INTRODUCTION TO ENGLISH PHONETICS pdf

1: Phonetics - Wikipedia

Introduction to phonetics Phonetics is the branch of linguistics that examines sounds in a language. Phonetics describes these sounds using the symbols of the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA).

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2: Introduction to phonetics - Lawless English

Introduction to English Phonetics and Phonology aims to help learners speak the language accurately with the right pronunciation, word and sentence stress and intonation. The book is designed for use in courses on English language and linguistics at the university level.

History[edit] The first known phonetic studies were carried out as early as the 6th century BCE by Sanskrit grammarians. The phonetic principles in the grammar are considered "primitives" in that they are the basis for his theoretical analysis rather than the objects of theoretical analysis themselves, and the principles can be inferred from his system of phonology. Sustained interest in phonetics began again around CE with the term "phonetics" being first used in the present sense in This early period of modern phonetics included the development of an influential phonetic alphabet based on articulatory positions by Alexander Melville Bell. Known as visible speech , it gained prominency as a tool in the oral education of deaf children. The respiratory organs used to create and modify airflow are divided into three regions: The airstream can be either egressive out of the vocal tract or ingressive into the vocal tract. In pulmonic sounds, the airstream is produced by the lungs in the subglottal system and passes through the larynx and vocal tract. Glottalic sounds use an airstream created by movements of the larynx without airflow from the lungs. Clicks or lingual ingressive sounds create an airstream using the tongue. Place of articulation Passive and active places of articulation: Articulations take place in particular parts of the mouth. They are described by the part of the mouth that constricts airflow and by what part of the mouth that constriction occurs. In most languages constrictions are made with the lips and tongue. Constrictions made by the lips are called labials. The tongue can make constrictions with many different parts, broadly classified into coronal and dorsal places of articulation. Coronal articulations are made with either the tip or blade of the tongue, while dorsal articulations are made with the back of the tongue. Additionally, that difference in place can result in a difference of meaning like in "sack" and "shack". To account for this, articulations are further divided based upon the area of the mouth in which the constriction occurs. Labial consonants Articulations involving the lips can be made in three different ways: Ladefoged and Maddieson propose that linguolabial articulations be considered coronals rather than labials, but make clear this grouping, like all groupings of articulations, is equivocable and not cleanly divided. Bilabial consonants are made with both lips. In producing these sounds the lower lip moves farthest to meet the upper lip, which also moves down slightly, [11] though in some cases the force from air moving through the aperature opening between the lips may cause the lips to separate faster than they can come together. Bilabial stops are also unusual in that an articulator in the upper section of the vocal tract actively moves downwards, as the upper lip shows some active downward movement. Labiodental consonants are most often fricatives while labiodental nasals are also typologically common. Unlike plosives and affricates, labiodental nasals are common across languages. Like in bilabial articulations, the upper lip moves slightly towards the more active articulator. Articulations in this group do not have their own symbols in the International Phonetic Alphabet, rather, they are formed by combining an apical symbol with a diacritic implicitly placing them in the coronal category. The name "linguolabial" was suggested by Floyd Lounsbury given that they are produced with the blade rather than the tip of the tongue. Coronal consonants Coronal consonants are made with the tip or blade of the tongue and, because of the agility of the front of the tongue, represent a variety not only in place but in the posture of the tongue. The coronal places of articulation represent the areas of the mouth the tongue contacts or makes a constriction, and include dental, alveolar, and post-alveolar locations. Tongue postures using the tip of the tongue can be apical if using the top of the tongue tip, laminal if made with the blade of the tongue, or sub-apical if the tongue tip is curled back and the bottom of the tongue is used. Coronals are unique as a group in that every manner of articulation is attested. They are divided into two groups based upon the part of the tongue used to produce them: No language is known to use both contrastively though they may exist allophonically. Alveolar consonants are made with the tip or blade of the tongue at the alveolar ridge just behind the teeth and can similarly be apical or laminal. The different places of articulation tend to also be contrasted in the part of the tongue used to produce them: In this way, retroflex articulations can occur in a

number of different locations on the roof of the mouth including alveolar, post-alveolar, and palatal regions. If the underside of the tongue tip makes contact with the roof of the mouth, it is sub-apical though apical post-alveolar sounds are also described as retroflex. Dorsal consonants Dorsal consonants are those consonants made using the tongue body rather than the tip or blade. Palatal consonants are made using the tongue body against the hard palate on the roof of the mouth. They are frequently contrasted with velar or uvular consonants, though it is rare for a language to contrast all three simultaneously, with Jaqaru as a possible example of a three way contrast. They are incredibly common crosslinguistically; almost all languages have a velar stop. Because both velars and vowels are made using the tongue body, they are highly affected by coarticulation with vowels and can be produced as far forward as the hard palate or as far back as the uvula. These variations are typically divided into front, central, and back velars in parallel with the vowel space. They are rare, occurring in an estimated 19 percent of languages, and large regions of the Americas and Africa have no languages with uvular consonants. In languages with uvular consonants, stops are most frequent followed by continuants including nasals. Larynx The larynx, commonly known as the "voice box" is a cartilaginous structure in the trachea responsible for phonation. The vocal folds chords are held together so that they vibrate, or held apart so that they do not. The positions of the vocal folds are achieved by movement of the arytenoid cartilages. Even if the vocal folds are in the correct position, there must be air flowing across them or they will not vibrate. The difference in pressure across the glottis required for voicing is estimated at 1 â€" 2 cm H20 The subglottal pressure is maintained by the respiratory muscles. Supraglottal pressure, with no constrictions or articulations, is about atmospheric pressure. However, because articulations especially consonants represent constrictions of the airflow, the pressure in the cavity behind those constrictions can increase resulting in a higher supraglottal pressure. Breathing The lungs are the engine that drives nearly all speech production, and their importance in phonetics is due to their creation of pressure for pulmonic sounds. The most common kinds of sound across languages are pulmonic egress, where air is exhaled from the lungs. The lungs are used to maintain two kinds of pressure simultaneously in order to produce and modify phonation. In order to produce phonation at all, the lungs must maintain a pressure of 3â€"5 cm H20 higher than the pressure above the glottis. However small and fast adjustments are made to the subglottal pressure to modify speech for suprasegmental features like stress. A number of thoracic muscles are used to make these adjustments. Because the lungs and thorax stretch during inhalation, the elastic forces of the lungs alone are able to produce pressure differentials sufficient for phonation at lung volumes above 50 percent of vital capacity. Below that volume, they are used to increase the subglottal pressure by actively exhaling air. During speech the respiratory cycle is modified to accommodate both linguistic and biological needs. Exhalation, usually about 60 percent of the respiratory cycle at rest, is increased to about 90 percent of the respiratory cycle. Because metabolic needs are relatively stable, the total volume of air moved in most cases of speech remains about the same as quiet tidal breathing. Because their respiritory systems are not as developed as adults, children tend to use a larger proportion of their vital capacity compared to adults, with more deep inhales. Muscles inside the larynx make adjustments to the vocal folds in order to produce and modify vibration patterns for different sounds. Two canonical examples are modal voiced, where the vocal folds vibrate, and voiceless, where they do not. Modal voiced and voiceless consonants are incredibly common across languages, and all languages use both phonation types to some degree. Consonants can be either voiced or voiceless, though some languages do not make distinctions between them for certain consonants. Other positions of the glottis, such as breathy and creaky voice, are used in a number of languages, like Jalapa Mazatec , to contrast phonemes while in other languages, like English, they exist allophonically. Phonation types are modelled on a continuum of glottal states from completely open voiceless to completely closed glottal stop. The optimal position for vibration, and the phonation type most used in speech, modal voice, exists in the middle of these two extremes. If the glottis is slightly wider, breathy voice occurs, while bringing the vocal folds closer together results in creaky voice. More precise measurements can be obtained through acoustic analysis of a spectrogram or spectral slice. In spectrographic analysis, voiced segments show a voicing bar, a region of high acoustic energy, in the low frequencies of voiced segments. A computational model of the unfiltered glottal signal is then fitted to the inverse filtered acoustic signal to determine the

characteristics of the glottis. The vocal folds vibrate as a single unit periodically and efficiently with a full glottal closure and no aspiration. If they are held firmly together they produce a glottal stop. The tension across the vocal ligaments vocal cords is less than in modal voicing allowing for air to flow more freely. Both breathy voice and whispery voice exist on a continuum loosely characterized as going from the more periodic waveform of breathy voice to the more noisy waveform of whispery voice. Acoustically, both tend to dampen the first formant with whispery voice being more extreme deviations. The tension in across the vocal folds is less than in modal voice, but they are held tightly together resulting in only the ligaments of the vocal folds vibrating. Some models of speech production take this as the basis for modeling articulation in a coordinate system which may be internal to the body intrinsic or external extrinsic. Intrinsic coordinate systems model the movement of articulators as positions and angles of joints in the body. Intrinsic coordinate models of the jaw often use two to three degrees of freedom representing translation and rotation. These face issues with modeling the tongue which, unlike joints of the jaw and arms, is a muscular hydrostat like an elephant trunk that lacks joints. The arm, for example, has seven degrees of freedom and 22 muscles, so multiple different joint and muscle configurations can lead to the same final position. For models of planning in extrinsic acoustic space, the same one-to-many mapping problem applies as well, with no unique mapping from physical or acoustic targets to the muscle movements required to achieve them. Concerns about the inverse problem may be exagerated, however, as speech is a highly learned skill using neurological structures which evolved for the purpose. By using springs, the equilibrium point model is able to easily account for compensation and response when movements are disrupted. They are considered a coordinate model because they assume that these muscle positions are represented as points in space, equilibrium points, where the spring-like action of the muscles converges. The minimal unit is a gesture which represents a group of "functionally equivalent articulatory movement patterns that are actively controlled with reference to a given speech-relevant goal e. Coarticulation is well described by gestural models as the articulations at faster speech rates can be explained as composites of the independent gestures at slower speech rates. The position, shape, and movement of articulators or speech organs , such as the lips, tongue, and vocal folds. Auditory phonetics is concerned with speech perception: Phonetic insight is used in a number of applied linguistic fields such as: Relation to phonology[edit] In contrast to phonetics, phonology is the study of how sounds and gestures pattern in and across languages, relating such concerns with other levels and aspects of language.

3: Introduction to English Phonetics - Richard Ogden - Google Books

An introduction to the phonetic description of spoken English. The second edition of this distinguished textbook introduces undergraduates to the concepts, terminology and representations needed for an understanding of how English is pronounced around the world.

4: BBC Learning English - Pronunciation / Introduction to The Sounds of English

This video is an introduction to Phonetics. We explain why and how it can be helpful for people learning English. English is an international language spoken and studied by hundreds of millions of.

5: An Introduction to English Phonetics - Richard Ogden - Google Books

Introduction to Phonetics: Pronunciation is Physical. The key to good pronunciation is to understand that making the sounds of speech is a physical thing. If you are not accustomed to speaking English it won't feel natural for you to use your mouth and your tongue in the way that you need to.

6: Introduction to Phonetics - English Language Club

Introductory chapters cover the basic phonetic framework, while later chapters discuss groups of sounds in more detail.

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The book takes an open-minded approach to what sounds of English might be significant for making meaning, and highlights the significance of word meaning, morphology, sociolinguistics and conversational interaction in phonetic.

7: [Introduction To Linguistics] (Old) Phonetics And Basics Of Transcription - E MÃ¼zik

â€¢ Phonetics is the study of speech sounds â€¢ We are able to segment a continuous stream of speech into distinct parts and recognize the parts in other words.

8: An Introduction to Phonetics and Phonology

PHONETICS AND PHONOLOGY An Introduction to Phonetics and Phonology. Version (August,) Robert Mannell, Felicity Cox and Jonathan Harrington.

9: English Phonetics and Phonology: An Introduction - Ebook pdf and epub

Description The second edition of the popular English Phonetics and Phonology textbook has been extensively updated and expanded to offer greater flexibility for teachers and increased support for non-native speakers studying the sound systems of English.

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