MỤC LỤC

A. Những căn cứ viết bài giảng

+ Dựa vào Phân phối chương trình giáo dục của Trường Cao Đẳng Sư Phạm Kon Tum. Học phần này gồm 30 tiết được học vào học kỳ II của khóa học chuyên ngành đào tạo tiếng Anh.

+ Theo đề cương chi tiết học phần, học phần này gồm 2 đơn vị học trình, sẽ trang bị cho sinh viên (SV) những kiến thức cơ bản trong lĩnh vực Ngữ âm – Âm vị. Cụ thể là về bộ máy phát âm, các khái niệm thuộc về Ngữ Âm và Âm Vị, các ký hiệu của âm, các nguyên tắc của ngữ âm tiếng Anh, cách dùng trọng âm và ngữ điệu trong giao tiếp.

+ Về thực tiễn dạy học học phần: Học phần này được đưa vào giảng dạy cho sinh viên chuyên ngành Tiếng Anh tại Trường Cao Đẳng Sư Phạm Kon Tum. Song thực tế, chưa có giáo trình chính thống và thích hợp để sử dụng cho học phần này. Hơn nữa, để giúp cho SV nâng cao kỹ năng ngôn ngữ và ứng dụng kiến thức đã học vào công việc sau này thì trong từng đơn vị bài học phải có những hoạt động được thiết kế phù hợp với các nội dung cụ thể nhằm giúp cho SV nắm bắt được các nội dung được cung cấp dễ dàng hơn.

B. Nội dung

1. Mở đầu

1.1. Lý do viết bài giảng:

Học phần Ngữ âm – Âm vị sẽ cung cấp cho sinh viên (SV) kiến thức về Ngữ âm và âm vị. Trên cơ sở đó, các em phân biệt được sự khác biệt của hai lĩnh vực ngôn ngữ này, lĩnh hội được các khái niệm cơ bản của Ngữ âm và âm vị, bộ máy phát âm, các nguyên tắc phát âm. Thông qua học phần này các em cũng có cơ hội tiếp xúc với cách phát âm Tiếng Anh được sử dụng trong những ngữ cảnh cụ thể và những hoạt động được thiết kế trong mỗi bài học sẽ giúp cho sinh viên nâng cao các kỹ năng phát âm, giao tiếp và kỹ năng ngôn ngữ của mình. Vì vậy, các em sẽ tự tin khi giảng dạy tiếng Anh và sử dụng tiếng Anh như một phương tiện trong công việc sau này.

Tuy vậy, học phần này chưa có giáo trình chính thống và phù hợp với SV của nhà trường. Hơn nữa, SV cần được cập nhật kiến thức phù hợp với tiếng Anh theo khung chuẩn Châu Âu. Điều này đòi hỏi cần phải có sự biên soạn một bài giảng mới với những thông tin cập nhật và những hoạt động phù hợp với việc đổi mới phương pháp dạy học hiện nay. Trên cơ sở đó, SV sẽ nắm vững quy tắc phát âm, tự tin và giao tiếp có hiệu quả hơn. Chúng tôi tin rằng tập bài giảng này sẽ giúp ích cho cả giảng viên khi giảng dạy và sinh viên khi học học phần này.

1.2. Phương pháp viết bài giảng:

Trước tiên, chúng tôi sưu tầm các tài liệu có liên quan đến đề tài. Chúng tôi dùng phương pháp đọc, nghiên cứu tài liệu. Sau đó, tổng hợp những nội dung cần thiết để đưa

vào bài giảng. Trên cơ sở những nội dung đã có, chúng tôi thiết kế những hoạt động phù hợp để giúp sinh viên vận dụng được kiến thức vừa được cung cấp trong bài học và tạo cơ hội cho các em nâng cao kỹ năng ngôn ngữ của mình.

1.3. Cách sử dụng:

Bài giảng gồm 9 đơn vị bài học đề cập đến lĩnh vực ngữ âm và âm vị. Trong đó, *unit 1* là phần tổng quan lý thuyết về bộ máy phát âm của con người, sự tạo âm và cách hình thành các nguyên âm và phụ âm của tiếng Anh; *unit 2* nêu các định nghĩa và các thuật ngữ liên quan đến lĩnh vực ngữ âm và âm vị. Hai bài học này có nhiều thuật ngữ khoa học khá trừu tượng. Vì vậy, để giúp sinh viên nắm được bài học thì giảng viên có thể dùng phương pháp Translation trong khi dạy Unit 1 và 2. Sau phần lý thuyết đều có các bài tập vận dụng, giảng viên hướng dẫn các em làm những bài tập này sẽ giúp sinh viên khắc sâu phần lý thuyết vừa được tiếp thu hơn.

Từ *unit 3* đến *unit 9* tập trung về thực hành để giúp sinh viên nâng cao kỹ năng phát âm và giao tiếp. Các audio và video clip được đính kèm trong mỗi bài học sẽ tạo cơ hội cho sinh viên được tiếp xúc với giọng nói của người bản xứ vì vậy giảng viên cần cho sinh viên luyện tập theo các audio và video clip này.

Phần Self-study sau mỗi bài học sẽ giúp sinh viên củng cố và vận dụng kiến thức vừa được tiếp thu trên lớp. Giảng viên cần kiểm tra kết quả làm bài của sinh viên vào bài học tiếp theo. Nhìn chung, bài giảng này được sử dụng cho việc học trên lớp và cũng phát huy khả năng tự học của SV ở nhà.

1.4. Phạm vi sử dụng bài giảng:

Bài giảng này được lưu hành nội bộ ở Trường Cao Đẳng Sư Phạm Kon Tum.

1.5. Mục đích viết bài giảng:

Bài giảng này nhằm cung cấp những thông tin cập nhật, phù hợp với đối tượng sinh viên của trường. Những hoạt động được thiết kế trong mỗi đơn vị bài học giúp cho giờ học Ngữ âm – Âm vị bớt khô khan, dễ tiếp thu và sinh viên có nhiều cơ hội nâng cao khả năng giao tiếp. Đồng thời, bài giảng này cũng giúp cho giảng viên giảng dạy môn học có được tài liệu phù hợp với đối tượng sinh viên của trường.

2. Mục tiêu bài giảng

Giáo trình này được biên soạn với những mục tiêu sau:

- *Về kiến thức:*

+ Mô tả được bộ máy phát âm và cách hình thành các âm của tiếng Anh.

+ Phân biệt được sự khác biệt của ngữ âm và âm vị.

+ Liệt kê được những khái niệm cơ bản thuộc lĩnh vực ngữ âm và âm vị.

+ Nhận diện được âm và các kí hiệu của âm.

+ Trình bày được các nguyên tắc của ngữ âm tiếng Anh.

+ Sử dụng đúng trọng âm và ngữ điệu trong giao tiếp.

- *Về kỹ năng:*

+ Vận dụng được kiến thức ngữ âm – âm vị để phiên âm và phát âm chính xác.

+ Có khả năng nói tiếng Anh lưu loát và kỹ năng giao tiếp phù hợp.

- *Về thái độ:*

+ Có thái độ nghiêm túc và nhiệt tình khi học học phần.

+ Có ý thức tự rèn luyện để có năng lực phát âm tốt; tự giác hoàn thiện hệ thống ngữ âm chuẩn để sau này có thể giao tiếp tốt.

+ Có ý thức rèn luyện kỹ năng giao tiếp nhằm tránh những lỗi, những hiểu lầm trong giao tiếp.

3. Nội dung

Nội dung bài giảng bao gồm:

UNIT 1: THE PRODUCTION OF SPEECH SOUNDS

UNIT 2: PHONETICS VS. PHONOLOGY

UNIT 3: SINGLE VOWEL SYMBOLS

UNIT 4: DOUBLE VOWEL SYMBOLS

UNIT 5: CONSONANT SYMBOLS

UNIT 6: SYLLABLES: PLURAL AND OTHER –*S* ENDINGS

UNIT 7: SYLLABLES: ADDING PAST TENSE ENDINGS

UNIT 8: WORDS WITH SILENT LETTERS

UNIT 9: STRESS AND INTONATION

PREFACE

This material is used as a textbook in "Phonetics and Phonology" credit for English major students at Kon Tum Teachers' Training College. It includes nine units which cover the overview of production of English speech sounds; the distinguishing between phonetics and phonology; the description of English vowels and consonants; the pronunciation of plural endings, past tense endings, and other syllables; the identification of silent letters in words; the way to make stress and intonation. This textbook has two main goals. One is to introduce the students to the contents related to English phonetics and phonology. The second is to increase the students' knowledge of pronunciation and communication.

The textbook also comprises a set of exercises to help the students read with greater understanding, note some important characteristics of spoken English, and deal with some tasks for self-study. In addition, a number of audio and video clips which are attached to each lesson make the lessons more understandable and interesting.

It is necessary for the students to prepare the lessons at home and participate enthusiastically in pair-work, group-work activities in class. The students must be used to speaking in public so that they can improve their communicative skills. It is hoped that this material will be useful for English major students in studying "Phonetics and Phonology" Credit.

The textbook includes nine units:

UNIT 1: THE PRODUCTION OF SPEECH SOUNDS
UNIT 2: PHONETICS VS. PHONOLOGY
UNIT 3: SINGLE VOWEL SYMBOLS
UNIT 4: DOUBLE VOWEL SYMBOLS
UNIT 5: CONSONANT SYMBOLS
UNIT 6: SYLLABLES: PLURAL AND OTHER *–S* ENDINGS
UNIT 7: SYLLABLES: ADDING PAST TENSE ENDINGS
UNIT 8: WORDS WITH SILENT LETTERS
UNIT 9: STRESS AND INTONATION

UNIT 1: THE PRODUCTION OF SPEECH SOUNDS (4 periods)

1.1. Objectives:

By the end of the lesson, the students will be able:

- To describe the articulators above the larynx.
- To distinguish English vowels from consonants.
- To improve their pronunciation skill.
- To be self-confident in communication.

1.2. Contents:

1.2.1. Articulators above the larynx

We have a large and complex set of muscles that can produce changes in the shape of the **vocal tract**, and in order to learn how the sounds of speech are produced it is necessary to become familiar with the different parts of the vocal tract. These different parts are called **articulators**, and the study of them is called **articulatory phonetics**.

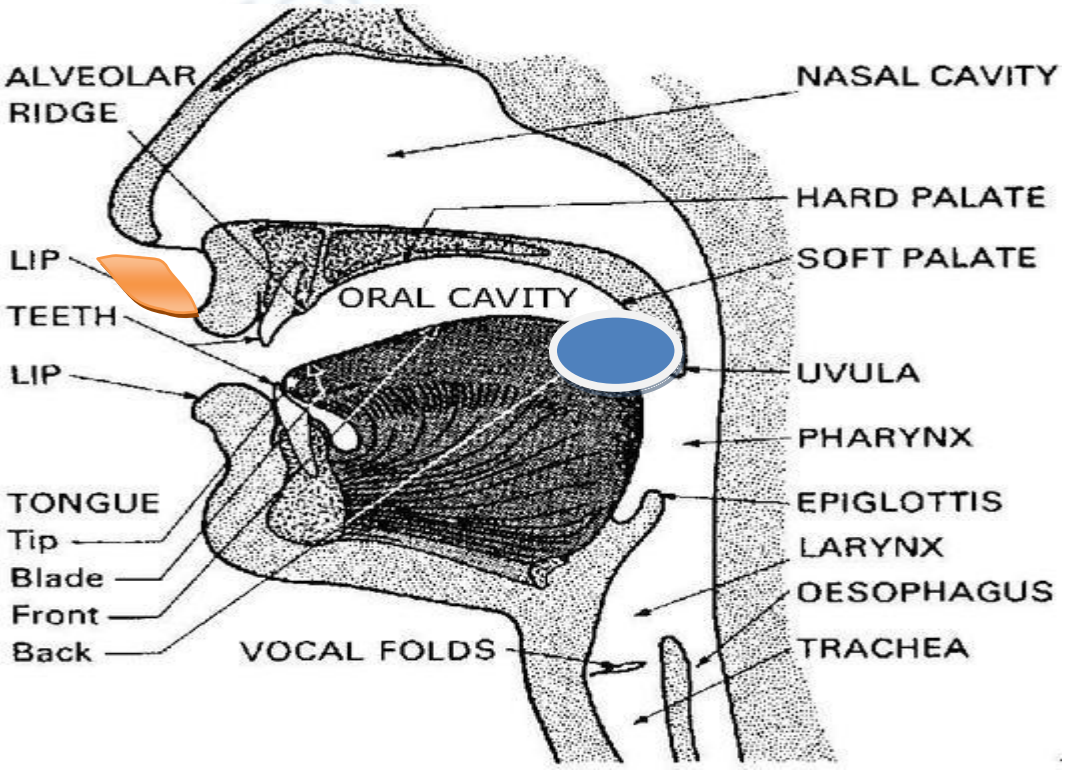


Figure 1.1 The articulators

Figure (Fig.) 1.1 represents the human head, seen from the side, displayed as though it had been cut in half. Look at the inside of your mouth; you can see the following parts:

1) The **pharynx** is a tube which begins just above the larynx. It is about 7 cm long in women and about 8 cm in men, and at its top end it is divided into two, one part being the back of the oral cavity and the other being the beginning of the way through the nasal

cavity. If you look in your mirror with your mouth open, you can see the back of the pharynx.

2) The **soft palate** or **velum** is seen in the diagram in a position that allows air to pass through the nose and through the mouth. Yours is probably in that position now, but often in speech it is raised so that air cannot escape through the nose. The other important thing about the soft palate is that it is one of the articulators that can be touched by the tongue. When we make the sounds *k, g* the tongue is in contact with the lower side of the soft palate, and we call these **velar** consonants.

3) The **hard palate** is often called the "roof of the mouth". You can feel its smooth curved surface with your tongue. A consonant made with the tongue close to the hard palate is called **palatal**. The sound *j* in 'yes' is palatal.

4) The **alveolar ridge** is between the top front teeth and the hard palate. You can feel its shape with your tongue. Its surface is really much rougher than it feels, and is covered with little ridges. Sounds made with the tongue touching here (such as *t, d, n*) are called **alveolar**.

5) The **tongue** is a very important articulator and it can be moved into many different places and different shapes. It is usual to divide the tongue into different parts, though there are no clear dividing lines within its structure.

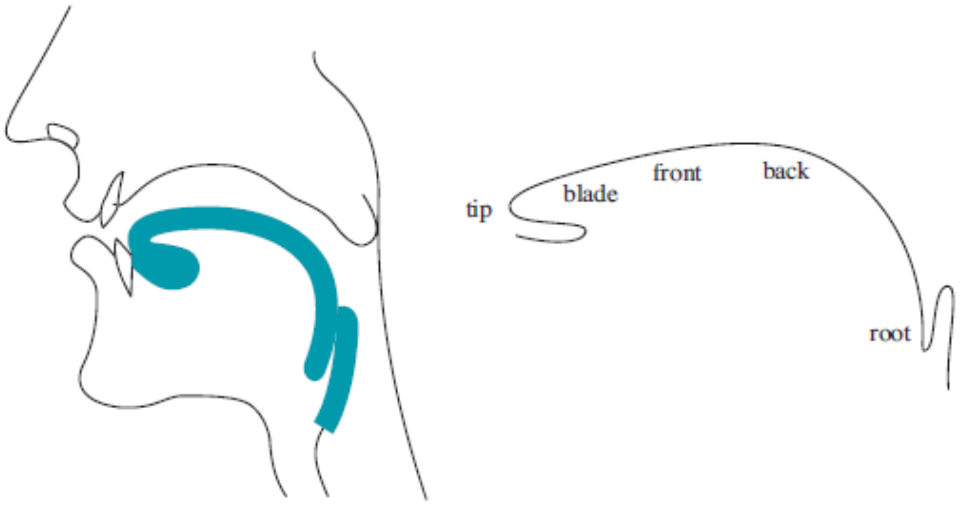


Fig. 1.2 Subdivisions of the tongue

Fig.1.2 shows the tongue on a larger scale with these parts shown: **tip**, **blade**, **front**, **back** and **root**. (This use of the word "front" often seems rather strange at first.)

6) The **teeth** (upper and lower) are usually shown in diagrams like Fig. 1 only at the front of the mouth, immediately behind the lips. This is for the sake of a simple diagram, and you should remember that most speakers have teeth to the sides of their mouths, back almost to the soft palate. The tongue is in contact with the upper side teeth for most speech sounds. Sounds made with the tongue touching the front teeth, such as English θ, d, are called **dental**.

7) The **lips** are important in speech. They can be pressed together (when we produce the sounds p, b), brought into contact with the teeth (as in f, v), or rounded to produce the lip-shape for vowels like u. Sounds in which the lips are in contact with each other are called **bilabial**, while those with lip-to-teeth contact are called **labiodental**.

The *seven articulators* described above are the main ones used in speech, but there are a few other things to remember. Firstly, the larynx could also be described as an articulator – a very complex and independent one. Secondly, the **jaws** are sometimes called articulators; certainly we move the lower jaw a lot in speaking. But the jaws are not articulators in the same way as the others because they cannot themselves make contact with other articulators. Finally, although there is practically nothing active that we can do with the **nose** and the nasal cavity when speaking, they are a very important part of our equipment for making sounds (which is sometimes called our **vocal apparatus**), particularly nasal consonants such as *m, n*.

1.2.2. Vowels, diphthongs, and consonants

V.1.1.  **Watch the video clip and answer the questions:**

1. What does each symbols represent?

_____

2. How many vowel sounds are there in English? How many monophthongs? How many diphthongs?

_____

3. How many consonants are there in English?

_____

Read the text and do the tasks below:

Study of the sounds found at the beginning and end of English words has shown that two groups of sounds with quite different patterns of distribution can be identified, and these two groups are those of vowel and consonant. If we look at the vowel – consonant distinction in this way, we must say that the most important difference between vowel and consonant is not the way that they are made, but their different distributions. It is important to remember that the distribution of vowels and consonants is different for each language.

We begin the study of English sounds in this course by looking at vowels, and it is necessary to say something about vowels in general before turning to the vowels of English. We need to know in what ways vowels differ from each other. The first matter to consider is the shape and position of the tongue. It is usual to simplify the very complex possibilities by describing just two things:

+ Firstly, the vertical distance between the upper surface of the tongue and the palate.

+ Secondly, the part of the tongue, between front and back, which is raised highest.

THE ENGLISH VOWELS

A single vowel can be represented by many different spellings and many spellings can represent a single vowel. For instance, 'b**ee**', 'm**ea**n', 'f**oe**tus' and 'l**ee**ch' all represent one sound; but 'f**a**ther', 'f**a**n', 'b**a**d' and 'f**a**te' all represent different sounds.

There are **12 vowels** in the English language which are called ***single vowels***, ***pure vowels,*** or ***monophthongs***, and out of that number **five are long vowels** and **seven are short** ones. In addition to vowels, English also has sounds called diphthongs or gliding vowels, which are combinations of two vowels. There are **eight diphthongs** in the variation of English we're studying (Standard British English). Other dialects of English may have more. English vowels are often depicted in charts such as the one below to enable people to learn about them.

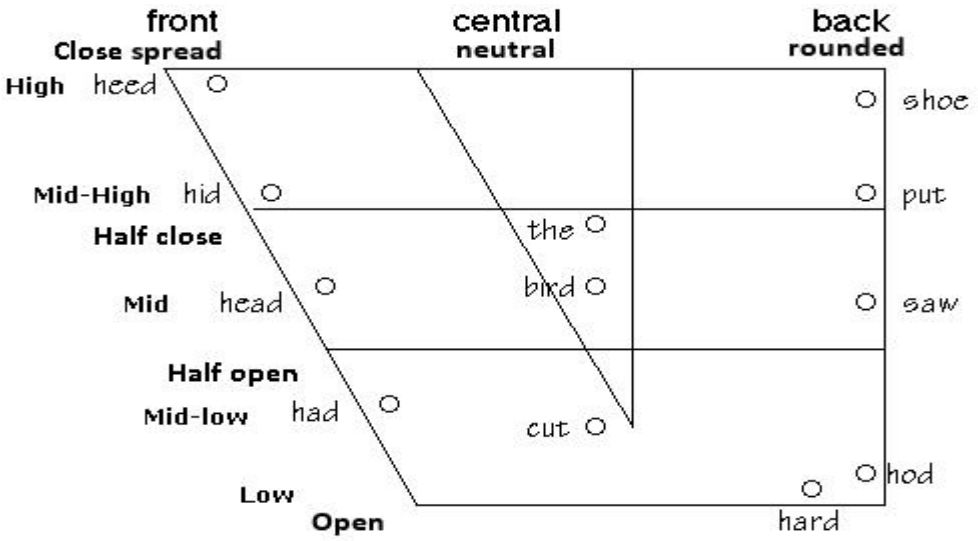


Fig. 1.3 Vowel chart

The words which are seen in the chart are examples of words that contain the different vowels of English. Those vowels are:

/e/ represented by 'head'

/æ/ represented by 'had'

/ɑː/ represented by 'hard'

/ʌ/ represented by 'cut'

/ə/ represented by 'the'

/ɜː/ represented by 'bird'

/ʊ/ represented by 'put'

/ɔː/ represented by 'saw'

/ɒ/ represented by 'hod'

/uː/ represented by 'shoe'

/iː/ represented by 'heed' and

/ɪ/ represented by 'hid'

V.1.2. Watch the video clip and repeat.

The 'ː' symbols actually indicate the **length of the vowels**. So, **/**ɑː**/**, **/**ɜː**/**, **/**ɔː**/**, **/u**ː**/** and **/i**ː**/** are **long vowels**. In other words, they are the shorter version of /ʌ/, /ə/, /ɒ/, /ʊ/ and /ɪ/

respectively. Say the words 'heed' and 'hid' and you will notice a difference in the vowel sounds. It's much easier to remember this fact by lining them up as **minimal pairs**:

Long Vowel	Short Vowel
sh**ee**p /ʃiːp/	sh**i**p /ʃɪp/
b**a**rn /bɑ ːn/	b**u**n /bʌn/
p**o**rt /pɔːt/	p**o**t /pɒt/
f**oo**l /fuːl/	f**u**ll /fʊl/
forew**o**rd /'fɔːwɜːd/	forw**a**rd /'fɔːwəd/

Table 1.1 Minimal pairs

There are so many labels on the vowel chart. Those labels merely indicate the four simple factors influencing vowels. These factors are:

1. Height of tongue in the mouth

As the heading suggests, this factor looks at ***how high*** the ***tongue*** is ***positioned inside the mouth***. There are five different heights: **high**, **mid high**, **mid**, **mid low**, and **low**.

2. Frontness or backness of the tongue

This refers to the ***active part*** of the ***tongue*** when producing specific vowels. There are three different parts of the tongue that are actively involved in the production of specific vowels, namely the ***front***, ***centre*** and ***back***.

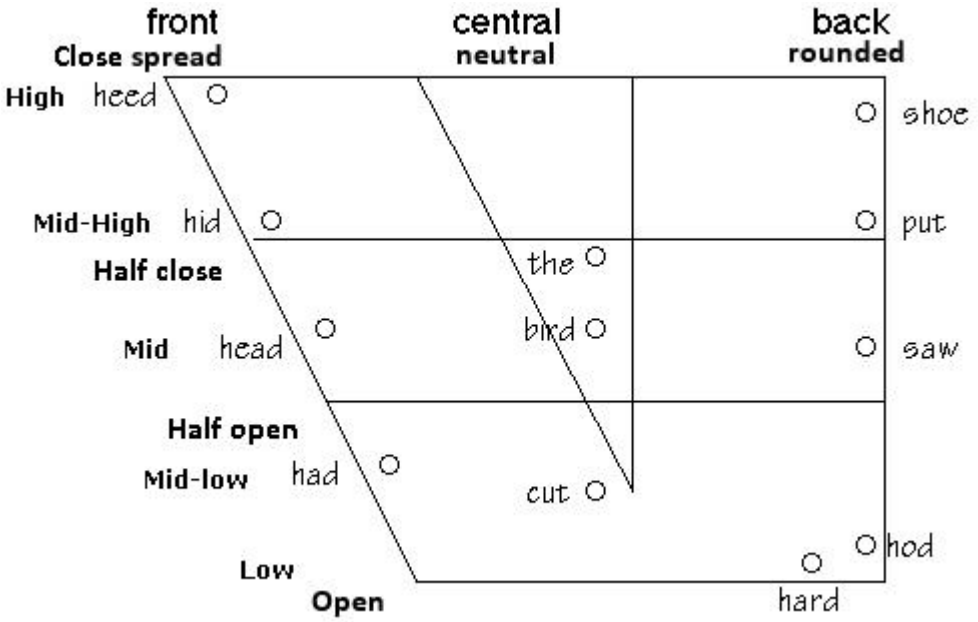
3. Position of the lips

The lips play a crucial role in the production of vowels. ***Different sounds*** are produced when the lips are ***rounded***, ***neutral*** and ***spread***.

4. Position of the jaw

The position of the jaw is just as important as the position of the lips. When the jaw is open, the vowels produced is different as when it is closed. There are four different positions of the jaw: **close**, **half close**, **half open** and **open**.

Look at the vowel chart again.



The word 'heed' contains the vowel /iː/. **/i**ː/ would be described as a **high front close vowel**. A table of the single vowel description for all 12 vowels below is shown below.

front vowel	/iː/	High front close vowel
	/ɪ/	Mid-high front half close vowel
	/e/	Mid front half close vowel
	/æ/	Mid-low front half open vowel
central vowel	/ɜː/	Mid-high central half close vowel
	/ə/	Mid central half open vowel
	/ʌ/	Mid-low central half open vowel
back vowel	/uː/	High back close vowel
	/ʊ/	Mid-high back half close vowel
	/ɔː/	Mid-low back half open vowel
	/ɒ/	Mid-low back half open vowel
	/ɑː/	Low back open vowel

Table 1.2 Single vowel description

THE ENGLISH DIPHTHONGS

As mentioned before, there are eight diphthongs in the English language. These are /eɪ/, /ɔɪ/, /ɑɪ/, /ʊe/, /eə/, /əʊ/, /ɑʊ/ and /ɪə/. Diphthongs are combinations of two vowels, and they really are. Look at the word 'boy' for instance. The sound represented by 'oy' is actually the diphthong /ɔɪ/. It starts with the /ɒ/ sound and ends with the /ɪ/ sound. The table below shows the eight diphthongs along with examples of words that contain them.

/eɪ/	they, say, bay, gay, may, hey, lay, gray
/ɔɪ/	toy, soy, joy, buoy, oil, foil, coy, boil
/aɪ/	buy, bye, shy, guy, lie, my, tie, high
/ʊə/	*poor, cure, pure, lure, *tour, *sure
/eə/	care, bear, rear, hair, dare, bare, share, mare
/əʊ/	slow, so, go, row, mow, bow(n), doe, throw
/aʊ/	bow(v), now, how, shout, mouse, gout, groutch
/ɪə/	leer, beer, hear, cheer, dear, mere, here, gear

Table 1.3 Double vowel description

V.1.3. Watch the video clip and repeat.

THE ENGLISH CONSONANTS

The 'c' in 'cat' and 'k' in ‘kite' are pronounced the same way, but spelled differently. Or how the 'ch' in 'cheese' and the one in 'cache' is pronounced differently although they're spelled the same. That's because those letters represent different consonants.

There are 24 consonants in the English language, and each consonant represents different sounds. Look at the table below to find out what are the consonants in English:

	Voicing	**Place of Articulation**							
	vl v	Bilabial	Labiodental	Dental	Alveolar	Palato-Alveolar (Post Alveolar)	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Manner of Articulation	Plosive	**p b**			**t d**			**k g**	**ʔ**
	Fricative		**f v**	**θ ð**	**s z**	**ʃ ʒ**		**ŋ**	**h**
	Affricate					**tʃ dʒ**			
	Nasal	**m**			**n**				
	Lateral				**l**				
	Approximant	**w**				**r**	**j**		

Table 1.4 Consonants in English

V.1.4.  **Watch the video clip and repeat.**

The table above shows all 24 consonants of the English language. Including the glottal top **/ʔ/**, there are 25. Glottal stops are common among Londoners - Cockney speakers in particular - and a few other communities who speak English. The Manner of Articulation, the Place of Articulation, and Voicing are described as follows:

1. Manner of Articulation

'Manner of Articulation' which can be called *'Ways of Production'* simply means the way that the consonants are produced. There are six ways to produce consonants, which are **plosive**, **fricative**, **affricate**, **nasal**, **lateral**, and **approximant**. All these will be explained as the following:

1.1. Plosive

A **plosive** is called thus due to the **small explosion of air** produced when a plosive consonant is articulated. Try placing your palm in front of your mouth and saying /p/ and /b/ consecutively. You will feel a puff of air against your palm, like a mini explosion. This happens when the air is stopped in mid-flow, causing pressure to build up in the mouth. When this pressurised air is released, it escapes forcefully through the lips in a puff of air. To memorise this manner of articulation better, remember that the word 'plosive' comes from the word 'explosive' and always do the palm test as mentioned earlier - if you feel a puff of air against your palm when you say a consonant, it's a plosive.

1.2. Fricative

A **fricative** consonant is produce by **obstructing the airstream** while it passes **through the oral cavity**. This obstruction is done using any combination of articulators whether it's the upper lip and lower teeth, the tongue and teeth, or the alveolar ridge and the tongue blade. Fricative consonants are produced when the articulators are brought so close together that the airflow is severely blocked. This means that air is forced to escape through a very narrow opening, causing turbulence.

It it easier to remember fricatives by associating it with the word **friction**. The friction caused by two articulators working together is what produces the sounds /f/, /v/, /s/, /z/, /θ/, /ð/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/ and /h/. Fricatives are characterised by the hissing sound that accompanies the production of such consonants. For instance, try saying /f/ and /v/ - you'll hear the hissing sound.

1.3. Affricate

There are only **two affricate consonants** in English: /tʃ/ and /dʒ/. ***Affricates is that an affricate is a combination of a plosive and a fricative***. Thus, affricated are sounds produced when airflow is **blocked completely** (as with plosives) and then **gradually released** (as with fricatives). For instance, /tʃ/ begins with the plosive /t/ and ends with the fricative /ʃ/. Of course the two consonants aren't to be pronounced separately or you would be hearing 'teh-sheh' instead of 'ch'. Try saying 'chair' and listen to the 'ch' sound - that's actually /tʃ/ you're hearing. The same goes for /dʒ/: it's a combination of /d/ and /ʒ/. You can hear the consonant /dʒ/ at the beginning and the end of the word 'judge'.

1.4. Nasal

If you've ever suffered the flu and had to speak while still sick, you would know what nasal sounds are like. **Nasals** are sounds produced when **air escapes only through the nasal**

cavity (nose). Air doesn't flow through the oral cavity (mouth) because the **velum is lowered**, **blocking the opening to the oral cavity**. There are only three nasal consonants in the English language: /n/, /m/ and /ŋ/. All three nasal consonants are fairly common in English.

common - /'kɒ**mən**/

in - /ɪ**n**/

English - /'ɪ**ŋ**glɪʃ/

1.5. Lateral

While there may be many lateral sounds in other languages, there is only one in the English language - the /l/ sound. Words like 'love, 'life' 'lame', 'leave' and 'lazy' all begin with a lateral consonant. Lateral literally means 'the side of something' so **laterals** are sounds produced when the **air flows** through the **sides of the tongue**. The only obstruction occurs where the tip (or blade) of the tongue touches the alveolar ridge.

1.6. Approximant

The articulators involved in producing ***approximant sounds*** approach each other closely but do not touch. Thus, **approximants** can be defined as sounds produced when **articulators approach each other** but n**ot close enough to obstruct airflow**. For example, try saying /w/, or the word 'wait'. When your lips move to produce the /w/ sound, your upper lip and lower lip move close together but they don't touch. It's the same with the consonant /j/ as in 'yet' and /r/ as in 'red'.

2. Place of Articulation

'Place of Articulation' which can be called *'Place of Production'* actually means the place where the consonants are produced. As seen from *Table 4 (p.11)*, there are eight places where consonants are produced and those are **bilabial**, **labiodental**, **dental**, **alveolar**, **palato-alveolar** (or post-alveolar), **palatal**, **velar**, and **glottal**.

2.1. Bilabial

'Labia' means 'lip' and 'bi' means 'two'. So bilabial actually refers to our two lips. **Bilabial** consonants are produced by **bringing the upper lip and lower lip together**, and these consonants include /p/ as in 'pin', /b/ as in 'ball', /w/ as in 'wet', and /m/ as in 'mix'. In all bilabial consonants, the upper lip is considered the passive articulator while the lower lip is the active. This simply means that the upper lip doesn't move (or at least not so much) but the lower lip does. It is the lower lip that approaches the upper lip when bilabials sounds are being made.

2.2. Labiodental

Labiodentals involve the lip and the teeth - specifically, the lower lip and the upper teeth. Labiodental sounds are produced when the bottom lip (which is the active articulator) is brought up towards the upper teeth (which is the passive articulator). /f/ (as in 'fan') and /v/ (as in 'van') are labiodental sounds.

2.3. Dental

In **dental** sounds, the **tongue tip** is placed **between the upper and lower teeth**. In this case, the tongue tip and the lower teeth are the active articulators while the upper teeth are the passive articulators. There are only two dental consonants in English: /θ/ as in 'think', and /ð/ as in 'that'.

2.4. Alveolar

Alveolar sounds are called thus because these sounds are produced at the alveolar ridge, which is a small bump just behind the upper teeth. **Alveolar** sounds are produced when the **tongue blade** (the active articulator) **is brought towards the alveolar ridge** (the passive articulator). However, some people may produce alveolar consonants by placing the tongue tip against the alveolar ridge, instead of the tongue blade. Both ways are acceptable. Consonants which fall into this category are /t/ as in 'tin', /d/ as in 'den', /n/ as in 'net', /s/ as in 'sun', /z/ as in 'zip' and /l/ as in 'leg'.

2.5. Post-alveolar

Post-alveolar consonants are produced by placing the **tongue blade behind the alveolar ridge, in front of the hard palate**. Hence, the word 'post' because the placement of the tongue is behind the alveolar ridge. Post-alveolar consonants include /ʃ/ which is heard in 'shoe, /ʒ/ which is heard in the middle of 'measure', /tʃ/ which is heard in front of 'church', /dʒ/ which is heard in front of 'jungle', and /r/ which is heard in front of 'red'.

2.6. Palatal

P**alatal** sounds are produced when the **tongue body is brought towards the hard palate**. The active articulator here is the tongue body while the passive articulator is the hard palate. There is only one palatal sound and that is the /j/ sound 'yet'.

2.7. Velars

Velar sounds are produced with the velum or soft palate playing the central role. A **velar** sound such a /k/ as in 'kite' is produced when the **back of the tongue is raised towards the velum**. The back of the tongue takes on the active articulator role while the velum takes on the passive articulator role. Other consonants that are classified as velar sounds are /g/ as in 'gate' and /ŋ/ as in 'sing'.

2.8. Glottal

Glottal sounds are made when air flows through the different states of the glottis. The articulators involved are the vocal cords. In the production of the /h/ consonant, the vocal cords are open but they are close enough together so that air passing between them (through the glottis) creates friction. On the other hand in the production of the /ʔ/ consonant (or the 'glottal stop'), the vocal cords close momentarily, cutting off all airflow through the glottis. As mention in the introduction, glottal stops are common among Cockney speakers. When you 'uh-oh' after something goes wrong, you are also making a glottal stop sound.

3. Voicing

Voicing actually refers to the **vibration that occurs in our vocal tract** when we produce a consonant. Certain consonants cause vibrations when they are produced while other don't. Consonants that **cause vibrations** when produced are called **voiced consonants** which are abbreviated as **v** in the table, while consonants that **don't cause vibrations** when produced are called **voiceless consonants** which are abbreviated as **vl** in the table. According to the table, the consonant **/p/** is voiceless because it is on the left corner, just as the **vl** symbol, while the consonant **/b/** is voiced because it is on the right corner, just as the **v** symbol.

1.3. Tasks:

1.3.1. Answer the following questions:

1. What are articulators?

_____

2. Look at *Fig.1.4c*. The various articulators are indicated by the numbered arrows (a-e). Give the names for the articulators.

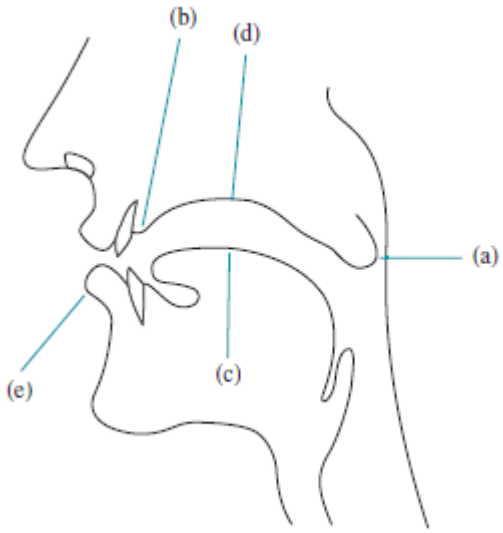


Fig. 1.4 The articulators

a	
b	
c	
d	
e	

3. What is articulatory phonetics?

_____

4. Mention all parts of articulators.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

5. How can *vowels and consonants* distinguished?

6. Give an example for a single vowel represented by many different spellings and many spellings represented by a single vowel.

7. How many vowels are there in English? Mention long vowels and short ones.

8. Describe four factors influencing vowels.

9. How many consonants are there in English? What are they?

10. Look at Table 1.4 *Consonants in English (p.12)*. Explain the Manner of Articulation, the Place of Articulation, and Voicing.

_____

_____

_____

_____

1.3.2. Write the symbols for the vowels in the following words:

a) many b) cut c) good d) find

e) geese f) cat g) when h) friend

1.3.3. Write the symbols for the consonants underlined in the following words:

wash chemist change brother

tongue picture practice measure

1.4. Self-study:

Read the text and answer the questions:

1. What is the other way to distinguish vowels and consonants?

2. Mention the classification of vowels and consonants suggested by the author Pike Smith.

Articulation: Vowels and Consonants

1. Vowels and Consonants

Phonetically, it is easy to give definitions: a vowel is any sound with no audible noise produced by constriction in the vocal tract, and consonant is a sound with audible noise produced by a constriction.

However, this definition forces us to identify as vowels many sounds which *function* as consonants in speech. For example, in the English word "yes", the initial [j] is phonetically a vowel according to the definition above. In the phonological system of English, however, the [j] is in a typical consonant position (compare "yes" with "mess", "less", "Tess" etc.). Similarly, there are sounds which are phonetically consonants which under some circumstances do act as syllable nuclei; a typical example would be the use of "syllabic [l]" in English "little" [lItl] (cf. *litter*).

2. Contoid and Vocoid

A solution to this terminological difficulty, suggested by **Pike,** is to have two different distinctions, one strictly phonetic and the other based on function, or **phonological** criteria.

For the **phonetic** distinction, Pike advocated using the words **vocoid** and **contoid**. A vocoid is defined as a "central oral resonant". It's *central* because not a lateral sound, like [l]; *oral* because air passes through the oral cavity; and *resonant* because there is no constriction, so all the sound comes from the resonances in the oral tract resulting from the vibration of the vocal cords. Everything which is not a vocoid is a contoid. Thus, [j] is a vocoid, [i] is a vocoid, [a] is a vocoid, [w] is a vocoid, but [l] is not; it is a contoid, as are [p], [b], etc.

This leaves the terms "vowel" and "consonant" available to be used as phonological terms. Generally, **vowels** are *syllabic vocoids*. Thus, of the vocoids above, [i] and [a] could be vowels, but [j] and [w] would not, as they are never syllabic. **Consonants** are *contoids* which function as syllable margins, e.g. [p], [b], and sometimes [l] (in words like "lip", "lot", but not the final segment in "little", where the [l] is **syllabic**.

This definition of vowels and consonants leaves two other possible classifications:

nonsyllabic vocoids, such as [j], [w] and [ɹ];

syllabic contoids, such as English syllabic [l] and syllabic [n], or the syllabic fricative [s] in "s'pose", or e.g. syllabic [z] in Chinese [sz] "four".

3. Classification by place and manner

Consonants and vowels are traditionally classified in two dimensions: **place** and **manner** of articulation. Place of articulation refers to the location of the narrowest part of the vocal tract in producing a sound. For example, for the consonant [b] the vocal tract is narrowest at the lips (in fact, it could not possibly any narrower here!). In vowels, the narrowest part of the vocal tract is usually in the middle of the mouth, in the region of the palate. "Manner of articulation" refers to various other things, including whether the airflow is central or lateral, oral or nasal, retroflex or non-retroflex, the phonation type, and the degree of stricture.

Place of articulation:

The International Phonetic Alphabet recognizes the following places of articulation:

Bilabial	The point of maximum constriction is made by the coming together of the two lips.
Labiodental	The lower lip articulates with the upper teeth.
Dental	The tip of the tongue articulates with the back or bottom of the top teeth.
Alveolar	The tip or the blade of the tongue articulates with the forward part of the alveolar ridge. A sound made with the tip of the tongue here is an

apico-alveolar sound; one made with the blade, a lamino-alveolar.

Postalveolar The tip or the blade of the tongue articulates with the *back* area of the alveolar ridge.

Palatal The front of the tongue articulates with the domed part of the hard palate.

Velar The back of the tongue articulates with the soft palate.

Uvular The back of the tongue articulates with the very back of the soft palate, including the uvula.

Pharyngeal The pharynx is constricted by the faucal pillars moving together (lateral compression) and, possibly, by the larynx being raised. "It is largely a sphincteric semi-closure of the oro-pharynx, and it can be learned by tickling the back of the throat, provoking retching" (Catford 1978:163).

Glottal The vocal folds are brought together; in some cases, the function of the vocal folds can be part of articulation as well as phonation, as in the case of [ʔ] and [h] in many languages.

The possible places of articulation form a continuum along the upper surface of the vocal tract; therefore the places listed above should be seen as arbritary (but conventional) divisions which can be modified if necessary through the use of additional categories, e.g., "interdental", "alveolo-palatal" or "prevelar". English exemplifies several places of articulation: bilabial [p], [b] and [m]; labiodental [f], [v] and [ɱ] (the "m" in "triumph" is labiodental, in harmony with the following [f] sound); dental [θ̪] and [ð]; alveolar [t], [d], [n], [s], [z], [ɹ], [l]; postalveolar [ʃ]; palatal [j]; and velar [k], [ɡ] and [ŋ]. **Uvular** place of articulation is illustrated by the formal pronunciation of "r" in French or German (a uvular trill [R], or, often, a voiced fricative), as heard, for example, in classical singing. **Pharyngeal** place of articulation will probably take considerably more practise for you to perfect, partly because until you can produce and identify the other fricatives formed in the back of the mouth (i.e. [x], [ɣ], [χ], [h] and [ɦ]), you will not be confident that you are *not* forming any of these when you are attempting to produce pharyngeal friction. Friction in the pharynx is created by drawing the root of the tongue backwards, almost as if being strangled, though not quite as extreme. Once you can control the distinction between velar, uvular and glottal friction, the ability to regulate pharyngeal friction will develop with practise.

Stricture

"Degree of stricture" means how narrow the gap is between the active articulator and the passive articulator at the narrowest point in the vocal tract. We shall distinguish three degrees of constriction: i) complete closure, ii) close approximation, iii) open approximation. "Complete closure" is self-explanatory. "Close approximation" means "so close together that it causes audible friction". "Open approximation" means that the oral tract is somewhat more open than in