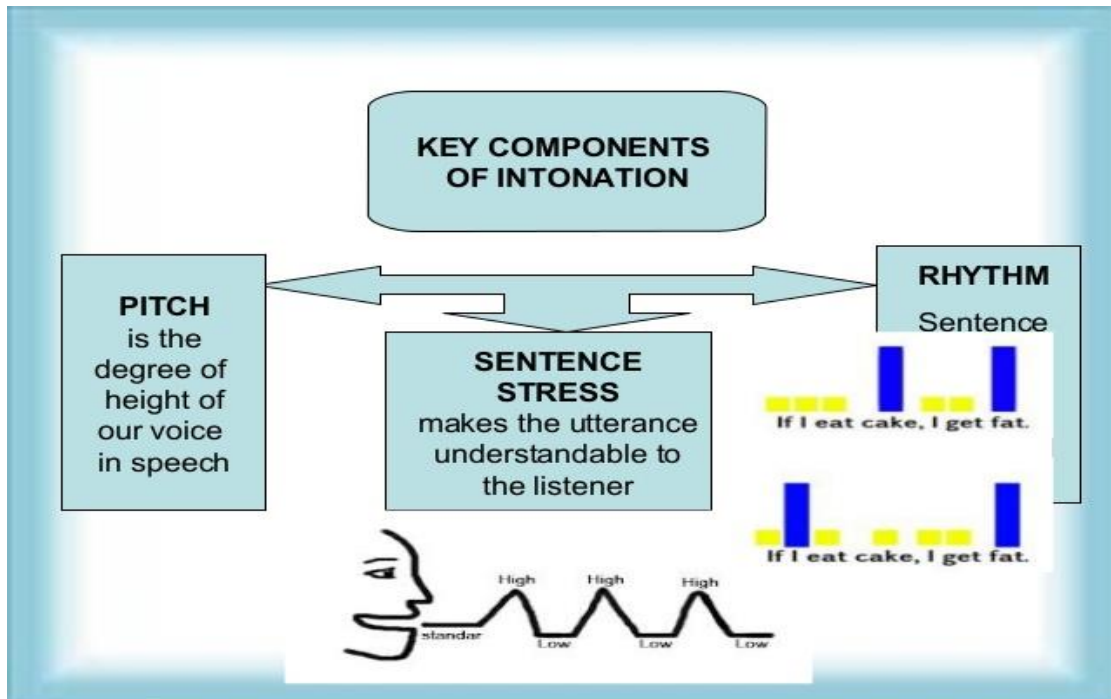
Peter Piper picked a peck of pickled peppers.

A peck of pickled peppers Peter Piper picked.

If Peter Piper picked a peck of pickled peppers.

Where is the peck of pickled peppers Peter Piper picked.

§ 5 Topic V. Intonation



Intonation is a complex unity of variations in pitch, stress, tempo and timbre. The pitch component of intonation, or melody, is the changes in the pitch of the voice in connected speech. Sentence stress is the greater prominence of one or more words among other words in the same sentence.

Tempo is the relative speech with which sentences and intonation groups are pronounced in connected speech.

Speech timbre is a special coloring of voice which shows the speakers, emotions: pleasure, displeasure, sorrow, joy etc.

Intonation serves to form sentences and intonation groups, to define their communicative types, to express the speaker's thoughts, to convey the attitudinal meaning.

Tone – unit and the structure of tone

unit:

- **Tone:** Tone is the overall behaviour of pitch.
- **Pitch:** Pitch is frequency of vibration of vocal cords.
- **Tone unit:** For the purpose of analyzing intonation, a unit greater than syllable one syllable. Usually tone – unit is always composed of more than one syllable.

Long sentences, simple extended, compound and complex, are subdivided into sense groups (intonation groups).

Intonation group division depends on the meaning of the sentence and grammatical structure.

Syntactic functions of intonation cannot be separated from its semantic functions. It is useful to make a special study of them in order to understand the important syntactic role of intonation. We have already seen that a one syntagm sentence is organized to a definite grammatical type by intonation (syntagm, stress, pitch, speech pattern). Some linguists are of the opinion that coordinating and subordinating relations are expressed by this means. They consider that subordinate clause requires arise, even if it follows the principal clause.

5.1 Structural Division of English Intonation

Intonation structure of every sense group may consist of the following element: the pre –head, the head, the nucleus, the tail. E.g.

She is a very good actress.

Unstressed syllables before the first stressed syllable are called the pre – head. There are two types of pre –head; *the low pre –head*, and *the high pre – head*. All the syllables beginning with the first stress syllable ending with syllable preceding the nucleus are called “*the head*”. There are different types of head; the low head, the high head, the stepping head etc. the stressed syllable or the last important word is called “*the nucleus*”. All the syllables following the nucleus are called “*the tail*”. There are two types of tails: “*a low tail*” which comes after the falling tones; and “*the rising tail*” which occurs after the rising tone.

The rises and falls that take place in the nucleus are called “*nuclear tones*”. There are six main tones in English: 1. Low Fall, 2. Low Rise, 3. High Fall, 4. High Rise, 5. Fall –Rise, 6. Rise –Fall. The nucleus is the most important part of the intonation structure. It defines the communicative types of sentence and determines the semantic value of the intonation group. The falling tone shows that the intonation group is completely and important by itself. The rising tone shows that the intonation group is not complete and it implies continuation.

5.2 The functions of intonation

The communicative Functions of Intonation

Intonation determines whether the given utterance in the given situation is a statement, a question of any kind, a request, an order or an exclamatory sentence. It determines the grammatical types of sentences which may be:

1. Imperative (orders, requests, warning etc)
2. Declarative (statement, of all kinds)
3. Interrogative (questions: general, special, disjunctive, alternative, repeated questions etc)
4. Exclamatory (exclamations and ejaculations of all kinds).

The Syntactical Function of Intonation

Intonation determines whether the utterance is simple, a complex or a compound sentence. It also determines parts of the sentence and parts of the speech. It indicates if there are homogenous members in the sentence, parenthetical words or phrases, distinguishes direct speech from authors words, and so on.

The constitutive function of intonation

Intonation serves to form sentences, intonation groups and texts.

The accentual function of intonation

Speech melody and sentence stress are the most important components of intonation. When it is said that the intonation has accentual function the distribution and placement of tonic stress in the utterance is implied. So, intonation gives precision to the information indicating more or less important elements within the utterance through contrasts in the degree of prominence rendered to its different parts. This is called the accentual function.

The attitudinal or modal function

One and the same sentence with grammatical structure and lexical composition may express different meaning when pronounced with different intonation.

5.3. Intonation of simple and complex sentences

Melody of Simple Sentences.

A simple declarative sentence states a fact in the affirmative or negative form. Such sentences are generally pronounced with a falling conclusion. They may consist of one, as well as of several sense-groups. The number of the sense-groups in a sentence depends on its syntactical meaning, grammatical structure and style of utterance. In fluent speech the number of sense-groups is reduced and in slow careful speech this number increases:

1. Simple sentences in affirmative or negative forms, forming one sense-group, have the falling conclusion.

For ex.: *I do not know English well.*

I am twenty years old.

2. Simple sentences containing some attributive subject groups, adverbial modifiers of time and place, some syntactical phrases and constructions are said in the following ways:

a) a long subject group having several attributes is usually pronounced with the rising intonation, but the conclusion is falling.

For ex:

A well built handsome young fellow in a brown suit came to open the door.

b) An adverbial modifier of time or place, standing at the beginning of the sentence, is said with the rising intonation, but the conclusion is falling.

For ex.:

On Monday morning I saw him going towards the river.

By this time he was doing his morning exercises

In the corner of the room there was a sofa.

c) Participle and gerundial constructions, standing at the beginning or in the middle of the sentence, are usually said with the rising intonation:

Having finished his work, he went to the library.

Mothers, slowly fanning their faces watched their children.

Note: The part of the main sentence, preceding the participle construction, is also said with the rising intonation.

For ex.:

The fair-haired young girl speaking in a trembling voice was the chairman of a collective-farm.

3. Simple sentences, having several homogeneous members, are said in the following way: each member which is non-final is pronounced with the rising tone, and the final member is pronounced with a falling tone. Sometimes the member, preceding the final one, is said with a level tone and is immediately followed by the final fall.

For ex.:

There were knives, forks, plates and cups on the table.

Or: *There were knives, forks, plates and cups on the table.*

Note: In some cases the enumerated parts may be pronounced with the falling tone. This is usually observed in sentences expressing a special prominence.

For ex:

He could imitate other people's speech their accent, their mannerisms, their tones.

4. In sentences containing loose or detached appositions we can have several equally important sense-groups. The opposition may stand either in the middle or at the end of the simple sentence, having its own stress and melody. The opposition standing in the middle is said with the rising, but at the end – with the falling intonation.

For ex.: *Dr. Winchcliffe, my processor, was a classmate of my father.*

We arrived in Moscow, the capital of the Soviet Union

This is Mr. Arnold, the dentist.

Melody of Complex sentences.

A complex sentence consists of a principal clause and one or more subordinate clauses. A subordinate clause may follow, precede or interrupt the principal clause.

1) As a rule, the first part of a complex declarative sentence (no matter whether it is a principal or a subordinate clause) is pronounced with the rising intonation and the second part – with the falling intonation.

For ex.:

What I want to do is to go there immediately.

What was done could not be undone.

It was their neighbor who was knocking at the door.

2) In some cases the principal clause, preceding the subordinate, is pronounced with the falling intonation. Such sense-groups are of great semantic importance and they are perceived as independent ideas, and they are often termed afterthoughts.

For ex.:

I should like read it, when you've finished with it.

We have many windy days, as we live on the Caspian shore.

Note: Sometimes a subordinate clause, preceding the principal clause, is also pronounced with the falling intonation. This may be observed in complex sentences, expressing categorical statements.

For ex.: *If you don't hurry up, you'll be late.*

When he comes, I'll tell him.

3) An attributive relative clause giving some additional information and standing in the middle of the principal clause is usually said with a rising intonation. Such clauses make separate sense-group in the sentence.

For ex.:

Mr. Prusty, who kept no assistant, slowly got off his stool.

In this room, which was never used, a light was always burning.

Melody of Compound sentences.

A compound sentence is a sentence which consists of two or more clauses coordinated with each other. As a rule, each clause of a compound sentence, to a certain degree, states an independent idea or a complete thought, and is said with the falling intonation.

For ex.:

It was raining softly, the houses were quiet.

In cases when the idea of the first clause is closely connected with the second one, the former is said with the rising intonation. The second clause in such sentences usually completes the whole meaning of the sentence. For ex.:

The referee blew his whistle, and the fight started.

The bell rang and he went to open the door.

Intonation of interrogative sentences.

An interrogative sentence asks a question. It is mostly formed by means of inversion (the change in the order of words in the sentence) and intonation.

There are four kinds of interrogative sentences. They are: 1. The General Question; 2. The Special Question; 3. The Alternative Question; 4. The Disjunctive Question.

Intonation of General questions.

A general question which requires the answers YES or NO is said with the rising intonation. It is formed by placing part of the predicate (the auxiliary or modal verb, standing after the subject) before the subject of the sentence. This auxiliary or modal verb, standing at the beginning of a general question, receives stress and is said on the highest pitch of the voice. If the last word of a general question is the final stressed syllable of the sentence, it is pronounced with a rise of tone which begins at a low pitch of voice (low–rise).

For ex.:

Has your key been found?

If the last stressed syllable is followed by some unstressed ones, the stressed syllable is pronounced on the lowest level of the pitch and the rise takes place in the unstressed syllables (low–rising tail).

For ex.:

Can I help you, madam?

May I smoke here, sir?

- 2 Are you³ writing?
- 2 Is it³ good?
- 2 Did you³ cook?
- 2 Have you³ seen her?
- 2 Wold you³ like dessert?
- 2 Did he work³ yesterday?

Intonation of short answer to general questions

Short answer YES or NO any kind of verb corresponding to the tense form of the question are usually said with the falling tone. In this case they usually mean simple agreement, promise or negation of the fact.

For ex.:

Can you do it well? Yes, I can.

Has he already come? Yes, he has.

But if the answer is contradictory to the expected one, it is said with the fall –rise may be compressed in the last stressed syllable or it is spread over two syllables. For ex.:

Do you like it so much? Yes, I do.

Note: The fall –rise is also used in full answer to general questions, if they express some contradiction. For ex.:

Yes, I do like it very much!

Intonation of special questions.

A special question begins with an interrogative pronoun and is said with the falling intonation. The order of words in special questions is the same as in general question, but the interrogative pronoun precedes the auxiliary verb and carries stress.

For ex.:

Who is in the room?

What did you tell him about it?

Note: Special questions are repeated when the answer hasn't been caught by the listener or it has surprised him greatly. In this case the interrogative word is pronounced with a high–fall and it is the only stressed word in the sentence. All the other words are pronounced with a rising pitch that begins immediately after the fall. Thus an emphatic fall–rise is formed.

For ex.:

Why didn't I do that

Intonation of alternative questions.

Alternative question usually consist of two parts and said in two sense–groups. In such sentences two general questions are coordinated by the conjunction OR and the second part is usually shortened. An alternative question expresses a choice of two alternatives. The first part of an alternative question is pronounced with the rising and the second part – with the falling intonation.

For ex.:

Will you go to the cinema or to the library?

Did you live in town or in the country?

Intonation of disjunctive questions.

Disjunctive questions require the answer YES or NO and consist of two part. Each part of a disjunctive question makes a separate sense–group. If the first part is an affirmative statement, it is followed by a negative question; if the first part is a negative statement, it is followed by an affirmative question. The first part of a disjunctive question is said with the falling intonation and the second part– with the rising intonation.

For ex.:

They will join later, won't they?

He didn't go there yesterday, did he?

Note: Very often both parts of the disjunctive questions are said with the falling tone. In this case the listener perceives that the speaker doesn't doubt the correctness of his idea. In other words, the speaker does not expect an answer to that formal question.

For ex.:

You will bring it back soon, won't you?

Intonation of complex interrogative sentences.

Intonation of complex general questions.

Like a simple general questions, a complex general question also begins with an inversion. The auxiliary or modal verb, which stands at the beginning of the sentence, is the first stressed syllable in it... The complex general questions have

the same melodic conclusion as the simple ones. But there is some difference in their melodic–rhythmical structure.

Complex general questions are usually divided into two sense–groups, the first of which is said with the low level conclusion and the second –with the rising conclusion. The pause which is used at the junction of the two sense–groups is very short and is more felt than heard.

The main difference between the principal and subordinate clauses is in their tempo of utterance and the range of the voice. The principal clause is said with a normal tempo and with a wide range, while the subordinate clause is pronounced in a very quick manner and with a narrow range and also on a higher general note.

For ex.: *Did you think I was chaffing her?*

Will you wait if I change my clothes?

In cases of emphasizing the principal verb or the predicative of the principal clause, we use an emphatic fall–rise in it. It is characteristic of sentences of cross–examining type.

For ex.:

Are you quite sure that it was on Wednesday?

But in rapid colloquial conversational speech complex general questions are often said in one sense–group and have the same melodic structure as the simple general questions.

For ex.:

Do you know it is nearly seven?

Note: It is quite a frequent case when we across complex general questions consisting of more than two sense –groups. Such sentences are mostly used in

fiction literature and official papers. For ex: *Do you think that what I have seen of you and this little creature to night must have an interest not wholly free from pain?*

Intonation of complex special questions.

Complex special questions, like the simple ones, are said with the falling conclusion. In Modern English there is a tendency to pronounce the last stressed syllable of the first sense –group with a level tone, using a short pause after it. But this pause happens to be a little longer than that used in complex general questions.

For ex.: *Who could want to burn the bones of a man, who has been dead a thousand years?*

In the above sentences both clauses are said in full range of the voice, as they are contradictory in meaning. But in colloquial conversational speech we use lots of complex special questions which are said in one sense–group as the simple ones.

For ex.:

Who are the people you are waiting for?

Intonation of imperative sentences.

An imperative sentence serves to induce a person to do something and it expresses a command, a warning, a request, an invitation etc.

1. A command or an order, forming one sense–group, is usually pronounced with the falling intonation.

For ex.:

Stop that noise! Open the door! Don't interrupt me

2. Imperative sentences, expressing warning, are said with the falling intonation.

For ex.:

Be careful! Look out! Mind you don't fall!

3. Imperative sentences, expressing request or invitation, are said with the rising intonation.

For ex.:

Never mind! Do come on! Please, hurry up!

Intonation of complex imperative sentences.

A complex imperative sentence containing more than one sense-group is pronounced in different ways. By such sentences the speaker can express an insistence or a non-obligatory command:

a) Insistence: such sentences contain an adverbial clause of purpose or cause.

For ex.:

Consult the reference-book, so as to be sure of it.

b) Non-obligatory command: it is usually expressed by sentences in the imperative mood, having a question tag “will you”, “won't you” etc. Such sentences are used as a kind of softened command to remind the person addressed, about the speakers wish.

For ex.:

Prepare your home-work now, will you?

Intonation of exclamatory sentences.

An exclamatory sentence expresses some kind of emotion or feeling. It often begins with the word “what” and “how”. The other part of the exclamatory

sentence is always in the declarative form, that is to say, no inversion takes place. Exclamatory sentences are usually pronounced with falling intonation (In details see “intonation of Emphatic Speech”).

For ex.:

How wonderfully she sings! What an interesting report

Note: Exclamatory sentences, like other types of sentences, may also consist of more than one sense-group.

Control Questions and Tests:

- 1) Which are the key components of intonation?
- 2) How do we pronounce general questions?
- 3) How do we pronounce special question?
- 4) What is the structure division of intonation?
- 5) Multiple choices

Find the correct pronunciation. Do you usually have breakfast at 7?

- a) Falling tone
- b) Fall-rise
- c) Rising tone
- d) Rise-fall
- e) Mid level

6) Transcribe and intone the sentences. Pay attention on the intonation.

If you come with me, I will show you.

If you walk, it will take youn ten minutes.

When I rang up what wrer you doing?

How did you know she was here?

§ 6 Topic VI. Intonation of parts of speech

6.1 The melody of parenthesis

In colloquial speech very often we use some parenthetical words and phrases, inserting them in the main communicative part of the sentences. Such parentheses have no direct grammatical connections with the main sentence, thus producing no change in the meaning of it. It only adds some attitudinal information to the main idea. Because of that the parentheses have no independent melody. They usually follow the melody of the main sentence. The parentheses may stand at the beginning, in the middle and at the end of the main sentence. They may be long and short.

The melody of short parenthesis standing at the beginning of the sentence

Short parentheses like “I suppose, however, as far as I know, please, to my mind, as to me, to tell the truth, I presume, no doubt” etc., standing at the beginning of the sentence, are usually stressed and may be pronounced as separate sense groups with their own melody and stress. The melody of such parentheses may be falling or rising according to their meanings. Parentheses, standing at the beginning of the sentences, may also be treated as the first stressed element in the sentence, which has usually the highest pitch of voice.

For ex.:

I suppose, he is a teacher of history.

The melody of short parenthesis standing in the middle of the sentence

A short parenthesis standing in the middle of the sentences divides it into two parts. The first part of the main sentence may be pronounced either with falling or with rising melody according to the meaning or grammatical character

of it. The parenthesis in this case belongs to the main sentence and follows its melody. The second part of the main sentence has its own intonation.

For ex.:

You are right, I see, the shoes are pretty.

The melody of short parenthesis standing at the end of the sentence

A short parenthesis like “I think, I suppose, please, I confess” etc. , can be used at the end of the sentence or sense–group. It may also be an address. In this case the parentheses are unstressed or half–stressed and are treated as word or phrases enclitically pronounced together with the main sentence.

If the main sentence is said with the falling melody, the parenthesis is also said with the same melody. If the main sentence is said with the rising melody, the parenthesis continues this melody.

For ex.:

They have been sitting here, I think.

6.2 The melody of author’s words

Like parenthetical words and phrases, the so –called “author’s words” during direct speech are used in any position in a sentence: at the beginning, in the middle and at the end. But unlike parenthesis, which mostly express attitudinal relations with the main sentence, author’s words have certain explanatory function. Author’s words have no independent melody.

The melody of the author’s words at the beginning of the sentence

Author’s words like “He explained”, “The boy said”, “The teacher answered” etc. , introducing the direct speech, are ordinarily stressed and have the falling intonation. Such phrases are said in a lower general note than the direct speech following them.

For ex.:

The student answered: "certainly, I have.

The melody of author's words in the middle of the sentence

Like short parenthesis, the author's words, which interrupt the main sentence, rhythmically divide it into two sense-groups. In this case the author's words belong to the part of the main sentence preceding it. It follows the melody of the part of the sentence to which it belongs.

For ex.:

"As I have told you," he said, "I'm not quite sure of it"

The melody of author's words at the end of the sentence

Short author's words like "she said", "he murmured", "he replied" etc., standing at the end of the sentence, are pronounced either with a weak stress or with no stress at all. They are pronounced in one sense-group with the main part of the sentence and follow its melody.

For ex.:

"Come here!" he said angrily.

Note: Very often we use long author's words at the end of the sentence, which may consist of several sense-groups. Such author's words are used to give a detail explanation of the action or situation. Long author's words cannot be all pronounced without stress: so they are divided into two or more sense-groups. The first part of long author's words has no stress and is pronounced together with the main sentence and follows its melody but the rest of long author's words is weakly stressed and repeats the melody of the main sentence.

6.3. Intonation of Direct Address

During the speech, when somebody wants to attract the listener's attention he addresses to this person. In formal conversation direct address is pronounced with the falling tone. But in the middle and at the end of the sentence direct address is unstressed.

John, listen to me!

Good afternoon, miss White.

In the second sentence "miss White" is direct address and is in unstressed position.

6.4. Intonation of adverbials

Adverbial phrases of the sentence at the beginning of the sentence are stressed and form intonation group. They are usually pronounced with the low-rising or mid-level tone.

In January, we have our exams.

Adverbial phrase in final position is unstressed but as an additional comment it is pronounced as a separate intonation group.

He is coming to Baku, tomorrow.

In final position adverbial phrase is usually unstressed.

You can see a lamp on the right.

6.5. Intonation of enumeration

If a sentence contains enumeration each of them forms a separate intonation group and usually is pronounced with the low-rising tone, except the last one.

We have a small garden in which we grow flowers, roses, tulips and so on.

If the speaker wishes the enumeration to be regarded as a separate item of interest, each of them is pronounced with the low-falling tone.

She has a lot of dresses, shoes, and hats.

6.6. Intonation of apposition

If a sentence contains an apposition in this case the sentence is divided into 2 groups. The apposition of a sentence is stressed and forms a separate intonation group. It is pronounced with the same nuclear tone that precedes the apposition.

This is my sister, miss Smith.

Control Questions and Tests:

1. How do we pronounce author's words at the beginning of the sentence?
2. How do we pronounce parenthesis at the end of the sentence?
3. What is tonic syllable?
4. Multiple choices.

Find the correct pronunciation. He said: "I am a student."

- a) Falling tone, falling tone
- b) Rising and falling tone
- c) Rising tone
- d) Mid level tone
- e) Fall-rising tone

5. Transcribe and intone. Pay attention on the intonation.

In the hall we see a stand for hats, coats, and umbrellas.

"Open your ,mouth!" he cried bending over her head.

Mind, don't miss the train,sir.

§ 7 Topic VII . Emphasis

Two important categories of modifications are:

1) **assimilation**

Assimilation is one of the aspects of connected speech. In connected speech the articulatory work of 2 neighboring consonants influence each other and as result of this one of them becomes similar to the other one. This phenomenon is termed assimilation. It takes place within one word or at word boundaries. Assimilation is a word of latin origin, means to become similar or alike. The consonant which becomes similar or identical is called the assimilated sound. The consonant which influences is called the assimilating sound.

According to its direction assimilation may be progressive, regressive and reciprocal.

In case of progressive assimilation the preceding consonant influences the following one. In case of regressive assimilation the following consonant influences the preceding one. In case of reciprocal assimilation 2 neighbouring consonant influence each other mutually.

According to its degree assimilation may be: complete, incomplete and intermediate.

Assimilation is complete when the assimilated sound fully coincides in its articulation with the assimilating one. Ex; kindness, use to, handsome

Assimilation is incomplete when the assimilated sound becomes partially similar to the assimilating one. Ex; sudden, written. The consonants [t,d] become nasal before [n]

Assimilation is intermediate when the assimilated sound is changed into another one as in *newspaper*[z], *gooseberry*[z]

According to degree of stability assimilation may be stable or finished and unstable or unfinished.

Finished assimilation takes place in the unstressed syllable of words in such endings as – tion, -ture,-sion,-sure. Such as picture, question, session and so on.

In such words as actual, issue, education the process of assimilation is still going on. This is called unfinished. Finished assimilation takes place in compound words, as in newspaper, goosberry, and becomes stable.

2) **elision**- which is the results of the disappearance of a sound.

Emphasis is the total sum of the most expressive means of prominence. It is used to emphasize words, classes of words and sentences. In living speech emphasis has an important logical and emotional function. The meaning of one or several words in a sentence or the meaning of the whole sentence may be emphasized by making the stress stronger than in ordinary normal speech. Any sentence may be made emphatic by the modification of all the intonation components.

During emphasizing a sentence or a syntagm the scale may be widened or narrowed and the pitch level of the sense –group may be higher or lower.

Widening is achieved by rising the pitch level of all stressed syllables and by using an extra –strong stress on each of them in a sense –group.

Narrowing is achieved by lowering the pitch level and using an extra –strong stress on each stressed syllable of the sentence.

Thus Both widened and narrowed scales are used to express different shades of emotion. But the main difference between them is in the size of intervals between stressed syllables of the sense –group. In narrow scale the intervals between stressed syllables are greater than in widened one (the temporal intervals).

We use the following main types of tones in emphatic speech:

1. The emphatic falling tone (the high fall)
2. The emphatic rising tone (the low sudden rise)
3. The falling rising tone (the fall – rise)

4. The rising falling tone (the rise –fall)

5. The rising falling rising tone (the rise –fall –rise)

The emphatic stress may fall on any word in a sentence. It may be used even on those words which are usually unstressed in ordinary situation. Thus by emphatic stress the auxiliary words and morphemes may become semantically important.

For ex.:

He has broken your pen.

In the first case the personal pronoun “he” is unstressed, as usual, and is pronounced in its weak and reduced form. But in the second case “he” becomes semantically important and is said with an extra –strong stress and with a great prominence. It is also necessary to mention that words that are usually stressed may lose their stresses in emphatic speech when some other words become more important in the sense –group. The weak forms of “broken” and “pen” in the second example are the result of concentration of the whole articulatory energy on the pronoun “he”. In some special cases even the word stress may be shifted in emphatic speech.

In emphatic speech vowels and voiced consonants usually become longer and more tense than in unemphatic speech. There are two kinds of emphasis: intensity emphasis and contrast emphasis. In actual speech these two kinds are mutually dependent.

7.1. Phoneme alternation

In the process of development of the language the change in the forms of words and derivation of new words from morphemes may result that some phonemes may be replaced by others or even may disappear in certain forms of

conclusion that the change of sounds in morphemes is not accidental. This phenomenon is known as phoneme alternation. A phoneme may alternate with:

- e. Another phoneme
- f. Group of phonemes
- g. Absence of sound (zero phoneme)

There are two types of phoneme alternation: phonetic and phonological alternation.

Phonetic phoneme alternation: A very large group of phonetic alternation is represented by the so-called strong and weak forms of form-words and some other speech elements. The alternation of vowels and consonants are caused there by these words being in stressed or unstressed position. In unstressed position vowels undergo partial or complete reduction and strong vowels may alternate with reduced ones and with zero. Ex: in articles we meet the following alternation series: the [ði:], [ðI], [ðə]. Conjunction *and* may have the following alternation: [ænd], [ənd], [nd], [ən].

Phonological phoneme alternation; Phonological alternations were originally the result of phonetic laws at an earlier period of development of language. Alternations of consonants were mostly caused by the laws of assimilation. With the help of alternation new grammatical categories are formed. Ex; spend-spent-spent.

1) We find vowel alternations

[ai-ou-I]- rise-rose-risen

[ai-ou-I] – write-wrote-written

[I-æ-ʌ]- ring-rang-rung

Consonant alternations may be used to distinguish forms of verbs:

[d-t]- send-sent-sent

Spend-spent-spent

2) Alternation may distinguish parts of speech. For example, verbs from nouns.

To use [z] – use [s]

To advise [z] - advice [s]

3) Alternation may distinguish singular from plural.

Man [æ] – men [e]

Foot [u:] – feet [i:]

4) Alternation may distinguish degrees of comparison of adjectives.

Old [ou] – elder [e] –eldest [e]

Control Questions and Tests:

1. What is assimilation?
2. Which kinds of assimilation do you know?
3. What is elision?
4. What is emphatic stress?
5. Multiple choices.

Find the line with assimilation process.

- a) In the, tree, with them.
- b) Out, at the, window
- c) Out off, set in, stream
- d) Both, with this, bathroom
- e) Thin, in the, worry

6. Practise the following sentences.

He was a comely handsome fellow.

The landscape doesn't change much in winter.

I saw his grandson yesterday.

All are present at the meeting.

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